PERCEPTIONS OF SELECTED LIBYAN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS REGARDING TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN LIBYA

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Dr. Amy Lannin, Chair

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Dr. Matthew Gordon

DEDICATION

To my main reason of being in this world, my dear MOM and my late DAD . . .

To my partner in life, my beloved WIFE . . .

To my vision to the future, my KIDS . . .

To the soul of my late nephew, MOHAMED . . .

To my great adviser, Dr. AMY LANNIN . . .

To my helpful co-adviser, Dr. ROY FOX . . .

To my committee, Dr. MATTHEW GORDON and Dr. CAROL GILLES . . .

To the dean of College of Education, Dr. JOHN LANNIN . . .

To my family in Libya . . .

To my close friends in the United States, DAVID, LANCE, DENNIS . . .

To my colleagues in English Education Department.

I humbly dedicate this work.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EFL: English as a foreign language

ESL: English as a second language

ELF: English as a lingua franca

L1: First language

L2: Second language

LF: Lingua franca

ELLs: English language learners

FLA: First language acquisition

SLA: Second language acquisition

GTM: Grammar translation method

ALM: Audio-lingual method

DM: Direct method

CLTA: Communicative language teaching approach

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ABSTRACT

Based on studies and research about teaching and learning English in Libya, teaching English in Libya has been unsatisfactory. I conducted a study to investigate the difficulties that Libyan teachers of English encounter while teaching English in Libya. The study showed that teaching and learning English in Libya is still unsatisfactory, and teachers encounter challenges in teaching English in Libyan schools. To fulfil the target of this study, I interviewed 20 Libyan teachers of English, who were doing their grad studies in the United States. I used the qualitative method to obtain findings based on my analyzing the participants' interviews. The data analysis shows that Libyan teachers of English are not well-trained or well-qualified to teach English. Also, the use of traditional methods of teaching English, such as Grammar Translation Method, Audio-Lingual Method, and Direct Method were factors that led to failure in learning of English in Libya. The result of using such methods is that Libyan students and teachers know about English, but they lack the use of English in communicative situations with native English speakers.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Rationale

"*We know about English, but we don't know how to use English in communicative situations*." I used to hear this sentence in Arabic from my students along my 14-year experience of teaching English in Libya. This repeated sentence has always hit my mind and let me think of the reason of unsatisfactory learning of English in Libyan schools even after students spend ten years studying English in school. Since I was a teacher of English in Libya, I desired to investigate the factors that have been leading to the unsatisfactory situation of learning English in Libya. A few studies and research investigate about learning English in Libya and confirm that learning English in Libya is unsuccessful. These studies attribute this failure to a group of factors. Therefore, in this current study I am investigating these factors and of teaching English in Libya.

Why Study Methods of Teaching?

As a teacher of English in high school, university, and English language centers in Libya for more than 14 years (from September 1993 until December 2007), I encountered many difficulties in encouraging Libyan students to use English in communicative situations. I became familiar with hearing Libyan students say, "We know a lot about English, but we are unable to use English in reality," "The English we learn in the classroom is different from the English we hear in the radio or on TV," and many other complaints, which showed Libyan students' dissatisfaction and frustration to use English communicatively. As a result, it appears that Libyan students

find difficulties in understanding native English speakers or producing simple sentences in English.

I visualize the situation of teaching and learning English in Libya as unsatisfactory because most Libyan students mimic their teachers or memorize ready-made sentences. In fact, I do not blame Libyan students for not being able to use English in functional situations. I see that there is something missing in the process of learning and teaching English in Libya. That thing – at least from my point of view at the time being–most probably is related to methods of teaching: "The difficulties in learning English are not related to English as a language. Rather, they are related to the methods used in teaching and learning English" (Omar, 2012a, p. 2).

Why Study English in the Globalized World?

As a doctoral student, studying English in the United States, I know what it means to learn English in this global world. The world now is becoming a global village. The Internet makes it much easier than any time before to be in contact in a few seconds with people from various countries with different cultures and diverse languages. English is used among people who speak different languages as a bridge to contact with one another.

English is used as a lingua franca in the world today because it connects people from different cultures who speak various languages. English is now working as a bridge to make the whole world a small village (Ha, 2008, p. 72). The Internet and technology help in the spread of English to be an international language. According to Tomlinson (2006) "many people feel that the only realistic chance of breaking the

foreign language barrier is to use a natural language as a world lingua franca. Today, English is the main contender for the position of the world lingua franca" (p. 130).

Theoretical Background

I am presenting a theoretical background about the theme of the study. I am presenting a brief literature review, so that readers will be familiar with the theme of the dissertation.

Importance of Learning English in the Globalized World

English is the most common language used in the world. Chinese people use English to access scientific periodicals and journals, gain technological information, and contact with people in English-speaking countries to be aware of new knowledge. Learning English in China helps Chinese improve their economic advancement and be an effective part in this global village (Cheng, 2011, p. 134). The importance of learning English in China is shown in a 12-year Chinese boy's comment (as cited in Nihalani, 2010) "If you can't speak English, it's like you're deaf and dumb" (p. 24).

The former South Korean President Kim Dae Jung (as cited in Nihalani, 2010) said to his people, "We will not win in world competition unless South Korea masters the lingua franca of the Internet age. Learn English or face being left behind" (p. 24). Yano (2001) asserts the importance of using English for Japanese to communicate with non-Japanese people in several international situations (p. 127). Nihalani (2010) believes that learning English in Japan is a must if Japanese are looking for a bright future (p. 24).

Hsieh (as cited in Chen & Hsieh, 2011) describes learning English in Taiwan as "passport to the world." Taiwanese consider English not as a subject taught in school, but as the lingua franca in this current global village. Therefore, over than 50% of Taiwanese are learning English nowadays to get good jobs (pp. 85-86). The president of Taiwan wished to make English as a second language in the country. The prime minster pledged to make English as the second language in Taiwan. The minister of education assured that he would be responsible to make plans for using English as an official language in the country (Honna, 2006, p. 126).

English is used as a criterion for getting good jobs inside and outside Vietnam. The Vietnamese government conditions that employees be good users of English in order to send them as laborers overseas. In addition to the need of knowing English to work abroad, English provides Vietnamese good opportunities to get prestigious positions in domestic jobs (Hang, 2009, pp. 177-178).

Learning English in Macao becomes a real must and a main requirement to get a good position in the job market (Young, 2011, p. 127). English replaced Russian as a foreign language in 1990s in school in Mongolia (Ostler, 2010, p. 15). Learning English begins in 1st grade in private school, 3rd grade in university demonstration school, and 5th grade in public school in Thailand. English replaced Dutch and now is taught as a foreign language from 5th grade in Indonesia (Bautista & Gonzalez, 2006, pp. 137-138).

English is taught in the kindergarten and preschool with other class subjects in Hong Kong and considered an essential part in school curriculum (Lee, 2005, p. 38).

English is a sign of education in Pakistan, where families encourage their kids not only to learn English, but also to use it in school and at home (Shamim, 2007 p. 84).

Though English is used as an official language with another three languages in Singapore, almost all Singaporeans see English as the most important one. For that reason, English is used as the only medium of instruction in Singaporean schools (Goh & Luan, 2003, p. 57). English replaced French in the beginning of 1960s and began to be the most significant foreign language used in Iran (Sharifian, 2010, p. 138).

In Europe, the situation is the same as that in Asia regarding using English as a lingua franca. Europeans use English because it opens doors to get good jobs and improve their social and economic situations (Cenoz, 2011, p. 15) and people can get engaged in the globalized world through the use of English (Kohn, 2011, p. 71). If each European country used its own language, there would be limited communication among Europeans. Thus, the European Union decided that English be the only language used in all its meetings (Nortier, 2011, p. 127).

English is the most important language used in all aspects of life in Turkey, where Turkish government use English in business, politics, and education. English is used as the official foreign language and as a medium of instruction in almost all levels of education in Turkish public schools and universities. Most Turkish schools and universities use English as the only foreign language, yet a small number of Turkish schools offer French and German as elective foreign languages (Kirkgoz, 2005, p. 159).

English is a requirement for those who are after high-ranking professions or gain high knowledge in Greece (Gass & Reed, 2011, p. 32). It is an obligation for all students to study English in some stages in their school in Germany, where English is seen as the most important language in this era (Gnutzmann, 2005, p. 27). English is an important language in Hungary, a country that forbid teaching or learning English in 1980s (Medgyes, 2005, p. 56). The same situation is taking place in Bulgaria, where English is now the most important language used (Georgieva, 2010, p. 131).

English is used as the only medium of instruction in higher education in all university departments in Netherlands (Nortier, 2011, p. 115). Parents encourage their children to acquire English in early stages in the Basque County. Being good users of English opens the doors for their children not only to get good jobs, but also to access knowledge through interacting with other people from different countries and using the Internet (Cenoz, 2011, p. 17).

In some African regions, there is a focus on learning and teaching English in school. Some African countries use English as first language and others as second language. For example, many parents in Nigeria enroll their children in international schools, where English is the only medium of instruction (McKay, 2006, p. 118). English is the vehicle for obtaining good jobs and the medium for education in Sudan, and it is so difficult for those who are poor users of English to get good jobs (Dardig, 2007, p. 103).

English is the language of success, prestige, and power in Mauritius. It is the language for gaining high education and high social prestige (Mahadeo, 1999, para. 1).

English is used as the official language in Namibia since her independence in 1990 though Namibians use German and African dialects as national languages (Putz, 2004, p. 71). The same situation of using English as an official language is in Botswana, a small country in south Africa, since her independence in 1966 (Batibo, 2004, p. 55).

English is the only official language used and the language of instruction in education in Ghana, where English is the language used in journalism, national and international affairs, and government. Though there are from 40 to 60 local languages used in Ghana, English is the official language and the language used as the medium of instruction from primary school until graduation (Anderson, 2007, pp. 21-22).

English is taught and learned as the only foreign language in schools and universities in Saudi Arabia (Al-Seghayer, 2005, p. 126). Public schools in Lebanon start teaching English from the 1st grade, and private schools start teaching English in preschool. English is used as the only medium of instruction in mathematics and science beyond the 6th grade. English and Arabic are taught side by side; that is, the number of hours of teaching Arabic is similar to the number of hours of teaching English (Shaaban, 2005, p. 107).

The situation is similar in South America. Brazilians encourage their children to learn English in order to get good jobs after graduation (K. Rajagopalan & C. Rajagopalan, 2005, p. 3). Since 1990s English has become an important key of success in high education in Columbia in South America. Columbian universities provide scholarships to study abroad for those who use English perfectly. In 2005, Columbian public universities required their students to pass reading and communicative skills in

English in order to get admission. Columbian universities require the ability of using English communicatively for professors to be hired or appointed in these universities (Gonzalez, 2010, p. 339).

As English is used as the lingua franca in Asia, Europe, South America, North America, and Africa, Libya should be no exception. Libyans need to communicate with others through an international language. It is true that Italian is easy to acquire, and it is used in some countries, but Italian is neither the lingua franca nor the language of technology in this era.

Methods of Language Teaching

As methods of teaching is a core topic in this dissertation, I will give brief information about methods of teaching English as techniques. In Chapter Two, I discuss the most common methods used in Libya–Grammar Translation Method, Direct Method, and Audio-Lingual Method, as well as, I discuss Communicative Language Teaching Approach as the most appropriate method of teaching to be used in Libya. Appendix A briefly presents selected methods, approaches, and models.

Studies and research show that no method of teaching can work effectively in all settings. A method that confirms to be successful in one setting might not be so in another. For a method to work effectively, it should involve other factors, such as task, students, and teacher (Gebhard, 1996, p. 5). According to Prabhu (1990), a method is “a set of activities to be carried out in the classroom, and to the theory, belief, or plausible concept that informs those activities” (p. 162). This definition indicates that

to work effectively, a method should combine techniques and approaches and a teacher should have the sense of plausibility.

The concept "method" is incomplete in the field of language teaching because teaching of language cannot be conceptualized only in terms of the method used (Stern, 1983, p. 474). Therefore, Anthony (as cited in Liu, 2007) conceptualized three hierarchically-order levels as: approach, method, and technique. Anthony positions an approach as the highest level of thinking, which is concerned with nature of language and language learning and teaching principles. He positions technique, which is concerned with the materials teachers use in teaching, in the lowest level. A method, according to him, is "an overall plan harmonized with an approach and directs the orderly presentation of teaching materials" (p. 14).

Based on the above hierarchical order, each method depends on an approach and the availability of good materials, which are techniques, to be effective in teaching. Richards and Rodgers (1986), who use the terms "design" and "procedure" for the term "technique," disagree with Anthony in seeing the approach as the highest level of the conceptualization. They see that a method is the highest level of conceptualization. For them, an approach is "theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the source of practices and principles in language teaching" (p. 20).

A design, which associates an approach with a method, operates in a way that fulfills the way in which the materials are selected and organized to work effectively within the selected method. A design, also, selects the learning tasks and the teaching

activities that enhance and facilitate the work of the selected method. Moreover, a design determines the roles of a teacher, students, and instructional materials in the method of teaching selected (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 24).

A procedure is a technique for the behaviors and practices a teacher uses in teaching according to the method used (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 31). Based on this order, a method is a plan a teacher uses to arrange the curricula, to design the educational materials, and to lead the classroom instructions. In other words, a method is a pattern that shows teachers what and how to teach.

The diagram below shows the hierarchically-order levels of theory of language teaching:

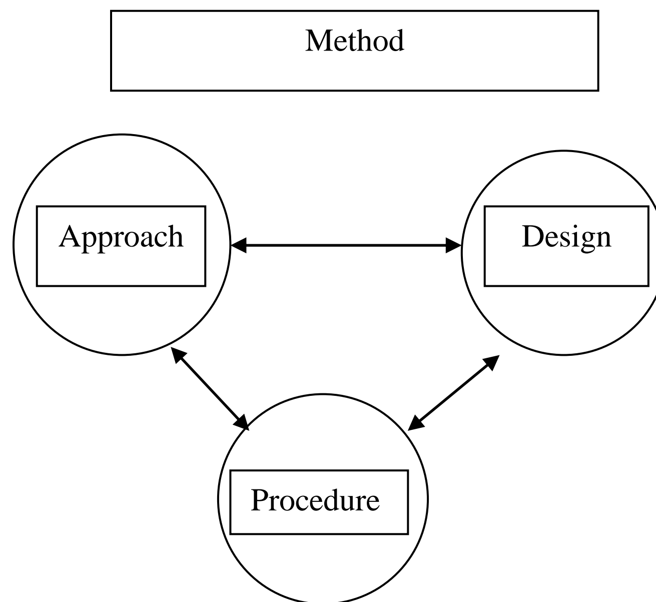

Figure 1 Relationship among Method, Approach, Design, and Procedure (Richards & Rodgers, 1985, p. 17)

The discussion above shows that a method is any teaching technique a teacher uses in teaching the language. The word "method" is appropriate to include all

techniques used in language teaching, which might be "method" as in Grammar Translation Method, Direct Method, or Audio-Lingual Method; "approach" as in Natural Approach, Eclectic Approach, or Communicative Language Teaching Approach; or "model" as Total Physical Responses, The Silent Way, Community Language Learning, or Suggestopedia. (Appendix A and Chapter Two provide brief information about these techniques).

Principles of Language Teaching

Teaching requires several principles (shown in Figure 2 below). According to Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill, & Pincas (1978), teachers should use these basic principles, no matter whether they teach English as a foreign language in high school in Senegal or in college students in Japan (p. 37).

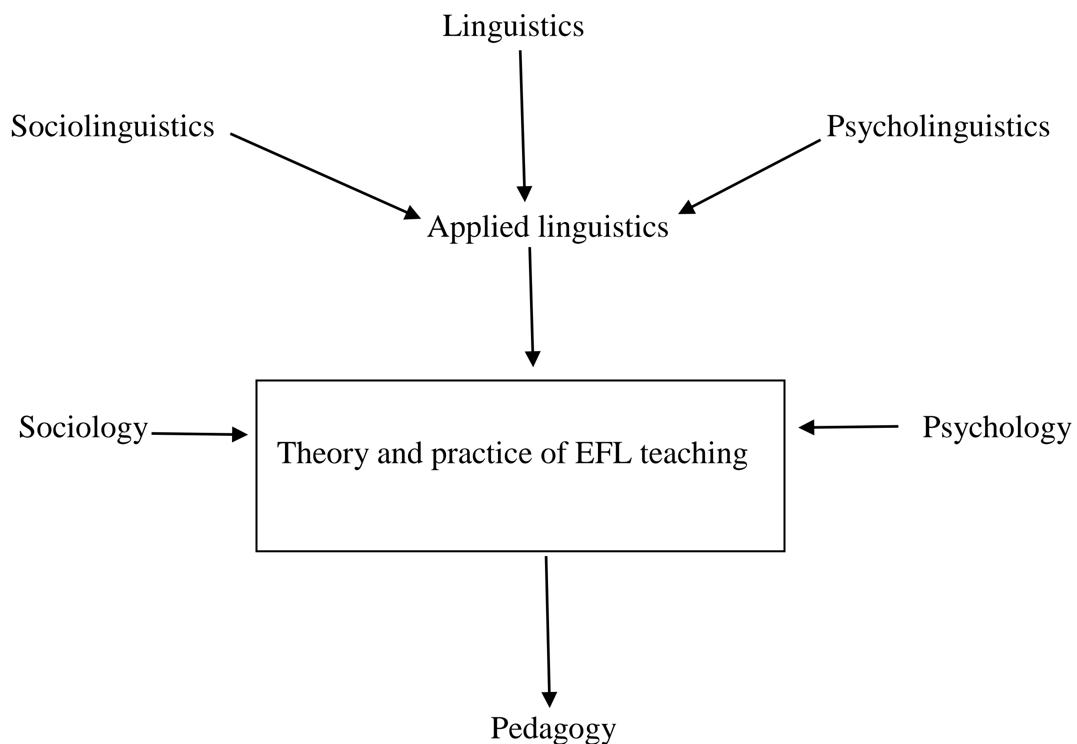

Figure 2 Basic Principles of Language Teaching (Broughton et al., 1978, p. 38).

The figure above shows that the merger of linguistics–"a discipline which describes language in all its aspects and formulates theories as to how it works" (Aitchison, 2003, p. 13)–and sociology– "the study of society" (Chomsky, 1998, p. 56)–constitutes what is known as "sociolinguistics." According to the definitions of linguistics and sociology, sociolinguistics is the study of language and society. Rowe & Levine (2006) define sociolinguistics as "the study of how language and social factors, such as ethnicity, social class, age, gender, and educational level, are related" (p. 189).

The merger of linguistics and psychology–"the study of the acquisition or utilization of language" (Chomsky, 1998, p. 43)–constitutes what is known "psycholinguistics." Chomsky (1998) believes that linguistics is a part of cognitive psychology (p. 43), which means that we can isolate language as a system from psychology as mental processes. About the relationship between language and psychology, Chomsky (1998) said, "This distinction does not seem to me to make much sense. No discipline can concern itself in a productive way with the acquisition or utilization of a form of knowledge, without being concerned with the nature of that system of knowledge" (p. 43). Chomsky was associating learning or acquiring a language with his theory of universal grammar, in which he believes that acquiring a language is innate.

Chomsky's thought about the relationship between language and psychology contradicts Andrews' (1993) and Aitchison's (2003) views. Andrews (1993) defines psycholinguistics as "the study of language in relation to the mental processes used as people understand, acquire and produce it" (p. 8). Aitchison (2003) defines

psycholinguistics as “the study of language and the mind. It explores what goes on in the human mind as an individual acquires, comprehends, produces and stores language” (p. 132). According to Weaver (1996), many educators understand the process of learning differently through cognitive psychology (p. 153).

The merger of linguistics with sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics constitutes what is known “applied linguistics”–“a branch of linguistics where the primary concern is the application of linguistic theories, methods and findings to the elucidation of language problems which have arisen in other areas of experience” (Crystal, 2001, p. 23). The merger of applied linguistics with pedagogy–“a highly complex blend of theoretical understanding and practical skill” (Lovat, 2003, p. 11) provides teachers with theories and practice of EFL teaching.

Wardhaugh believes that linguistics, psychology, and pedagogy work collaboratively to attain the function of language teaching. Teachers use linguistics to acquire facts and theories about languages. They use psychology to identify how language learning works. They use pedagogy to use knowledge (linguistics) and practice (psychology) to teach effectively and students learn language (Robinett, 1978, p. 160). The table below shows the principles for successful language teaching instruction:

Principal	**Language Teaching Instruction**
Principle 1	Instruction needs to ensure that learners develop both a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions and a rule-based competence.
Principle 2	Instruction needs to ensure that learners focus predominantly on meaning.

Principle 3	Instruction needs to ensure that learners also focus on form.
Principle 4	Instruction needs to be predominantly directed at developing implicit knowledge of the L2 while not neglecting explicit knowledge.
Principle 5	Instruction needs to take into account learners' built-in syllabus.
Principle 6	Successful instructed language learning requires extensive L2 input.
Principle 7	Successful instructed language learning also requires opportunities for output.
Principle 8	The opportunity to interact in the L2 is central to developing L2 proficiency.
Principle 9	Instruction needs to take account of individual differences in learners: (a) teachers need to cater to students' different learning styles. (b) teachers are responsible for students' intrinsic motivation.
Principle 10	In assessing learners' L2 proficiency, it is important to examine free as well as controlled production.

Table 1 Principles for Successful Language Teaching Instruction (Howard & Millar, 2009, pp. 35-36)

Second Language Learning

Krashen's studies (1985) show that second language learning in school is based on memorizing vocabulary, grammatical rules, and ready-made sentences and structures, and translating from one language into another, which lead to learning about language, not about using language in reality. Sue and Padilla (1989) raise the problem of learning English as a second language in public schools in the United States, where almost all non-native English speakers suffer while learning English (pp. 35-36).

Second language learning, according to Andrews (1993), is “a continuous process that certainly isn’t completed by the age of five or six; the language of adolescents and young adults is still developing” (p. 7). Second language learning requires students to have quite good knowledge about grammar of the second language (Levine & McCloskey, 2009, p. 8). In such a case, second language learning is similar to first language acquisition. Native speakers become aware of how words are formed, how words are pronounced, and how the whole system of language is formed and used when they have good knowledge about grammar.

The main difference, I see between the two processes, is that students in second language learning acquire the grammar of the language consciously inside the classroom through the use of materials, such as textbooks, visual aids, and the like. In contrast, native speakers acquire grammar unconsciously through practicing language with family or the environment surrounded.

However, second language learning might be an unconscious process when students mimic their teacher and other students without analyzing or asking about the reason of doing so. Language learning can, also, be formal when students practice authentic activities in the classroom, where they practice language with each other. It can be informal when students learn language through media; for example, students pick up vocabulary from TV, radio, movies, and the like (Lindsay & Knight, 2006, p. 1).

Second language learning is successful when students practice the language in various functional situations inside and outside the classroom. Second language

learning is a skill improved through practice, in which the competence about language is transferred into performance (Leatherdale, 1980, p. 39). Based on Diaz-Rico (2007), second language learning comprises three distinct memory systems in the brain: Declarative, which is responsible for facts and words; Episodic, which is responsible for emotionalized actions; and Procedural, which is responsible for processes. Learning takes place when the brain combines the three memory systems (p. 94).

So, what is required from students learning a second language is not only to know about language, but it is also to know about how to use language. Second language learning is a process, in which students get access to historical and geographical knowledge different from theirs. In such a process students conduct a dialogue between their own culture and the other language culture.

Second language learning as a complete interrelated system is a very complicated activity because it requires that students learn "to use that language as a rich and highly complex, multifaceted symbolic resource" (Pennington & Hoekje, 2010, p. 109). Though second language learning is challenging and frustrating in some cases, it is possible and thrilling in many other cases. As it is a hard activity for some students, this activity seems interesting and easy for others.

Second language learning is a process of increasing students' perceptions about the world around them. It is a process that helps students foster their appreciation and adjustment of the various social communities. It enables students to be knowledgeable about other peoples' experiences and points of view (Kramsch, 2007, p. 59). Second language learning is like playing tennis or golf. In all cases,

practice is what enhances and motivates learning (Robinett, 1978, p. 193). Practice is one of the most successful strategies that children use in order to acquire their first language. Hence, students need to practice the second language in order to be acquainted with its linguistic structures, social and cultural values, and cognitive assumptions (Dutro & Helman, 2009, p. 45).

Students become successful in using the second language when they think in that language as native speakers do. Rodrigues and White (1974) require that students be involved in the second language culture (p. 3). Krashen (as cited in Sutter, 2009) calls the process, in which the students are immersed totally in the second language culture, as "input of the target language" (p. 67). Weaver (1996) adds that "learning involves not the mastery of isolated facts, but the construction of concepts. If the learner cannot or does not organize facts into concepts, they are quickly forgotten" (p. 153).

Problems of the Study

Due to the vital demand for communicating with people from different countries, learning English has become a real must in Libya. Though English has been taught in Libya since 1994 in private schools and 1997 in public schools after being banned in 1986, Libyan students still fail to interact with native English speakers. Even after spending 10 years, studying English in school and at the university in addition to learning English in English language centers, most Libyan students fail to produce even simple sentences in English, namely in oral-aural functional activities. According to Ahmad (2001), the situation of teaching and learning English in public

and private schools in Libya is unsatisfactory, and almost all Libyan students find difficulties to use English in oral activities (p. 4).

Abu Srewel (2002) indicates that Libyan students find difficulties to use English in functional situations even after graduating from university. Libyan students are unable to improve their progress in using English in reality (p. 3). The case of failure in using English in reality is associated and witnessed with the Libyan students, whose major is English, too. Shihiba (2011) attributes Libyan graduate students' failure to use English in communicative situations to their unsatisfactory speaking and listening skills (p. 22).

The result of this policy in teaching English in Libya is that most of master and doctoral students fail to get academic admissions in overseas universities. Libyan graduate students, including English majors, fail to get the required scores on international tests TOEFL (Testing of English as a Foreign Language), GRE (Graduate Record Examinations), and GMAT (Graduate Management Admission Test). Some Libyan students, who did not achieve the international tests scores, made up their minds to leave for states, where universities do not require TOEFL, GMAT, or GRE scores, no matter the ranking or the level of credibility these universities have.

In most cases, most Libyan students spend more than a year and a half in English language centers in the United States, yet they fail to get the score of 500 in PBT (Paper Based Test) TOEFL or 62 in IBT (Internet Based Test) TOEFL, which most Libyan students avoid because it contains parts of Speaking and Listening in addition to Reading and Writing. Thus, I see that there is a problem in teaching

English in Libya, which is reflected on the minimal progress of Libyan students in learning and using English in communicative situations.

Tarhuni (as cited in Bouziane, 2003) diagnoses the situation of learning English by Libyan students as "knowing everything about language except the language itself" (p. 20). Hence, I can conclude that the process of learning English in Libya is a process of learning or acquiring a set of formal stages, such as grammatical rules, vocabulary memorization, pattern drills, and knowing letters. This, of course, does not fulfill the main purpose of learning, which involves learning a number of interrelated variables, among of which are cultural understandings and using English in communicative situations.

Questions of the Study

Research question, according to Marion (2004), is "a formal statement of the goal of a study" (para. 3). Research questions in this study attempt to shed light on the phenomenon that the study works to prove or investigate. Research questions are effective for shaping and designing objectives and methodologies of the study. Therefore, research questions should be clear, well designed, and be focused to the purpose of achieving objectives of the study (Horn, Snyder, Coverdale, Louie, & Roberts, 2009, p. 262).

To fulfill the objectives of this study, I posed the following question as the main question: What do Libyan teachers of English report about their experiences in teaching and learning English in Libya? To investigate and answer the main question

of this study, I posed other sub-questions that might be related directly or indirectly to the main question. These sub-questions cover the four main areas of the study as:

Teaching English in Libya:

- What challenges do Libyan teachers encounter while teaching English in Libya?

Learning English in Libya:

- What challenges do Libyan students encounter while learning English in Libya?

Methods of Teaching English in Libya:

- Which method of teaching English is commonly used in Libya?

Future of Teaching English in Libya in the Global World:

- What connections might exist between Libyans' skills in the English language and the future of Libya?

Methodology of the Study

In this qualitative research study, I used educational criticism method. I am using secondary resources based on literature review. I interviewed 20 Libyan teachers of English as a primary resource. I interviewed the participants face-to-face and online through Skype. I gave the participants the chance to select the appropriate language for them to conduct the interviews. The majority (17) selected English as a medium for conducting the interview. I translated the interviews conducted in Arabic and Libyan into English. To be objective I asked my friend, who has PhD in translation who was in the United States for several months, to review the translation.

I transcribed the participants' interviews and coded them in categories according to their relevance. Later, I analyzed the coded data based on my own interpretation and perception to the topic of the study. I reached findings through analyzing the participants' interviews, and I presented implications and recommendations based on the findings obtained.

Participants

The participants of this study are 20 male and female Libyan teachers of English, who were doing their graduate studies (masters and doctorates) in the United States at the time of the interviews. These participants were selected carefully to fulfill the main objectives of the study as: (1) they taught English in Libya; (2) they taught English in different levels and different cities in Libya; (3) they learned English in Libya; and (4) they were voluntarily willing to do the interviews and present their experience of teaching and learning English in Libya.

Limitations

There were some external barriers, but I consider difficulties of contacting Libyan teachers of English and Libyan students in Libya the major limitation in this study. Time, also, is a limitation in this study. It took me much time to arrange for the interviews with the participants. As only one participant was local, I had to travel to other states to conduct these interviews. Arranging time for meeting with the participants was a challenge for me. It was difficult to set time that suits me and the participants. Language communication is another limitation. Most of the participants' English was not clear.

Data Analysis

After gathering data, I classified them in meaningful structures. I transcribed the participants' interviews and memo them into groups according to their relevance and similarities. In order to obtain the findings, I used my interpretation paradigm to analyze the participants' interviews based on my knowledge about the topic and setting of the study.

Objectives of this Study

This study is about teaching English, in general, and teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) in Libya, specifically. Due to my 14-year experience in teaching English in Libya, and due to my 10-year experience in learning English in Libya, I notice that Libyan students encounter difficulties in using English in communicative situations. My own noticings are enhanced by studies conducted by Kara (1992), Dabus (2001), Tarhuni (as cited in Bouziane, 2003), and Shihiba (2011), who confirm that Libyan students are poor users of English in communicative situations.

In this study, I am setting out research and presenting information about language and English as the most common used language in the world. Also, in this study, I am presenting a thorough investigation about general education in Libya as well as teaching English in Libya. Hence, this study is inductive, aiming at studying specific facts to reach findings and recommendations. The English used in this study is American English in an academic, simple style.

This study is directed to both Libyan and international readers. For the international readers, who do not know about Libya, this study might be a good resource to know some information related to school system, English language learning, and English language teaching in an Arabic country in North Africa. In addition, this study provides a brief historical background about education system in Libya.

This study might be used as a good resource for Libyan authorities in the fields of English language learning and teaching. It might help these authorities to set up new strategies for helping Libyan students learn English effectively and Libyan teachers of English use the most effective methods in teaching English. Through extensive searching for books on English education in Libya, I have found very few. There are some masters' theses conducted by Libyan students at the Academy of High Studies in Tripoli. Also, the only book by Kara I used in this study is a published dissertation. I hope that my study can address this lack of information for a country going through dramatic changes.

This study might be used as an educational resource in the fields of learning and teaching EFL in Libya. I hope that the new Libyan generations pay attention to learning English as the language of communication in the 21st century, and this is the purpose behind the study. Furthermore, the study might provide some general principles about teaching and learning foreign languages to TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) educators. I intend to transfer my study into a published book after adding some extra information related to English learning and teaching.

Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation is presented in five chapters as:

- Chapter One (Introduction) presents a general background. This chapter presents brief ideas about purpose, questions, methodology, and theoretical background.
- Chapter Two (Literature Review) provides information and facts about the topic. This chapter is based on secondary resources.
- Chapter Three (Methodology of the Study) provides details about the methodology used to conduct the study.
- Chapter Four (Findings) presents findings based on analyzing the participants' interviews.
- Chapter Five (Implications and Recommendations) provides implications and recommendations based on the findings.

Conclusion

"Languages can be learned" (Nida, 1957, p.2). Based on this quotation, learning foreign languages is not impossible though it might be difficult. Though many attempts have been set up for encouraging learning English in Libya, most of these attempts fail. In most cases, Libyan students know about English, not how to use English. Learning English does not mean only learning a new set of English names and grammatical rules, but it also involves learning how to use English and see the world as native English speakers do. Learning foreign languages, according to Alexander (1982), "should not be directed at informing students about language, but at

enabling them to use it. A student's mastery of a language is ultimately measured by how well he can use it, not how much he knows about it" (p. vii).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Rationale

This chapter includes general facts about education system in Libya and different information about language, language teaching, and language learning. The reason for providing several facts about language, namely English, is that teachers as well as students need to know about the language learned or taught. Knowing about language helps teachers find appropriate methods for teaching that language, and "understanding language and the role language plays is fundamental to good teaching" (Short, Harste, & Burke, 1996, p. 25).

General Facts about Libya

Libya is an Arabic country located in North Africa. The name "Libya" is derived from the name of a Berber tribe known as the 'Lebu' (Simons, 2003, p. 1). Libya with other 21 countries (Algeria, Bahrain, Comoros, Djibouti, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Mauritania, Morocco, Oman, Palestine, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Somalia, Syria, Sudan, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates, and Yemen) constitute the Arab world.

The population of Libya is about 6.2 million; nearly half of them (2.7 million) are students. About 300,000 students are university students, and 90,000 are students in technical and vocational institutes. The number of universities increased from two in 1975 to reach nine in 1980 (Rhema & Miliszewska, 2010, p. 425) (See the table below).

University	Established	Location	Enrollment
Benghazi	1955	Benghazi	45,000
Tripoli	1957	Tripoli	75,000
Sebha	1983	Sebha	9,000
Az-zawyah	1988	Az-zawyah	26,000
Mergeb	1988	Khoms	18,000
Tahhadi	1988	Sirte	8,500
Omar El Mukhtar	1989	El-bida	12,000
Graduate Studies Academy	1998	Tripoli	2,600
Nasir	2001	Tarhuna	400
Total of students			176500

Table 2 Universities in Libya (Clark, 2004)

Libya's total area is about 1,760,000 sq. kilometers (about 680,000 sq. miles). It is the fourth largest country in Africa after Algeria, Democratic Republic of Congo, and Sudan, and the fourth Arab country after Algeria, Saudi Arabia, and Sudan. Libya has a 2000-kilometer (about 1250-mile) beach along the Mediterranean Sea in the north. The eastern coastal cities are close to Greece and Cyprus, so Greek is spoken fluently by some people in Cyrene in the eastern part. Almost all people living in Cyrene came from Greece and Cyprus thousands of years ago and still have Greek names, customs, and language.

Libyans use a variety of languages in different situations and areas of the country. In general, there are five main languages used in Libya: Modern Standard

Arabic used in official situations, media, and school; Libyan dialects used in day-to-day activities; Berber used in some cities in the west and south parts in Libya; Italian used by elderly people for daily business and at home; and French used by immigrant Libyans from African countries.

School System in Libya

In 1970, the Libyan government announced education would be free in public schools, institutes, and universities. Children start school when they are six though they can start home schooling or private school when they are five. The school system in Libya is classified into: Primary School (from 1st grade to 6th grade); Middle School (from 7th grade to 9th grade); High School (from 10th grade to 12th grade); Undergrad (three years in high institutes and four years in university); Grad (one-year classes and a masters' thesis for masters' and a specific research for PhD) (See appendix B for more information).

Public schools are separated from 1st grade to 12th grade into girls' schools and boys' schools. Mixture starts at the university level. This male-female separation may have a passive influence on learning English as a communicative tool. This separation prevents Libyan students from communicating in English in activities, such as pair and peer work, problem-solving activities, role-play, and the like. Some activities require that the students change roles in different groups, which requires that all students have parts in all groups. According to Livingstone and Lynch (2000), male-female participation enhances the use of English in different functional situations (p. 342).

The male-female separation has a passive influence on the relationship between teachers and students, too. It is important for successful teaching and learning that teachers have a strong relationship with their students (Nguyen, 2007, p. 284). The teachers' role requires them to have a strong relationship with their students in order to understand students' concerns, interests, and needs. This relationship is achieved informally. When students feel that their teacher deals with them as counterparts, they become more interested and willing in learning. The lack of cooperation between the teacher and the students leads to ineffective teaching and learning (Simons, 1997, p. 38).

In 1980s, the Libyan Ministry of Education encouraged higher education, so the number of Libyan students, enrolling in Libyan universities and high institutes, has increased noticeably. Other public and private universities have been established. Each public university includes colleges in small cities.

In 1990s, school system has been controlled by the Ministry of Education, which distributed the educational affairs among local educational committees geographically (Rhema & Miliszewska, 2010, pp. 425-426). For example, the local committee in Benghazi is responsible for the educational system in Benghazi. Hence, education shifts to a business sector in Libya. According to GPCE (2008), there were more than 1000 private schools and more than 30 private universities all over Libya in the late 1990s (p. 2).

In 2006, the Ministry of Education set up general objectives for school system in high levels in Libya to be in divisions according to the majors as:

- Division of Basic Sciences: mathematics and physics.
- Division of Engineering Sciences: engineering and construction.
- Division of Life Sciences: chemistry and biology.
- Division of Social Sciences: studies social sciences and humanities.
- Division of Languages: Arabic, English, French, Swahili, and Hausa.
- Division of Economic Sciences: business administration, accounting, economics, and banking (GPCE, 2008, p. 8).

Objectives of Education Policy in Libya

Due to the increasing number of illiterate Libyans in 1960s and 1970s, the Libyan government focused on using some methods and techniques for improving the Libyans' levels of education. The Ministry of Education focused on applying democratic and humanistic techniques in teaching and learning in Libyan schools. The GPCE issued general outlines about how education should be in Libyan schools (See appendix C).

Having a glance at these objectives shows that objectives 13, 14, 15, and 19 evoke Libyan students to learn foreign languages, namely English, in order to communicate with other people in this globalized community. Objectives 2, 4, 5, and 12 motivate Libyan students to learn Arabic and African languages. Objectives 2 and 9 encourage the application of democratic learning. Objectives 8, 11, and 17 call for social justice.

Points 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, and 17 in "Educational Policy in Libya" (See appendix D) show that all Libyans are provided free and compulsory education. The result of

providing free education was noticeable in increasing the number of Libyan students, namely in basic (elementary and middle) and high school. The table below shows the number of Libyan students in these two levels in 2007/2008:

Educational Stage	Schools	Classrooms	Students	Teachers
Basic Education	3397	40743	939799	119313
High Education	1033	10940	226000	39847
Joint	72	1228	30697	3764
Total	4502	52911	1196496	162924

Table 3 Number of Schools, Classrooms, Students and Teachers in Libya in 2007/2008 (GPCE, 2008, p. 13).

History of Teaching English in Libya

Libyan history is full of invasion by multiple nations, using multiple languages: Berber, Greek, Latin, Roman, French, German, Spanish, Maltese, Arabic, Turkish, Italian, and English. This indicates that Libyans are aware of multiple languages, which most probably makes it easy for Libyans to learn foreign languages easily.

Education in Libya is classified into private and public. Private education seeks to profit only; therefore, private schools and universities contract with cheap laborers, regardless of their qualifications, experiences in teaching, personalities, and majors to teach English. As for the public schools in Libya, English is now taught from the 5th grade. The majority of English language teachers in 5th–9th grades are Libyan females, who graduated from either English Department or College of Education. According to

GPCE (2008), 79.38% of English language teachers in Libyan schools are females (p. 22). Metcalfe (2006) attributes female domination on teaching in Arab countries to the religious and social beliefs (p. 97).

Most English language teachers in the 10th, 11th, and 12th grades are males from Libya, Egypt, Iraq, Sudan, and Palestine. Their English is imperfect, and their accent is affected by their own dialects. The problem of using English by such teachers is that each teacher uses their own dialect tongue in speaking English; thus, Libyan students hear English in different accents: Libyan, Egyptian, Iraqi, Sudanese, and Palestinian, and teachers require Standard English from their students.

The history of teaching English in Libya started with the British mandate on Libya in 1942. The British Administration tried during the World War II to replace English for Italian, which was used as the second language among Libyans. The British Administration failed to spread the use of English among Libyans because the British policy in teaching English to Libyans was different from that used by the Italian regime. Though the British dominated over Libya, Libyans continued using Italian. The British Administration tried to teach English to Libyans through engaging them in working in the British military bases, where English was the only language used between the British troops and the Libyan workers. Moreover, the British Council established a number of English language centers in Libya (Mohammed, 2005, p. 39).

In 1952, the British Administration succeeded in replacing English for Italian as the foreign language in school curriculum in Libyan schools. Libyan Public

Education recognized English as the only foreign language in middle and high levels, yet Italian was still the second language used among Libyans. In 1966, English was introduced from the 5th grade, and American and British teachers were teaching English to cover the lack of the qualified Libyan teachers of English. In September 1969, this program was cancelled and all English language centers in Libya were closed (Mohammed, 2005, pp. 39-40).

Barton (1968), who was a member in a UNESCO mission for setting English curriculum in Libya from 1965 to 1968, noticed that there was a great interest by the Libyan government to improve education and teaching of English (p. 1). But this interest disappeared in 1969, when the government worked hard to focus on teaching standard Arabic in schools. English at that time was seen as the language of colonialism and imperialism. The authority forbade shopkeepers to use signs written in English, and the English names of the streets were Arbicizied (Carlson, 2010, p. 65), yet English was still taught in middle and high levels until 1986. Libyan teachers, whom most of them were majored in history, geography, and social sciences, were teaching English.

In 1986, the Ministry of Education banned teaching and learning English in Libya. All English books in Libyan schools were collected and burnt in squares and on streets. This action was the turning point in the history of teaching and learning English in Libya. Some Libyan teachers of English were converted to teach subjects, such as history, geography, and social studies, and some turned to do some office work, stayed home, or retired.

In 1994, the year of opening private schools in Libya, English was in the curriculum of private high schools. As there were not enough teachers of English to teach English in private schools, non-majored teachers of English were hired to teach English. Graduates of scientific colleges, such as engineering, computer sciences, science, and medicine were hired to teach English in private schools. These teachers knew very little about English and had no idea about teaching methodology. Another problem rose due to the unavailability of English textbooks; thus, high school students were studying very simple and old English textbooks. Teaching English in private schools was prestigious, not serious.

In 1997, the Libyan education authority authorized teaching English in public schools in middle and high levels. The same problems encountered in private schools, regarding unavailability of teachers of English and English textbooks, were encountered in public schools. Non-majored teachers of English were assigned to teach English. Even majored teachers of English had not been teaching English for a decade. Thus, their methods of teaching were not up-to-date. Also, the English textbooks, which these teachers used to teach, changed. English language teachers were confused about what to teach and how.

To solve the problem of lack of Libyan teachers of English, the Ministry of Education opened several English centers for training teachers in 1996. It was supposed that high-qualified professors teach in these English language training centers, but they weren't. The Ministry of Education contracted with Egyptian, Iraqi, and Palestinian teachers of English, who were unqualified and not majored in English

education. The result of this policy was that the graduates of these English training centers were poorly prepared in teaching English in Libyan schools.

English Textbooks Taught in Libyan Schools

The first remark on English textbooks is that they had been changing almost every year since 1998. Before banning teaching of English in 1986, Libyan teachers of English used to teach the series of *English for Libya*. This series contains six complementary textbooks, starting from 7th grade and ending in 12th grade. According to Barton (1986), this series aims at building English language knowledge, focusing on basic sentence structures through the use of Direct Method (p. 2). This series presents new English vocabulary and new grammar rules at the beginning of each unit. Series units are associated to each other, so understanding one unit is a requirement to understand the following units.

Libyan teachers of English at that time found it easy to teach such a series. In fact, Libyan teachers of English in 1970s and 1980s were more qualified and informative than Libyan teachers of English in 1990s and 2000s for two reasons. First, the member staff of the English Department at Libyan universities in 1970s and 1980s was native English speakers from the United States and the United Kingdom. Second, all Libyan students of English Department in 1970s and 1980s were sent to study their fourth year in an English-speaking country. So, these teachers were aware of the English culture through either their native English speaker instructors or through the one-year study in an English-speaking country.

Though the series of *English for Libya* was proven unsuccessful to Libyan students in 1990s, the Ministry of Education assigned the first three textbooks, which were taught in middle school in 1980s, to be taught in high schools in late 1990s. This series was proven unsuccessful in communicative situations because it focused on reading only and preparing the students to pass the English language tests.

Later, other versions of English textbooks were issued to be taught in Libyan schools. The new versions were based on grammar structure, vocabulary, and translation. So, Libyan teachers were instructed to use Grammar Translation Method in teaching. The new English textbooks present English as fragmented activities based on isolated vocabulary and unrelated grammatical structures. These textbooks, according to Orafi and Borg (2009), motivate Libyan students to memorize vocabulary, grammar rules, and reading texts, and use their first language to understand English grammar and vocabulary (p. 244).

As Grammar Translation Method, Direct Method, and Audio-Lingual Method were proven unsuccessful for teaching English in Libyan schools in 2000s, the Ministry of Education sent Libyan inspectors of English to Malta to prepare new versions of English textbooks. The latest versions of English textbooks were based on communication, so Communicative Language Teaching Approach was required to be used to teach these new versions. The problem of teaching these new versions is that there are no qualified teachers of English to teach. Most of the Libyan teachers of English lack proficiency of English. Also, the new versions talk about the English culture, which almost all Libyan teachers of English lack.

The new versions of English textbooks require Libyan students to communicate in English dialogues in various functional situations. The new textbooks include pair work, peer work, and problem-solving tasks. The new method of teaching such textbooks is supposed to shift the classroom from teacher-centered into student-centered, which, according to Jones (2007), is "a place where we [teachers] consider the needs of the students, as a group and as individuals, and encourage them to participate in the learning process all the time" (p. 2).

Saleh (2002) conducts a study about Libyan students' behaviors in some high schools in the western parts of Libya and the scope of the teachers' control over their students' bad behaviors. In his conclusion, Saleh finds out that Libyan teachers of high levels control their classrooms only when these classrooms are teacher-centered, where everything is controlled and done by the teacher (pp. 48-49). Saleh's conclusions indicate that there are difficulties in teaching and learning English in Libyan schools and to shift the classroom to student-centered.

Theories of Language

In addition to being acquainted with linguistics in teaching a language, the language teacher needs to be acquainted with cultural practices of that language, too (Pennington & Hoekje, 2010, p. 131). To teach a language, the language teacher needs to know theories of language, structures of language, facts about language, and origin of language. Being acquainted with the language taught helps the teacher select the most appropriate methods and strategies for teaching that language. Hence, in this part, I am going to present some theories about language in order to see how to manipulate these theories in teaching English in Libya.

The rationalists see that all languages have systems consisting of sound scheme, grammar rules, and charts of words. This language system, which is inherited in childhood in different ways, has a great influence on the structure of the brain and helps people think differently how to use language. For example, children know how to use their first language (L1) after they gain knowledge of that language. Knowledge about L1 enables children to understand and use different grammatical structures in the L1, even when they have not heard or seen these structures before.

Descriptive linguists believe that each language includes a system that differs from other language systems; thus, teachers need to teach the second language (L2) system in its L2 setting, not in the L1 setting. Instead of starting with the L2 grammar system, the language teacher starts with the L2 itself, focusing on the most commonly used patterns in the real life. Descriptive linguists focus on what native speakers say in their L1, not what teachers force ELLs to say. This might mean that descriptive linguists emphasize teaching descriptive grammar, not prescriptive grammar.

Descriptive grammar recognizes that people use syntactic rules subconsciously. They use these rules automatically without being aware of what they are doing. Though the use of these syntactic rules is subconscious, they are obligatory because they govern and direct the ways people use language. Linguists and anthropologists are interested in people's descriptive grammar because they try to discover what people are saying and the rules governing their language (Rowe & Levine, 2006, p. 113). Descriptive grammar is concerned with rules of constructing sentences and ordering words (syntax), identifying units of meanings (morphology), and distinguishing sounds (phonology) (Lindemann, 2001, p. 80).

In this regard, I guess that descriptive linguists disagree with Behaviorist Theory, which sees that "all language learning behavior is a process of acquiring new behavior through conditioning and reinforcement" (Kara, 1992, p. 51). According to this theory, teachers inject on students' minds sets of conditioned speech habits in the L2. The students take these habits as they are because their teachers tell them that this is how English is used by native speakers. The teachers order their students to copy these rules, no matter whether what is said corresponds to what is used in reality or not.

Generative linguistics, according to Chomsky (as cited in Garcia-Mayo, 2012) is "a theory about the mental representation of language in the mind/brain and about language acquisition as creating these mental representations in the mind of the learner" (p. 135). Based on this definition, learners draw on their knowledge to compose sentences using grammatical rules (Chomsky's universal grammar). Because of the competence of finite number of grammatical rules learners have in mind, they are able to generate infinite number of grammatical rules in reality.

Transformational linguists, based on Chomsky's ideas 2002, see that teachers teach the L2 through teaching all the sentences confined to each particular situation. As each language is governed by its system of rules, the teacher's task is to teach that system of rules, which governs the structures of the language, in order to make the production of the language accessible. People acquire and learn language through creating new forms and structures in that language. Therefore, the language teacher needs to provide students with chances to create new forms and structures in different situations. Also, as each language contains both competence and performance,

language performance comes after language competence. Accordingly, the language teacher needs to teach students knowledge about the language before asking them to perform in that language

Vygotsky (as cited in Weissberg, 2008) focuses on the role of culture in learning the L2, so he presents his socio-cultural theory, which proposes that learning a language takes place when students use their cognitive developments in two psychological planes. These two planes are (1) the inter-psychological plane, which controls the relationship of the person with other people in the community; and (2) the intra-psychological plane, which controls the relationship of the person with his mind (p. 27).

Vygotsky's order of psychological planes is important because it shows that as language is something individual, it is social, too, and should be learned in a community. For the role of language as a social activity, McKay (2003) sees that learning English should be associated with learning the English culture and how native English speakers use English in their community (p. 39). According to Orelus (2010), "learning another language equals a new way of being, as language is intrinsically linked to culture" (p. 16).

Jesness (2004) agrees with Vygotsky's idea and classifies knowledge into two: inter knowledge and active knowledge. Inter knowledge indicates the knowledge that one has in mind but does not use as performance. Inter knowledge determines the relationship between a person and his mind. In the other side, active knowledge indicates to the knowledge that one has and uses as performance with other people in

the community (p. 24). So, what makes learning a language successful is the active knowledge because language is a social activity used with people, not with mind (Kelen, 2002, p. 233).

Cognitive linguists see that language is learned through having several processes in mind. It is important that these processes be meaningful in order that learners make use of what is learned. The human mind is not a machine that stores the knowledge in forms of bits and pieces; rather, the human mind organizes the new knowledge in meaningful chunks related to the previous knowledge, stored in the cognitive structure of the human being's mind. The knowledge is stored and used in the future (Kara, 1992, pp. 52-53).

In contrast to behaviorists, who focus on the role of behavior in learning language, cognitive linguists focus on the role of mind and the processes inside the mind in learning language. Cognitive psychology sees that mental processes facilitate language learning. The person's competence contains assimilated knowledge about the L2 with his cognitive mentality. This process helps the learner control over his behavior and use it in different structures in different contextual situations.

Language as a Means for Social Cohesion among Disparate Groups

Learning another language requires interrelationship of a social network among students, teachers, friends, families, school members, and the whole community (Lindemann, 2001, p. 106). The school's top priority should be directed in helping students be members in that social network (Skolnick, 2000, p. 54). That is because mutual understanding becomes so difficult when people are from two

different cultures and share different values and assumptions (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003, p. 231).

Lakoff and Johnson direct our attention to the fact that English language learners (ELLs) should think, live, behave, and see the reality as native English speakers do. This requires ELLs to be immersed completely in the English community. The process of being immersed in another culture is call “social cohesion,” defined by Green, Janmaat, and Cheng (2011) as “the property by which whole societies, and the individuals within them, are bound together through the action of specific attitudes, behaviors, rules and institutions” (p. 6). Short, Harste, and Burke (1996) emphasize that language learning always begins by involving students in the L2 community and encouraging them to see the world as a different reality (p. 348).

Studies show that social justice and equality increase the social cohesion, and inequality widens the gap between social groups, which affects negatively in learning a language. Inequality decreases trust and reduces the sense of belonging among the social network (Green, Janmaat, & Cheng, 2011, p. 8). In learning the L2, students need to feel equal in given the opportunities to speak in the L2. Banks (2002) suggests that each school have “a policy statement on multicultural education that clearly communicates the board of education’s commitment to creating and maintaining schools in which students from both gender groups and from diverse racial, ethnic, social-class, cultural, and language groups will have an equal opportunity to learn” (p. 112).

In contrast to inequality, interpersonal trust is a major key in building the social cohesion among members of the social group. Interpersonal trust is related to the members' willingness to be confident and trust other members in the social community, even if they do not know these members. Interpersonal trust is a characteristic found in most modern communities, and it breaks the wall of fear of being cheated by others; as a result, participation among members of the social community is enhanced and enriched. Students learn how to trust others in the community through successful collaboration with these others for achieving their learning objectives (Green, Janmaat, & Cheng, 2011, pp. 8-9).

Language as a Tool for Communication

Language is a tool for people to use in order to communicate with each other. People encode sounds made up of sets of components. This perception about language shows how important encoding is to language. S. Hayakawa and A. Hayakawa (1990) explain that "while animals use only a few limited cries, however, human beings use extremely complicated systems of sputtering, hissing, gurgling, clucking, and cooing noises called language," and these noises should be meaningful to their users (pp. 6-7).

Halliday (as cited in Davies, 2005) provides three interrelated functions of language as: (1) Ideational Function, which helps people gain experience; (2) Interpersonal Function, which helps people interact with each other and shape their attitudes; and (3) Textual Function, which helps people use words in coherent contexts (p. 1). Language, according to Levine and McCloskey (2009), is "best viewed as a verb (language as something to use and do) than as a noun (language as a content to be

learned)" (p. 27). For communication to take place, this requires three interrelated parts: sender, receiver, and a means of transmission (language).

However, when the interaction between the sender and the receiver fails, the means used for interaction, language, does not fulfill its main target of communication. In other words, the receiver should have the ability to decode the codes sent by the sender in order for communication to take place. Vygotsky (as cited in Kozulin, 1986) believes that decoding sounds into meaningful thought is what makes words be a form of communication among people (p. 253). Lutz (1996) talks about the importance of decoding in order to understand language, and he demands that decoding take place in a shared context (p. 111).

Language as a Part of Culture

Language is both a social and individual activity, and this activity enables people to communicate and share ideas and thoughts. Language is a reflection of the culture of the users of that language. Ha (2008) believes that language and culture are strongly interrelated. Culture is what gives meaning to the sounds and symbols used in language. Hence, language and culture work together to form people's identities (p. 25).

Language and culture are so interwoven that no one can separate one from the other. Any attempt to separate language from culture or vice versa leads to the loss of the significant values of either one (Bloomfield, 1994, p. 165) because language is not only a tool for expressing peoples' needs and feelings, but it is also a tool through which people can express their identities and cultures (Paton, 2009, p. 100). Language,

then, is not only a way for communication, but also it is a carrier of culture (Sonntag, 2003, p. 1).

Henceforth, it can be inferred that each language represents its culture because each language is a reflection of its culture. For example, when the Chinese talk about "dragons," they talk about brave animals. The English see that "dragons" are scary and ugly animals (Newmark, 1991, pp. 73-74). Arabs symbolize owls with evils and bad omens; the English symbolize owls with wisdom. This means that learning another language is not learning isolated forms of grammar and vocabulary. Instead, learning another language involves interacting through these forms with native speakers in their cultural contexts.

Language and culture are so intertwined that it is impossible to understand one without understanding the other. There is no way to draw a separation line between language and its culture. People use language to reveal or hide their personal identities, characters, and cultural backgrounds (Chaika, 1989, pp. 2-3). As language is used by people and for people, peoples' identities are constructed through language. People communicate their own cultures and cultural values through language. According to Omoniyi (2010), "we are a product of our environment. We are constructed by our history as much as we are producers of that history" (p. 473).

It is essential that students be aware of the cultural backgrounds of the language backgrounds. Failure to understand the cultural backgrounds leads to failure in understanding the connotative meanings of words in their cultural context. In a study about the challenges of connective meaning for second language learners, Omar

(2012b) interviewed ten international students to investigate about the role of culture awareness in learning a second language. He concludes that cultural backgrounds assist students to capture connotative meanings of words in various cultural contexts (p. 346).

Language as a Social Activity

Linguists perceive language as a human activity. This human activity does not only help people communicate with each other, but it also gives an idea about the speaker’s identity and his way of thinking and behaving. According to Halliday (1993), in contrast to other creatures, people use language productively and creatively in different ways and functions. People use language as a main channel for patterning their ways of life and shaping their styles of thinking. Children acquire their mother tongue through communication with other people in the community within different social groups, such as family, school, friends, peers, and so on (p. 9).

Based on Chomsky (1966), universal rules guide and control children as they acquire their L1. Britain and Matsumoto (2005) add that children are not guided and controlled by rules and structures that exist in their patterns of speech individually. Rather, children are guided and controlled by rules that exist in the speech of all people around them in the community (p. 3). That is children acquire their L1 through interacting with other people in their social environment. Children learn not only language in their childhood, but they learn other things associated with language (Halliday, 1993, p. 1).

People are social animals and use language to give meaning to the reality in their world (Lindemann, 2001, p. 5). In contrast to Chomsky and other linguists, who argue that children discover language rules themselves, Skinner (1972) believes that "one advantage in being a social animal is that one need not discover practices for oneself. The parent teaches his child, as the craftsman teaches his apprentice, because he gains a useful helper, but in the process the child and the apprentice acquire useful behavior which they would very probably not have acquired under nonsocial contingencies" (p. 122).

Another advantage for seeing people as social animals is that people see their realities in social contexts, too. Thus, everyone's identity is established through interaction with other people in that reality (Lanham, 2000, p. 110). A human being's identity controls what this human sees in reality and judges what and who is seen in that reality. In other words, being members in a social community provides human beings with clues to give meanings to what they see in reality (Lindemann, 2001, p. 90).

Skinner (1972) points out that if a man lives alone from birth, he will never have any verbal behavior, which means that he is not a human being (p. 123) or a social animal. In this point, Skinner pays our attention to the role of the social context in constituting peoples' verbal behaviors. In other words, a man behaves verbally in a society not only because that man belongs to that society, but also because the man's behavior is controlled by the people in that society, which shapes, controls, and guides the behaviors of its people. Dissimilarly, Sapir (1956) argues that language "is a guide to social reality and that human beings are at the mercy of the language that has

become the medium of expression for their society. Experience is largely determined by the language habits of the community, and each separate structure represents a separate reality" (p. 69).

Based on the discussion above, a man, who lives away from any social environment, is such as a child who lives and brings up with wolves in the woods. As the child, who lives with the animals, has no verbal behavior (language), a man with no social environment can speak no language (Skinner, 1972, p. 123). The result of isolating children from their social environment is that children have what is so-called "Rejection Period," defined by Gordon (2007) as a "stage when children grow socially isolated and reluctant to interact with other children or adults" (p. 58). This rejection period is associated with what is known as "The Silent Period," which is a period "during which a learner hears and learns but is not yet prepared to produce" (Jesness, 2004, p. 23). Gordon (2007) sees this period as a "stage when children stop communicating verbally in the second language context" (p. 58).

Wilde (1996) focuses on the importance of social context in learning the L2, seeing that learning language is both personal experience and social activity (p. 277). Andrews (1993) affirms this idea, too, and calls for providing students with opportunities to learn all social facts associated with language (p. 38). In addition to seeing language learning as a social process, it is a personal invention. Everyone in the social context tries continuously to invent the language that fulfills to them the most optimum way to communicate with others in that social environment (Goodman, 1986, p. 18).

Theories of Acquiring English Language

In this part, I will be guided by three theories of language learning: Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and Sociocultural Theory in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) developed by Lev Vygotsky and Whole Language Philosophy developed by Ken Goodman. Vygotsky (1978) defines ZPD as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86).

The word "zone" in Voygotsky's concept refers, as Moll (1990) explains, to the social system that relates learning with the children's development. Thus, the relationship between learning and development takes place in collaborative activities, in which children perform actions with the assistance of others at the beginning and do these actions independently later (p. 3). To use this idea in learning English, students need the assistance of their teachers to acquire competence about English. Later, these learners rely on themselves to transfer this competence into performance without their teachers' assistance.

The idea behind ZPD is that children learn through interacting with others in a community to solve problems, so the sociocultural theory is a complementary part in ZPD. This means that it seems impossible for children to develop their language awareness and performance away from social and cultural contexts, where this language is used. According to Peregoy and Boyle (2008), "the language or languages we use and particular ways of speaking are part and parcel of this sociocultural

learning" (p. 45). Also, Rosebery, McIntyre, and Gonzalez (2001) emphasize that sociocultural theory is an effective tool for learning language when social and cultural contexts are embedded in learning that language (p. 6).

Sociocultural theory has an important role in language learning because, as Hall (1997) states, it helps language teachers understand

> the conditions by which L2 learners' involvement in the various constellations of their classroom communicative practices is shaped, and how, over time, such involvement affects the development of their social and psychological identities both as learners of and communicators in the target language. This understanding, in turn, will help us to create practices that foster the development of competent language learning communities in classrooms. (p. 304)

The importance of the sociocultural theory in learning lies in its perception for the relationship between language and thought, which are different things – according to sociocultural theory. Thus, they are independent and separate phenomena, yet language is a transformation process for thought (Lantolf, 2004, p. 7). Of course, there is still a controversial discussion about the relationship between language and thought and which enhances the other. Rothenberg and Fisher (2007) believe that language is not only a tool for conveying meaning about the world, but it is also a tool for clarifying thinking (p. 107). According to Barnes (1992), "language is not the same as thought, but it allows us to reflect upon our thoughts" (pp. 19-20).

On the other side, Chaika (1989) believes that language is something abstract that people use without thinking; that is, language is used spontaneously (p. 1). For

example, children acquire and use their L1 naturally and spontaneously in a community. Children figure language out for themselves and use it for social interaction in communicative and cultural contexts. People use languages to convey meanings, and such meanings are expressed in more than one way in different language communities and different cultural contexts. People use language in different meanings because they need to communicate with each other in different cultural contexts.

Bixby (2000) thinks of language and thought as constructions of a social system (p. 96). Crystal (2003) agrees with Bixby in that people use language and thought, but he adds sensations to that system. Thus, people use language to express what they see, hear, touch, feel, taste, read, and write through thought (p. 7). Moffett (1992) poses the idea of impossibility of experiencing all the reality around us, which means it is difficult for people to change their experiences into thought or to change their thought into language (p. 16).

In some cases in some cultural contexts, it seems challenging for people to render an experience they are not familiar with into thought. For example, I cannot think of the experience of seeing a death ceremony in the United States. I find myself helpless to talk about this experience because I am guided and controlled by the deeply-rooted beliefs about death ceremonies in Islamic and Arabic cultures. It is not incapability of using English that hinders me from talking about that experience; rather, it is incapability to think of that experience in a different culture.

As an extension to language acquisition theories, namely by Chomsky, Ken Goodman presented Whole Language philosophy in 1967. Goodman (1989) talks about Whole Language as a philosophy that

> redefines the teacher as professional decision maker, the curriculum leader in the classroom. It redefines the learner as someone who is strong, active, and already launched on the road to literacy before school begins. It redefines the relationship between teacher and learner as one of supporting development rather than controlling it. Whole language redefines the curriculum; it unifies and integrates oral and written language development with the development of thinking and building knowledge. (p. 69)

Bixby (2000) sees language as a very complicated system that ties four skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking (p. 57). According to Garcia (as cited in Ambert, 1991), learners of English find difficulties because education systems have fragmented language into four unrelated skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening). Furthermore, each language skill has been fragmented into other sub-units, which makes learning English artificial (p. 3).

Fragmentation complicates the processes of teaching and learning English. Language should be seen as an interrelated system of the four language skills (reading, writing, talking, and listening) and all other sub-units. This system can be shown in the following diagram:

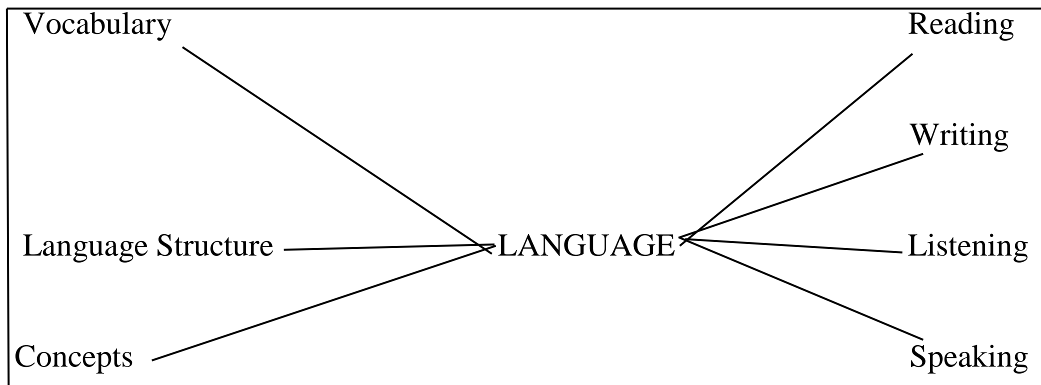

Figure 3 Relationship of Language with Its Activities and Their Sub-Units (Carrasquillo & Rodriguez, 2002, p. 80)

According to the idea of seeing language as a whole system, teachers of English are advised to divide any text into units, including all language skills to be taught consequently. Teaching writing, for example, requires students not only to write, but also to read, listen, and speak. To practice one skill, students use the four language skills as a whole. Moreover, students are asked to respond to what they have read, written, listened, or talked about (Blanton, 1992, pp. 289–290). This unit division can be shown in the below diagram:

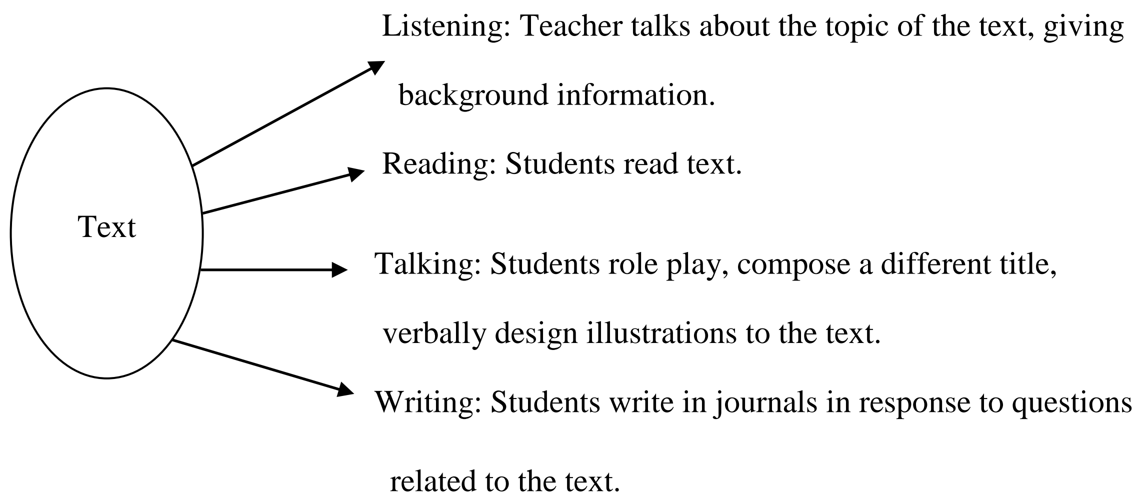

Figure 4 Holistic Design for each Unit of Coursework (Blanton, 1992, p. 290)

Dividing each unit into four language skills helps students achieve the following objectives: (1) satisfy their interests; (2) use language communicatively between themselves; (3) understand the language clearly; (4) become critical thinkers; (5) use all language skills consequently; (6) gain confidence in themselves as users of language (Blanton, 1992, p. 291).

Watson (1988) sees that language is integrated as a whole while learning or teaching. She sees that language consists of a complex system, including subsystems that function in a harmony to help people construct ideas and get meanings. These subsystems should be seen as a whole to get meaning and produce speech (pp. 5-6).

Whole language helps teachers reduce the obstacles and decrease their tension to motivate students to work as leaders in the classroom. It, also, encourages the good relationships between teachers and students, so teachers deal with students as informative counterparts. Through whole language, teachers can identify students' points of strengths and weaknesses. Respect and responsibility are core in whole language philosophy (Crafton, 1991, p. 18).

Social Theory and Language Learning

Autonomy is crucial in learning because it provides students with the feeling of independence and responsibility for their own learning. This feeling encourages and motivates students to find several alternatives to achieve their goals of learning (Little, 1991, p. 4). In general, there are three versions of autonomy: technical, psychological, and political. Technical autonomy is concerned with providing students with the needed techniques and skills for achieving their own learning. Psychological

autonomy is concerned with the students' attitudes and behaviors for helping them become self-directed and self-accessed learners. Political autonomy is concerned with associating the autonomy growth to the critical awareness of the situational contexts (Benson, 1997, pp. 23-24).

The neo-Vygotskian psychology showed the importance of autonomy in learning. Autonomy in learning deals with learning as a process of supported performance that seeks to enhance the interdependence of the "cognitive and social-interactive" scopes of the process of learning. Hence, the teacher's role is to create an educational environment in the classroom, where the students feel autonomous in learning a language. It is essential for a teacher to know that learning foreign languages is different from learning other class subjects, such as history, biology, mathematics, or science (Little, 2011, para. 5).

For teaching foreign languages, Dam (as cited in Little, 2011) uses a technique of autonomization with ELLs in middle school in the Netherlands. Her technique, which aims at motivating students to be autonomous in learning English, is based on the following steps: (1) using English as the only medium of instruction from the beginning; (2) motivating students to develop different situational activities in the classroom; (3) involving teachers and students to assess and evaluate the learning process; (4) helping students to use posters and logbooks to understand the content of learning; (5) encouraging students to talk in English; and (6) focusing on self-assessment and feedback (para. 6).

Finch (n.d.) presents five advantages for autonomy in learning a language as it: (1) provides students with situations where they can study on their own; (2) sustains the students to gain a set of skills that help them learn and apply on their own; (3) enhances the students' inherited capacities and skills to be used in their institutional education; (4) enriches the students' responsibility of their own learning; and (5) encourages the students to select and direct their ways of learning (p. 4).

Autonomy is beneficial in L2 learning because of the following three reasons: (1) Students focus more on learning, which makes them more effective and efficient; (2) Students become self-motivated in learning, and their attitudes towards learning becomes positive; and (3) Students become effective users of the L2 in communicative situations because they enjoy their roles as autonomous learners (Little, 2011, paras. 3-4). So, autonomy is a key for success in learning the L2. The students need to feel that they are independent users of the L2 in order to have the encouragement to use that language with native speakers.

Technology and Language Learning

Three language teaching approaches were used in the last few decades. These three approaches are: structural, cognitive, and socio-cognitive. Structural view sees language as an autonomous system that requires students to transmit its components. Learning language, thus, is based on forming different language structures through repetition and corrective feedback. The main features in this view are based on imitation, sentence analysis, and error and trial. The cognitive view sees language as a mental system, in which students learn language through cognitive processes, such as

testing hypotheses and problem-solving. The socio-cognitive view believes that students learn language through social interactions with native speakers (Allford & Pachler, 2007, p. 225).

For Libyan students, the social interactions with native speakers sometimes are inaccessible due to various circumstances. It is rare for Libyan students to meet with native English speakers in Libya. Most tourists that come to Libya are German and Italian, whose language is either Italian or German. Moreover, tourists go to the desert and oases in the south. They also visit old remains in cities, such as Cyrene, Lappets Megan, and Seberata; hence, it is hard for Libyan students to find a chance to meet with these tourists. Libyan students seldom meet with native English speakers in big cities. Libyan people were not allowed to meet with foreigners, namely Americans and British.

As meeting with native English speakers is a key in using English in communicative situations, teachers need to provide some native English speakers in the classroom in order for Libyan students to experience authentic situations in English. This idea is difficult, if not impossible, to utilize in Libyan schools. It is difficult, also, for Libyan students to live for a while in an English community. Thus, it is essential for Libyan teachers to bring the English community into the classroom. In the 21st century, this is not impossible though it is difficult in Libya nowadays. Libyan teachers can use the Internet to fulfill that task.

Using technology in language learning is not an easy task because using technology in language learning requires some requirements, amongst of which are the

teacher's and students' skills in using technology, availability of technological devices, and the family's understanding of the benefits of technology in learning. To use technology in language learning, Allford and Pachler (2007, p. 221) pose the following questions:

- How do students acquire the needed skills and understanding to use the learning opportunities provided to them by the new technologies?
- How can the society ensure creating new generations of students, who are self-motivated to involve completely in a largely self-directed learning environment?
- How can teachers ensure that the concepts, the content, and the processes they are teaching on-line are understood by their students and turned into intellectual knowledge?
- How can teachers ensure that their students show the social presence and requisite cognitive to engage with the on-line course suitably in a sufficiently analytical way? (p. 221).

Technology, in fact, becomes a useful tool in language learning, and the new learning environments, according to Allford and Pachler (2007), "are shaped to a large extent by the new technologies, and an autonomous language learner needs to be able to understand and use them" (p. 189). Technology provides students with opportunities to have authentic conversations with native speakers under the guidance and control of their teachers. In the technological environment, the students need to be active in using English in different situations and locations; for example, students can join on-line chat rooms that interest them.

People all over the world seek to learn English as an international language, not because English is marketed by English-speaking counties, but because people desire to have access to scientific knowledge enhanced by technology. English helps people access scientific knowledge because English is the lingua franca used in the era of technology (McKay, 2006, p. 117).

Technology, namely the Internet, is used nowadays to shrink the gaps of time, place, gender, nationality, ethnicity, and education among people. Technology becomes a key of success in learning and teaching language, and language is a best means of technological advancement. Teachers need to know how to use technology to teach language, and students need to know how to use technology to learn language.

School and Language Learning

Using language, namely talking, in school provides students with power to be successful learners. According to Gilles and Pierce (2003), "talking in the classroom is an effective tool that students use to understand what is taught to them" (p. 58). Also, Mercer and Dawes (2008) see that "talk amongst pupils can make an important contribution to their learning" (p. 69). Though talking is important in learning English in school, it is not likely supported in most schools in most developing countries, where classrooms are conducted and dominated by teachers. Using this policy, classrooms, as Mercer and Dawes (2008) think, go in one direction only; that is, teacher-centered (p. 56). This, of course, does not lead to effective learning, which requires what Bixby (2000) calls "a two-way, back-and-forth dialogue" (p. 58).

"The aim of schooling," as Puffer (2007) believes, "is personal empowerment and cultural reproduction." Personal empowerment refers to the development in the student's personal potential to the whole. Cultural reproduction refers to the way the younger generations handle a body of competence, which is agreed culturally to be an indispensable part for them to be full members of the community to where they belong (p. 66). The aim of schooling is to encourage students to convert school knowledge (information) into action knowledge (talking and writing) (Barnes, 1992, p. 82), which has several educational purposes in addition to the social ones.

One of the social advantages of action knowledge is that it shows us the role of a particular model of communication, which is called "information transfer model." In this model, the sender sends abstract information in forms of codes, and the receiver encodes the codes to get meaning from that abstract information. The process of encoding is successful if there is no disturbance in sending or receiving the codes (Puffer, 2007, p. 67). So, when there is no disturbance while conveying and receiving the language codes, communication becomes effective. In contrast, when there is disturbance, the users of that language feel uncomfortable, and miscommunication takes place, as a result (Andrews, 1993, p. 93).

From the discussion above, it is recommended that English language teachers encourage students to use the four language skills, especially talking and listening. That is because, as Gilles and Pierce (2003) believe, people who do not talk in the classroom are powerless people (p. 71). Also, Barnes (1992) said, "It is through talking over new ideas with their teachers and peers that pupils can most readily move towards new ways of thinking and feeling" (p. 8).

Communicative Competence and Language Learning

Communicative Competence is a concept coined by Hymes in the beginning 1970s as a response to Chomsky's concept "competence and performance" in the late 1950s. Chomsky focuses on the use of linguistic competence away from its social factors, basing on his theory of Universal Grammar. Hymes disagrees with Chomsky in that view, so he presents his concept "Communicative Competence," which includes both Linguistic Competence (use rules for combining sounds with morphemes and morphemes with sentences) and Sociolinguistic Competence (use rules for using language in social contexts). (See Appendix E for the chronological evaluation of Communicative Competence).

The appendix shows five models of Communicative Competence: (1) Linguistic Model presented by Chomsky in late 1950s; (2) Social Model presented by Hymes in beginning 1970s; (3) the Theoretical Framework Model presented by Canale and Swain in 1980s; (4) the Organizational Model presented by Bachman and Palmer in 1990s; (5) the Actional Model presented by Celce-Murcia and his colleagues in late 1990s. Another model, Common European Framework of Reference for Languages Model, was presented by the Council of Europe in 2000s.

The Linguistic Model, which is concerned with Grammatical Competence, is based on Chomsky's theories about language competence and performance presented in his Universal Grammar Theory and Transformational Generative Grammar Theory in the middle of 1950s. According to Chomsky, mastery of language is based on mastery of its vocabulary, morphological and syntactic structure, and phonetic sounds.

According to Chomsky (1965), children acquire competence about language away from its sociocultural features, and children use it as performance in multiple sociocultural contexts later (pp. 32-33). Chomsky's analysis about language competence and performance indicates that children inherit grammatical competence from childhood, which allows children to acquire language rapidly.

In a different way, the Social Model, which is concerned with the Sociolinguistic Competence, is based on the idea "Language is a social activity." Accordingly, people acquire and use language in sociocultural and sociolinguistic contexts. Three interrelated concepts describe Sociolinguistic Competence: (1) Verbal Repertoire, which focuses on heterogeneity of speech communities and the importance of social relationships; (2) Linguistic Routines, which focuses on chronological organizations in sentences that help language users interact through; and (3) Domains of Language Behavior, which focus on situations, in which one variety of language works more effectively than another variety (Hymes, 2001, pp. 69-70).

In 1980, Canale and Swain presented their Theoretical Framework Model, which is based on Grammatical Competence, Sociolinguistic Competence, and Strategic Competence. The Strategic Competence is concerned with the verbal or non-verbal strategies, which the language users use to compensate for their failure in using language in real communicative situations. For example, when someone fails to communicate with others, he might use some strategies, such as avoiding using some words, paraphrasing his words, repeating some words or phrases, guessing other forms, using indirect speech, and the like (Bagaric & Djigunovic, 2007, p. 97).

In its later version in 1984, Canale and Swain added Discourse Competence to be the fourth competence in this model. Discourse Competence is based on the idea that mastering of cohesive rules, such as parallel structures, transition words, pronouns, repetition, synonyms, and so on help people use language communicatively and in writing discourses (Bagaric & Djigunovic, 2007, pp. 97-98). Theoretical Framework Model gained its popularity in the 1980s in the fields of language testing and second language acquisition.

In the middle of 1990s, Bachman and Palmer presented their model, Organizational Model (See the chart below).

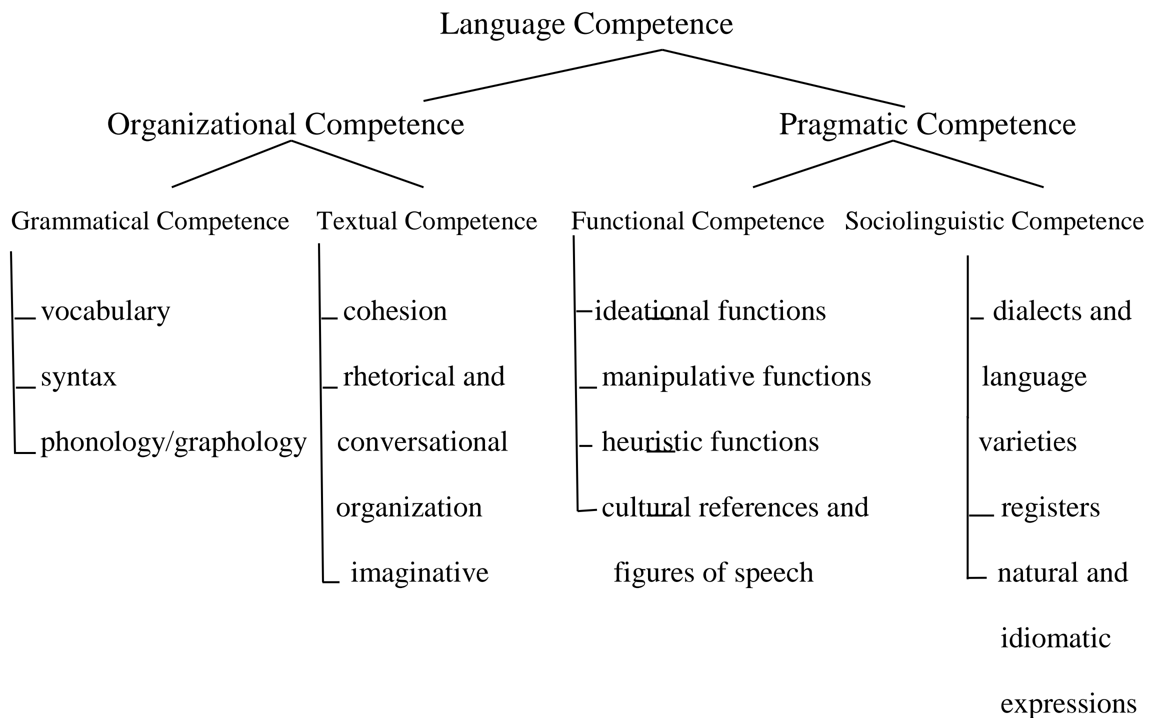

Figure 5 Areas of Language Competence (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 68)

This model is based on the idea that the language user's characteristics have a great influence on his ability to use language communicatively. This model is based mainly on Language Competence, which consists of two complementary sub-

competences that work collaboratively to assist the language user to use language communicatively. These complementary sub-competences are Organizational Competence and Pragmatic Competence (Bagaric & Djigunovic, 2007, p. 98).

According to Bachman and Palmer (1996), Organizational Competence is concerned with the abilities that work collaboratively to control and guide the way the language user uses language structures, which include Grammatical Competence and Textual Competence. The Grammatical Competence is concerned with vocabulary, phonology, morphology, graphology, and syntax that work together to help the language user recognize and produce correct grammatical structures. In the other side, Textual Competence is concerned with the conventions used for combining different linguistic utterances in one meaningful text. For example, the language user may use cohesion and coherent to link related sentences in one paragraph in a text (p. 98).

Pragmatic Competence, which is "the ability to communicate effectively and involves knowledge beyond the level of grammar" (Grossi, 2009, p. 53), is concerned with the abilities the language user may use to produce and interpret various discourses. It includes two types of competences: (1) Functional Competence, responsible for producing appropriate language functions the language user may use for interpreting an utterance or a discourse; and (2) Sociolinguistic Competence, responsible for producing and interpreting the linguistic utterances the language user may use to communicate in a particular situation (Barron, 2003, pp. 9-10).

In the middle of 1990s, Celce-Murcia and his colleagues presented their Actional Model, which is concerned with the language user's abilities responsible for producing speech acts. In this model, the concept "Sociocultural Competence," which

is concerned with how language users base on their cultural backgrounds to use language communicatively was used (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 42).

Sociocultural Competence indicates to the language user's Pragmatic Competence, which helps language users use language communicatively in its various cultural and social contexts. Actional Competence indicates to the competence that helps the language user use language communicatively for exchanging information, expressing feelings and opinions, apologizing, blaming, regretting, complaining, wishing hopes and predictions, and the like (Celce-Murcia, 2007, pp. 46-48).

In 2000, the Council of Europe presented its model, Common European Framework. This model provides European countries with a solid basis for curriculum guidelines, textbooks, language syllabi, methods of examinations, and the like. It, also, provides its users with ways of how to make use of the language competences required to develop their language communication (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 1). The model classifies language users into three levels: A, B, and C, as shown in the chart below.

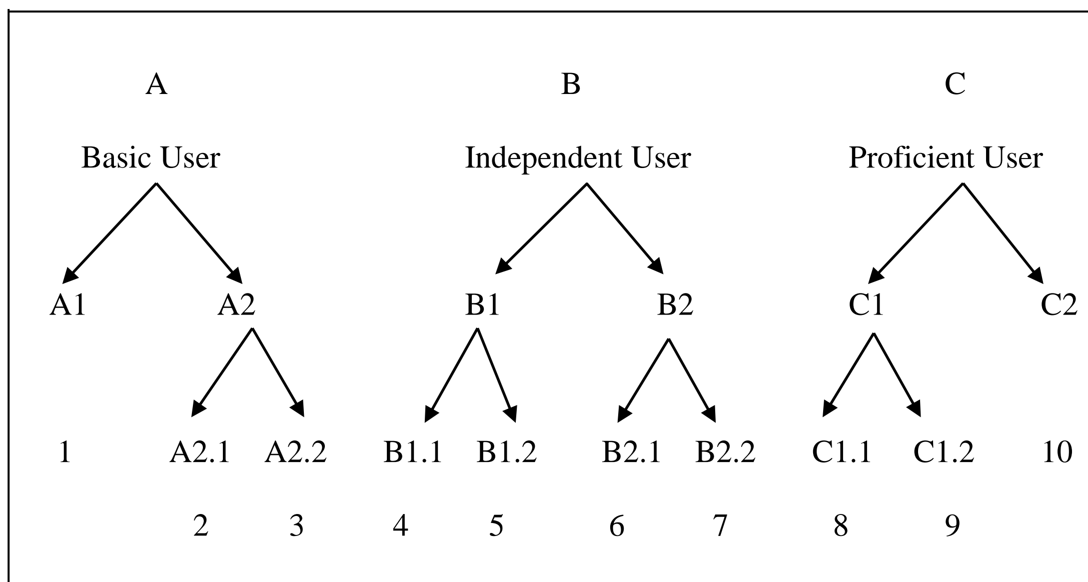

Figure 6 Levels of Language Users (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 33).

The chart describes the communicative activities and language competence in six levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2). Language users are classified into three levels (Basic, Independent, and Proficient). Basic user of language indicates to the user in the elementary level of language competence and considered as a dependent user of language. Independent user of language indicates to the user that can communicate with others in everyday conversations. Proficient user of language indicates to the user that can communicate as native speakers do (Dieten, n.d., p. 143). The numbers indicate to language communication proficiency, starting from 1 as beginner and ends with 10 as proficient.

The main objective of this model is to achieve harmony and unity in language use and qualification among European countries through putting standards for language assessments and language learners' levels and standards (See appendix F for more details). According to Council of Europe (2001), this model overcomes the difficulties the European foreign language professionals encounter due to the difference gaps among European educational systems. It provides textbook designers, teachers, examining centers, educational administrators, and the like with strategies for their language communicative practices that meet with language learners' needs and interests (p. 1).

The process of which the students acquire communicative competence in the classroom is shown by the diagram below by Stern (1981), which shows that language learning takes place through study and practice of structural, functional, and sociocultural aspects. In addition, language teachers should provide authentic situations, where the students experiment their language use communicatively.

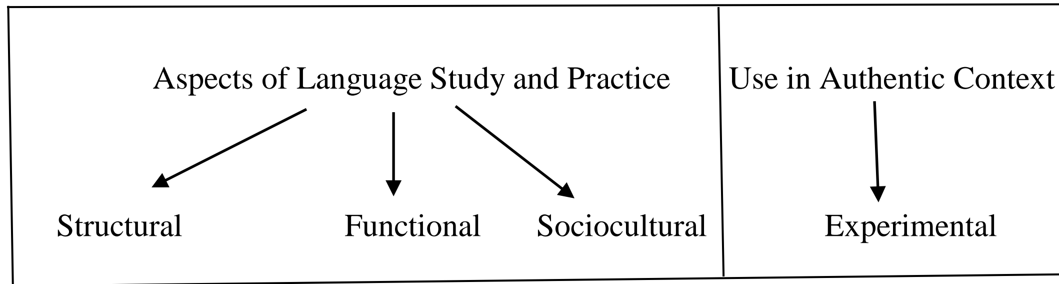

Figure 7 Communicative Competence Acquisition in the Classroom (Ohno, n.d., p. 29)

Teaching and Learning English in Other Countries: Selected Approaches

In this part, I am going to write about some experiences of teaching and learning English in some countries, whose first language is not English. I intentionally selected these countries as some have successful experiences in teaching and learning English, and some have similar failures such as those in Libya. I will select the successful experiences and try to apply and modify them in teaching English in Libya. Unsuccessful methods of teaching and learning English in these countries are important as I will focus on the points of weaknesses and failures in these experiences in order to be avoided while teaching English in Libya.

Teaching and Learning EFL in South Korea

Learning English in South Korea is a key to gain economic success to compete in the global world. The Korean government put the importance of learning English as a priority (Takeshita, 2010, p. 266). The Korean government encouraged Korean teachers to use Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLTA) in the classroom in the late 1980s. In 1992, the Ministry of Education issued new curricula for teaching English based on communicative competence and use of English

communicatively. Yet, Korean students do not develop their communicative competence in English (McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008, p. 52).

Li (as cited in McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008) attributes failure in using CLTA in South Korea to the following reasons: (1) Korean teachers prepare Korean students to pass English exams, not to use English for oral communications; (2) Students' low proficiency of English makes them unmotivated to communicate in English or participate in class discussions in English; and (3) Korean teachers are not fluent speakers of English (p. 52).

For these reasons and others, Poupore (2005), who used to teach English for intermediate and advanced levels in the English Department in a Korean university, believes that Korean students, even those whose major is English, lack the oral-aural English skills. Poupore applied task-based approach with Korean students. He discovered that this approach was the most appropriate method for teaching English in South Korea (p. 242). Liu, Ahn, Bake, and Han (2004) talk about the situation of teaching English in South Korea as:

> In the past two decades, however, with English education in South Korea following the global trend in shifting from knowledge based to use oriented, the practice of using Korean to teach English has received increasing criticism from educators, students, and parents. Many blame the practice for Korean students' lack of English proficiency even after they have studied English for years. Critics are now calling for English

language teachers and students to use the English more frequently in the classroom. (p. 606)

Yoo (2005) suggests that the Korean government adopt English as the co-official language along with the Korean language and English as the only foreign language taught in schools (p. 7). Though the Korean government introduced English as a main subject in primary school (from 3rd grade) in 1997, Korean students were very poor in using English communicatively. Young people, namely those who conduct private businesses, tried other ways to learn English and help their children learn English effectively out of school (Honna, 2006, p. 124). For example, Korean mothers leave with their children to an English-speaking country, and their husbands stay in Korea to work and provide them with money to cover living costs and school tuitions for their children. This phenomenon is known as “wild geese” (Takeshita, 2010, p. 274).

Teaching and Learning EFL in Japan

In Japan, as in many Asian countries, the government and business sectors lead the process of English language teaching in public and private schools. In the late 1980s, the Ministry of Education in Japan released a program called “The Action Plan to Cultivate Japanese with English Abilities.” This program aimed at encouraging Japanese to achieve the highest level of English proficiency; thus, tests such as STEP (Society for Testing English Proficiency), TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language), and TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) were used to measure Japanese proficiency of English (Kubota, 2011, p. 250).

The most popular and commonly used test in Japan is TOEIC, which focuses mainly in using English in communicative situations. TOEIC was developed by Educational Testing Service (ETS) in Japan in 1979. According to Kubota (2011), the ETS requires Japanese ELLs to take this test, so more than 1.7 million Japanese ELLs took the TOEIC in 2008 (p. 250). Nowadays, TOEIC in Japan is conducted by the Institute for International Business Communication (IIBC), which is a non-profit organization established in 1986 by the Ministry of International Trade and Industry.

In Japan, students used to learn English from 7th grade for three years till 9th grade. In 2002, the Ministry of Education, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) issued a plan called "New Course of Study" which aimed at offering English as a language of instruction along Japanese in primary schools from 3rd grade. In 2006, the MEXT suggested that English be compulsory for students from 5th grade (McKenzie, 2010, pp. 8-9). English becomes a requirement for students to join either private or public university.

Japanese government, in fact, worked hard to encourage Japanese to use English as a second language (ESL). The MEXT dedicated roughly 2 trillion yen (about 20 billion dollars) to activate the use of English communicatively. In 2003, the MEXT issued plans to cultivate English abilities with Japanese. This plan aimed at improving English language teaching in Japanese private and public school system. The plan is directed to use English as the medium of instruction in schools. This requires sending Japanese teachers abroad to learn most modern methods of teaching. Also, the plan tends to send 10,000 high-school students to English-speaking countries. English language teaching plan aims to achieve comprehending English

culture, explaining Japanese culture, and teaching English as a global language (Honna, 2006, pp. 121-122).

The experience of teaching and learning English in Japan is classified in two periods. The first period is that before 1990, which is unsuccessful, as Baskin and Shitai (1996) believe, saying, “There are millions of Japanese who have studied English for 6, 7, and 8 years without acquiring the ability to communicate. Their studies have been directed towards studying about English grammar and vocabulary in order to pass entrance examinations for high school, junior college, and university” (p. 82).

The second period is that after 1990, which is successful. Because of the urgent need for using English as a lingua franca (ELF) in the whole world, Ministry of Education in Japan established new standards for learning and teaching foreign languages, namely English, in junior and high schools in Japan in 1989/1990. One of the main objectives of the new standards was to enforce Japanese teachers of English to focus on listening and speaking English skills in the classroom. Japanese teachers of English were required to promote and encourage Japanese students to communicate in English in different functional situations. The Ministry of Education required teachers to use CLTA in teaching English. This change has gained acceptance by both Japanese English language teachers and Japanese students (McKay, 2006, p. 123).

Though the shift from traditional methods of teaching English into CLTA was slow, it was beneficial and fruitful. Because Japanese teachers of English lacked fluency in using English and could not apply CLTA effectively, Japanese schools

hired some native English teachers to teach English in public and private schools. Hiring some native English teachers helped not only Japanese students communicate in English, but also Japanese teachers of English, who worked with these native English teachers, observe these teachers and learn from them how to use and teach English communicatively (Baskin & Shitai, 1996, p. 83).

What helps Japanese students be good users of English is using ELF in the daily life routine in Japan. So, in addition to using English communicatively in schools, students use English communicatively in everyday situations. Considering English as the only lingua franca in Japan has two advantages. The first advantage is that ELF makes no difference between the English used in Expanding Circle as FL and the English used in Outer Circle as L2. For this point, Jenkins (2006) explains that "ELF is an attempt to extend to Expanding Circle members the rights that have always been enjoyed in the Inner Circle and to an increasing extent in the Outer" (p. 38).

The second advantage of using ELF is that Japanese students can use several varieties of English freely in different contextual situations. In the ELF paradigm, there is no Standard English; students communicate in several varieties of English. So, ELF provides its speakers in the Expanding Circle with the advantage of not being distinguished from the speakers in the Outer Circle. In other words, ELF is used as ESL in the Expanding Circle, which means that English is used inside and outside the classroom.

To make it clear, Japanese teachers of English encourage Japanese students to use English for international communications. Using ELF enhances the linguistic,

paralinguistic, and sociolinguistic features of English. For example, Japanese teachers recommend Japanese students to make syllable-timed rhythm, which is a normal rhythm used by Japanese learners of English, with few reduction, assimilation, and linking. As for grammar, teachers are flexible in using English grammar, regarding present perfect, indefinite/definite articles, plural/singular forms. Japanese students' use of these grammatical items is different from those used by English native speakers (Hino, 2009, p. 109).

From one hand, using idioms and expressions that are different from Japanese culture is not recommended to be taught in early stages. On the other hand, it is recommended that teachers teach idioms and expressions, which convey similar Japanese values and meaning to those used in the English culture. As for writing, Japanese students are permitted to use Japanese organization and style of writing to write English texts. Thus, the style of Japanese writing called "delayed introduction of purpose" is accepted in writing an English text, which requires the introduction be in the beginning (Hino, 2009, pp. 109-110).

For the sociolinguistic part, Japanese students are permitted to use their sociolinguistic rules as long as they use English as the only medium of instruction in the classroom. Japanese students use titles before first names when they call classmates, namely the senior ones. Americans do not use titles before their first names. Also, Japanese students bow for greeting; whereas, Americans shake hands. The American teacher, who teaches Japanese students, admits and accepts these Japanese traditions and customs.

Another useful policy the Japanese Ministry of Education follows is sending Japanese students to English-speaking countries to have English courses. Japanese students use the English learned in Japanese schools in authentic situations in English-speaking countries. Japanese schools and English language centers in Japan provide Japanese students with opportunities to travel for some periods of time to English-speaking countries, namely to the United States, to practice English and see how English is used by native English speakers (Pankratz, 2006, p. 9).

Teaching and Learning EFL in China

Though English in China is taught from the 3rd grade, teaching English is always unsatisfactory. The College of English Test (CET) imposed learning of English at college levels. It is required that a student gets a certificate of 4/6 from CET to join university. Universities adopt the policy of "No CET 4/6 Certificate, No Graduation Diploma." Thus, about 6 million Chinese students take this test annually. Other organizations accept certificates of English test issued by China Public English System (PETS) (Honna, 2006, p. 116). Focus on teaching and learning English in China has increased after China won the bid for hosting the 2008-Olympic Games. Many campaigns were launched by the government, namely in Beijing area, showed the importance of learning English (Schneider, 2011, pp. 181-182).

Teaching English in China has encountered many difficulties. Chinese students learn English in schools for more than 10 years, yet they are still unable to communicate in English in authentic situations. Even after Chinese students graduate from university, they fail to communicate with others through English. In 1996, a

study shows that 75% of 1000 top college and university students in China see teaching English in China unsatisfactory, and 18% of these students see that teaching English in China was very bad (Yihui & Jacob, 2009, p. 469).

Cheng (2011) puts the blames on the shoulders of teachers, who use traditional methods in teaching English in China. The main objective of the traditional methods of teaching English in China is to prepare Chinese students to be good English test-takers, not good English communicators. Chinese students are good users of English on paper, but they are bad users of English in reality. Most of Chinese students, either in high school level, university level, or grad level, do not speak English well in real life or functional purposes (p. 135).

For preparing Chinese students to be good English test-takers, Chinese students always perform well in English tests on paper, but they perform very poorly in communicative situations, namely with native English speakers (Yihui & Jacob, 2009, p. 469). English tests in Chinese schools measure accuracy in using English grammar and structure. These tests do not examine Chinese students' fluency in English communications. Consequently, Chinese students, even in high levels, find difficulties to communicate in English in communicative situations, yet they are good in grammar and English as a language (Goh & Luan, 2003, p. 62).

Teachers of English in China focus on teaching students about English, such as grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. The speaking and listening skills are completely ignored; as well as, there is no high emphasis on reading and writing (Cheng, 2011, p. 136). Learning English in China is a tool for professional and

academic success. Chinese students are not motivated to learn English to use in communicative situations (Goh & Luan, 2003, p. 64). The traditional method of teaching English in China, called "Stuffing Duck," aims at providing chances to teachers to talk almost all the time of the class period while students sit passively, listening to their teachers (Cui, 2006, p. 13). .

Chinese teachers of English use GTM and Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) in teaching English in schools, colleges, and universities. Sometimes, Chinese teachers combine these two methods, focusing mainly on grammar, vocabulary, phonetics, and sentence structure. The use of these two methods, as a Chinese teacher says, shifts the classroom to be teacher-centered, rule-centered, and textbook-centered. Chinese students study units or lessons in the textbook, and each unit consists of a list of vocabulary, a list of grammar rules, and exercises (Cui, 2006, pp. 6-7).

Moreover, Chinese teachers of English use Chinese language to teach English. This means that translation plays an important part in teaching English in China. Translation is not required in explaining English texts only, but it also requires that Chinese students translate English texts into Chinese or vice versa in exams. To facilitate the job of translation for Chinese students, there are fixed proper translations at the end of each unit or lesson. Chinese students memorize word-by-word translation to get good grades in the assigned exams. Missing some words in these fixed translations leads to loss of grades, even when the translation makes sense and is proper (Cui, 2006, p. 7).

Though the situation of teaching English in China changed in 1990s, when some reforms on GTM and ALM were taken place (Cheng, 2011, pp. 135-136), the situation still remains unsatisfactory. GTM is still the dominate method of teaching English in China even after the government had some changes on English textbooks in 1994. The change in these textbooks, according to Cui (2006), was replacing grammar explanations for “check points,” which is a list of name or names of the grammar rules studied in each unit. This list is added at the end of each unit. The students, according to this reform, were required to identify these grammar rules and search about them in other resources. This reform in the English textbooks did not improve the learning environment, as still the focus was only on grammar (p. 7).

The situation of teaching and learning English in China remains as it is. It seems that both Chinese English teachers and Chinese students prefer GTM and ALM, which base on drill and repetition in teaching English grammar and structures. Both drill and repetition require students to use memory. So, memorization is an integral part in learning not only English, but also in Chinese learning system and culture. For example, as there is no relationship between how Chinese words are written and sound, Chinese rely on memorization to learn about Chinese characters. In this regard, a Chinese teacher (as cited in Cui, 2006) says, “I used to copy dozens of Chinese characters ten times each day as homework in my elementary school years; about 2,000 Chinese characters have to be learned in this painstaking way for one to become literate in Chinese” (p. 8).

Because of the continuous failure to use English in communicative situations, the Ministry of Education in China adopted several changes in teaching English in

China in 2001. Amongst these changes was "The Ministry of Education Guidelines for Vigorously Promoting the Teaching of English in Primary Schools," which started on January 18, 2001. This program promoted the idea of teaching English in the 3rd primary level instead of 1st year of junior secondary school (Hu, 2008, p. 516).

Teaching and Learning EFL in Saudi Arabia

English is taught as the only FL in all public schools, many private schools, and universities in Saudi Arabia. The Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia assigns English to be taught as an obligatory class subject in intermediate and secondary levels; that is, from 7th grade till 12th grade for both boys' and girls' schools (Boys' and girls' schools are separate in Saudi Arabia). This means that both Saudi boys and girls study English for 6 years before joining the university. There are four 45-minute English class periods a week; that is, English is taught for three hours a week. Teachers in Saudi Arabia focus on reading and writing at the expense of speaking and listening (Al-Seghayer, 2005, pp. 126-127).

Saudi teachers teach English in schools, but native English speakers, bilinguals, and Asian teachers teach English in college levels. As for the native English teachers, most of them are not well qualified (Khan, 2011a, p. 1587). Native English speakers teach English in colleges and some English language centers, regardless their qualification or experience in teaching of English. To be a teacher of English, according to Robinett (1978), a teacher should "have a solid grasp of the substances of the subject to be taught and, especially, the techniques for teaching" (p. xi).

As for the bilingual teachers in Saudi Arabia, they are teachers from Egypt, Jordan, Iraq, and Palestine; most of them are not fluent speakers of English. Teachers from Asia include teachers from India, Pakistan, and such countries, which have different pronunciations from British or American English (Khan, 2011a, p. 1587). GTM and ALM are the most common methods of teaching English in Saudi Arabia. Though ALM is preferred by teachers of English in Saudi Arabia, teachers do not use labs in teaching English (Al-Seghayer, 2005, p. 129).

For the problem of methods of teaching English, Khan (2011b) proposes that Saudi teachers of English take courses about how to teach English to ELLs in pre-service teacher training centers. It is conditioned in Saudi Arabia that teachers take courses in these centers in order to be recruited as teachers of English in Saudi Arabia schools. These pre-service teacher-training centers provide short-time teacher training courses, lasting a month or so. Beside these pre-service teacher-training centers, there are other centers in main universities in Saudi Arabia that provide such courses, too (pp. 885-887).

The situation of teaching and learning English in Saudi Arabia is unsatisfactory. Saudi teachers of English complete their college and university years in the English major without being able to speak even simple sentences in English (Al-Hazmi, 2003, p. 342). The Saudi government should make reforms to change the unsatisfactory situation of learning and teaching English in Saudi Arabia. These reforms may include: cultivation the educational environment, highlighting the role of the teaching method for teachers to teach English effectively, improving English curricula taught in Saudi schools to suit Saudi culture, encouraging Saudi students to

learn English to use in functional situations, and modifying students' attitudes towards learning English to be positive (Al-Seghayer, 2005, pp. 132-133).

Techniques of English Language Teaching

The beginning of the 20th century witnessed the use of three teaching methods: traditional (through the use of GTM), structural (through the use of ALM), and transformational-generative (through the use of Cognitive Code-Learning Method) (Robinett, 1978, p. 160). Some of these teaching methods gained satisfaction by teachers and students in some parts in the world; others gained no satisfaction by teachers and students in some parts in the world (Liu, 2007, p. 13). Hence, it seems challenging that educators find one successful method that goes with all students and teachers in different parts in the world (Richards, 1996, p. 270). In this part, I am presenting the most common methods, approaches, and models of teaching English (See Appendix A for more methods).

Grammar Translation Method (GTM)

GTM originated in the late 18th century as a modern method for teaching Greek and Latin languages to students in schools. It is based on translating grammar of the L2 into the grammar of the L1 (Lindsay & Knight, 2006, p. 15). This method was used first by German scholars, such as Ploetz, Seidenstucker, Meidinger, and Ollendorf from 1783 to 1849 for teaching Latin and Greek to German students through teaching Latin or Greek grammatical rules, vocabulary, and texts in German (Aslam, 2003, p. 38).

Later, GTM was shifted from being used to teach Greek and Latin to be used in teaching English. Teachers of English at that time believed that English consisted of a set of grammatical rules and vocabulary, and being in a full command of these grammatical rules would help students speak English perfectly. English language teachers focused on grammar and vocabulary in teaching English, so speakers of English were generated for many decades (Broughton et al., 1978, p. 39).

This method focuses on teaching grammar in writing and reading contexts only, and teachers spend most of the time in practicing correct grammar structures at the expense of communication, so the focus is on the accuracy over fluency. Kara (1992) noticed that after many years of teaching English to Libyan students, using GTM, these students were not able to communicate in English. All these students were able to recite only grammatical rules (p. 36). GTM is unsuccessful for teaching foreign languages because it does not prepare students to communicate through the FL.

GTM is not an optimum method for teaching English because the students learn the L2 through their mother tongues, not through the L2. GTM focuses on grammar and vocabulary at the expense of communication. The result is that students know grammatical rules in the L2, but they lack the ability to communicate in that L2 (McIntyre, Kyle, Chen, Kraemer, & Parr. 2009, p. 8).

Direct Method (DM)

DM originated as a method of teaching foreign languages in 1920s. It was developed as a method of teaching to solve the problems accompanying the use of GTM. In contrast to GTM, DM emphasizes the use of the L2 in teaching the L2.

Teachers convey meanings of words, not through translating in the L1, but through mimicking, gesturing, asking, and practicing question-and-answer activities. Students learn grammar through working out in the L2 (Lindsay & Knight, 2006, pp. 16-17). This method gained popularity in Europe, namely in France and Germany, as a method of teaching foreign languages to facilitate business among European countries at the beginning of the 20th century. In this method, teachers focus on using the L2, and grammar comes inductively (Aslam, 2003, p. 43).

Sauveur and Maximilian Berlitz introduced this method to schools in the United States and was known as "Berlitz Method." It gained success in private schools in the United States, so it is still used in Berlitz chain private schools of teaching and learning modern languages under the name "Berlitz Method." Also, Berlitz guidelines for teaching oral languages are still applied in Berlitz' schools (See appendix G for more details).

O'Neill and Gish (2008) use the concept "Silent Way of Learning" for DM (p. 94). In this method, teachers give students more opportunities to use the L2, so teachers are silent most of the time. This makes learning in DM resemble first language acquisition, where children need to be fully immersed in the community in order to acquire their L1. Similarly, students need to practice the L2 in the classroom in order to use it communicatively in authentic situations. Teachers encourage students to use the L2 in functional and meaningful contexts.

The main objective of this method is to develop the students' abilities to think in the L2 in reading, writing, listening, and talking. Hence, this method requires that language teachers be fluent in the L2 and be successful in clarifying meanings in the

L2 without translating into the L1. The idea of this method is based on the belief that students learn the L2 when they listen and speak it in several situations in different contexts.

Audio Lingual Method (ALM)

During and after the World War II in the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s, American government developed ALM as a method of teaching American military armies foreign languages. The American government intended to improve American armies' abilities to communicate in foreign languages with native speakers of the countries invaded. This method focuses on teaching the L2 by dividing learners in small groups in order to practice the aural-oral drills through imitating native speakers. It is named "Army Method," and it borrowed its main principles from DM, which emphasizes the use of the L2 in communication. Teachers, who use ALM, present the L2 in forms of dialogues through tape recorders, visual aids, and language labs (McIntyre et al., 2009, p. 8).

This method bases its idea on Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which claims that learners need assistance at the beginning, and later they become independent in their own learning. The ZPD idea is associated with the idea of seeing language as a social activity, which requires that people interact with one another in order to generate language (Rothenberg & Fisher, 2007, pp. 20-21). This method focuses on speaking and listening, claiming that people learn how to speak and listen before they learn how to read and write. In this method, language is

presented in simple forms first. Later, more complex forms are presented (O'Neill & Gish, 2008, p. 89).

ALM was developed because learning a language was seen similar to learning new habits. Thus, language was seen as structure of sounds, letters, and vocabulary in forms of sentences. As for grammar, learners are supposed to learn grammar of the L2 through producing utterances in the L2 as accurate stimuli. Learners produce these stimuli through the skills of speaking and listening; reading and writing come later. This method focuses on drill activities, in which the teacher gives a hint, and the students present a dialogue in appropriate grammatical structures. For example, a teacher holds a picture of a post office and asks the students about that picture (Lindsay & Knight, 2006, p. 18).

Though ALM gained its popularity in the late 1940s till 1960s, some educators see that this method is unsuccessful as a method of teaching L2. O'Neill and Gish (2008) see that ALM does not pay attention to communication in the classroom; as well as, it does not focus on syntax and structure of the L2 (p. 89). Lindsay and Knight (2006) see that though drill activities are useful, drills do not provide students with opportunities to practice the L2 naturally with native speakers (p. 18). Olivares (1993) thinks that ALM

> teaches the second language in isolation from other areas of the curriculum. Thus, it tends to delay students' ability to satisfy their requirements in other areas of the curriculum. This poses a serious problem since neither the students nor the school system has time to put

off the development of knowledge and cognitive skills in the content areas until the second language has been completely mastered. (p. 39)

Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLTA)

CLTA originated as an approach of teaching foreign languages in England in the early 1970s. It was developed as a reaction against the Situational Approach and Functional Language Teaching Approach, which were dominating in 1960s. British scholars Candlin and Widdowson modified the work of the British functional linguists Firth and Halliday and the work of the American socio-linguist Hymes and developed this approach. The British scholars focused on teaching communicative performance rather than structure competence.

Lindsay and Knight (2006) see that the Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) model plays an important role in the spread of CLTA as an effective approach in teaching ESL or EFL. The PPP model works as following: (1) the teacher "presents" English in a form of either an oral dialogue through playing a recorder or a written text through reading a book; (2) the students "practice" English under the supervision of their teacher. The students may finish written exercises about what they have read or practiced, imitating the English dialogues they already heard with their peers; and (3) the students "produce" English in different free activities, using the vocabulary and grammar they have already studied (p. 20).

Teachers began the use of CLTA in the early 1970s based on the idea that what students really needed was to communicate in the L2 in order to be functional in that language. So, teachers focused on the use of the L2 communicatively in different

contexts in the classroom (O'Neill & Gish, 2008, p. 92). This approach provides students with several opportunities to use the L2 effectively in authentic situations inside and outside the classroom. It aims at encouraging students to communicate in the L2 in different contexts, using various styles, such as predicting, requesting, suggesting, inviting, criticizing, agreeing, disagreeing, and the like (Lindsay & Knight, 2006, p. 20).

Many scholars and educators have proven that CLTA is successful for teaching ESL or EFL because it is based on communication in English in different communicative situations. For example, due to the use of CLTA in Japanese schools, most Japanese use English effectively as lingua franca in different contexts (Hino, 2009, p. 109). As an approach of teaching English, CLTA achieves both goals of learning and processes of teaching. CLTA emphasizes the role of communicative competence in learning the L2, so it bases its principles on first language acquisition research (Liu, 2007, p. 30).

What makes CLTA successful is that it focuses on students and experience of teaching the L2, which means that it evokes the students to be independent and responsible for their own learning. This approach requires a strong relationship between the teacher and the students. Thus, the teacher's role in this approach is to facilitate the process of learning and guide students how to use the L2 in several communicative situations. The teacher gives his feedback for the errors the students commit while practicing the L2. In this approach, the teacher divides the students into small groups for the purpose of using the L2 in several communicative situations (Howard & Millar, 2009, p. 33).

According to Lindsay and Knight (2006) CLTA "has shifted the focus in language teaching from learning about the language to learning to communicate in the language" (p. 23). This approach aims at achieving: (1) learning that focuses on communicating in the L2; (2) providing authentic situations in the L2 to enable learners to communicate in the L2; (3) providing students with opportunities to focus on both the L2 and process of learning the L2; (4) engaging students in classroom activities through using their own experiences in dialogues in the L2; and (5) using the L2 both inside and outside the classroom (McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008, p. 51; McKay, 2003, p. 40).

Though CLTA is proven successful in teaching ESL or EFL in some countries, such as Japan, there are some difficulties that associate with the use of CLTA in some other countries. Li (as cited in McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008) interviewed some Korean teachers, who were teaching English in secondary public schools in South Korea, and revealed the difficulties that these teachers encountered as: (1) Educational System Difficulties, which include the examination grammar based system, huge number of students in large classes, and teachers' incapability of communicating with students in English; and (2) English Proficiency Difficulties, which include teachers' and students' low proficiency in English, lack of communicative competence, lack of motivation, lack of students' participation in the classroom (p. 52).

Conclusion

This chapter presents facts about education system in Libya and general facts about language, language learning, and language teaching. The general facts about Libya show that Libya was invaded by many countries throughout its history, and

Libyans have been exposed to multiple foreign languages. Also, Libyans are Muslim Sunnis and can recite the Quran. Being Muslim Sunnis and being able to recite the Quran are supposed to be strong motives for learning foreign languages. The Quran urges Muslims in many verses to learn foreign languages. Also, the Prophet Mohamed (Peace Be upon Him) urged Muslims to learn foreign languages in many Hadiths.

In a study by Alhmali (2007) of 1,939 middle and high school students in Libya about their attitudes towards learning English, Alhmali found out that these students preferred learning English over learning Arabic, sciences, or mathematics (p. 14). Ahhmali's study in addition to what the Quran and Hadiths say about learning foreign languages are supposed to be good indicators about Libyans' interest in using English as the lingua franca in this era. But what is shown in almost all studies, regarding teaching and learning English in Libya, indicates that Libyans still find difficulties in using English communicatively.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

Rationale

This study sets out to examine the experiences of Libyan English educators. In this chapter, I am going to discuss in detail the methodology I used to fulfill this study, participants, questions, data collection, data analysis, trustworthiness, triangulation, ethics, and limitations of the study.

Methodology of the Study

Potter (1996) defines methodology as “a vision for what research is and how it should be conducted” (p. 50). Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006) see that a methodology is a tool a researcher uses to collect data and a technique to reach evidence (p. 38). To fulfill the purposes of this study, I conducted the Qualitative Research Method, defined by Strauss and Corbin (1990) as “any kind of research that produces findings that are not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification” (p. 17) and by Anderson (1987) as “a research paradigm which emphasizes inductive, interpretive methods applied to the everyday world which is seen as subjective and socially created” (p. 384).

What is important in the above definitions, for me, is that the Qualitative Research Method is inductive, subjective, and interpretative. According to Saldana (2011), qualitative research is an umbrella that covers varieties of inquiries used by researchers to help them understand and interpret the meaning of the issue of the study (p. 3), and this is what I did to get through this type of research. I used Qualitative Research to understand the main questions of this study from the participants’

perception and how they would see the world around them. Meaning and interpretation of the reality were embedded in the participants' experiences, and my role, as a researcher, was to get these meanings through my interpretation of the data obtained.

Type of Qualitative Research of the Study

Of the many types of qualitative research Hatch (2002, p. 20) shows, this study is closely aligned with Educational Criticism, defined by Hatch (2002) as "a form of qualitative research that relies on the abilities of the researcher to study school life in much the same ways an art critic studies a painting or symphonic work" (p. 29). Educational criticism seeks for validity and credibility of the findings obtained. Eisner (1998) describes how educational criticism meets standard validity and credibility through:

(1) Structural Corroboration, in which triangulation supports other types of data;
(2) Consensual Validation, in which agreement among other competent takes place; and
(3) Referential Adequacy, in which educational criticism shows what might be ignored (pp. 110-114).

Accordingly, educational criticism seeks to find out reality and achieve improvement in that reality. This, of course, was my aim in this study. I tried to find out the situation of teaching EFL in Libya. Later, I tried to find out remedies and present recommendations to improve the situation of teaching EFL in Libya in the era of globalization.

Paradigm of the Study

Hatch (2002) defines a paradigm as a way "of thinking about how the world is or is not ordered, what counts as knowledge, and how and if knowledge can be gained" (p. 19). Merriam (1998) perceives interpretive paradigm essential in qualitative research because it helps researchers select the most appropriate method or technique used for collecting and analyzing the data to reach findings and recommendations (p. 1). Interpretive paradigm is effective in qualitative studies because it shows the researcher's subjective decisions and opinions about the phenomenon (Potter, 1996, p. 162). In this study, I used the interpretive paradigm to reach the findings, implications, and recommendations.

Tool for Obtaining Primary Resource Data

In this study, I interviewed 20 participants. Interviewing, according to Holestein and Gubrium (2002), helps researchers produce empirical data about the phenomenon of the study (p. 112), and most qualitative studies are based on interviews (Saldana, 2011, p. 32). In this study, I interviewed the participants in different cities in the United States. The interviews were completed in almost six months from March 8, 2012 to August 30, 2012. The interviews varied from face-to-face to Skype online. Only audio was recorded. The language used in interviewing the participants varied, too. Some interviews were conducted in English and some in Arabic.

Using interviewing as a technique for getting the primary data of the study was effective because such interviews provided me with the information required about the questions of the study. Through the open-ended questions, the interviewees of the

study explained the phenomenon, using their own perceptions about what they could see and know about the phenomenon. Thus, interviewing was a helpful and effective means that worked as a primary source of information in this qualitative study.

There are three basic types of interviews: formal, informal, and standardized. For the purpose of this study, I conducted Formal Interviews, which Hatch (2002) calls “structured,” “semistructured,” and “in-depth” (p. 94). It is “structured” because the whole interview—time, place, and way of questioning—is set by me. It is in-depth because it “seeks knowledge from the respondent’s point of view” (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006, p. 145). This means that its goal is not to have answers to the questions asked to the interviewees, to test the questions of the study, or to evaluate a method. Rather, its main goal is to understand the participants’ experiences and get meanings from these experiences.

However, through in-depth interview, I could interpret the participants’ experiences and visualize their perceptions of their realities. I could identify how these participants’ experiences interrelate with their social and cultural realities, where they used to work and live; that is, schools, universities, and language centers in Libya. Accordingly, I could find out the differences and the similarities among these participants’ experiences in teaching and learning English in Libya because they almost shared the same cultural context, though they were from different cities in Libya and were teaching in different levels.

I tended to obtain findings of this study from the participants’ interviews through open-ended questions, which were prepared carefully to be clear, neutral, and related to the objectives of the study. I used open-ended questions because such kinds

of questions, as Seidman (1998) clarifies, aim at building and finding out how the participants see the phenomenon of the study through their open responses (p. 9). The questions of the interview covered all areas of study (See appendix I for more details) and were classified into three main parts as:

1. The first part is personal information. It inquires about the participant's backgrounds: city in Libya and living city in the United States, qualification, gender, major, ways of learning English, and history of teaching English in Libya. Some of the questions in this part include:
    (a) Tell me about your teaching English as a foreign language history.
    (b) Tell me about challenges you encountered while teaching English in Libya.
2. The second part is methods of teaching English. It inquires about the methods used in teaching English in Libya and the effect of internal and external factors on the method used. Some of the questions include:
    (a) Talk about the method of teaching English you were using while teaching English in Libya.
    (b) What do you think is the ideal way to teach English in Libya—assuming you had unlimited funds and freedom in curriculum?
3. The third part is about teaching and learning English in Libya. It inquires about the situation of teaching and learning English in Libya and the challenges that teachers and learners encounter while teaching or learning English in Libya. Some of the questions include:
    (a) What is your opinion about Libyan teachers who teach English in Libya?

(b) Tell me about the challenges that teachers encounter while teaching English in Libya.

It was important that conversations be held between the participants and me, regarding the phenomenon of the study to construct a meaningful reality. I met these participants face-to-face and through Skype chat, using English, Arabic, or Libyan dialects as a medium of conversation, according to the participant's desire. My goal in interviewing these participants was to find out the methods of teaching English these teachers used in Libya, and to know the points of weaknesses and strengths these teaching methods have achieved on Libyan students' progress in using English in authentic situations.

I used a digital camera as an audio-tape recorder. In recordings, neither the participants nor I was shown in the camera. I recorded just only the audio. I transcribed interviews immediately, and each interview took me from three to four days to transcribe. Transcribing interviews immediately helped me remember almost all of the speech in the interview. Transcribing helped me comment and analyze on each participant's speech individually. According to Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006) transcription "provides the researcher with a valuable opportunity to actively engage with his or her research material right from the beginning of data collection." (p. 347).

Some participants preferred Arabic or Libyan dialects in conducting the interviews. Translating these interviews from Arabic or Libyan dialects into English was done by me, based on my knowledge of translation and my acquaintance with Arabic and all Libyan dialects. I also transferred the English translation and the Arabic interviews to my friend Dr. Seif, who has a PhD in translation and was in the United

States. His knowledge about the phenomenon of the study and Arabic language in addition to his qualification in translation made me trust in his translation, which was almost similar to mine.

Participants of the Study

Selecting the participants of the study is based on the context and the methodology of the study used (Hatch, 2002, p. 50). For this study, the participants are 20 Libyans–17 males and three females–who used to teach English in different cities in Libya in different levels. These teachers were pursuing further studies in the United States. They were selected carefully to serve as the main participants of this study as they belong to different cities in Libya and had experience in teaching English in Libya. This diversity in the participants of the study provided me with different perceptions about the same phenomenon (See appendix H to know about the participants and interviews).

Amongst the types of sampling “typical, unique, maximum, variation, convenience, snowball, chain, and network” (Merriam, 1998, pp. 62-63), I selected the Convenience Sampling to fulfill the purpose of this study. Merriam (1998) defines convenience sampling as a sample selected “based on time, money, location, availability of sites or respondents, and so on” (p. 63).

Scope of the Study

The scope of this study was directed to identifying the methods of teaching English in Libya and the effects of these methods on the Libyan students’ progress in using English in communicative situations in Libya or English-speaking countries.

The participants of the study comprise 20 Libyan teachers, who used to teach various levels of English in Libya in different cities and times. These participants were pursuing their masters' or PhDs in different states in the United States. The scope of this study was directed, also, to investigating the reasons behind using these methods in teaching English in Libya. The study was completed in three years, from November 1, 2011 to November 1, 2014.

Data Collection

The primary data sources in this study include interviewing 20 Libyan teachers of English. Interviewing the participants was core in my data collection because it enabled me to understand the reality from the eyes of the participants. Thus, I could get closer to the meaning of the reality and understand it as the participants would see and understand. Also, interviewing provided me with opportunities to know more about the phenomenon of the study. Through the face-to-face or Skype interaction with the participants, I could identify important points related to the methods of teaching English in Libya and the effects of these methods on Libyan students' progress in using English in communicative situations. I have already prepared questions related to methods of teaching EFL in Libya.

These questions were set up in specific order, using clear language and simple words. All participants' answers and comments were taken into account while collecting the data of the study. The questions were carefully designed to cover aspects of language teaching and language learning and methods of teaching. The questions were classified into three parts: Part One personal questions; Part Two

methods of teaching English in Libya; and Part Three teaching and learning English in Libya. In all questions, I listened carefully to the interviews, transcribed the interviews, read each transcription individually, coded all transcriptions, and re-read and re-coded the whole transcriptions.

Data Analysis

Babbie (2001) defines qualitative data analysis as: "the non-numerical assessment of observations made through participant observation, content analysis, in-depth interviews, and other qualitative research techniques" (p. 358). According to Merriam (1998), data analysis is "the process of making sense out of the data" (p. 178). Data analysis is a process for arranging the data according to specific arrangements to help researchers understand the data and present findings accordingly (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992, p. 153). My job in data analysis was to make sense of the data obtained through interpreting what the participants said about the phenomenon of the study, based on the literature review related to the topic of the study.

In this study, which is Educational Criticism, I used Imaginative Variation Technique to analyze the data. This technique, as Moustakas (1990) explains, aims "to arrive at structural descriptions of an experience, the underlying and precipitating factors that account for what is being experienced" (p. 98).

To analyze the interviews, I transcribed the interviews. After I transcribed the interviews, I read and coded each question. Then, I labeled the similarities, using different colors to distinguish among the similar categories. I grouped similar categories into themes and ranked them by the number of its mentioning by the

participants. The samples below show how I labeled the questions, similarities within the participants' answers, and the use of different colors with each similar category:

ME: How did you learn English by any other means that may not school related?

(8 watching movies / 6 watching TV / 5 listening to music / 5 communicating with native speakers / 4 Internet / 3 self-study at home / 3 reading)

Ziad: Yes, I used to watch **movies** a lot, and I used to stay in front of the **CNN news and BBC** news. Sometimes, I used the **Internet** however that time it was a sort of not very popular in Libya.

ME: Tell me about challenges you encountered while teaching English in Libya.

(8 lack of facilities / 5 using Arabic language / 4 lack of students' motivation / 3 number of students in classroom / 3 visual aids / 3 lack of practice English inside and outside classroom / 3 **lack of teacher's training** / 3 **lack of qualified teachers / 3 lack of English textbooks and resources / 1 political reasons / 1 lack of teacher's motivation / 1 time of the class / 1 number of the classes / 1 evaluating students / 1 spelling / 1 lack of interrelationship between students and teachers)**

Shadi: The challenges were two types. The first thing was that the **teacher didn't get what he really deserved from teaching hours for the day**, and secondly there was **no motivation for the teacher** to continue his studies in order to get more knowledge and be aware of the external world because we didn't have **Internet**. We couldn't be aware of the new knowledge. The third thing, as I mentioned earlier, the students did

not have the **facilities** that might help them learn a second language, such as **language laboratories**, **pictures**, and the like.

ME: Talk about the method of teaching English as a foreign language you were using while teaching English in Libya.

(9 Grammar Translation Method / 7 Private Ways / 4 Audio-Lingual Method / 4 Direct Method / 2 Bio-Lingual Method / 1 Curriculum-Based Teaching / **1 Communicative Language Teaching Approach /**,)

Ali: This diverse, I mean according to the level. I was teaching **grammar translation**, **communicative method**, and of course, I use some of the **audio-lingual method**.

Research Questions

The main question of this study was: What do selected Libyan teachers of English report about their experiences in teaching and learning English in Libya? I posed other sub-questions to cover the four main areas aimed to investigate: teaching English in Libya, learning English in Libya, methods of teaching English in Libya, and future of teaching English in Libya in the globalized world. These sub-questions were:

- What challenges do Libyan teachers of English encounter while teaching English in Libya?
- What challenges do Libyan students encounter while learning English in Libya?
- Which method of teaching English is commonly used in Libya?

- What perceptions do selected Libyan teachers of English have regarding Libyans' skills in the English language and the future of Libya?

Limitations of the Study

I encountered several limitations to conduct this study. I might consider most of the participants' English as a limitation. Most of the participants' English was unclear with unusual structures and pronunciation. I could overcome this limitation by transcribing the interviews immediately and inquire about the vague meaning or unclear accent of a word from the participant. In some cases, I changed the word myself according to my understanding of what the participant intended to say or added a word to give sense to the sentence. I put my words between brackets to indicate to the word changed or added. For example, Jaber said, "I am trying to **learn** exactly what I have learned from the others . . . I **learned** by very good Libyan teachers and then by secondary school, I've been **learned** by Ghana's teachers . . ."

Jaber's speech did not give sense as he got confused between the verb "learn" and "teach." As he was talking about the method of teaching he was using while he was teaching, I could figure out when he meant. I changed the verb "learn" into "teach" to make his speech sensible. I put my own words between brackets to indicate to the changes I made in the original speech to make it comprehendible. Jaber's speech was transcribed as "I am trying to [teach] exactly what I have learned from the others . . . I [was taught] by very good Libyan teachers and then by secondary school, I've been [taught] by Ghana's teachers . . ."

I interviewed Libyan teachers of English in the United States, and these teachers have been away from Libya for almost three years or more. I have no way to contact Libyan teachers of English in Libya to identify their perceptions about the situation of teaching English in Libya at the time being. Another limitation might be in the difficulty to contact Libyan students and learners of English to provide their perceptions about their experiences of learning English in Libya.

Another limitation is the time spent in arranging dates for the interviews and time to transcribe the interviews. As the participants were grad students in various states, setting time to interview them was hard. I could overcome this problem by arranging time during the participants' breaks and weekends. I managed my travelling to other states to be in breaks, holidays, or weekends, and I arranged time with the participants in advance before leaving Columbia. As for transcription, I transcribed each interview immediately after I finished the interview, so I could overcome the problem of time due to accumulations of interviews.

Cultural beliefs, regarding not interviewing Libyan females face-to-face for interviewing, is another limitation in this study. I could overcome this cultural issue by asking the participant's husband to stay with me while reading the cover letter, consent letter, and the questions of the interview. I gave all instructions to the participant and asked her to answer the questions in her office–if she had–or home and to bring it back the other day.

Logic Model of the Study

To base my study on a strong foundation, I planned a sketch, showing the relationship between the objectives of the study and some factors related to teaching English. My tentative sketch about the main objective of this study and its relationship with factors of the study might be shown in this diagram:

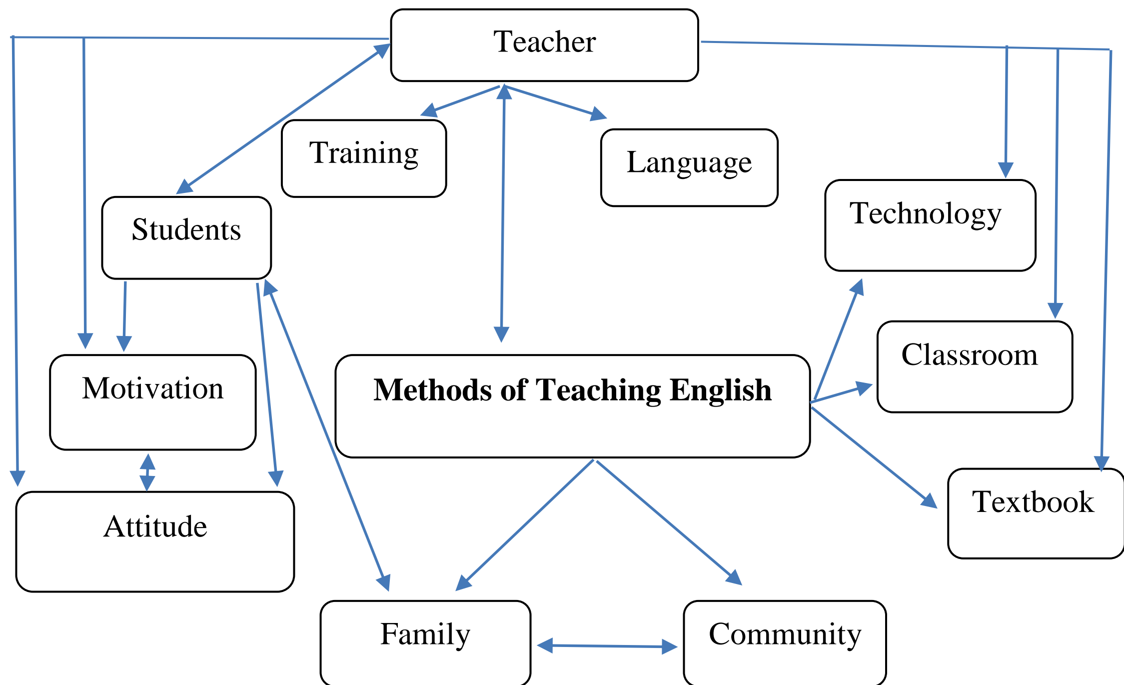

Figure 8 The Relationship of Methods of Teaching English with Other Factors.

The figure shows that a method of teaching English itself can never be successful unless there is a collaboration of external and internal factors.

Trustworthiness

The participants in this study used to teach English in Libya. To set appointments with the participants, I needed to build a kind of trust between them and me. Having a relationship based on trust was a core in conducting the interviews. I

guaranteed to the participants that the interviews would be used only for the purpose of this study. Moreover, I assured them that only sounds were taped and pseudonyms would be used in the interviews.

From another side, trustworthiness is required to have trustworthy findings. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 289), Merriam (1998, p. 198) and Long and Johnson (2000, p. 31), findings of the research are trustworthy when the principles of validity and reliability are achieved. Golafshani (2003) requires that four demands be applicable to achieve trustworthiness in the findings obtained. These demands are transferability, confirmability, dependability, and credibility (p. 602). Glesne (1999) believes that "the credibility of findings and interpretations depends upon careful attention to establishing trustworthiness" (p. 151).

Validity

Ratcliffe (as cited in Merriam, 1998) believes that any type of research should assess validity because of the following: (1) the data need an interpreter to change them into meaningful information; (2) a researcher changes the phenomenon after observation; and (3) words and numbers are not the reality, but they are representation of the reality (pp. 201-202). Hence, validity was core in this study because it helped me organize the data collected for the purpose of being analyzed and interpreted to reach the findings.

According to Merriam (1998), there are two types of validity: internal and external. Internal validity, on one hand, is concerned with "the question of how research findings match reality" (p. 201). Thus, this principle seeks to make sense of

the data obtained to make tangible facts about the reality. External validity, on the other hand, deals with "the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other situations" (p. 207). So, when validity is achieved, the findings of the study are trustworthy.

Reliability

According to Joppe (2000), reliability is concerned with consistency and accuracy of the findings of the study (p. 1). Seale (1999) demands the applicability of validity and reliability in research (p. 266), and Merriam (1998) makes it clear that reliability indicates "the extent to which research findings can be replicated" (p. 205). To apply this principle to this study, the findings should be similar to findings of any other similar studies under the same conditions in Libya. In other words, to achieve trustworthiness in this study, reliability of the findings should be achieved. That is what I noticed when I compared my findings to findings of other research about teaching and learning English in Libya.

Transferability

Transferability indicates the researcher's ability to transfer the findings of the study into another work or to be applicable to other group of people or setting. In fact, this is an aim in this study. As there is a lack of books related to learning and teaching English in Libya, I am willing to transfer this work into a book in the future. Also, this study might be applicable to other ELLs in other settings similar to that in Libya. Hence, findings of this study might be used to provide remedies to some of the

problems ELLs encounter in Arab regions, such as Saudi Arabia, Egypt, Jordan, and the like.

Confirmability

It is trustworthy that a researcher obtains the findings of the study based on the participants' interviews, not through predetermined assumptions. Confirmability requires that I, as a researcher, confirm the findings I obtain through interpretations of the participants' interviews. These findings might agree or disagree with what I have already proposed about the problem of the study. Findings might show that there is no problem in teaching English in Libya. The most important thing in confirmability is that the findings are obtained from the participants' interviews, and this what I have already done.

Credibility

According to Graneheim and Lundman (2004), credibility deals with "confidence in how well data and processes of analysis address the intended focus. The first question concerning credibility arises when making a decision about the focus of the study, selection of context, participants and approach to gathering data" (p. 109). Lincoln and Guba define credibility as "an evaluation of whether or not the research findings represent a credible conceptual interpretation of the data drawn from the participants' original data" (p. 296).

Therefore, I sought in this study to search for the data that associated directly to the phenomenon of the study and to answer the main question of this study. Irrelevant data were gathered for other purposes than the theme of this study. Thus,

irrelevant data were excluded to be used later in publishing a book or presenting in a conference. Also, the careful selection of the participants of the study added a kind of credibility to the study.

Triangulation

As validity and reliability are main principles to achieve trustworthiness to the findings of the study, triangulation is the tool or instrument for improving validity and reliability. Triangulation, according to Mathison (1988), is "an important methodological issue in naturalistic and qualitative approaches to evaluation control bias and establishing valid propositions" (p. 13). Triangulation was core in my study because I examined the phenomenon of the study from various angles.

Consistency

In fact, consistency was one of the major challenges I encountered while interviewing the participants of the study. The participants varied in their English proficiency (accuracy and fluency), English knowledge about the topic of study, personal traits, and some others. Therefore, I was not fully consistent in posing the same questions to the participants. Some participants' answers about a question seemed to be imbedded answers to other following questions. Other participants were away from the theme of the question, so I avoided asking similar questions.

To be consistent in asking all the questions to all participants, my adviser suggested asking follow-up questions to cover some areas required for the purpose of this study that the participant or I might missed. I sent e-mails, phoned, or Skyped

some participants to ask them follow-up questions. (Appendix J shows some samples of follow-up questions).

Coherence

Though Rubin and Rubin (1995) limit coherence to the researcher's ability to present explanations for the contradictions appearing in the themes of the study (p. 87), in this study, I used the principle coherence in a different way. I used the concept coherence with the questions and sub-questions. Thus, I worked to associate the literature review and the participants' answers to the interviews to the questions of the study and to the main objective of the study.

Neutrality

Though a researcher in qualitative research is biased in selecting the participants of the study, as a researcher, I needed to be neutral. I was, for example, neutral while conducting the interviews. I did not interrupt the participants; I did not give them any hints to say what I really needed; I did not change in the tone of the voice during posing the questions to affect their answers. I was so flexible in giving the participants time and space to express themselves and answer the questions. One of the participants, for example, took almost eight minutes to answer a question. I did not interrupt him or asked him to stop. I intended to learn more about the topic, so I gave all participants time to speak as much as they could. (Appendix K shows an example of a participant's answer).

I also was neutral while analyzing the data obtained. While coding the data, I classified them according to categories, not according to my biased ideas. While listening to the interviews, I was transcribing every word, every sound, pause, and

gesture. I read the transcription neutrally without focusing on specific ideas at the expense of others. I coded the similar ideas in categories, and I re-read the codes thoroughly in a neutral way.

Ethics

As it is shown above that all research is seeking to achieve validity and reliability, this step should be achieved ethically. To grant the least risks for the participants of a study, the federal government set several principles that a researcher follows in order to protect the participants' lives. These principles, as The ESRC's Framework for Research Ethics (as cited in Hammersley & Traianou, 2012) are:

1. Research should be designed, reviewed and undertaken to ensure integrity, quality and transparency.
2. Research staff and participants must normally be informed fully about the purpose, methods, and intended possible use of the research, what their participation in the research entails and what risks, if any, are involved.
3. The confidentiality of information supplied by research participants and the anonymity of respondents must be respected.
4. Research participants must take part voluntarily, free from coercion.
5. Harm to research participants must be avoided in all instances.
6. The independence of research must be clear, and any conflicts of interest or partiality must be explicit (p. 7).

For the case of this study, I received permission from IRB (Institutional Review Boards) (See appendix L for more information) before starting interviewing

the participants. This IRB guarantees that protection of the participants from deception, harm, or invading privacy. IRB is renewed annually. Though I tried to protect the participants from such mentioned risks, there is still a kind of risk. These risks, as Merriam (1998) indicates, might include: the participants "may feel their privacy has been invaded, they may be embarrassed by certain questions, and they may tell things they had never intended to reveal" (p. 214). To prevent such risk, when I interviewed female participants, I read the questions to them, and I asked them to answer these questions in writing and return the answers the next day.

I prepared a consent form (See the appendix M) to be read to the participants before starting the interview. This form is an "obligation to outline fully the nature of the data collection and the purpose for which the data will be used to the people or community being studied in a style and language that they can understand" (Boeiji, 2011, p. 45). In addition to providing information about the study, this consent form guarantees all participants' confidentiality, anonymity, and privacy. To ensure confidentiality, the participants' names are kept unidentifiable, and the interviews have been saved in a safe place. The participants are volunteers, so they can withdraw from the interview when they feel that there is a harm or their privacy is invaded.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

Rationale

In this chapter, I am presenting an overview of methodology I used to conduct this dissertation. I will give an idea about the procedures I used for the data analysis. I am presenting the findings of the study based on four main questions as:

Research Question 1: What challenges exist within the educational context in Libya?

Research Question 2: What challenges do Libyan teachers of English face?

Research Question 3: What challenges do Libyan students face in learning English in Libya?

Research Question 4: What methods of teaching English do teachers use in Libya?

Research Question 5: What connections might exist between Libyans' skills in the English language and the future of Libya?

Overview of Methodology and Data Analysis Procedures

This chapter contains findings based on interviews with 20 Libyan teachers of English. I transcribed each interview immediately, and each interview took me almost three days to transcribe. Printing out all the transcriptions, I read them carefully and thoroughly. I took notes and had questions in a form of memos while reading each interview. Later, I had some follow-up questions for the participants to cover some points either the participant or I missed during the interview. I reread the transcriptions and wrote down other memos to help me see the main points.

Having memos helped me code the transcriptions. Based on Lewins and Silver (2007), who define coding as "the process by which segments of data are identified as

relating to, or being an example of, a more general idea, instance, theme or category" (p. 81), I coded the data and formed categories based on similar ideas and concepts. Coding was the last step before providing my interpretation to reach findings and recommendations. I organized the findings according to the questions of the study and logic model of the study (See Chapter Three for more details).

Participants in the study chose the language of the interview, so 17 participants preferred using English; two participants preferred Arabic; and one participant preferred mixed–though he spoke the first sentence in Arabic, then he shifted into English. One of the two participants, who preferred Arabic, majored in English. I interviewed these two participants in Arabic, and later I translated their interviews into English. To be objective, I asked help from a friend of mine, who has PhD in translation, to review my translation and did his.

I could transcribe all the participants' answers though there were some unusual English structures and use that others might not understand. That is because, as Asokhia (2009) says, "speakers and listeners who have the same language background can understand one another because their common culture provides the common meaning whereas without the common culture such kinds of words are often misunderstood" (p. 81).

I revised the participants' structures and word selections in order to make their answers meaningful and logical to potential readers. I put my own words and corrections between brackets to be distinguished from the participants'. As some answers had some irrelevant ideas and repetitions due to the effect of Arabic culture in

speaking English, I deleted irrelevant ideas, repetitions, interjections, introductory phrases, and non-linguistic utterances. I have kept the original forms in a separate file and added one sample of the original interview to this dissertation (See appendix N for more details).

Analyzing the interviews shows me that some of the participants' English use, namely grammar, structure, pronunciation, and word choice is still unsatisfactory though these participants have spent several years in the United States and used to teach English in Libya. The participants' use of English might indicate to the level of English used by Libyan teachers of English. These participants were selected as the best students and staff at Libyan universities to pursue their grad studies in the United States. They have been in the United States for several years, yet some of their English was difficult to understand.

The participants cover almost all main cities in Libya and reach all sections of the country with the exception of the north, which borders the Mediterranean Sea. The ratio of the participants is representative to the population distribution of Libya, which gives credibility to the study. The diversity indicates that the study has samples from almost all major cities and towns in Libya. So, this study might work as a general, authentic study on the Libyan community as a whole.

The participants have many years' experience teaching English in Libyan schools, institutes, universities, and English language centers. Also, the participants taught in different levels according to the Libyan school system: two in elementary school (5th and 6th grades), four in middle school (7th - 9th grades), eleven in high

school (10th - 12th), four in middle institutes (after middle school), eleven in university (after high school), and four in English language centers. In this study, I am using the word “students” for school, university, and English language centers learners and the phrase “Libyan schools” for schools, universities, institutes, and English language centers unless I name them specifically.

Through their own words as shared in interviews, the participants help create an authentic picture of English education in Libya. The data is based on the participants’ interviews. The following is a description of how I set one of the interviews:

I put an announcement on Facebook about my need to interview Libyan teachers of English. Someone responded to my announcement and sent me his phone number. I phoned him and arranged time to visit him. He welcomed me and offered me accommodation. I met with the participant in his apartment in Carbondale, Illinois on March, 10, 2012. I spent some time discussing with the participant some issues related to language learning and language teaching (to break the ice). Later, I explained to the participant the purpose of my interview and my intention to use the data for academic purpose only. I read to him the consent letter and showed him IRB permission. The interview was conducted in English based on the participant’s desire. I used my digital camera to record only sound. We started the interview at 10:15 p.m., and we ended at 10:57. So, it took almost 42 minutes. I gave the participant space and time to answer my questions. I did not interfere the participant.

The next part, which is findings of the study, included excerpts from transcriptions of all 20 interviewees.

Research Question 1: What Challenges Exist within the Educational Context in Libya?

According to Johnson, Berg, and Donaldson (2005), "a school in serious disrepair presents an array of hazards for everyone in it. The physical elements of schooling also influence instruction—both what can be taught and how it can be taught. A school's lack of textbooks, a library, science equipment, or reliable photocopy machines inevitably limits the kind of teaching and learning that can occur" (p. 50). Educational context affects on the processes of learning and teaching. Gilles, Bixby, Crowley, Crenshaw, Henrichs, Reynolds, & Pyle (1988) talk about classroom and its role in learning and teaching, saying, "Environment is more than room arrangement and book selection. In these classrooms, there is a feeling of warmth and acceptance. Students and teachers regard themselves as learners, and all are valued in the learning process" (p. 19). In this part, I will discuss the challenges that exist in the educational context in Libya.

Arabic is the dominant language used in teaching and learning English in Libya.

Asokhia (2009) sees that teaching a foreign language requires language teachers to use it frequently till it becomes "rooted in the learners' personal experiences" (p. 81). Language is a "social semiotic system," which people use to achieve their needs and express themselves in different communicative contexts (Mahboob & Szenes, 2010, pp. 584-585). Using Arabic in teaching English has

negative influence on students because teachers do not teach only English language, but they also teach English culture. Furthermore, what gives meaning to words is not the linguistic context, rather it is the socio-linguistic context. According to Allwright (1981), "what we teach is of course the 'language' but this needs a lot of further analysis, because we may also want to teach (and/or learners may want to learn) features of target language discourse, and features of the target culture" (p. 17).

About using English in Libya, Sami explains that "you can't find someone to speak English with in Libya outside the university, and even inside the university. Within the books limits, sometimes, we teach English through Arabic, and we don't even use English properly." Also, Shadi said, "We start like forty-five minutes, and we [are] supposed to teach English, but because of the weak English background for most of the majority, we [are] forced to translate to them in Arabic. And we have taken like thirty-five minutes or forty, almost thirty-five minutes Arabic." So, from the time allotted, teachers use only from five to ten minutes to speak English; that is, almost 85% of time of English class is used in Arabic.

Ahmed believes that many Libyan teachers of English "lack the fluency in the language, so they teach English through Arabic. They use 90% of that time speaking Arabic and explaining the grammar rules." Fouzi explains that "the native language has great effect on the teachers, and students don't have the chance to practice their language; they don't have the opportunities to go to English-speaking countries for few months to practice the language and come back to teach." Mousa tried to use English only in the classroom, but it was difficult for his students to understand him. So, he started using Arabic. Jamal justifies that "the students feel that there is no

encouragement to use English outside the classroom. They feel that there is a kind of shyness to speak English outside the classroom."

Libyan schools lack facilities that aid in teaching and learning English.

According to Khan and Iqbal (2012), school facilities include all materials used in learning and teaching, such as classrooms, building, lighting and ventilation, seats, playgrounds, labs, boards, computers, and the like (p. 210). Willims (as cited in Khan and Iqbal, 2012) conducted a study in Latin America about the effects of school facilities on students' progress in learning. He concluded that the students' progress in learning in schools that lack facilities was lower than that for the students in schools that have facilities (p. 211).

The analysis of my interview data shows that eight participants consider the lack of facilities is the biggest challenge in teaching and learning English in Libya. Anas said, "We didn't have any language labs." Fouzi said, "We don't have the technology at school, and usually the course book comes with CDs, but they do not provide us with CDs, and they don't provide us with CD players. So, we just skip that part of the course and just focus on grammar, reading, and answer questions." Jamal sees that "the students did not have the facilities that might help them learn a second language, such as language laboratories." Hala believes that Libyan students "don't have enough resources to develop their English." The facilities that Libyan schools lack might include the following:

Libyan schools lack visual aids

Fox (2002) believes that learning is a visual process, which entitles teachers to use visual images in teaching (p. 121). Moore and Scevak (1997) show samples of visual aids that a teacher might use as maps, diagrams, charts, and tables (p. 206). Herrell and Jordan (2008) use visual aids as "an approach in which the language used in instruction is made more understandable by the display of drawings or photographs that allow students to hear English words and connect them to the visual images being displayed" (p. 20). Visual aids are essential in language learning because students have prior images in their minds about what they are learning and work to associate what is in their minds with a tangible image in reality. Visual aids enhance students' imaging and remembering words associated with images in reality.

The analysis of interviews shows that Libyan teachers consider lack of visual aids a challenge. Jamal sees that visual aids are essential in teaching and learning, but unfortunately "we did not have any factors that helped us understand that language such as laboratories or, even not laboratories, pictures that one might show because one of the most important strategies for clarifying the language, namely kids, is the use of pictures. There were no pictures that might help them to compare or to see the picture and put the word in his mind."

Libyan schools lack technology

Technology plays an important role in teaching and learning English. For the situation in Libya, technology is a must in learning and teaching English. In Libya, teachers of English lack resources of English to be acquainted with new methods of

teaching English. Libyan students lack interaction with native English speakers. Thus, technology might tackle these challenges because technology is used for several kinds of activities. Motteram (2013) believes that technology has "become central to language practice" (p. 5).

All participants in this study agree that Libyan schools lack technology. Younis said, "In secondary school, I didn't use any kind of technology before. The only technology I use was the blackboard." Henceforth, Ali suggests that "using the visual aids like Internet access and projectors should be available in every classroom," and Salem suggests that technology "be implemented in teaching English as a second language. It should be implemented in all classrooms."

If Jaber had unlimited funds and freedom, he would "create very good labs, including computers." Ali recommends that "there should be maybe more focus on providing all the materials needed for language learning, such as books, computer labs, Internet." Because of the lack of facilities, Libyan students, as Sami discusses, "are not actually encouraged to go to the library to do some research, to do some reading, to borrow some books because simply there's nothing."

Libyan schools lack educational environment that aids in teaching and learning English.

Educational environment is a cornerstone in teaching and learning languages. The educational environment includes teachers, students, and facilities. Choudhury (2011) believes that "however much teachers teach, they do not have any real control over a learner's natural process of acquiring a second or a foreign language and

achieving communicative ability in it. Therefore, the teacher could at best create a classroom environment that is conducive to language learning" (p. 39). Choudhury sees that the role of the teacher in the classroom "is of paramount significance because it is central to the way in which the classroom environment evolves" (p. 34).

Success or failure, in fact, is "an outcome of the complicated partnership between parents, students, teachers, and society" (Sabelli, 2004, p. 104).) Children acquire language in a social environment starting from the family and the people around. Children use varieties of languages according to the context (Lightbown & Spada, 2008, p. 8). Henceforth, it is important that English language teachers "examine the neighborhood and broader community contexts within which children live" (Bell, Carr, Denno, Johnson, & Phillips, 2004, p. 12).The educational environment that Libyan schools lack might include the following:

Libyan schools lack classroom environment

According to Choudhury (2011), the classroom environment is very essential for both teachers and students. Classrooms in Libya are too small, overcrowded with students, and lack visual aids or any kind of technology. Blackboards are so old, and teachers use very bad quality of chalk. Most of time, dust erasers are not available. Teachers use a piece of cloth to erase what is written on the blackboard.

Ahmed believes that "classrooms are one of the worst things in education in Libya because they aren't prepared really for teaching." Fouzi describes classroom in Libyan schools as having big numbers of students and lacking any kind of technology. Younis explains that "most of classrooms in Libya [are] not very flexible. I mean very

large number of students, few space, so you can't move. For example, you can't divide your students into groups and move seats. So, it's organized in a way that a bit suitable for lecturing, not activities." Sami describes classrooms in Libyan schools as: "not the proper classroom for the learner to learn. The noise is probably sometimes even the number of seats. Another major problem is the large class size. I myself was asked to teach academic writing, but I wasn't shown how to teach academic writing to nearly 150 people at the same room."

About the effect of classroom in teaching English, eight participants talk about the huge number of students in the classroom. Mousa said, "The classroom was huge with 50 students in the class, which was difficult for me to deliver my lesson or to start teaching every single student what he or she [is] supposed to do." Also, Anas said, "I would assume maybe the problem is the number of the students." Ziad said, "In one class I used to teach almost 300 students in the auditorium, sitting in front of you and in that place a lot of stress to the teacher sometimes. I mean you would not be able to go around every student and help him in person."

Also, Shadi commented, "We have a lot of students in our classrooms, and because of the lack of teachers, teachers cannot organize their classrooms. And at the same time, they cannot teach all the English language skills equally, so that's why the students are encountered a lot of problems, and they cannot overcome these problems."

Fouzi has two different experiences in teaching English in Libyan schools. About these experiences, he said:

> I taught two years in a small village that [is] very close to my city. The student number was very small about 12 students in one class, so at that time I had chance to explain lessons, practice with everyone, double-check that everyone understands. Everybody has the chance to participate speaking, ask questions. But when I moved to another school, the numbers were very huge. The smallest class I have was 40 students, so I just don't have chance to practice and make sure everyone understands.

However, most classrooms in Libyan schools have numbers of physical drawbacks: the light is very soft, and sometimes the bulb is not working; desks are old and uncomfortable; windows are broken, so in winter, rain gets in, and in summer, classrooms are too hot; blackboards are old and bad quality. In general, the classroom setting is unsuitable. In this vein, Jamal said, "Our classrooms are destroyed, neglected . . . colors are faint, chairs are bad, half of the blackboard in most cases is not there. All of these things do not help in learning."

Libyan families lack collaboration with schools

According to Bell, et al. (2004), "engaging parents in efforts to change their children's behavior is challenging but profitable. A key factor in addressing behavior is a supportive environment in the home and classroom" (p. 48). The data analysis of this study shows that 18 participants see that Libyan families do not collaborate with teachers and schools to motivate children to learn English. Sami explains:

> Some people think that if you are using English at home, they sometimes tend to make fun just to mock at you, to make fun of you. They think that

> you are showing off. The first response probably you will get is why would we communicate in English as long as we can talk in Arabic. We can understand each other very well in Arabic, so would we use a different language? That's the general attitude for most Libyan families.

The analysis shows that most of Libyan families do not collaborate with teachers and schools because of the economic and social factors. About this point, Ziad argued, "We have to consider a lot of factors like economic factors, social factors, which a lot of families lack. So, they don't have these factors to support their kids for instance to learn, so the students sometimes are really dependent in their work; they struggle a lot to achieve their goals." Fouzi thinks that "very few parents come to school and ask about their students, but the majority don't care."

Furthermore, family in Libya plays a passive role in forming their children's behavior. Based on his 14 years teaching English in high school, Nuri believes that

> every year is worse than the year before. You don't have the same generations, the best generations, the best students were few. We find three good students in let's say 150. I am not pessimistic, but I think there are other things that occupy their minds or their families because their families sometimes guide them. I think cheating is changing everything because students know that they are going to pass; they are going to succeed at the end, so they don't care.

Libyan community lacks collaboration with schools

Teaching requires collaboration of the whole educational community. Teachers need support and encouragement from students' families, the community, and the government. The role of the teacher does not end in the classroom, but it also extends to encourage students to learn outside the classroom. According to Peregoy and Boyle (2008), "as human beings, each of us is born into a family and community where we acquire basic ways of acting, believing, and making sense of the world around us" (p. 45). So, the community consists of families, which have a great effect in children's behavior and the way of thinking and acting.

Data analysis of the interviews shows that Libyan teachers lack any kind of support from the families, government, or community. Ahmed sees that Libyan teachers of English "have to fight against the system . . . They have to convince the families to work with them, and they have to seek the support of the school, the support of the community."

Jamal raises a point that "the mentality of the Libyan community has not reached to that level yet. We don't, for example, invite parents to schools, and parents do not visit the school to be aware of his child's progress in learning." Ahmed believes that "the community doesn't think that English is important." Nuri sees that when students "are trying to do their best, they will find someone who is joking or laughing at them. So, they will not try to use their skills in front of other people." Of course, this dilemma is deep rooted in the Libyan community. It needs education and time to change.

Ahmed describes the situation of teaching English in Libya as "a big challenge because you can't try to convince students to learn this language where they see there is no need for it. And you have no support from the government, no support from the family, no support from the community, and no support from the teachers' community, too, and the school. So, it's almost everything is against you."

English textbooks provided in incomplete package.

Textbooks play an important role in learning and teaching English. What is meant by a textbook is "an organized and pre-packaged set of teaching/learning materials" (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994, p. 328). This set includes a package that each component in the package complements the other. The full set includes: student's course book, teacher's guide book, workbook, CDs or cassettes. However, Libyan schools often have incomplete sets of materials of teacher's guide book. As for the CDs and cassettes, they are not available at all. Even when they are available, there are no labs or recorders.

Pennycook (2010) sees that "the changing cultural and linguistic worlds in which many English users live pose challenges for how we conceive of culture, ethnicity and language" (p. 683). About the cultural issues, Fouzi sees that "the material was imported from outside Libya, and it wasn't designed by the Libyan educators. So, some of the topics are not related to our culture. I remember trying to change words like boyfriend, girlfriend. I just say friend, and when they talk about parties, they [Libyans] doesn't [don't] drink wine, [I] change that to juice [or] milk."

Fouzi's comment indicates that Libyan teachers teach English according to the Libyan culture, not English culture.

Hala sees that "English textbooks are irrelevant to English culture or Arabic culture. They are relevant to Singaporean or Indonesian cultures." Shadi explains that the Ministry of Education in Libya publishes English textbooks and orders teachers "to teach without any background, and without any consideration of the cultural issues that might be in that textbook, which happens, and which caused a lot of problems."

Libyan teachers teach these textbooks–though they are convinced that they are ineffective–because the Ministry of Education imposes on them these books and orders them to teach such books. The inappropriate selection of the textbooks used in Libya causes frustration to the Libyan teachers of English and changes their attitudes to teaching to be passive or negative.

Ceasing teaching and learning English in Libya affects on Libyan students' progress of learning English.

Another important challenge that affects negatively on Libyan students' progress in learning English is ceasing teaching and learning English in Libya. On April 16, 1986, Ministry of Education in Libya decided to burn all English textbooks in squares as a reaction against the American raids on Benghazi and Tripoli on April 15, 1986. The point of banning teaching and learning English from 1986 till 1997, I think, is the biggest factor that has led to failure in teaching and learning English efficiently in Libya. When English was returned to Libyan schools in the late 1990s,

the textbooks were not updated. About this point, Jamal said, “Later, English was returned to schools, but it was taught and learned weakly.”

In the 1980s and 1990s, learning Western cultures, including English language, was completely banned. English was seen by the government and Libyan young generations as a sign of imperialism. So, learning English was a political issue, as Mousa said: “If you want to get a text from CNN or BBC, I was afraid that I might be politically persecuted.” Also, Jamal said, “The English language was forbidden to be taught and learned in Libya because of the conditions, which were political and related to the former regime.”

Stopping teaching and learning English in Libya, as Tamer says, “related lack generation gap of learning English language for students, and because of the anxiety to come back again, some people feel like challenging of English. They don’t like English language because of that policy.”

Banning teaching and learning English in Libya causes a gap not only for Libyan students, but also for Libyan teachers of English. Some Libyan teachers, who used to teach English in 1980s, were shifted to teach other subjects, such as history, political sciences, geography, and social art subjects. Others were either retired or assigned to do office work. In addition, the methodologies of teaching English in 1980s were traditional, yet they have been still used. The effect of this action was serious as Anas explained, saying, “In the past English was banned from schools for a quite bit of time, so when it was back to schools, most of the English teachers were not qualified enough to teach English.”

So, ceasing teaching and learning English in Libya has negative impacts on Libyan students' attitude toward learning English in the short and long run. According to Hala, "the mistake that was done during the previous regime should be avoided; cancelling English teaching in schools, banning any signs in English or outfits that have English language on them." Ahmed explains that the Libyan students' attitude to learning English during that time was "English is the enemy language, so they had a very negative attitude to learning English. Most of the students see there is no necessity behind learning English."

Research Question 2: What Challenges Do Libyan Teachers of English Face?

Teaching English in school aims at achieving two main goals: (1) to help students understand native English speakers; (2) to help students be acquainted with English literature. To achieve these two main goals, teachers need to be well-qualified and well-trained in addition to being motivated to teach. Of course, other external factors help in achieving these two main objectives. In this part, I am discussing some of the challenges that Libyan teachers of English encounter while teaching English in Libya.

Most Libyan teachers of English lack fluency in English.

According to Samson and Collins (2012), "teachers must have a working knowledge and understanding of language as a system and of the role of the components of language and speech, specifically sounds, grammar, meaning, coherence, communicative strategies, and social conventions" (p. 9). When teachers become competent of that language system, they more probably become fluent in that

language. Teacher's fluency in English is very important in teaching English. Ali, one of the participants, said, "Poor teachers will produce poor learners. So, the better English the teacher uses, the better results will show up."

Robinson and McKenna (2008) define fluency as "any language skill that is so thoroughly learned that it can be applied with little conscious thought" (p. 29). The data analysis of this study shows that 18 participants see that Libyan teachers lack fluency of English. Ahmed thinks that Libyan teachers' fluency in English is "the worst . . . and the students suffer from the lack language knowledge and language fluency from the side of the teachers." Also, Hala notices that "many students complain, especially in public schools about the proficiency of English language teacher. This has a huge negative effect on the students' English because students would learn the wrong pronunciation of certain words."

Nuri thinks that practicing English might enhance Libyan teachers' of English fluency, so "teacher has to practice a lot, use English a lot to [be] proficient. It's like the sport. If you are doing any kind of sport. If you stop for a week without doing any exercise, you will find difficulty to return to the same level of performance. So, it's the same, if you practice English on a daily basis, I think you will get proficiency."

Libyan teachers of English lack training programs to teach English.

Teacher's training is one of the most important factors that enhances the process of teaching in order to achieve the progress of learning. The teacher's role is not to direct their students to pass English tests. The teacher's role is to motivate and encourage students to use English communicatively in reality. To do so, teachers

"need the appropriate training to be able to meet their students' language and learning needs and to facilitate academic growth" (Samson & Collins, 2012, p. 8).

All participants in this study believe that Libyan teachers of English lack training to teach English. Jamal said, "We don't have teacher's training in Libya. From time to time, they have lectures, and these lectures are not in the required standard for learning and teaching." That is why Ziad thinks that "teachers need a lot of training." But Ayoub believes that "we don't have qualified trainers." Ahmed said, "Most of them [teachers] lack the training they need to teach English. Most of them were taught under very traditional methods, and they use these methods to teach English."

Shadi thinks that Libyan teachers "are excused because they don't have as much training as [it] should be. So, if they have that much training, their overall levels will be increased and will be developed. But for the time being, they have a lot of problems, and they encountered a lot of challenges because of the lack of training." Ziad said, "Teachers are not very well trained to use technology, like computers, where they can integrate teaching foreign languages with computers or overhead projectors to provide their students with real materials or authentic real materials." Hala thinks that "teachers don't receive any support or training to improve their teaching skills or to learn about the recent practices in the field of TESOL." Shadi believes that "the students couldn't learn from their teachers because their teachers were not very well trained."

According to Schelfhout, Dochy, Janssens, Struyven, & Gielen (2006), training produces good teachers because it assists teachers to:

- master the curriculum they will teach;
- master methods of teaching they will use;
- collaborate with all parts in the learning environment;
- avoid pitfalls in their ways of teaching and improve themselves; and
- help them be confident of themselves as responsible teachers.

According to what is mentioned above, there are no training programs provided to teachers of English in Libya. Younis said, "I don't think that most of teachers are well trained because the institution*s* don't have a model like teaching practice or teacher training. So, our graduates get their B.A. degree and go straight away to teach. We have no idea how they are going to teach, how they plan their lessons, and so on so forth."

For the last point, mentioned by Younis, and a point mentioned by Anas, who said, "Now teacher's training is very poor. Once they get their degrees, they never get any training," Nuri suggests that

> teacher's training has to be like a license, like six months. Every six months has to be. Teacher sometimes if he or she knows that they are going to teach the same textbook, they will not make any effort or prepare because they have everything ready for the first year. They teach the same textbooks. Every year will be the same. They change the date. So, they don't make any efforts, and their performance will decrease, not increase.

Some participants criticize the Ministry of Education for not providing training programs to Libyan teachers of English. Fouzi said, “I am not going to blame the teachers because it is the system that actually has to be blamed. Because they don’t provide training for the teachers.” Tamer explained, “What I saw before about teachers, they do not have enough training, so they lack training. So they are not to be blamed for that. Training [is] what we need.”

Libyan teachers of English find challenges to teach English textbooks.

Another point raised is that publishing new textbooks without providing training programs results in teachers’ failure in teaching these new textbooks. Nur (2003) sees that if teachers are not provided training courses about how to teach new textbooks, they fail in teaching such textbooks due to their [teachers] usage of traditional methods. Hu (2005) provides a solution for teaching new English textbook in China. He suggests that Chinese English department, Chinese and international publishers, and textbook writers collaborate on the curricula and language of the new English textbooks. Also, Seidlhofer (2011) recommends that “in designing English as a subject, prescriptive decisions have to be taken about what aspects of the language are best suited to the objectives and processes of learning” (p. 208).

Shadi, one of the participants, talked about bringing textbooks without providing training programs for Libyan teachers to know how to teach these textbooks. He thinks that “one of the major challenges is the textbook. It is designed eight years ago from I think British Company, and they [are] designed very well, but they are not designing the training program for how to teach this course book or this textbook. So, that’s why teachers when they receive that textbook, they encounter a lot

of problems when they start teaching that textbook because of the lack of training program."

About her experience of teaching English in Libya, Hala said, "The main challenge was that I didn't have enough knowledge about teaching English as a foreign language. In other words, there were no support or training." Also, Tamer states:

> We have new textbooks from Malaysia or I don't know from where. They were imported in Libya, but the problems I face in teaching we don't have enough awareness or training to teach different methods of teaching English language. So, we were stuck. We have new books, but we cannot use them because we do not have enough knowledge to teach, connecting language teaching or to use integrated skills of learning while teaching English language.

Libyan teachers of English lack English language knowledge.

Teachers, who lack language knowledge, may more likely teach incorrect rules, which leads to several types of errors in pronunciation, structure, grammar, and semantics. These teachers teach such errors to students, who imprint these errors in their minds *as behaviorists believe*. Moreover, these teachers focus mainly on grammar; that is, language accuracy at the expense of language use. They believe that English is grammar, and be in a full command of grammar enables students to communicate functionally (Merino, 1997, p. 70).

Because of the lack of teachers of English in Libya, Libyan schools hire and recruit teachers who have not majored in English. For example Sana, one of the participants, said, “When I was in high school, my teacher was not [an] English teacher. He was [a] geographic teacher. The reason why, because we had not an English teacher.” Sana sees that Libyan teachers of English “were not able to teach. A lot of them [were] not real English teachers.”

So, teachers not trained in English and people spending time abroad, no matter the language used in the country they had been, were hired and recruited to teach English in Libya. Ayoub, another participant in this study, started teaching English in public and private schools and English language centers when he was 17. The reason for being hired to teach English was that he spent several years with his family in Uganda, an African country, where English is used as an official language. He learned some English in Ugandan schools. At the age of 17, Ayoub was still a student in high school.

Another participants, Jaber, studied in France and majored in mechanical engineering, yet he taught English for three years in high school in Libya. He was recruited because he was a graduate of engineering and studied abroad, no matter which language he studied. Asma, whose major is agriculture, was recruited to teach English only because her friends asked her to teach in school and to give them English grammar courses.

Similar to Asma, Shadi said, “After I graduated, immediately some people came to me and asked me to teach in an institute, and they told me because we don’t

have English teachers, we need English teachers. And they asked me to teach, and I started teaching with them for some time; I think seven or eight months. And then, I transferred to another high school; I was teaching for two years." This might, also, indicate that hiring or recruiting teachers of English in Libya is not based on specific criteria or standards; it is based on Libyans' recommendations and appeals.

Because of this policy in recruiting and hiring Libyan teachers to teach English in Libyan schools, the analysis of interview data shows that 16 participants think that Libyan teachers of English are not well qualified to teach English. According to Sami, most teachers of English in Libya

> are not qualified enough to teach English. Some of them you can't even hold the whole proper conversation with, I mean in English for few minutes. I am not a native speaker of English myself, but talking to most of my colleagues at the university I could tell that they themselves have lots of proficiency problems in English, grammar problems, intonation. So, if this is the case with the ELT teachers at this university, so how would you expect the students of English at this university to master English properly?

Ayoub thinks that teaching grammar is difficult for Libyan teachers. Sami shares Ayoub's idea, thinking that the challenges Libyan teachers of English "encounter are that being incompetent in English." For that reason, Jaber sees that "it shouldn't be anybody just graduate from university allow them to teach English because teaching another language either English or French or Spanish or any other

language need*s* special skills and needs special profession." If Sami were the minister of education in Libya, he would "fire about 90% of them [teachers of English] because they simply don't have minimum requirements of a good qualified teacher of English."

Most Libyan teachers of English lack awareness about the function of English in its culture.

Because of the economic issues, most Libyan teachers of English have not been to an English-speaking country. Accordingly, they have no idea about how English is used functionally in its culture. Samson and Collins (2012) advise that teachers "have a working knowledge and understanding of the role of culture in language development and academic achievement. Cultural differences often affect ELL students' classroom participation and performance in several ways" (p. 10).

Almost all Libyan teachers that teach English in school level study and learn English in Libya. So, they lack knowledge about the function of English in its culture. They focus on teaching grammar only because they cannot speak English fluently and are unaware of the English culture. Also, they commit mistakes regarding pronunciation, structure, and semantics. Ali thinks that Libyan teachers of English "who were taught abroad like Canada and the UK are very good. Others need to add some training programs because they are just imitating how they were taught in traditional ways."

Younis focuses on the same point, saying, "Those who study abroad *are* very good teachers because their English is good, so they could make good teachers. However, those who studied only in Libya might be good teachers, but their fluency in

English is not good enough." Sami recommends those who want to teach English to "study English overseas to know what the teaching of the other language skills means."

Libyan teachers of English are not fluent English users because they have not been to an English-speaking country, have not contacted with native English speakers, and have not used the Internet to listen to how English words are pronounced. This might be asserted by Younis, who said, "Some teachers, who studied abroad, who did their higher degrees abroad, their English is quite good. Others who studied only in Libya, they didn't get the chance to communicate with native speakers. Consequently, their English is not good."

Salem agrees with Younis and requires that Libyan teachers of English "go abroad and take courses to develop their speaking skills." Anas recommends that the government "send the current English teachers abroad so that they can develop their teaching skills and proficiency." Mousa, also, proposes providing training programs in English-speaking countries because "most of them [teachers] studied locally, and they didn't have chance to go abroad. This does not mean that their ability to teach English in a proper way is too low, but the chance [of] going abroad will have an impact on [their] ability to teach English in a proper way."

Libyan teachers of English encounter economic problems that negatively affect their teaching.

According to Johnson et al. (2005) economic motivations "can be used to achieve a variety of purposes, and researchers have explored how increasing pay in

different ways might serve to attract, retain, or motivate teachers" (p. 40). Data analysis of the interview shows that Libyan teachers' low performance of teaching English is correlated with their salaries. According to Faraj, one of the participants, Libyan teachers have several jobs in addition to their job of teaching English in public schools. Teachers do not dedicate their time to teaching.

Most, if not all teachers of English in Libya have other jobs in addition to their teaching job. In this regard, Nuri thinks that "the salary is very important for an English teacher. If teachers have a very good salary, they will perform better than they are performing now . . . So, because of the social situation—they want to get married sometimes—so they want to find another job, which they can save money, and they can build a house, or rent a house, or buy a car." Jamal thinks that Libyan teachers of English "didn't get what [they] really deserved from teaching hours for the day".

In Libya, English was assigned to be taught from 5th grade beginning in 2007. Teachers of English have been in high demand in public and private schools. Because of the shortage of the number of teachers of English, all teachers of English have extra jobs in private schools. As a result, teachers are absent from their public schools. For this issue, Jamal said, "The challenges that teachers encounter generally in Libya is the low rates of salaries. Thus, some teachers sign coming and leaving [sign in and out] at the same time to do other business in order to cover life expenses because they have families."

Libyan teachers of English lack confidence of themselves.

Doff (1987) attributes teachers' of English lack of confidence in classroom to poor proficiency in English (p. 67). Samson and Collins (2012) recommend English language teachers to "have a working knowledge and understanding of language as a system and of the role of the components of language and speech, specifically sounds, grammar, meaning, coherence, communicative strategies, and social conventions" (p. 9).

Because they are not good users of English and are not aware of methods of teaching, most Libyan teachers lack confidence to speak English in the classroom. Hala sees that Libyan teachers of English "suffer from self-confidence issues when it comes to teaching English. Even for the teachers who are fluent in English, they still need to be familiarized with the different approaches and techniques to teaching English as a foreign language." Hala added, "According to some teachers I had the opportunity to speak with, they don't have confidence in their English language abilities."

Losing confidence results in losing teachers' voice. Losing voice in teaching affects negatively on teacher's performance because, as Murray (2004) says, "it is difficult for those teachers who have not heard their own voices to hear the voices of their students" (pp. 136-137). So, voice is important in teaching because it provides teachers with power, style, and confidence. Hence, Fox (2001) believes that "to have your own voice is to use – and to trust – your own reflective thought processes, made up mainly of language, images, and feelings" (pp. 194-195) because as Johnson (Cited in Elbow, 1994) sees, through voice "we create an identity for ourselves" (p. xvii).

Some participants see that Libyan teachers of English have no power in their teaching because they are controlled and led by other external factors. Ahmed stated:

> The teachers have no voice in their teaching, so we have the system: this triangle, the students and the teacher. The system is dominant, so you got the books already determined by the system. Everything is determined by the system, so you have nothing to do. You don't prepare your lessons. The lessons [are] prepared already for you in the teacher's book. So, you look at the books, you teach the class, the lesson! You have no effect over the class.

Research Question 3: What Challenges Do Libyan Students Face in Learning English in Libya?

Goodman (1986) defines language learning as "a process of social and personal invention" (p. 18), so it is "how to make sense of the world in the context of how our parents, families, and cultures make sense of it" (p. 26). Silva (1975) recommends that teachers motivate learners to develop their competence in communicating functionally through the language learned (p. 344). When students do not have ample opportunities to communicate through the foreign language, they feel bored and uninterested in learning that language (Anderson, 1984, p. 7). Language learning is easy and interesting if it meets the students' needs, communication, which Libyan students lack. Libyan students face several challenges in learning English. Some these challenges are explained below:

Educational environment does not enhance students' integrative and intrinsic motivation.

Gardner (1985) defines student motivation as "the extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity" (p. 10). Motivation is a good instrument for learning English. When students are self-motivated, they learn English and use it communicatively. Dornyei (2001) classifies student motivation into: instrumental and integrative, proposed by Gardner (1985) and his colleagues, and intrinsic and extrinsic, proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985). Richards (2003) explains these types of motivation as:

- Instrumental Motivation: Desire to learn a language for the practical benefits it brings;
- Integrative Motivation: Desire to learn a language in order to interact with native speakers;
- Intrinsic Motivation: Enjoyment of language learning itself; and
- Extrinsic Motivation: Enforced by external factors such as family, social expectations, academic requirements or other sources of rewards or punishment (p. 14).

In this study, the analysis shows that 18 participants classify Libyan students' motivation to learn English as instrumental and extrinsic. Sami does not think that "students are motivated to learn English. Most of the students view English as an obstacle actually for them to graduate." Sami notices that what Libyan students "care

about is to pass the final test, to get a passing grade." Hani sees that Libyan students "just want to pass this year, and just finish the class with any whatever way they can." Asma sees that Libyan students "want only to pass English, so it does not matter."

Anas sees that "students were not motivated enough to learn English." Ayoub thinks that "students aren't interested in learning English, and they don't show any kind of interest." Shadi attributes the lack of students' intrinsic motivation to the lack of English resources for listening and watching, so "their general English background level was very weak." Nuri shows his experience with secondary-level students' motivation, saying "They were trying to do anything during the class to not let the teachers teach. So, most of the class you are shouting on them or telling them to stop talking."

Teachers may change students' instrumental motivation into integrative motivation through collaboration with students themselves, families, the community, and administrators. Tomlinson (2010) believes that "this challenge might be tackled as student's motivation is somehow associated with teacher's motivation. And teachers need to help learners to improve how they learn" (p. 604). From the participants' comments, it seems that Libyan teachers, parents, and schools encourage Libyan students to achieve instrumental motivation to pass the English test only. Younis thinks that most Libyan students are "forced to go to the university to study English just because it's their parents' will." Mousa thinks that "parents try to encourage the students to do well in their study, but that was just for their future career, not only just to master the English language."

Shadi believes that teachers are the most important factor in motivating their students. He said, "If the teachers are trained very well, and if they are skillful, and if they are fluent, they can raise their students' motivation, and this will reflect positively in their overall learning process." Nuri thinks that "there's a reason for every student to learn a language, especially English, so [teachers] have to find this motivation in every student to help the students learn, and it will make teaching easier." Hala thinks that "the teacher can do his or her best to engage unmotivated students by meeting their needs."

Students lack motivation of learning English when they feel that they do not have opportunities to use English communicatively and when they encounter difficulties that make their mastery of English impossible. When students lack motivation for learning English, classroom becomes teacher-centered with focus on teaching grammar in isolated contexts (Garton, Copland, & Burns, 2011, p. 8). To shift students' extrinsic motivation for learning English into intrinsic, Choudhury (2011) recommends English language teachers to create pair and peer activities, which make learning interesting and challenging (p. 39).

Libyan students suffer from unequal treatment by their teachers.

Libyan teachers normally teach in schools close to their surrounding areas. Teachers' children go to these schools, too. So, differences in dealing with students most probably are shown by teachers and administrators. Nuri believes that Libyan teachers "are not equal. They take care of some students more than the others. Maybe because most of the students are other teachers' children. So, if you take care of my

children, I will take care of your children." Hence Nuri advises teachers "to treat [students] equally."

According to Miller (1999), treating students equally assesses individuals "whose values are established by their worth to the relevant population taken as a whole, and it must be blind to personal preferences" (p. 8). Treating students equally provides all students with opportunities to satisfy their needs (Bell, 1997, p. 3).

Libyan students lack opportunities to practice English inside and outside the classroom.

According to Gilles and Pierce (2003), "language cannot be separated from learning, because it is both essential to learning and enhanced by learning. Neither can language and learning be separated from interaction with others" (p. 61). Matsuda (2003) believes that "much meta-sociolinguistic instruction for English learners and teachers is necessary in order to prepare students adequately for the future uses of English as an international language" (p. 495). Learning a language is more readily achieved through the language itself, not through another language. Learners need to be aware of the sociolinguistic and sociocultural norms of the foreign language.

Libyan students face difficulties using English in school because they use Arabic to learn English. Mousa said, "My students use their native language a lot, and I tried to encourage them to use the English language, but unfortunately, I couldn't do that." Jaber argued, "Students [were] always trying to translate the meaning of English in Arabic and try to understand that." Ahmed said, "Arabic is everywhere." Libyan students' preference to using Arabic in learning English forces Libyan teachers, as

Ayoub said, "to use the first language." Thus, using English, as Mousa thinks, "didn't help students. So, sometimes I thought that was just a waste of time because the problem is that the students got used to use [using] their native language."

According to Moffett and Wagner (1992), "facts of language are best learned via practice of the language" (p. 10). That is because when students practice the language, they explore facts through observation and use. Nunan (2004) calls language practice in classroom as "experiential learning" or "learning by doing" (p. 12). This indicates that the ideal way of learning English is to help learners practice English within themselves and with native English speakers.

The challenges in learning English in Libya are attributed to the lack of English practice inside and outside the classroom, as Hala said. Because of not practicing English, Libyan students, as Sana says, "forget what they have learned." So, Sami recommends that Libyan students "have some exposure [to] English because unless they have that sort of exposure, they will never master English [understandably]."

Ahmed explains that "the whole community around them [Libyan students] speaks Arabic, and their exposure to English is very limited. But third thing is that most of curriculum, not only most of the curriculums are in Arabic, so even in higher education, they [students] are not exposed enough to the English language." Mousa said, "There's no way for the students to learn English outside the classroom because everything depends on the textbooks."

Libyan students lack academic relationship with their teachers of English.

According to Lindemann (2001) "teaching is a complicated rhetorical act, a process of communication that requires us constantly to realign our relationship to our students and the subject matter. How we teach is shaped by whom and what we teach" (p. 253). About the importance of the relationship with students and colleagues, Barduhn (1989) said, "Teaching can be a highly stressful occupation. The only way to escape this type of stress is through the development of a sense of inner security which allows for the development of secure personal relationships with colleagues and learners" (pp. 2-3).

In this study, Sami talked about an important quality that almost all Libyan teachers lack, which is the academic interrelationship between teachers and students. He said, "We don't know how to motivate our learners. We don't get them involved into a successful healthy classroom discussion in English. Of course, we don't maintain a good rapport, which is the good relationship between teacher and their students. Also, the interrelationship between student-student, student-teacher is important as well."

Johnston (2004) said, "The greater the gap between teacher and learner, the harder teaching becomes" (p. 7). Zanger (1991) said, "When the relationship between teacher and student breaks down . . . the consequences are disastrous for the learner" (p. 18). Fouzi described an experience with his professor in the USA. He said:

> I was really surprised when I came at the . . ., and when the professor ask[ed] [me] just [to call him with] the first name like John or Joy or

> whatever, and I was having a hard time just saying their plain names, and trying to use 'professor,' 'doctor,' and stuff like that was weird. And they taught us that [we] have to build like a healthy environment between [us] and the students. This is the first thing [we] have to do. If [we] fail to do and establish that environment, so probably the teaching and learning will be less effective, and there is [no] benefit.

Fouzi continued, "These borders the teachers build between them and the students [make] the students passive learners; they just sit and receive the information, but there is no active learning. They are not taking the responsibility, they are not taking part of their own learning, plus the lack of motivation." Also, Nuri, who has 14 years teaching English in public schools, thinks that "when you know the students and the neighborhood, or the place where he lives will help you to deal with any situation or any kind of problem with the students." Thus, Fouzi recommends "building the healthy environment between the students and the teachers, so the students do not feel embarrassed or terrified and just wait for the class to be over."

When teachers have a good relationship with their students, as Peregoy and Boyle (2008) say, they "offer them social and emotional support. Only when new students become comfortably integrated into your classroom's social and academic routines will optimal second language acquisition and academic learning occur" (p. 15).

Libyan students' needs and abilities are not considered in lesson planning.

Jensen (2001) defines lesson plan as "an extremely useful tool that serves as a combination guide, resource, and historical document reflecting our teaching philosophy, student population, textbooks, and most importantly, our goals for our students" (p. 403). A lesson plan is essential not only for teachers' success in teaching, but also for students' success in learning. Teachers need to plan their lessons to connect with their students' prior knowledge and objectives (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2008, p. 23).

According to the definition above, it seems that the majority of Libyan teachers of English do not effectively plan lessons. So, most of the time, students do not complete what is assigned to be completed within the class time. This, of course, affects negatively on Libyan teachers' quality of teaching English texts because they have to finish the book within the year. Nuri describes textbooks as, "not helpful because they were very intensive, and most of the lessons were not taught properly because we started step by step in the beginning, and then we rushed. And we started to give the lessons to finish the textbooks, so half, like 50% of the textbook wasn't helpful, wasn't taught very well."

Research Question 4: What Methods of Teaching English Do Teachers Use in Libya?

Georgieva (2010) said, "The changed attitude towards EFL users has inevitably led to calls for reassessment of EFL methodology, especially, the validity of one of the basic tenets of the dominant communicative approaches–the native speaker

as the ideal model of communicative behavior" (p. 119). Hence, seeking for an appropriate method to be used in Libya is a must. In this part, I am presenting some of the methods and techniques of teaching English in Libya.

Libyan teachers appear to misunderstand English teaching methods.

A method of teaching, according to Garton et al. (2011), is "very often misunderstood by teachers, who may have received little or no training in its theoretical underpinnings and practical applications" (p. 5). It seems that this is what happens with most Libyan teachers of English. The data analysis of the interviews shows that the participants are unaware of the method of teaching they used. They knew about methods of teaching English when they came to the United States. Nuri said, "There wasn't a specific method of teaching English when I was teaching because we didn't learn this in university, so we depended on our teachers' methods when we were students, and we chose the best one to teach with some adjustment and some other things like using tape recorders or players."

This point is asserted, also, by Hala, who said, "Actually, there was not a certain method that I can say I followed, simply because I didn't have the knowledge about the theories, approaches, and methods of second language acquisition and English language teaching." Fouzi said, "Actually, it wasn't quite clear about the methodology I am using, but my method of teaching, I think, it's a mixture of Grammar Translation Method. Because if you write the words down on the board and you try to explain them, sometimes you just give them the meaning in Arabic. But when I came here [USA], I realized that I was using more like Bio-Lingual Education Method."

Shadi said, "I used different methods while I was teaching even though I haven't any idea about specific teaching instructions and methodologies." Asked about the method of teaching he was using, Hani said, "I was doing teaching as a part-time job, so I am not specialized in English. That's why I get the methods from other teachers." Jaber said, "Actually I am an engineer and I am not professional at English teaching, but I am trying to [teach] exactly what I have learned from the others . . . I [was taught] by very good Libyan teachers and then by secondary school, I've been [taught] by Ghana's teachers and trying to follow those methods. I don't really know what these methods, but I am trying to copy them during my teaching."

Nuri said, "I think we use Grammar Translation Method. The names of the methods, I wasn't familiar. I mean they weren't familiar to me, but when I started my major, my master, I become familiar with these methods." Ziad said, "The method that I was using was not very clear and systematic, but when I came to the States here, I think I realize that I was using the Grammar Method of teaching and maybe the Direct Method as well while I was teaching reading." Shadi said, "I was using the Grammar Translation Method because I was translating most of the time because of the students' overall general English levels."

The data analysis, also, shows that there is confusion about the functions and the use of methods of teaching. For example, Salem said, "When I teach reading, I use Communicative Language Method." Of course, this method is never used to teach reading. In contrast, it is used to teach communication through speaking and listening. Also, Ahmed talked about Direct Method he used in teaching, saying, "So, you make a direct connection between one object and the sound of that object or the word, like this

is ‘chair,’ so the chair, and there’s a picture of a chair.” He might be confused about the use of visual aids in teaching, which is a strategy or a technique, and the use of Direct Method, which is based on using English only in teaching and learning English.

Because of not being aware of methods of teaching English and not majoring in English, six participants used their own methods for teaching. Sana was teaching students through “reading and writing only, without speaking or listening.” Asma tried “to teach students how to speak by listening then imitating what they heard . . . to teach them a lot of new vocabulary in order to help them speak well.” Faraj was teaching “through the use of blackboard . . . through reading a textbook, explaining things on the blackboard and repeating the questions, expressions, and alphabets.”

Mousa’s method of teaching was to “read a textbook. It was like reading aloud so from the textbook, and the students start listen*ing* to you, and after that I start asking them questions, and that’s it.” Jamal explains how a Libyan teacher works, saying that the teacher “opens the book and reads, tells the students about the today’s lesson, fills the blackboard, and gives the students homework. The other day, he discusses with the students about the homework normally.”

Teachers use traditional methods and lecturing in teaching English in Libya.

Based on Seidlhofer (2011) “changes in the perception of the role of English in the world have significantly influenced thinking about approaches to teaching (if not necessarily the teaching itself) and led to an increased socio-political and intercultural awareness” (p. 12). English is now needed more than any time in the past. Because of the globalization, English has become the lingua franca. The role of English language

teachers changes from teaching into helping students learn. Teachers, as Samson and Collins (2012) believe, “need to have a sense of what signs to look for when ELL students struggle with language learning and communication” (p. 10). This, of course, requires using appropriate methods and techniques of teaching.

Nine participants in this study used Grammar Translation Method; four used Audio-Lingual Method; four used Direct Method; one used Bio-Lingual Method; and one used Curriculum-Based Teaching. I asked Fouzi about the BLM, as I was not familiar with that method. He answered, “It is a Bio-Lingual Education by using the mother tongue and English instead of using English only.” So, this method is similar to GTM. The only difference, I see, is that GTM focuses on grammar. About CBT, Hala said, “It was more like explicit teaching (especially when it comes to grammar), and it was more Curriculum-Based Teaching; I followed almost everything in the assigned book.”

About the use of these traditional methods, Ziad recommends Libyan teachers of English to “keep up with the modern techniques of teaching.” Ayoub recommends that “students learn native speakers’ English, using strategies that [he] see*s* here [in the USA] every day like pair work, group work, other resources than they are using.” For the most inappropriate way of teaching, Younis sees that it is “the lecturing approach because in Libya some teachers used to lecture, to give presentations in front of their students and ask their students questions in terms of final examinations.”

Slethaug (2007) said, “Although lecturing is the foundation of the classroom and the preferred pedagogy for most teachers internationally, American educators and students state a strong preference for discussion, either as a supplement to, or a

replacement of, the lecture, and think of this as the modern approach" (p. 103). The target of teaching is to develop students' autonomy and responsibility for learning. Hence, Slethaug believes that student-centered classrooms achieve the target of learning because students feel comfortable while collaborating with other students and their teacher as a team (p. 104).

In Libya, education has been based on the system of lecturing. Everything is done by teachers; students sit passively and listen to what their teachers say. So, for the most inappropriate method of teaching English, Jaber sees "the classical way that we have been using in Libya. Somebody just has come and take the book and try to teach them [students] what is in the book." So teaching, as Asma comments is "depending on the texts only." Jamal believes that "the most inappropriate method, through [his] studies in undergrad, is the traditional method, which the teacher fills the blackboard, and asks. It is just only parroting; the student just listens."

About the traditional methods of teaching English in Libya, Ali said, "In my school years I was taught mainly in Grammar Translation Method and also Audio-Lingual Method, and that was in my preparatory and secondary school. Though I was good at grammar, I was not really able to communicate properly." Hala talks about the Audio-Lingual Method as a method "that is focusing more on grammar drills, memorization. No communicative based activities at all." Ahmed, also, said, "Most of the teachers, actually most of the education system focuses on grammar instead of communication."

GTM is the most used method for teaching English in Libya.

According to Andrews (1993), teaching grammar "does not help writing or speaking. Nothing seems to diminish the impulses and compulsions to continue to teach it in schools" (pp. 4-5). Language is not only grammar; language is a system of components that work together to achieve the main purpose of language, which is communication. In this regard, Mahboob and Szenes, (2010) define language as "a social semiotic system–a resource that people use to accomplish their purposes and to construe and represent meaning in context" (pp. 584-585).

My data interviews show that nine participants used GTM in their teaching of English in Libya: six are not satisfied with this method; three are partially satisfied. Ziad sees that GTM "is not very helpful because you have to sometimes teach the functions or the grammatical function, and you translate. It really [makes] the students get bored with this method and the teachers as well." Tamer thinks that GTM "is not helpful to teach," and Younis believes that "it doesn't make students good communicators."

As for the most ineffective method for teaching English in Libya, nine participants believe that it is GTM. Ali sees that this method is ineffective because it does not help students "communicate properly." Nuri does not like this method because "the students will depend on the translation, and they will not learn English." Anas believes that students "would view the language as a reading tool, and they wouldn't develop any oral skills." Fouzi sees that GTM, "neglect*s* the main purpose of the language, which is communication." Sami believes that GTM "does not suggest

any use of the target language or English in classrooms. All what we need to do is just use the bilingual dictionary and give the students word-for-word translation. We don't have a purpose to achieve communication in English."

Memorization is commonly used as a teaching and learning method.

The education system in Libya is based on memorization. Most often, Libyan students memorize materials without using them. Memorization, according to Slethaug (2007), is a limitation to students because it deals with students as "stuffed ducks" (p. 55), yet it is the preferred strategy to Libyan students and teachers. For example, how he used to teach English in Libya, Faraj said, "Every student should memorize." How she learned English, Asma said, "The thing that helps me a lot was memorizing English chapters. I was memorizing more than two pages daily and recited them to my teacher in order to be able to speak fluently."

The concern is that Asma still believes that memorization is the best way for learning English. Asking her about the method of teaching English she would probably use when she came back home, she answered, "From my experience, I guess the best way to learn English is to memorize a long story and recite it to others." Also, Jamal describes his way of teaching as "to delete two or three letters from a word to see the students, who memorize the word and can fill the blanks."

Andrews (1993) advises teachers that "instead of remembering language learning as painful, boring, or, worst yet, remembering nothing, students who engage in exploration and awareness activities will remember the power and joy of learning language as it is used in real life" (1993, pp. 47-48). Hooks (2010) believes that

“students do not become critical thinkers overnight. First, they must learn to embrace the joy and power of thinking itself” (p. 8). In fact, this is what we miss in Libya as Libyan students lack the power and joy to think. They prefer memorization over critical thinking.

Faraj sees that Libyan students “memorize things in a way that they forget easily after the exams. The students memorize the rule for a limited period of time, but they forget most of the articles and the sentences they studied . . . teachers give a large amount of information to the student. For example, the teacher asks the students to memorize one hundred pages; whereas, actually the student needs to know five or six pages.” Hani sees that memorization helps students “to pass the exam, and that’s it because they will forget whatever they learn if they don’t use it.”

Because teachers of English force Libyan students to memorize, not to think critically, 14 participants see that school in Libya is not a good place to learn English. Sami talked about his experience in learning English in school, saying, “During my school, actually I don’t think it was a very pleasant experience.” Asma sees that learning English in school “was so bad.” Peregoy and Boyle (2008) confirm that “all language skills–listening, speaking, reading, and writing–are best developed when students are using those skills to achieve communication goals that are interesting and meaningful to them” (p. 336).

Communicative Language Teaching Approach is difficult to use in Libyan schools.

Based on Enever and Moon, Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLTA) works effectively in western countries, where classrooms are well equipped and contain a small number of students. It might not work effectively in many of developing countries, where classrooms are overcrowded with students with a few or no educational resources (Garton et al., 2011, p. 5).

My data analysis shows that five participants think that CLTA does not work well in Libya for several reasons. Younis, who used CLTA in teaching English in Libya, found challenges in using this method because “in some cases it’s quite difficult to convey the meaning of some structures or some sentences or words, using the Communicative Language Approach because of the lack of the facilities.” Fouzi tried to speak English only in the classroom, “but sometimes when you feel that it’s frustrating because they don’t have the tools to explain some words like abstract words not the concrete ones. So, you have to just give them the meaning.”

Sami sees that CLTA does not work well because “the students are not acquainted; they are not aware of this method. They are not used to using this method in classrooms, so most students tend to be extremely shy, and namely female students.” He continued saying, “I was trying very hard to encourage students to be involved in a classroom discussion, give them a topic to talk about. The thing is most of the students, namely female students have a kind of withdrawing attitude. They don’t really get involved in our classroom discussions.”

Tamer tried to apply CLTA in Libya when he came back home from England in 2006. He found that high schools have new English textbook that are based on CLTA, but the teachers of English did not have proficiency and knowledge to accommodate this approach. Tamer tried to use CLTA with his students in the classroom, but he failed because students did not cooperate with him.

According to Mahboob and Tilakaratna (2012), “in contexts with few resources, financial constraints, and a lack of infrastructure, the delivery of language programs and material promoted as solutions by major international publishing companies can be problematic” (p. 10). Thus, it becomes difficult applying a specific approach that is successful in some countries with different educational resources and circumstances in other countries.

Because of the challenges of using CLTA in Libya, Libyan teachers of English shift to GTM. About the shift from CLTA to GTM, Nuri explains that “sometimes the method doesn’t match with the mentality of our students. It needs a lot of patience from the teacher to make students adapt with the method or the kind of the method the teacher is going to use. So, it is not like lab experiments, but I can say we try to use the method which matches with the students’ environment and traditions.” Younis, who likes CLTA, said, “I had to shift into the Grammar Translation Method and translate some words or, especially abstract words to the students’ native language, which is Arabic.”

Also, Sami, who tried to use CLTA in university, argued

> I had to just give them [students] sheets. I read at the classroom. I don't even ask them to read. I just follow, and they insist in me translating every single word for them. Sometimes, I refuse. I just say 'well you've got to use your dictionaries, you've got to discover learning, you've got to discover everything yourselves. I don't have to give you everything.' So I would say probably Grammar Translation Method is the main method I used to use. I know that it is not the best method to use, but some other circumstances had made it a must for me to use that.

Research Question 5: What Connections Might Exist between Libyans' Skills in the English Language and the Future of Libya?

Learning English is a must in this global world. English is the lingua franca of the world. It becomes crucial that Libya connects with the world through English. Halliday (2006) shows how English becomes the lingua franca and the changes required to use English as:

> English, along with a small number of other languages in the modern period, has expanded away from local through national to international domains, changing significantly along the way. But the changes are not simply those that take place in the normal course of the history of a language; other changes come about as a language takes on new cultural, economic, and political responsibilities. (p. 349)

The future of teaching and learning English in Libya will be bright.

Halliday's thought above indicates that English has become the medium of communication in the globalized world, which makes the world a small village. Globalization is "the intensification of worldwide social relations that link distant localities to proximate ones" (Bhatt, 2010, p. 103) and "people's awareness of globalization has brought about a shift of attitude towards English" (Georgieva, 2010, p. 132). This is, in fact, what is happening in Libya 2014. Libyans now identify the importance of learning and using English. In contrast to the old regime in Libya, which considered learning English a symbol of imperialism, the situation in Libya is now different. In this regard, Fouzi believes that "the world is now a small village, and everybody is trying to catch up with the technology and civilization. So in order to be classified as a citizen in this world, you have to learn English."

The analysis of this study shows that the participants are optimistic about the situation of learning and teaching English in Libya in the future. Anas thinks that "the future is going to be much bright." Ziad thinks that "the English language skills will be much better in the new Libya than it used to be." Sana guesses that English will "be the main category in Libya because if we want to [be] open [to] the world, we have to [teach] English to our students." Shadi sums up the future of Libya with or without English, stating:

> learning English is the main connection between all peoples. For example, even if a company enters Libya, and this company comes from a European English-speaking country, if this country finds that the community or the

> qualified people do not speak English, it will have no role in Libya. Libya will find herself following the strategy or the ideology set by the company because Libya has no qualified people to work in this company to negotiate or discuss because the main factor *is* the English language. English is necessary for the development of Libya in the future. Libya will resort to companies and experts from the external world, and these do not speak Arabic. They speak English.

Libyan students' attitude to learning English is positive.

Even though Libyan students may struggle with motivation, they may find job opportunities if their attitude to learning English is positive. Teachers can shift the students' negative attitude into a positive one through engaging students in activities related to practicing English in the classroom. Johnson (1946) suggests that "before we can change our language it is essential that we develop a certain kind of attitude toward it–the attitude that language is to be viewed as a form of behavior and that, like other behavior, it is to be evaluated as technique" (p. 269). Of course, attitude is different from motivation. In other words, the student's attitude might be positive and his motivation is negative and vice versa.

The analysis shows that 14 participants see that Libyan students' attitude to learning English is positive. About Libyan students' attitude, Ali thinks "it's already positive in Libya because those who know English are considered to be better educated and looked at very respectfully." Ziad sees that the Libyan students' attitude is "positive because learning foreign languages is sort of prestige." Hani thinks that Libyan students nowadays "are inspiring to learn another language."

Asma confirms that “many Libyan students have positive attitude to learn English especially recently after many opportunities [have been] given to students to complete their education abroad [and get] scholarships.” Nuri said, “The general attitude of students is to travel. That’s why most of them work in international companies. If you speak English, you get a job. This is the idea.” Hani agrees with what Nuri says, confirming that “it’s good to have another language. Not only English, but any other language. But particularly English is very helpful, and if you apply for a job for work for a company, you need to communicate with people, and usually use English.”

Conclusion

The findings of this chapter show that English language teaching and learning in Libya is unsatisfactory. Several factors lead to failure in teaching and learning English in Libya. Some of these factors are related to the educational environment, teachers of English, students, and methods of teaching English in Libya. Thus, the next chapter presents some implications and recommendations that might be used to improve the context of teaching and learning English in Libya.

The findings show that Libyan schools lack facilities, including visual aids and technology that aid in teaching and learning English. Libyan schools, also, lack educational environment, which affects negatively on the processes of teaching and learning English. As for the language used in teaching English in Libyan school, it is Arabic. Families and community have passive roles in encouraging students to learn English. English textbooks do not take into account Libyan students’ beliefs and

tradition. Of course, ceasing English for a decade has the biggest effect on Libyan students' failure to achieve progress in learning English.

The findings show, also, that Libyan teachers of English encounter challenges. Some of these challenges are related to the teachers themselves, such as lack of fluency in English, lack of English language knowledge, lack of awareness about the function of English in its culture, and lack of confidence of themselves as users of English. In addition to the economic issues, Libyan teachers of English encounter challenges in teaching English textbooks due to lack of training programs.

Libyan students encounter several challenges while learning English in Libya. Some of these challenges are attributed by teachers, who deal with students unequally. Libyan students have no academic relationship with their teachers, which affects negatively on Libyan students' progress in learning English. Other challenges are attributed by the lack of the educational environment in the classroom. Accordingly, students use Arabic to learn English, and their attitude to learning English becomes instrumental and extrinsic.

Finally, the findings show that Libyan teachers of English misunderstand methods of teaching English. They use the methods their teachers were using, and they do not know what these methods are. It seems that Libyan teachers of English use Grammar Translation Method in teaching, basing on translating from English into Arabic and focusing on grammar in isolated contexts. The findings show that use of Communicative Language Teaching Approach in Libya is too difficult due to

overcrowded classrooms, lack of facilities, and lack of well-qualified and well-trained teachers.

CHAPTER FIVE: IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Rationale

This chapter presents implications and recommendations to improve the situation of teaching and learning English in Libya. This chapter summarizes the procedures and methodology I used in order to reach findings and present implications and recommendations accordingly. I am presenting, also, in this chapter the lessons learned from analyzing the participants' interviews and a summary of the findings obtained from Chapter Four. Final thoughts and suggestions for future research are presented in this chapter, too.

Procedures

In this study, I conducted qualitative research, based on interviewing 20 Libyan teachers of English. The participants used to teach English in various levels in different locations in Libya. They were pursuing their graduate studies (masters and doctorate) at the time of the interviews. The participants included 17 males and three females. For the male participants, I interviewed 14 participants face-to-face. I used a digital camera to record only the audio. I interviewed the other three through Skype. For the female participants, I sat with them face-to-face and gave them instructions about how to complete the interview. They took the questions and answered them at home and at their offices at the university, as culturally they get ashamed to talk with me.

The interviews took place in different states in the United States and were completed within almost six months (from March 8, 2012 to August 30, 2012). I

transcribed the interviews and analyzed the data, using my own interpretation based on my knowledge about the topic of the study. I presented implications and recommendations based on the findings obtained.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate methods of teaching English in Libya and stand on the interviewees' perceived effects on students' progress in using English in reality. Teaching another language is a challenging task and requires collaboration of different components: teacher, students, textbooks, materials, family, and community. Based on the 20 interviews analyzed in this study, teaching English in Libya is still unsatisfactory. The findings show that the situation of unsatisfactory teaching affects negatively on the situation of learning English in Libya. Hence, I focused on the following results:

Libyan teachers of English encounter challenges in teaching English in Libya.

Based on research and interviews with the participants, Libyan teachers of English encounter challenges in teaching English in Libya. Hala, one of the participants, compared her experience of teaching English in an English language center in the USA and her experience in teaching English in Libya as:

> Most of the institutes that I had worked for *in the USA* have classrooms suitable for English as a foreign [second] language learning and teaching; a circle-like positioning of the desks. This would give the chance for the teacher to have eye contact with everybody and interact easily with the students. However, this was not the case with all classrooms in Libya. For

instance, the language center of *a Libyan* university had auditorium like classrooms, which was painful teaching English as a foreign language in this type of classes.

To investigate about these challenges, I answered the following questions:

1. What are challenges teachers of English encounter while teaching English in Libya?
2. What other factors hinder teaching English in Libya?
3. What are Libyan teachers' perceptions about teaching English in Libya?

Libyan students encounter challenges in learning English in Libya.

Tarhuni (as cited in Bouziane, 2003) diagnoses the situation of learning English in Libya as: students know "everything about language except the language itself" (p. 20). Tarhuni indicates that Libyan students know about the English language, but they do not know how to use English. This is in agreement with Ahmad (2001), who concludes in his study that Libyan students encounter difficulties in using English in oral activities (p. 4). Also, Shihiba (2011) concludes that Libyan graduate students from English departments in Libyan universities cannot use English in communicative situations due to their poor speaking and listening skills (p. 22).

To understand the challenges that Libyan students encounter while learning English in Libya, I answered the following questions:

1. What are challenges Libyan students encounter while learning English in Libya?
2. What other factors hinder learning English in Libya?

Traditional methods of teaching English have failed in Libya.

Kara (1992, p. 21), El-Bousefi (2001, p. 5), and Abu Srewel (2002, p. 2) attribute Libyan students' failure with English to the traditional methods of teaching used in Libyan schools. Shihiba (2011) attributes this failure to the lack of practicing oral activities in school (p. 2). Such studies and comments from the participants about the effect of the methods of teaching English in Libya on Libyan students' progress in using English in reality require me to look for answers to the following questions:

1. Which method of teaching English is commonly used in Libya?
2. How do Libyan teachers of English and students see this method?
3. What is the most appropriate method of teaching English in Libya?

Teaching English in Libya connects to Libya's future in a globalized world.

The analysis shows that 17 participants see that there is a connection between Libyan skills in using English and the future of Libya. Faraj believes that "if the Libyans learn English correctly, they can consider the Europeans or the Americans who are native speakers to that language, and they can interact with them more. When they interact more with native English speakers, they benefit more in knowing their style of life in daily life routine. Thus, break the barrier that separates them from the developed world."

Ziad said, "If students have English, and they are fluent in English, they can follow the updates in their major and their field." Younis thinks that "for any country to develop is supposed to communicate with the world, and this communication is

done nowadays through English because English is the lingua franca." Based on Fouzi, "The world is now a small village, and everybody is trying to catch up with the technology and civilization. So in order to be classified as a citizen in this world, you have to learn English" because, as Jamal believes "learning English is the main connection between all peoples."

Based on the participants' comments, I answered the following questions to make sure that teaching and learning English in Libya are in the right track or not:

1. Should Libya establish national teaching standards? Why or why not?
2. Should Libya establish a common curriculum? Why or why not?

Summary of Findings

Investigation about the four main groupings (teaching, learning, methods of teaching, and future of teaching English in Libya) of the research questions led to findings, which led to implications and recommendations of the study. The five major findings include:

Unsatisfactory teaching leads to unsatisfactory learning.

Kent (1987) sees teaching as "an interactive experiment between student and teacher" (p. 270). This indicates that teaching is not a process of transferring knowledge from books to students' minds; rather it is a process of affecting on students' behavior and action. Yang and Chen (2007) said "Because effective teaching is based on communication, the goal of English teaching is exactly the same, namely

to develop the ability of students to communicate with people in a new language in real world situations" (p. 861).

Teaching is a process of communication and requires interaction of three components: teachers, students, and knowledge. Teacher quality, as Lovat (2003) discusses "plays a greater role in explaining student achievement than other factors associated with teaching, including, classroom environmental factors such as resources, curriculum guidelines, and assessment practices, or the broader school environment such as school culture and organization" (p. 11). Wright, Sandra, and William (1997) searched about the factors that affect students' learning and found out that "at the heart of this line of inquiry is the core belief that teachers make a difference" (p. 57).

Therefore, good language teaching leads to good language learning and, unsatisfactory teaching leads to unsatisfactory learning because, as Asokhia, (2009) says, the teacher "sets the foundation for all the other subjects and if the foundation is poor the whole system crumbles. Corrections are expensive and take longer time" (p. 83). Teaching and learning are interrelated.

In this study, 12 participants are pessimistic about the situation of learning English as a whole in Libya because the situation of teaching English is unsatisfactory. Sana said, "There is no good teachers . . . to do learning." Asma said, "You do not have any chance to learn English in a good way." Sami sees that "English education in Libya is not good. We have lots of problems that we need to deal with such as lack of qualified English language teachers."

Fouzi believes that the situation of teaching English in Libya is “less than satisfactory because [there is] no training for the teachers.” Hala believes that “the situation of teaching English in Libya needs a lot of work in public schools and universities as well as private English institutes in terms of teacher training.”

Lack of pedagogical understanding leads to ineffective learning.

Alexander (2004) defines pedagogy as “the act of teaching and the body of knowledge, argument and evidence in which it is embedded and by which particular classroom practices are justified” (p. 10). Hooks (2010) perceives pedagogy as “a teaching strategy that aims to restore students’ will to think, and their will to be fully self-actualized” (p. 8). Pedagogy is a mixture of theory and practice that requires teachers’ preparation.

Shulman (1987) defines pedagogical teaching as “special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding” (p. 8). So, pedagogical teaching is essential because it helps teachers to deal with teaching not as a skill and processes to follow to teach a subject. Rather, it is a technique that helps teachers deal with teaching as a complex mixture of theoretical and practical skills. Pedagogical teaching requires a discourse that includes teachers, students, and knowledge. Teachers need to be acquainted with the discourse in order to select what and how to teach.

Sami sees that Libyan teachers of English are “unaware of the principles of pedagogy. Also, they are unaware how to apply the theoretical teaching methods or methodology.” Hani thinks that most of Libyan teachers of English “need to be aware

of how to use methods of teaching and how to implement them in a classroom. I mean pedagogy."

Low teacher motivation provides negative outcomes.

According to Dornyei (1998), motivation controls and directs individuals' behavior to achieve a specific task (p. 117). Gorrell and Dharmadasa (Cited in Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007) conducted a study about teachers' motivation for teaching in developing countries and found out that teachers in developing countries lacked motivation for teaching because of some factors as: overcrowded classrooms, students' absence, and lack of textbooks (p. 10). Guajardo (2011) believes that "low teacher motivation leads to negative educational outcomes" (p. 6). In contrast, Dornyei (2001) believes that "if a teacher is motivated to teach, there is a good chance that his or her students will be motivated to learn" (p. 156).

In this study, the participants' answers about the benefits or rewards of teaching English in Libya show that none of the participants teach English to help Libyan students learn English. The participants mentioned some instrumental reasons for teaching English in Libya, such as to cover shortage of teachers of English, to get a job, to get extra money, or to substitute teachers when they are absent. For example, Nuri said, "I started teaching English after graduation in 1998. First year, I didn't teach. I just took classes when teachers [were] absent."

Nuri justifies that most Libyan teachers "choose teaching because in their minds it's the easiest job. They don't have to take full time job. It depends on the number of classes or if they [know] the headmaster in the school, maybe they don't have to go to

school." Also, Younis said, "Some of the challenges that learners face [are] related to the teachers themselves. Some teachers are not very well planned because they are not very well motivated to teach. Teachers don't use useful activities and useful technology in the classroom. So, this affects the learning process."

Inappropriate educational environment results in ineffective learning.

Learning a language requires an appropriate educational environment, where students learn not only sounds of the foreign language, but also ideas, thoughts, and native speakers' feelings when they speak that language (Hackert, 2012, p. 120). Learning a foreign language, thus, aims at changing the students' mentality and behavior to communicate with native speakers. It requires that students think, behave, and see the world as native speakers do. Learning a foreign language is a process for communicating with native speakers, not to know about the foreign language.

Learning a foreign language is a social activity, which requires a social setting to practice the foreign language with the native speakers. This social setting is called "educational environment," which includes teachers, students, classroom, and facilities. If the educational environment is convenient and healthy, the outcome is most probably productive.

The participants of this study see that the educational environment in Libya is lacking. Jamal said, "It's supposed that we try to make the classroom environment as a small environment, in which the students speak only English, and the teachers try to limit the use of the Arabic mother tongue in their teaching of English. Also, we try to enhance participations, plays, or activities among students, which help them use as

much of English as possible inside the classroom," but in reality none of these are applicable in Libyan schools.

In actuality, Younis suffers from the huge number of students in the classroom and suggests to "divide the students into different groups and different classes. Each class is supposed to include no more than 15 students." Asma requires that students "practice English not just learn it," and Fouzi requires that students "practice English in [the] classroom, and teachers [would] use only English."

Inappropriate method of teaching leads to learning failure.

Several methods and approaches have been used for teaching English, and each one has advantages and disadvantages. What is proven successful in one setting and time might be unsuccessful in another setting and time. Tarone and Yule (1989) asked, "Why is it that language teachers never seem to be quite satisfied with any one methodology or any one set of teaching materials?" (p. 3). Answers to this question might be found in answering the following questions by Liu (2007):

- What methods do language teachers currently use in both ESL and EFL contexts?
- What are the factors that support or constrain their choices of teaching methods?
- How do language teachers conceptualize and envision language teaching method in the twenty-first century with the rapid advancement of technology, the increasing demands of societal needs, and the diverse backgrounds of learners in various learning contexts? (pp. 37-38).

Based on studies and research, an inappropriate method of teaching, as Shyamlee (2012) explains, hampers "students' capacity to comprehend certain

language and also understanding to structure, meaning and function of the language, and makes the students passive recipients of knowledge, so it is hard to achieve the target of communication" (p. 152). Most of the participants of this study were using Grammar Translation Method based on translating English grammar into Arabic grammar. Sami said, "We maintain a traditional style of English education based on Grammar Translation Method."

None of the participants think of using GTM when they come back to Libya. Anas said, "We still need to teach grammar as well. I would suggest that we teach students with grammar first, and then once they develop some kind of proficiency, I think it's better to start using the Communicative Approach." The participants mentioned several reasons for not using GTM for teaching. Amongst these reasons is that GTM focuses only on literacy skills and ignores oral skills.

Eight participants think of using Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLTA) when they come back to Libya. Ayoub said, "I am going to use the Communicative Approach for teaching English. Students need to know that we are teaching English, so they can use it with travel. They should know there is authentic, something they can use in the real world, but something they use for communicative, for example, using conversations."

Younis thinks that it is very difficult to use CLTA unless some changes in education system in Libya take place. He states:

> In my view, the Communicative Language Approach doesn't seem to be very effective because of the large number of students in our classes, but

> we could manage this. We could, for example, divide the classes into different classes and by then, we could give the chance to all students to participate, to communicate. If we do this, the Communicative Language Approach is the most useful one.

Implications for Teacher Practice

In this part, I am proposing some implications for teacher practice from the lessons I learned through analyzing the participants' interviews.

Implication One: Teachers should use media to help students learn English.

Reid (1994) defines media as "all means of communication, whatever its format" (p. 51). So, media might include TV, video, movie, Internet, and the like. According to Masats, Dooly, and Costa (2009), media offers "learners the opportunity of observing the dynamics of interaction (discourse modes, gazes, gestures, registers, paralinguistic cues, etc.) in context" (p. 344). Gordon (2007) focuses on the role of media, namely video, in learning, and finds out that students enjoy learning languages through video (p. 189). Fox (2000) believes that media "is highly intertextual because it often borrows from other sources" (p. 181).

Nine participants in this study learned English through media. Fouzi learned English through "listening to music and watching TV." About how he learned English, Ziad said, "I used to listen to the news too much. I used to follow the movies." Jamal said, "The things that make me like English, first listening to the Western songs. I tried to understand the words, the meanings of these words, and the connotations of these songs." Ayoub said, "I learn English by listening to music and watching

movies." Also, Nuri said, "I didn't depend on school. I was listening to music, watching movies. So most of my English learning was using music and movies." Sami Talked about his experience of learning English as:

> I first started learning English at home with my dad. He received his PhD in English from the United States of America, so he was a very good help to me to learn English. We used to watch TV together. We used to watch English news like BBC, Sky News, lots of different kinds of English speaking, English programs and documentary news. So he used to ask me to paraphrase whatever we hear from the news or from English documentary.

Implication Two: Teachers should use technology to enhance learning.

According to Means & Haertel (2004) "Technologies can support ways of learning that would otherwise be difficult to achieve" (p. 17). Technology provides students many opportunities for learning foreign languages. Technology, namely the Internet, is used nowadays to shrink the gaps of time, place, gender, nationality, ethnicity, and education among people. Teachers need to know how to use technology to teach language, and students need to know how to use technology to learn language (See Appendix O for more information).

The diagram in the Appendix O shows the interrelated relationship between learning and technology as each enhances the other. Technology provides students with theories, ideas, and conceptions about language, and students manipulate these theories, ideas, and conceptions to use in reality. Thus, technology provides students

with methods for solving problems, and students provide technology with data in a form of language experiences.

Shyamlee (2012) encourages teachers to involve technology in teaching because technology "provides so many options as making teaching interesting and also making teaching more productive in terms of improvements" (p. 150). About the importance of using technology in learning English, Ayoub, used to teach English in Libya and now is teaching English in an English language center in the United States, gives us a practical example. He said:

> I've never thought about technology except right now when I began teaching, and I find it very useful, especially for students. If you are teaching Arabic speakers that would be fine, but now I am teaching Chinese students, who speak Chinese, and I am speaking English and Arabic, but we use English to communicate with each other. So, suppose I was talking about 'porch.' Building a better community, one thing people can do just building porch in front of their houses, so people can stay outside and see neighbors. 'What's the porch, teacher? We don't know. We don't have that in our country, culture.' So, I just show them 'OK.' Let's google it, and show them many pictures. It's very helpful! Students enjoy and love technology and I can use games, I can use pronunciations activities.

Implication Three: Teachers should create authentic situations in the classrooms.

Authentic situations provide students opportunities to use the language in reality and share with native speakers what they have already learned in the classroom (Gilles et al., 1988, p. 68). Teachers need to involve students in authentic situations, where they practice the language with native speakers. Using the language with native speakers enables students to notice how language is used and notice the differences between their language and the language used by native speakers (Schmidt & Frota, 1986, p. 311).

Being effective users of a foreign language, “all learners need many opportunities to use language with other people for real purposes” (Short, Harste, & Burke, 1996, p. 458). Teachers can use the Internet or encourage students to make functional conversations in different situations. Mousa, one of the participants in this study, recommends teachers to “use authentic sources like listening to CNN, BBC, and trying to copy some materials from English newspaper like New York Times and Guardian.”

About his experience of learning English, Tamer said, “I live in a city where we have tourists [that] come from different parts of the world, from Africa: Nigeria, South Africa, and Zimbabwe, so I was interested in learn[ing] the language since I was young.” Hala believes that communicating with people from different nationalities “helped a lot in improving [her] conversational English.”

Implication Four: Teachers should integrate language instruction with cultural settings.

The use of communicative competence in language teaching was motivated by language teachers and sociolinguists as an essential need to shift from structural language analysis to discourse language use. Language teachers and sociolinguists notice that students in the L2 classrooms lack the use of the L2 in communicative situations. Thus, they require the focus to shift from linguistic competence to sociocultural competence, in which the L2 is used communicatively.

Communicative competence and its CLTA application require students to be tested not only in their literacy competence (reading and writing), but also in their communicative competence (speaking and listening) (Willems, 1989, p. 75). Communicative competence motivates students to imitate native speakers, talk with them, and take native speakers' language proficiency as a target in learning that language (Diaz-Rico, 2007, p. 91). To achieve the objectives of communicative competence and its CLTA applications, the students need to practice the L2 with their teacher and classmates inside and outside the classroom. (See Table 1 in Chapter One for more information about principles for successful language teaching instructions).

Rivers (as cited in Stern, 1983) suggests two types of skills language teachers use in teaching the L2: (1) skill-getting and (2) skill-using, as shown in the below diagram, which shows that the language teacher, through skill-getting activities, separates specific language competences that include communicative abilities, and offers to students opportunities to practice these communicative abilities separately.

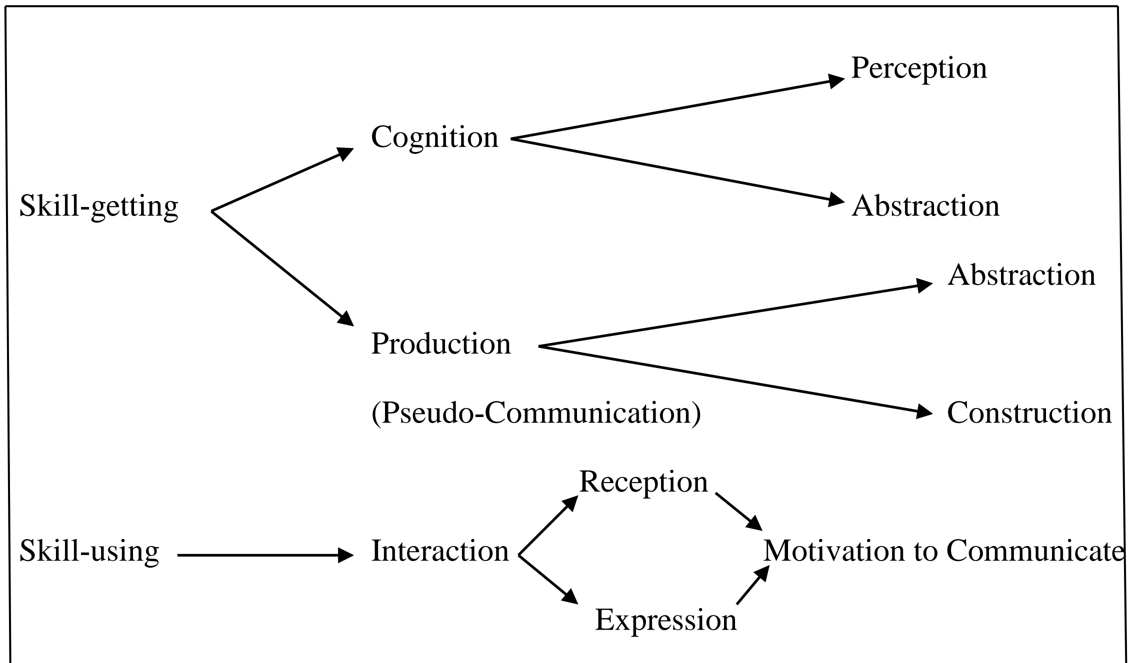

Figure 9 Skills Used in Language Communication (Stern, 1983, p. 29).

The diagram shows that students learn how to articulate the L2 sounds properly and construct the L2 sentences effectively in skill-getting. If the language teacher finds no authentic situations to use the L2, the pseudo-communication stage fulfills this purpose. As for skill-using activities, the language teacher encourages students to be independent in using the L2 communicatively, through communicating in pairs or peers in the classroom. Students may practice all types of language bodies, such as gestures, pantomime, drawings, and so on in order to use the L2 communicatively (Stern, 1983, pp. 29-31).

Through the participants' interviews, it seems that Libyan teachers neither use skill-getting nor skill-using in their teaching. English language teachers' role in Libyan schools, as Sami says, is just to "give the students a bunch of sheets, and they just tell students that this is your sheet. You are required to study all of this for the

entire course, and you will be responsible for each single word in this . . . It's interesting that when you have a new ELT, coming to your university with a bunch of sheets, which he has prepared in advance to give to his prospective students." Libyan teachers, as Hani say, "motivate students to memorize."

Implication Five: Teachers should permit the use of the English variations in the classroom.

It is essential that teachers permit varieties of "Englishes" that address students' needs and interests in using English to communicate with native English speakers: Americans, British, Australians, Canadians, or any others. To fill the cultural and linguistic gaps between students and native English speakers, it is essential that teachers create several communicative situations in English to find out how English is used in various situations. Using various English situations provides students with chance to listen and identify variations of Englishes.

In a study on ten international students conducted by Omar (2013) about the effect of variations of English on the students' progress on using American English, the students–who used other English varieties before coming to the United States–expressed their frustration because of using an English different from the one they learned before. To solve the problem of Englishes, Prodromou (2008) suggests "a lingua franca common core (LFC), which will provide syllabus designers and assessors with guidelines for redesigning teaching materials and examinations" (p. 29).

Similarly, Jenkins (2000) (as cited in Omar 2013) suggests the use "Lingua Franca Core" (LFC), which is a set of pronunciation characteristics (p. 333). This LFC, according to Omar (2013) helps students practice English with each other according to how they pronounce it in their native languages. Libyans, for example, find challenges to pronounce "p" "v," "ch," (p. 333) and "th" sounds. So, Libyan teachers shouldn't force Libyan students to say such sounds because they are lacked in their vocal system.

Jenkins (2000) advocates the use of English as a lingua franca (ELF) even among speakers in the Inner and Outer Circle countries, emphasizing the role of ELF as a medium of communication between people from different mother tongues. According to Berns, Jenkins, Modiano, Seidlhofer, & Yano (2007), ELF has developed to be used as a language of communication between people speaking variations of English, such as British English, American English, Indian English, Singaporean English, and any other variation of English used all over the world. Thus, ELF is used between people who have different lingua cultural backgrounds, even when they are in Inner and Outer Circle countries (pp. 370-371).

This means that ELF encourages the idea of one community, and it evokes people to find the common English features among them rather than the differences in the Englishes they use. So, ELF accepts other L1 mixture. It implies that "there is nothing inherently wrong in retaining certain characteristics of that L1, such as accent" (Jenkins, 2000, p. 11). The analysis of the data study shows that some Libyan students are taught English in different dialects, and teachers require them to speak English as native English speakers do. For example, Salem, one of the participants,

thinks “the most difficult thing [in teaching] is evaluating ESL students. [It] is a kind of hard, especially in spoken English.”

Implication Six: Teachers should apply democracy in the classroom.

Democratic learning is important for any education system. Democracy in education “is the foundation of all genuine teaching and learning” (Hooks, 2010, p. 18). Democracy provides students with confidence of themselves as full informants. Democratic learning, which was advocated by psychologists, such as Dewey and Freire, moves the classroom into a whole language classroom, in which teachers become facilitators and co-learners, and students shift to be teachers to themselves and to other students.

To know how important democratic learning to the future of education, in general, and learning English effectively, particularly, Freire (as cited in Collins, Harkin, & Nind, 2002) states:

> To be a good liberating educator, you need above all to have faith in human beings. You need to love. You must be convinced that the fundamental effort of education is to help with the liberation of people, never their domestication. You must be convinced that when people reflect on their domination they begin a first step in changing their relationship to the world. (p. 4)

According to Wilde (1996), who sees learning as both personal and social experiences achieved in a democratic setting (p. 277), democratic learning provides opportunities to all students equally to practice language in multiple situational

contexts. Though it seems difficult to apply democratic settings in Libyan schools, Libyan teachers need to have several attempts to do that. It takes time, but it is a real step for achieving the goal for learning English in Libya. It is essential to know that democratic schools lead to a democratic society, and vice versa. Yilmaz (2009) believes that schools play an important role in establishing democracy in societies (p. 23), and democratic learning should start from the early stages maybe before students start school.

Durr (2005, p. 22) presents basic principles developed by a German teacher for her primary class as:

1. Every child is a special person in his/her own right, and will be accepted and treated as such (human dignity; equality).
2. Every child has strengths and weaknesses. He/she should be enabled to show his/her strengths and need not hide his/her weaknesses (non-discrimination; respect of personal, cultural and religious diversity, solidarity).
3. No child must be afraid (right to freedom from fear and persecution).
4. No child must be hurt – neither through words nor deeds (human dignity is inviolable; right to life; right to respect for physical and mental integrity).
5. Every child must be allowed to speak his/her mind (freedom of thought, conscience, religion, freedom of expression and information).
6. In joint decisions, every child has one vote (right to vote, civic rights).
7. We help each other. We work together (principle of solidarity).
8. We treat each other in a friendly and respectful way (respect for the other; tolerance).

Implication Seven: Teachers should encourage pair and peer activities in the classroom.

In general, education system in Libyan is based on competition, individual work, and memorization. Libyan teachers of English do not assign pair or peer tasks to students. Muller (2005) defines a task as "a goal-oriented activity in which learners use language to achieve a real outcome" (p. 71). From the definition above, it seems that tasks are essential in learning foreign languages. It is, then, essential that teachers know the types of tasks to be assigned to students in order to select the style of the language used and the materials needed to fulfill such tasks.

It is vital that teachers differentiate among the multiple tasks and select the tasks that promote and motivate effective learning of the L2. Leedham (2005) provides two tasks that might help students improve their L2 in communication: turn-taking and back-channeling. In turn-taking tasks, a student communicates with another student. When student A speaks, student B keeps silent. After student A finishes his speech, student B gives his opinion about what he hears. In back-channeling, one student speaks, and the other student encourages him, using supportive contributions, such as "mmm, well, yeah," and the like (p. 94). Kiernan (2005) suggests the use of the storytelling tasks, in which students use L2 in telling personal stories (p. 68).

Hobbs (2005) encourages pair tasks, too; thus, she suggests the "pair interview tasks." In these tasks, the teacher assigns each student a question to search about. Each student goes around the classroom, interviewing the classroom students individually to find possible answers to that question. After getting answers to that question, the

student selects the most appropriate answer and tells the student and the teacher. Also, these answers might be gathered in a form of a report or an essay (pp. 143-144).

Coulson (2005) encourages peer work, so he suggests "team-talking tasks," in which students work collaboratively in small groups, helping each other in leading the conversation. So, when a student has a difficulty in expressing himself through language, another student helps him complete his idea (pp. 128-129). This activity is effective in language learning because, as Meyer (2003) says, "learning through collaboration is superior to learning in isolation" (p. 75).

Moser (2005) advocates the task of journaling because it helps students to control both meaning and form. Moser has a personal experience with the use of journaling with his students while teaching EFL. Through this task, the students achieve fluency, accuracy, and restructuring in order to gain language complexity (pp. 83-84). Journaling is effective in learning because journals work as records for students to show how much progress they are achieving in learning. Journals show the students' strengths and weaknesses in specific areas in language (Little, 1995, p. 36).

Implication Eight: Teachers should involve families in the educational environment.

Learning requires relationships of a social network, starting from family. This social network includes teachers, students, family, school, and community (Lindemann, 2001, p. 106). Family has the greatest effect on kids' learning languages. Ball (2011) calls family "first teachers." Gardner and Lambert (as cited in Ball, 2011) classify family's language attitude into two: instrumental, which emphasizes the role

of pragmatics in enhancing language; and integrative, which emphasizes the role of social engagement (p. 19).

Family is "one of the strongest predictors of children's school success" (Weiss, Bouffard, Bridglall, & Gordon, 2009, p. 4). The participants' interviews show that those who learned English outside of school were supported and encouraged by their families. Family has a great effect on Libyan students' progress in learning English. For example, Mousa showed how he learned English, saying, "My uncle was an English teacher, and he was the one who encouraged me to learn English. He was trying to teach me how to say the numbers in English and the alphabet."

Sami said, "I had the chance to practice English with my dad at home. So, that's how I used to overcome the problems of learning English or the terrible actually experience of learning English at Libyan secondary and high schools." How he learned English, Jamal said, "My father used to bring a tutor to our home from time to time to give us lessons in the field of English," and Nuri said, "First I learned English when I was seven years old. About for six months, my father brought a tutor to our house and me and my brothers and sisters learned English at home."

Implications for Education System

In this part, I am proposing some implications for education system in Libya from the lessons I learned through analyzing the participants' interviews.

Implication One: Libyan government should consult teachers about appropriate methods for teaching.

In most Expanding Circle countries, there is a preference by the governments on political and ideological grounds over the educational grounds. There is, also, a concern that neither the teachers nor the students are asked about the model to be used in teaching and learning English (Kirkpatrick, 2006, pp. 71-72). Though English is taught in Libya from 5th grade, it is controlled and directed by bureaucrats and politicians, who make the decisions of what is taught and what is not. Libyan teachers teach according to the agenda by Libyan public administrations.

The result is that, sometimes, teachers or students resist the method used. This might be shown in the case of Sri Lanka, where teachers resist the task-based method because it requires much work and materials (McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008, p. 193). CLTA, which has been proven successful in most parts of the world, does not gain any acceptance among secondary teachers in Hong Kong (McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008, p. 53) and Hungary (Medgyes. 1986, p. 108).

In spite of the fact that there have been some attempts to shift the method of teaching English in Libya from GTM into CLTA, these attempts failed. Most teachers of English in Libya lack the proficiency level of using English in communicative situations. Though the new English textbooks are prepared to motivate teachers to use oral communications with students in the classroom, most of teachers are unable to use English communicatively. English language teachers in Libya lack both English fluency and confidence of themselves to speak in front of others.

Howard and Millar (2009) see that the difficulties arising from implementing CLTA are due to the teachers' acquaintance of that approach, not to the approach itself (p. 35); whereas, Lindsay and Knight (2006) suggest change in the focus of teaching and learning from content (function, structure, and vocabulary) to process (use of English in learning); that is, "to use English to learn it" rather than "to learn to use English" (p. 23).

It is important that Libyan teachers select carefully the most appropriate method of teaching English that goes with both Libyan teachers of English and Libyan students. McKay (2003) advises that teachers in the Outer and Expanding Circles use CLTA. Most educators, namely educators in countries in the Inner Circle, recommend teachers to use CLTA as the only method of teaching English in countries in the Expanding Circle, where English is rarely used in daily life (p. 40).

According to McKay and Bokhorst-Heng (2008) "In many Expanding Circle countries, Ministries of Education are concerned with identifying a teaching methodology that is appropriate for use throughout the educational system and will increase the success of English teaching in their country. At the present time, this method is often CLT" (p. 51). Dewey (as cited in Shihiba, 2011) prefers Problem-Based Learning Approach (PBLA) because it enhances learners' critical thinking. In PBLA, students use English in authentic activities and stimulate their critical thinking while thinking to find solutions to problems. They increase their skills of observation while looking for solutions for these problems and motivate them to suggest solutions to these problems to test the validity of their solutions and clarify meanings of what they propose (pp. 58-59).

Grabe and Stoller (1997) advocate the use of Content-Based Instruction Approach (CBIA) in teaching ESL or EFL. They see that this approach contains seven features as: (1) Students are exposed to a large amount of English while learning content; (2) Students use English in several contextualized contexts, not in isolated situations; (3) Students have many opportunities to use both the content and their personal experiences in the classroom; (4) Students are required to practice English through activities; (5) Students use English in natural ways, such as apprenticeship learning, project-based learning, experiential learning, and cooperative learning; (6) Students use English across curriculum and in different activities; and (7) Students are free to select the content and learning activities that interest them and suit their abilities (pp. 19-20).

Through the experiences of teaching and learning English in some countries in Expending Circle, it seems that GTM, which is still used in teaching EFL in Libya, is unsuccessful and its main objective is to motivate students to know about English, not to know how to use English. I see that the three approaches mentioned here (CLTA, PBLA, and CBIA) are the most appropriate methods for teaching English in Libya.

In this study, most of the participants advocate the use of CLTA. Younis said, “Language is a means of communication, and the Communicative Language Approach serves this purpose. So by the use of Communicative Language Approach students will be able to communicate in the foreign language.” Ali advocates CLTA “because it focuses on the communication in the target language rather than using the first language.” Salem said “CLTA develops the learners’ language skills and makes the ESL students interact positively in the classroom.” Ziad will use CLTA because it “would give [him] the chance to introduce all the teaching tools and methods and

skills of language to the students." Anas sees CLTA "helps students develop their oral skills."

Implication Two: Libya should establish national teaching standards for teachers' preparation.

Establishing standards for teaching is not an easy task because, as Mahboob and Tilakaratna (2012) explain, "the application of a set of standards has to be based on assumptions related to the distribution of resources, access to knowledge, and appropriate infrastructure," and the standards of teaching that confirm success in one context might fail in another. Thus, "the unique sociocultural, political, economic, and historical aspects of each individual country or setting need to be taken into account when developing language policies and ELT programs and standards appropriate to these contexts" (p. 2).

In this study, 14 participants recommend Libya adopt national teaching standards for teachers of English. Faraj suggests that the government "establish standards that no teacher can teach English unless he passes these standards." Younis recommends that "certain criteria through which we could give a degree to the one who graduated from a university because in some cases, the graduates don't even try run few sentences grammatically correct, semantically correct and so." Sami said, "The first thing I will do I would probably impose some sorts of requirements to accept or to hire any English language teaching teacher to work for my university." Sami recommends that "if somebody wants to teach English, [he] should be

professional, should study English overseas to know what the teaching of the other language skills means."

The participants propose different sectors for establishing the teaching standards in Libya. Ali sees that these standards "should be done by expert teachers and teacher trainers, and they should consider all the factors that affect language learning like providing good textbooks and the number of the students to each teacher." Younis proposes that "the Ministry of Higher Education is supposed to select a number of experienced staff members, and they have to work together and to put some kind of standards or criteria based on the universities' needs and the society's needs in order to get standards for the outcome without giving certificates or degrees to anyone without [being] reasonable and satisfactory."

Some participants see that Libyan Ministry of Education should collaborate with grad students, who studied in developed English-speaking countries, to establish these standards of teaching. Jamal said, "We have people graduated from 1970s and 1980s from schools in Europe and the United States, and they were neglected in the past. Surely, their experience in this field will be beneficial in improving learning English."

Ahmed thinks that "two [sectors] should be involved in that program. One of them is the government because you cannot do anything in the situation without the help of the government. The other thing is the professionals, Libyan professionals, who were educated in the West and the US who have the knowledge and the training to carry out these programs." Jaber said. "Now, we have very good staff members that

they will finish their studies overseas from the United States and UK, and when they come [back], those people are going to be very professional."

Other participants propose native English speakers establish these standards. Fraaj suggests that "those who establish these standards are native English speakers because they know their language." Asma thinks that "first, the teachers should be good teachers. Second, we have no problem with the syllabuses, but the problem is with the methods that the teachers apply."

Implication Three: Libya should establish a common curriculum.

Establishing teaching standards for teaching English requires establishing a common curriculum for all Libyan schools in Libya. This curriculum should be professionally prepared to achieve objectives of learning and teaching. To guarantee success in establishing national standards for teaching English, Mahboob and Tilakaratna (2012) consider the following principles:

- Collaboration: Collaboration should take place at various levels and domains and give voice to local teachers, experts, students, and other stakeholders.
- Relevance: Relevance should ensure that the practices, beliefs, and material that encourage attaining the goals for which they are developed according to the particular context.
- Evidence: Evidence should be supported by analysis and best practices.
- Alignment: Alignment should ensure that project outcomes are aligned with the goals of ELT policy and that the knowledge policymakers draw from is relevant to the goals of the policy.

- Transparency: Transparency should ensure that policy objectives, goals, and outcomes be visible, easily accessible, and justifiable to all stakeholders.
- Empowerment: Empowerment should ensure that the ultimate objective of any ELT project should be the empowerment of local communities, teachers, and students. (pp. 13-17)

To build up an effective curriculum of English in Libya, Fouzi advises that "teachers and master degrees and PhD holders can use the other countries' experience like here in the United States. I heard there is general standards that all countries have to use in building those materials." To build up those materials, Sami thinks that "this is the responsibility first and foremost of the Libyan Ministry of Education. They should find some ELT experts whether Libyans or non-Libyans, probably from the UK, America, Australia, whatever."

Mahboob and Tilakaratna (2012) recommend that the curriculum suit the community. When the curriculum is suitable with the local context, students will receive the materials and interact with them successfully (p. 2). Though language is culture, and students need to be involved in the English culture to be good users of English, we can never neglect the students' traditions and beliefs. If students do not believe in what they are learning, learning becomes useless. Nuri thinks that "Libya should not use the curriculum from other countries because the curriculum which doesn't reflect the country, or the country's environment or surroundings, traditions, life style will not help that country or that community."

Ziad demands the curriculum be "very systematic and meets the standards of teaching." So, Ziad believes that "when you start the curriculum, you have to consult

professional teachers and well specialized, and also you have to intervene the parents and the community as well. Because there are a lot of other criteria that we need to take into consideration to establish this curriculum."

To establish this curriculum, Nuri suggests that "they should start from the one who interact*s* with the students more. They should take their opinions and their points of view, and then they go like bottom up, from the one, who is close to the students to the administrator." Mousa believes that "it should be a cooperative work started from the Ministry of Education and the teachers of English language, as well as those who deal with improving the curriculum and methods of teaching." Shadi thinks that "the government or the Ministry of Education needs to establish an institution for English language teachers and researchers, and this institution must be responsible for everything about teaching and learning English in Libya . . . and issuing a new curriculum or syllabus design."

Shadi similarly suggests an independent organization, and "this organization will be responsible for the syllabus design: how to design syllabus because we live in the environment, and we must create the material that cope with our needs and our students' needs, not as what they did maybe eight or ten years ago."

Recommendations

Based on participants' interviews, findings of the study, and implications, I am presenting the following recommendations:

1. Teachers should use appropriate methods and techniques that suit Libyan students' needs and abilities for teaching English effectively in the classroom. These

methods should involve necessary materials for teaching, such as: technology, English labs, visual aids, audio aids, activities, and the like, which provide a healthy, educational environment to students in the classroom.

2. Teachers should be aware of disciplines of language teaching and learning, methods of teaching, lesson planning and time management, pedagogy, psychology, and sociology. What teachers teach, according to Allwright (1981), "may also include selected learning strategies and techniques, because we may want our learners to be better learners after whatever course we are giving them, so that they can carry on learning effectively, perhaps even without a teacher" (p. 17).
3. Teachers should encourage students to focus on language use rather than language knowledge and shift the role of learning English from a system of rules and vocabulary into a system of function and use.
4. Teachers should motivate students to use English inside and outside the classroom as a tool for communicating with native English speakers, so they move from teacher-centered into student-centered.
5. Teachers should prepare challenging activities in the classroom to help in developing social cohesion among the members of the social community by requesting the group members to collaborate in order to do these activities. They should build a social context with the families and community.
6. Teachers should be perceptive and informed about English cultural and social contexts because no teacher can teach language effectively without associating that language to its social and cultural context. Language is a social activity, and it is best learned or acquired through interaction with others in a social context.

7. Teachers should have a good educational relationship with students inside and outside the classroom. Teachers, also, should contact with other instructors and manage some time for the students to talk to each other and help each other use English through pair and peer activities.
8. The Ministry of Education should collaborate with Libyan educators graduating from developed countries, contract with some developed countries, or set an organization to establish the general standards for teaching English in Libya. Educators, specialists, teachers, families, and the community should be involved to establish these standards.
9. The Ministry of Education should motivate Libyan teachers of English to use the Internet, participate in national and international conferences and meetings regarding TESOL and English education, subscribe to journals and periodicals related to English language teaching and learning, conduct studies and research in teaching and learning English, publish papers and articles in English language teaching and learning, and so on.
10. The Ministry of Education should provide training programs in English-speaking countries to Libyan teachers of English and fourth-year English Department students to be aware of how English is used by native speakers, be aware of the new methods of teaching, and be aware of strategies of dealing with students.
11. The Ministry of Education should provide an educational setting in the classroom, in which each classroom should contain technology, visual aids, and new materials and provide up-to-date English textbooks that, from one hand, relate to English culture and, from the other hand, respect the Arabic and Islamic cultures. It should,

also, reduce the number of students in the classroom, so that all students can have equal opportunities to practice English.

12. The Ministry of Education should assign learning English in early levels, and students should be acquainted with English from 1st grade or Kindergarten. According to Johnson and Newport (1989) "Young children are better second language learners than adults and should consequently reach higher levels of final proficiency in the second language" (p. 60) because "when children are very young, they pick up accurate pronunciation quickly" (Baker, 2014, p. 41).

Suggestions for Future Research

As this study is conducted to investigate the situation of teaching English in Libya, other studies and research are required to complement this study as:

Research the types and frequency of methods of teaching English in Expanding Circle countries.

I searched in the libraries and online websites about specific books or research regarding methods of teaching English in Expanding Circle countries, namely in Arab countries, and I have found only a few. So, I am suggesting that other research be conducted. Though some educators, namely from East Asia (China and South Korea), proposed methods for teaching English in Expanding Circle countries, these studies are not enough and contain little information.

Investigate the roles of English language teacher in Libya.

The ultimate goal of any language teacher is to help students achieve English native-like competence and performance in English. This requires that English language teachers examine how students use English in the English language community, not through tests on papers. So, more research is needed to investigate about the role of Libyan teachers in teaching English in Libya.

Research the roles of language acquisition among Libyan students.

Vygotsky (as cited in Kozulin, 1986) differentiates between Metalinguistic Knowledge and Metacognitive Knowledge, which are close to language learning and language acquisition. Metacognitive Knowledge is essential for developing children's autonomous learning and helps them move from "primitive remembering and unconscious learning" to "logical remembering and conscious learning" (p. 163). For teachers to shift Metalinguistic Knowledge to Metacognitive Knowledge, they need to modify their strategies of teaching to suit their students' abilities and interests. As a result, the students find different ways of learning unconsciously that ensure their independence and achieve their learning responsibility (Ridley, 1997, p. 231). I see that another research about language learning and language acquisition related to Libyan students is essential.

Research the roles that World Englishes may play in Libyan education.

More investigation about the effect of variations of English is required. The concept "World Englishes" (WE) is used to show the changes that happen on the variations of English over place and time. WE shows the changes that took place in

the English used at a specific time and in specific place. For example, it shows the changes that happened on the English used by the British in London in the 16th century. This diversity of using different Englishes confuses Libyan students about the English they use in each context, which makes learning English complicated.

Libyan teachers of English force students to learn and use the Standard English, which, as Britain (2010) says, is “a minority dialect in England” (p. 37). Teachers, instead, need to encourage students to use any variation of English that suits their abilities. So more research is required about the effect of English variations on Libyan students’ progress in using English communicatively.

Final Thoughts

The literature review and data analysis in this study show me that a method alone can never provide success in teaching English. The success of a method is associated with many interrelated factors, including the teacher’s personality and attitude to teaching, students’ attitudes and motivation to learning, collaboration of the family and the community, textbooks, and technology. Teaching, as Pennington and Hoekje (2010) think, is a personal trait that includes teacher’s skills, knowledge, and behavior (p. 137), and learning, as Bixby (2000) sees, relies on teachers’ attitudes, course-book instructions, and teaching methods (p. 122).

Learning another language requires changing and growing in the brain according to the proficiency in the second language learning (Cheng, 2011, pp. 144-145). From what is discussed in this study, it appears that teaching English in Libya is not

currently in the right direction. Students spend almost ten years of studying English in school and university, yet their performance is unsatisfactory.

Through these unsatisfactory conditions, I hope (as most of the participants hope) that learning and teaching English in Libya will improve in the future. Ali thinks that "the future of Libya *is* very promising, and this means that there's more need to having skillful English speakers, so that they can be able to participate in developing Libya." Mousa said, "I am very optimistic about the change the teachers, who study abroad and are eager to go back home to start teaching English, to change, to have an impact on their students, [and] to change the future of Libya. And I think English language will play an important role in this change."

Ahmed sees that "now, everything is different, and we need to go with the current because we were just isolated from the rest of the world. So, we need now the opportunity to bring the experts, professionals, and we already have professionals and experts in Libya. So, there is a chance for us to do a better job than we used to do before, and hopefully we do better." I hope so, too.

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Appendix A

Techniques of English Language Teaching

Reading Method (RM)

RM was originally originated in the United States in 1929. The Coleman Report, published in the United States in 1929 (as cited in (Kara, 1992) states that "since the acquisition of any serious level of competence in all four language skills requires much more than two years, the main objective of any short courses should be the development of reading ability" (p. 80). In this method, teachers teach students how to read and understand what is read in the L2 without using the L1 in translation. The emphasis in this method is to increase the rate of silent reading. Later, students can read aloud when they control pronunciation and have a great store of vocabulary and grammar rules in the L2.

One of the criticisms directed to this method is that teachers, who use this method, focus on the quantity over quality, so students might read many pages without understanding the meaning of what is read. Also, as this method focuses on reading, it might cause frustration to the students, who have difficulties in reading in their L1. Accordingly, these students might be helpless to answer the questions related to the texts read though they can read fluently.

Cognitive-Code Learning Method (CCLM)

Because of the problems accompanying the ALM, scientists looked for a method to replace ALM in teaching foreign languages. In the late 1960s, linguistics and psychology merged and formed what is called CCLM. This method claims that

ALM could have been successful if it had been merged with elements of CCLM. One of the pioneers of this method was Carroll, who advocated the idea of mental comprehension and practice awareness in learning foreign languages. Mental understanding, which leads to the conscious acquisition or learning, leads to practice awareness. This method transfers competence into performance.

This method believes that conscious study of the L2 is the basis of learning that language, and meaningful practice is core. When students are aware of the language they are learning, they become able to communicate in that language more effectively. Teachers need to encourage and help students understand the grammar rules in order to use these rules in communicative situations (Other Second Language Teaching Methods, n.d, para. 6). Though CCLM is not time consuming in preparing the lessons to teach, it is criticized as being over challenging even for more gifted students. Moreover, CCLM does not motivate teachers to work effectively in teaching the L2, as there are not enough oral activities in the classroom (Kara, 1992, pp. 105-106).

Situational Approach (SA)

SA, which is called Oral Approach, is the offspring of the developments that happened in Europe and the United States in 1920s and 1930s. The British applied linguists Palmer and Hornby with the assistance of the Swiss linguist Jespersen worked to find an alternative approach for replacing the DM used then in teaching foreign languages. SA based its principles on results of two studies: (1) Coleman Report in the United States, and (2) Michael West's study on the role of English in

India in 1920. Both studies were focusing on the role of vocabulary control as the main factor of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) (Aslam, 2003, p. 48).

This approach is based on the idea that language should be learned in situational contexts. Students need to communicate in the L2 in different situations, such as in a café, a restaurant, a bus station, an airport, a clinic, a shop, and the like. To fulfill their objectives, these conversations need to have situations related to the daily life situations. In such situations, teachers encourage students to use vocabulary, structures, and grammar rules they already learned in the classroom (O'Neill & Gish, 2008, p. 94).

Hauptman (as cited in Rodrigues & White, 1974) sees that this approach arranges the materials by situations only. Thus, it is important that the materials presented be meaningful and logical to the students (p. 4) and words or language structures be presented in situational contexts, not in fragmentation (Nagaraj, 2005, p. 14). However, teachers, using this approach in teaching ESL or EFL, present English as the only language of communication in meaningful situations. Teachers need to encourage students to communicate in English and to think of these ideas critically. Students imagine themselves as if they were in real situations in the English cultural context (Rodrigues & White, 1974, p. 4).

Structural Approach (StA)

This approach was developed by the American government in the 1940s and 1950s (during and after the World War II) to teach American military foreign languages, such as Japanese, Chinese, German, Italian, French, and other languages. It is, then, similar to ALM. It was used to teach American armies foreign languages to

prepare them to work as translators and interpreters with people in defeated countries. This approach was later developed, as an approach of teaching ESL, to be an alternative to DM (Nagaraj, 2005, p. 13).

This approach is based on the belief that the best way for mastering the L2 is mastering the structure of that language (Sharma, 2011, para. 1). Hauptman (as cited in Rodrigues & White, 1974) sees that this approach helps students learn the L2 easily because structures are presented gradually according to their simplicity, starting from the simplest structure. Teaching another structure, the students make a comparison of each new structure with the previous structure learned (p. 4).

Shehadeh (2005) criticizes this approach as it works effectively with only highly gifted students; other students fail to reach the satisfied level of proficiency in using English even after many years of being taught by this approach (p. 14). For example, Parbhu (1987) notices that students in India fail to communicate in English though they have good knowledge about English grammar and structure (p. 11).

Functional Language Teaching Approach (FLTA)

The roots of this approach dated back to 1899 to the works of the British linguist Sweet and 1917/1918 to the works of Jones and Firth. At that time, this approach was known as the British Linguistics, the Firthian Linguistics, and the London School. Language, from Firth's point of view, was seen as a tool of behaving or a tool that helps others to behave. Language was seen as an interpersonal activity done within a society. Thus, language study should be focused on the function of

language in linguistic and social contexts. Later, this approach was used in Canada and Germany and was known as the British Contextualism (Berns, 1983, p. 6).

This approach did not gain any popularity in the 1950s and 1960s. There was little attention to this approach because the American structuralism and Chmoskyan transformational grammar were totally dominates. In 1970, the British functional linguist Halliday emphasized the importance of functional grammar in language teaching and learning. Halliday believes that language is language when it fulfills certain functions. So, what is important is seeing language as forms of "doing" not "knowing." In other words, people use language to fulfill certain functions, such as expressing wishes, inviting, regretting, agreeing, disagreeing, and so on (Sui & Wang, 2005, p. 39).

In 1970s and 1980s, this approach was advocated in ESOL classes in Britain as an approach of teaching ESL. It was noted that students' fluency was not developed satisfactorily, so educators advocated this approach as an approach to encourage students to use English communicatively in reality. It focuses on the language function, so the focus was shifted from accuracy to fluency (Wilkins & Paton, 2009, p. 134). In this approach, teachers use language to fulfill different functions, such as describing places and people, asking for locations, talking about past experiences, and so on (Richards, 1996, p. 10). According to Berns (as cited in Kiraly, 1995) this approach "is based on an interest in performance, or actual language use" (p. 27); Germain (1982) sees that this approach "is based not on the linguistic analysis of the content to be taught but on what is usually designated as the learner's needs" (p. 49).

This approach is based on language performance, which is concerned with language meaning, function, and use. Halliday sees that FLTA has three distinctive features: (1) It bases its principles on Systematic Theory (theory of meaning and choice), which means that teachers start from the most general to reach the most specific; (2) It is functional because (a) it is concerned with how language is organized to achieve its communicative functions; (b) it seeks to achieve ideational meaning, interpersonal meaning, and textual meaning; (c) language elements are explained by indication to their functions according to their total linguistic systems; and (3) It is discourse because it seeks to provide two types of discourse analysis: (a) understanding the text and (b) evaluating the text (Sui & Wang, 2005, p. 40)

Eclectic Approach (EA)

As there is no single approach that can work effectively in all educational settings, educators look for a method or an approach that combines all the advantages of methods and approaches of language teaching. Teachers, who aimed at teaching language for the purpose of communication, tried many methods and approaches, and none of these methods and approaches gained satisfaction in all educational settings. Teachers needed techniques and procedures to fulfill the objectives of language learning and language teaching. For that reason, EA was originated as an approach of teaching that combined several methods and approaches of teaching language. According to Liu (2007), EA is “a compromise solution to the practical demands of teaching” (p. 32). Carrasquillo (1994) sees that EA “incorporates the most appropriate or useful parts of all existing approaches, principles, and theories from the field of language teaching” (p. 125).

This approach was originated as a reaction against the teaching methods used in the 1970s and 1980s (Stern, 1983, p. 101). Rivers (1981), who is the proponent of this approach, sees that EA is an effective approach of teaching foreign languages because it absorbs all good techniques and effective procedures used in teaching the L2 from all other methods and approaches of teaching foreign languages (p. 55). Some scholars believe that this approach is the most effective approach for teaching foreign languages; whereas, Stern (1983) believes that this approach "does not offer any guidance on what basis and by what principles aspects of different methods can be selected and combined" (p. 512).

Problem-Based Learning Approach (PBLA)

This approach was originated in the late 1960s by Barrows and his colleagues in the medical school programs at the University of McMaster in Hamilton, Ontario, Canada. Barrows and his colleagues developed this approach for the purpose of stimulating students to learn communicatively, assisting students to be responsible for their own learning, motivating students to learn, and directing them to have positive attitudes towards learning (Problem-based learning, 2011, para. 2).

The idea of PBLA, which is defined as "a classroom methodology that situates learning in complex and meaningful problems," is based on the belief that it is an easy task for a language teacher to help students construct new knowledge and acquire cognitive skills of another language. Accordingly, a teacher may situate a problem and ask the students to solve that problem. The main purpose of that activity is to

encourage the students to construct the new knowledge in the new language and construct structures in that language (Hmelo, 1998, p. 173).

This approach is instructional for learning because it focuses on learners, rather than on teachers. It shifts the focus from teacher-centered into learner-centered. It bases its principles on the idea that learning is achieved through taking on challenges. It is very essential that teachers provide learners with opportunities to practice the new language through challenging situations. It is an appropriate approach for a teacher to use in order to encourage students to communicate in the L2 classroom. The language teacher presents the knowledge in the L2 in a form of problem-posing dialogues. Then, the teacher asks the students to find solutions to these problems. This task guarantees that the students think critically and communicate in dialogues in the L2 (Shihiba, 2011, pp. 58-59).

In this approach, teachers encourage students to collaborate and work in small groups to solve a specific problem. For example, a teacher may ask students to find a solution to starvation in Africa or civil war in a specific country. Chamberlin and Moon (n.d.) present some steps a teacher follows to engage students in problem-based learning activities as: (1) The teacher reads the problem to the students; (2) The students meet the problem; (3) The students define and present the problem; (4) The students collect data about the problem; (5) The students propose some remedies to the problem; (6) The students search about the problem; (7) The students rephrase the problem; (8) The students produce potential alternatives to the remedies; and (9) The students present the solution or solutions to that problem (p. 4).

Content-Based Instruction Approach (CBIA)

The first use of CBIA was in the early 1960s in elementary and secondary schools in the former Soviet Union. This approach was used by Russian teachers in teaching class subjects in foreign languages in a number of Russian secondary foreign language schools. Using this approach in the former Soviet Union ceased in the mid-1980s because of the lack of foreign language teachers. Teachers in Canada used this approach in the late 1960s for teaching foreign languages for K-12 students. For example, the St. Lambert Experiment in Montreal paid attention to the importance of teaching all subject matters in French for English-speaking students in Montreal (Stryker & Leaver, 1997, p. 15).

The Canadian experiment was adopted in 1980s by American public schools. The Culver City Experiment used CBIA as an approach of teaching English in public American schools when the number of ELLs was growing noticeably. This approach was used to stimulate ELLs to learn both content and English and to teach Spanish to English-speaking communities. This approach is based on the notion that teachers should teach English to ELLs side by side with other academic class subjects (Schleppegrell, Achugar, & Oteiza, 2004, pp. 67-68). The power of this approach lies in its coverage of five areas of context: K-12 ESL contexts, high school ESL contexts, K-12 EFL contexts, high school EFL contexts, and language across curriculum contexts (Grabe & Stoller, 1997, pp. 14-15).

Schleppegrell et al. (2004) define CBIA as “an approach to teaching ESL that attempts to combine language with disciplinary learning, suggesting that teachers can

build students' knowledge of grade-level concepts in content areas at the same time students are developing English proficiency"(p. 67). Grabe and Stoller (1997) see that CBIA is useful for teaching language in a variety of instructional contexts (p. 19). Krashen (as cited in Stryker & Leaver, 1997) calls this approach "sheltered subject-matter teaching" and sees it as the most effective approach for teaching foreign languages (p. 14).

Schleppegrell et al. (2004) prefer CBIA as an approach of teaching foreign languages because it focuses on the use of visual images and graphics in teaching. Visual aids and graphic imageries help students understand the meaning of the items used (p. 69). Stryker and Leaver (1997) advocate the use of CBIA in teaching because it motivates students to use the FL from early stages in the classroom. Also, it provides students with power to be independent users of the FL. It helps students to "spend their wings, leave the nest, and soar off on their own toward the horizon. CBI is a way of showing our students how to fly" (p. 4).

CBIA helps teachers find out techniques and strategies for combining language learning with content (Grabe & Stoller, 1997, p. 14). When teachers explore ways to combine content and language learning, they help students comprehend language and encourage them to use that language in different structures in various contexts. As a result, students explore different meanings for words used in various discourses and contexts (Schleppegrell et al., 2004, p. 69).

Natural Approach (NA)

The roots of this approach dated back to what Pendergast (1860-1866) and Sauveur (1826-1907) proposed for finding an approach to help students communicate in foreign languages. They suggested this approach, which was called Psychological Method, Reform Method, Phonetical Method, Phonic Method, and Anti-Grammatical Method as a reaction against GTM (Aslam, 2003, p. 43). In 1977, Terrell (1982) put the outlines of this approach because of "the outgrowth of experience with Dutch and Spanish classes in which the target language were taught to beginners whose native language was English. Since then the NA has been used in primary, secondary, and adult ESL classes, as well as in secondary, university, and adult Spanish, French, and German classes" (p. 121).

NA is an approach of teaching ESL advocated in the University of Southern California by Krashen and Terrell. This approach is based on presenting language naturally in situations that students can understand easily without using their L1. Krashen describes the processes of understanding the L2 as comprehensible input. The teacher can make learning English more interesting through creating a welcoming environment in the classroom. This approach is close to first language acquisition, in which children acquire language without thinking how language is working functionally (Jesness, 2004, p. 23). That is why the word "natural" is used in this approach. The item "natural" refers to the acquisition of language in nonacademic contexts (Terrell, 1977, p. 325).

NA recommends teachers to incorporate two sources of knowledge of the L2 while teaching: (1) second language acquisition theory, which combines language acquisition and language learning; and (2) acquisition process, which leads to acquiring the L2 knowledge subconsciously (Terrell, 1986, p. 213). According to Krashen and Terrell (1983), this approach gains its principles from second language acquisition principles and beliefs (p. 1). The principles of this approach are based on Krashen's and Chomsky's theories of language acquisition because it encourages students to communicate in the L2 naturally. Students learn the natural language in its environmental context in functional purposes, which means that students use the L2 for meaningful purposes (O'Neill & Gish, 2008, p. 90).

Task-Based Language Teaching Approach (TBLTA)

The development of this approach is associated with what is known as the "Bangalore Project," which started in 1979 and completed in 1984 in India. The Bangalore Project aimed at finding appropriate methods of teaching ESL in India. The word "task" in this approach is connected with any kind of activities used in the classroom (Prabhu, 1987, p. 1). The main advocate of this approach is the Indian applied linguist Prabhu, who observed that his students were able to learn English easily when they were focusing on tasks.

TBLTA is an approach for teaching foreign languages, depending on the students' participation in the classroom, using the target language. It is based on the idea that learning takes place when students express themselves in the L2 and understand what others say in the L2. In this approach, students are given opportunities to use the four language skills to do several tasks. For example, the

teacher might assign students a task of planning a trip by train. The teacher divides the students into small groups, and each group has a specific task to plan, such as train time, ticket price, reservation, the route, and the like. The students improve their language fluency and accuracy through discussing about the task, using the L2 (Lindsay & Knight, 2006, pp. 23-24).

This approach recommends that teachers use tasks as a main part in teaching language in the classroom. Tasks provide students with educational contexts, through which students strengthen their processes of learning or acquiring the L2 (Shehadeh, 2005, p. 15). According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), tasks are important in learning foreign languages. Tasks help students think in the L2, which motivates the processes of negotiation, experimentation, rephrasing, and modification that are cores in the process of learning foreign languages (p. 228).

However, there are different types of tasks that can be used to enhance students' progress in learning the L2. Nunan (as cited in Shehadeh, 2005) classifies tasks into two general categories: pedagogical tasks (as activities of information gap) and real-world tasks (as a telephone call). These two general categories can be sub-classified into other sub-categories, such as cognitive processes (listening, creativity, solving problems, sorting, and ordering) and language function (making suggestions, asking questions, giving orders, apologizing, negating, giving information). Other tasks might be classified according to the language skills needed or divergent and convergent tasks (p. 19).

Cognitive Grammar Approach (CGA)

CGA was developed by the American linguist Langacker in the late 1970s. According to Langacker, the main language units consisted of symbols or conventional combinations of phonological labels and semantic structures. Grammar, for Langacker, includes restrictions on how to combine semantic structures with phonological labels in order to generate language. Langacker (1987) defines CGA as "a growing intellectual trend in the analysis of language and mind, away from a mechanistic conception and towards a conception more appropriate for biological systems" (p. 5).

This approach is based on the belief that language is learned when meaning and structure are taught side by side. Language is language only when it is meaningful to its users. Also, language is language when linguistic utterances are dealt as symbols for things in reality. Hence, semantic and phonological structures should be associated to learn language. Teachers in this approach focus on both meaning and structure and encourage students to communicate in the L2 as they understand meanings and structures used in the L2. So, the meaning is determined by the student, who uses the linguistic forms in the L2 (Garcia, 2010, pp. 75-76).

According to Langacker (2008), CGA "offers a comprehensive yet coherent view of language structure, with the further advantages of being intuitively natural, psychologically plausible, and empirically viable" (p. 3). This approach is effective in teaching foreign languages because in this approach students are conscious about what they are learning and in their use of the linguistic items, such as words and language

structures. Students select the linguistic forms that give meaning to them and convey meaning to others, who use the same language. The powerful point in this approach is that it associates meaning with linguistic structures (Garcia, 2010, p. 76).

Suggestopedia and Total Physical Response (S & TPR)

S & TPR is a model of teaching foreign languages advocated by Lozanov, a Bulgarian doctor of medicine, psychiatrist, and para-psychologist. This model is based on the tenet 'joy and simplicity.' This model takes its principles from 'suggestology,' which is a psychological theory that believes "human beings respond to subtle clues of which they are not consciously aware . . . Suggestopedia is the pedagogic application of suggestion; it aims to help learners to overcome the feeling that they cannot be successful, so removes their mental barriers to learning. It helps learners reach hidden reserves of the mind" (Nagaraj, 2005, p. 63).

This model of teaching foreign languages is based on the idea that people use all their senses to learn. Hence, students need to have positive attitude towards learning. This model includes several strategies to make learning foreign languages easy and interesting; it helps students be less tense and less anxious while learning foreign languages. Activities such as clay work, soft music, dramatic plays, drawing, collage, and the like help students feel relaxed to learn knowledge and skills of the FL in a relaxed learning community. It stimulates students to maintain the skills and competence required for the use of the FL (O'Neill & Gish, 2008, pp. 94-95).

It aims at helping students reduce psychological pressures while learning. It paves the paths for creating a relaxed environment for learning. In this model, students

learn through the five senses (feeling, touching, seeing, listening, and speaking). If the teacher teaches, for example, a lesson about how to order coffee in a café, students understand the lesson when they act the scene practically. The teacher encourages the students to move around as if they were in a café. The teacher tries to make the scene as close as possible to the situation in reality. Acting the scene, using the five senses, is more advantageous than asking the students to imagine the situation from a picture (O'Neill & Gish, 2008, p. 95)

Approach/Method	Advantages	Limitations
Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) (nineteenth–mid-twentieth centuries)	Explicit teaching of grammar rules; attention paid to language forms	Absence of communicative practice, which is an immediate need for new immigrants. Reliance on translation, which is impractical in classes having students with many different first languages. Focus on reading and translating texts; some adult students can't read in their first language
Direct Method (DM) (first part of	Grammar is taught Lessons begin with dialog or a story in the target	Inductive presentation is unsuitable for some adult students, who may benefit

twentieth century)	language Use of visuals (actions, pictures, objects) to convey meaning	from overt explanations of rules. Minimal reading and writing, which is needed by immigrant students with work or academic goals
Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) (1950s–1970s)	Emphasis on oral production Teacher models pronunciation Use of drills to reinforce grammatical patterns.	Rote exercises reduce cognitive engagement. Activities are designed to prevent learner errors, which reduces the need for students to negotiate meaning.
Cognitive Approach (CA) (1970s)	Grammar must be taught, either inductively or deductively.	Emphasis on analyzing structure at the expense of communicative practice. Pronunciation is de-emphasized.
Natural Approach (NA) (1980s)	Language is presented in a "natural" sequence: listening, speaking, reading, writing. Use of a communicative Syllabus.	Grammar is not overtly taught, yet many adult learners need and want grammar instruction. Focus on input (listening) can delay output (speaking) that adults need immediately.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (1970s–today)	Communication is the goal of instruction. Emphasis on meaningful interaction. Course syllabus includes language functions. Use of authentic texts and contexts.	Focus on communication can result in ignoring grammar. Emphasis on fluency at the expense of accuracy can result in many students never attaining correct grammar.

Summary of Most Popular Methods and Approach of Teaching Foreign Languages

(Savage, Bitterlin, & Price, 2010, pp. 6-7)

Appendix B

Programs and Degrees in Libyan Universities

Stage I: The first stage of university education requires four to five years (five years in architecture and engineering) of full-time study leading to a Bachelor's Degree. There is a common curriculum for all first-year students. Undergraduate medical programs closely follow the British model. Degrees are conferred after five years of study, which is often preceded by a preparatory year and includes a one-year residency. Examinations are often conducted by the British Royal Colleges of Medicine and conferred by the Libyan Board of Medicine.

Stage II: The Higher Diploma and the Master's Degree (MA or MSc) are awarded after two years of study beyond the bachelor's degree. These programs are mainly offered at the large universities, particularly Benghazi and Tripoli. Postgraduate studies in Libyan universities cover a wide range of subjects, but are generally dominated by Arabic, Islamic studies, social sciences, and humanities.

Stage III: The Doctorate requires a further two years of research and the submission and defense of a dissertation; however, only a few students gain their PhDs from Libyan universities. As of academic year 1999/2000, 100 students had attained PhDs from Libyan universities; mainly in fields such as Arabic, Islamic studies and the humanities. Libyan universities have not yet started doctoral programs in science, technology, and engineering. As a result many students pursue their doctorates abroad.

Non-University Higher Education

In 1980, due to low enrollment rates in the sciences, technology and engineering, higher technical and vocational institutions were established. These include higher teacher training institutes; higher institutes to train trainers and instructors for higher technical institutes; higher vocational centers (polytechnics); specialized higher institutes for technical, industrial and agricultural sciences. Higher institutes offer programs in fields such as electricity, mechanical engineering, finance, computer studies, industrial technology, social work, medical technology and civil aviation. The qualification awarded after three years at vocational institutes and centers is the Higher Technician Diploma; otherwise, after four to five years, the Bachelor's degree is awarded.

Distance Education

Established in 1990, the Open University offers distance education. Its main center is in Tripoli, with 16 other branches located around the country. Curriculums and teaching programs are conveyed via written and audiovisual learning packages.

Academic staff

Academic staff are required to hold a Master or Ph.D. degree from institutions recognized by GPCE&SR. The following ranks are used for academic staff:

1. Assistant lecturer: The first rank for academic staff holding a Master degree.

2. Lecturer: The first rank for academic staff holding a PhD degree and the second for Master degree holders after four years of teaching as an assistant lecturer and at least one publication.

3. Assistant professor: Academic staff with PhD degree, three years of experience as lecturer and at least three publications. Or academic staff with Master degree, four years of experience as lecturer and at least three publications.

4. Associate professor: Academic staff with PhD degree, four years of experience as assistant professor and at least four publications. Or academic staff with Master degree, six years of experience as assistant professor and at least five publications.

5. Professor: Academic staff with PhD degree, four years of experience as associate professor and at least five publications.

(Higher education in Libya, 2011 p. 5).

Appendix C

General Objectives of Education in Libya

1. Enable students to understand Islamic values derived from the Koran and the Sunnah.
2. Helping students to the proper use of the Arabic language in all areas with interest in foreign languages to communicate with the world.
3. Help students understand the theoretical theses of Jamahiriya [Libya] and the translation of Jamahiriyan thought [Green Book] into practical actions.
4. Develop the students' sense of national belonging, and deepen their pride of the Arabic Nation and the Islamic world civilization.
5. Develop the students' sense of belonging geographically, historically to the African continent.
6. Enable students to acquire the appropriate knowledge of skills and positive attitudes and cultural and social values appropriate to the needs of the student, and the needs and civilization aspirations of the society.
7. Enable students to represent the spiritual and moral values and the development of artistic taste and sensory aesthetic.
8. Providing educational opportunities for all and assist students to choose the specialization, that is in conformity with their orientation and abilities, and meets the needs of the society to achieve sustainable human development.
9. Provide and support new types of education and enable students to discover their abilities and acquire knowledge through self-learning.

10. Enable students to acquire the skills of thinking and scientific analysis to keep pace with science and technical developments in the contemporary world.
11. Helping students to achieve growth in its integrated physical and mental, psychological, emotional and social development.
12. Assist students to understand the development of their local, national, regional and global levels, including the development of their feelings and sense of vital important spaces surrounding the Libyan society, such as the Arabic space, the African space, and the Mediterranean space, then global spaces.
13. Help students understand and recognize the world as a global human society associated with him, and having interest in his progress and evolution.
14. Develop students' capacity to interact with other cultures and open up to the world, qualifying them as citizens able to live a positively and jointly in the global community.
15. Development of the partnership of innovation and creation, and enable students to use diverse sources of knowledge.
16. Achieve a balance between theatrical information and their practical applications and establish linkage and integration between different fields of knowledge, which helps to employ them in their lives.
17. Enabling people with special needs, the gifted, disabled and distinct among them to enjoy educational opportunities appropriate to their abilities and needs.
18. The development of the students' environmental awareness and motivate them to maintain the integrity of the environment and its various resources and the positive contribution to solving environmental problems.

19. Enable students to understand the principles of security and social peace and human rights, and encourage them to build a society of peace, a community of mutual understanding, dialogue and global tolerance, recognizing their society's rights within the international community and have great pride in their nation and its role in human civilization (GPCE, 2008, pp. 4-5).

Approaches and Measures Adopted to Make the Education System More Inclusive

1. Pay attention to the teacher and put a new mechanism to rehabilitate the teacher and learner, and for this new sections were developed in teachers training faculties, such as a section competent for pupils with special needs and a section specialized in the children at the kindergarten stage.
2. Establish and equip school buildings that provide healthy and educational conditions necessary to offer an effective educational work.
3. Set up training courses and rehabilitation male and female teachers and raise professional efficiency.
4. Training and rehabilitation of psychological guides to deal with problems that may face students and teachers inside and outside schools to achieve the goals of the strategies of inclusive education.
5. Provide and supply schools with audio-visual and electronic libraries to develop the students' skills and address the individual differences among them.
6. Focus the attention on activity subjects, such as physical education, music and artistic education to develop the talents of students of different stages of education and refine these talents.

7. Conducting various studies and researches to study and evaluate the educational process and develop it according to modern educational theories (GPCE, 2008, pp. 45-46).

Objectives of Curriculum Development in Libya

1. Confirm and highlight the features of the Arabic Islamic identity, and the privacy of the Libyan culture and national memory of the Libyan people and link them with Arabic, African and global environment.
2. Reaffirm the right of difference and cultural diversity, and opinion expression through legitimate methods approved by the Libyan society, according to its political philosophy.
3. Emphasize dialogue and communication, and reject intellectual intolerance and build a culture of dialogue and openness to self and others, whatever were the reasons and philosophy, and the assets and resources.
4. Building skills of intellectual knowledge, such as skills of analysis, conclusion and construction of knowledge, and building the capacity to recruit knowledge and information for decision-making and scientific solutions to problems faced by the student as an individual or facing the community as a whole.
5. Support democratic public values as a way of life, by explaining the concepts and democratic values and translating them in procedural process positions in the daily life of students and society.
6. Emphasis the learning of Arabic language and deepen the learners' understanding of it, while diversifying and expanding foreign language education as an

instrument of communication between different civilizations in accordance with contemporary learning methods and curriculum (GPCE, 2008, p. 7)

Appendix D

Educational Policy in Libya

1. Freedom of learning is guaranteed for all, through the institutions of public education, participatory and free education, continuing education, distance learning, and the developed alternative pattern of education.
2. Basic education is compulsory for all, free at public education institutions.
3. Secondary education is optional, and it will pave the way for the involvement of outstanding students in undergraduate and postgraduate studies.
4. All educational institutions of various types and patterns are subject to uniform standards.
5. Participatory education at different stages is not free and non-profit.
6. Encourage kindergartens, and disseminate them locally, without including it within the educational structure.
7. The society ensures the satisfaction of the students' special needs, either the defaulters or the excelled in their studies and the talented.
8. Provide educational services to students who excelled in their studies, according to the disciplines that the society needs.
9. Run educational institutions by qualified educational officials who are able to interact and harmonize with the social environment.
10. The distribution of educational institutions in accordance with a national map that responds to the requirements of quality, and take into account population density, physical activity and geographic expansion and achieve the requirements of development and meet the social demand of education.

11. Support participatory education institutions, and consider them as parts of the education system, and develop and assist them, and identify their school fees, and adopt their curricula and certificates, and follow-up their work to conform with the institutions of public education, and subject them to the same controls and standards, and urge them to provide new areas of education, that do not defecate the principle of equal educational opportunities or the output level of education.
12. The application of the idea of the private teacher, and encouraged it, and develop the continuing, open and free education systems, techniques and programs, and create new patterns of teaching and learning.
13. The consolidation of the relationship between the teacher and institutions he graduated from, to enable him to continuing education, and keeping pace with scientific and educational developments in his field of specialization.
14. Continuous curriculum development, and review its objectives, and update teaching methods, and systems for assessment and measurement, to ensure the quality of outputs of the educational institutions.
15. Enhance the performance of all official employees, teachers, educators and inspectors, social workers, and administrators, through periodical and continuing special training and upgrading programs and courses.
16. Develop regulations of the educational process to ensure discipline and commitment within the educational institution and achieve the sector's targets in human development.
17. Financing education is the responsibility of the state and participatory educational institutions in order to ease the burden on the society budget, and achieve free

education for those who cannot make use of national service (GPCE, 2008, pp. 3-4).

Objectives of Educational Policy in Libya

1. The eradication of illiteracy in reading and writing, as well as professional literacy for all members of society.
2. Take the necessary action to deal with the loose in education by establishing technical and vocational centers.
3. Have interest in early childhood stage until the ages of three and five (kindergarten stage), where the activity of the children is monitored and the healthy habits are formed, and increased curiosity is found and develop their skills to be prepared for educational process.
4. Providing material and human resources for the development of education in kindergarten because of the extreme importance of this stage in the subsequent stages of education and in accordance with the objectives of the Charter "Education for all".
5. Spread education horizontally so as to cover all villages and remote rural areas by establishing schools for the education of sons and daughters of these areas for transformation and construction, and fight against underdevelopment and oppression, ignorance, disease and contribute to the changing of the reality and lifestyle in the rural community to what is the best and make it more in line with the requirements of comprehensive rural development, and more responsive to the demands of change and transformation desired in the Libyan society with a focus on improving the type and level of education output.

6. The development of home domestic education program.
7. Open tracks of education for everyone within or outside the system of schooling.
8. Enable the individual to multiply and freely choose the field of study as means to develop talents and interest to practice a profession or job in of economic, social and cultural sectors in the society.
9. Provide educational institutions with educational media and modern communication means for its importance in the process of teaching and learning, and address individual differences among students.
10. Training teachers in important areas of specialization, including many processes and activities such as determining the philosophy of this preparation and training, and its 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.
11. The General People's Committee for Education signed a services and technical cooperation agreement with the German Foundation for Technical Cooperation GTZ concerning the improvement of the quality of basic and secondary education, and in-service teacher training, and the harmonization of education output and the labor market.
18. The General People Committee for Education in coordination with the Secretariat of the General People's Committee for higher education and teacher training

colleges affiliated to universities develop criteria and conditions that help to select students who would join the teacher training institutes (GPCE, 2008, pp. 13-15).

Appendix E

Chronological Evolution of Communicative Competence

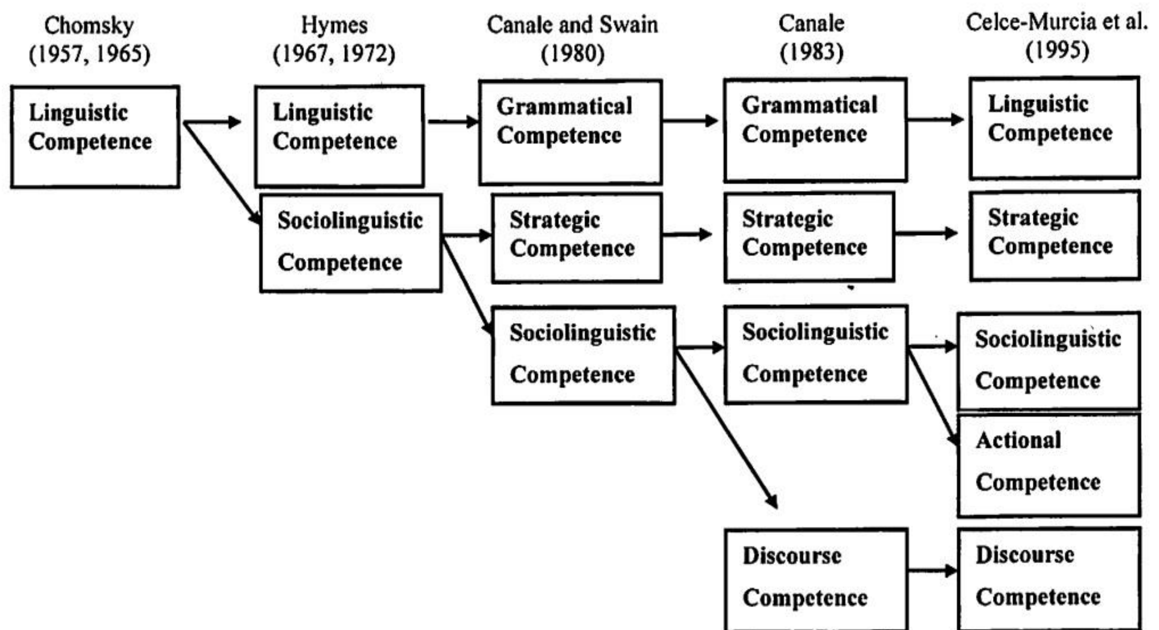


Figure 3.1 Chronological evolution of 'communicative competence'

(Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 43)

Appendix F

Common Reference Levels: Self-Assessment Grid

Skills	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
Listening	I can recognize familiar words and very basic phrases concerning myself, my family and immediate concrete surroundings when people speak slowly and clearly.	I can understand phrases and the highest frequency vocabulary related to areas of most immediate personal relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local area, employment). I can catch the main point in short, clear, simple messages and announcements.	I can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. I can understand the main point of many radio or TV programs on current affairs or topics or personal or professional interest when the delivery is relatively slow and clear.	I can understand extended speech and lectures and follow even complex lines of argument provided the topic is reasonably familiar. I can understand most TV news and understand the majority of films in standard dialect.	I can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signaled explicitly. I can understand television programs and films without too much effort.	I have no difficulty in understanding any kind of Spoken language, whether live or broadcast, even when delivered at fast native speed, provided I have some time to get familiar with the accent.
Reading	I can understand familiar names, words and very simple sentences, for example on notices and posters or in catalogues.	I can read very short, simple texts. I can find specific, predictable information in simple everyday material such as advertisements, prospectuses, menus and timetables and I can understand short simple personal letters.	I can understand texts that consist mainly of high frequency everyday or job-related language. I can understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters.	I can read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular attitudes or viewpoints. I can understand contemporary literary prose.	I can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. I can understand specialized articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field.	I can read with ease virtually all forms of the written language, including abstract, structurally or linguistically complex texts such as manuals, specialized articles and literary words.
Spoken Interaction	I can interact in a simple way	I can communicate in simple and	I can deal with most situations likely to arise	I can interact with a	I can express myself fluently and	I can take part effortlessly in

	provided the other person in prepared to repeat or rephrase things at a slower rate of speech and help me formulate what I'm trying to say. I can ask and answer simple questions in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.	routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar topics and activities. I can handle very short social exchanges, even though I can't usually understand enough to keep the conversation going myself.	whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. I can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, work, travel and current events).	degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible. I can take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for ad sustaining my views.	spontaneous ly without much obvious searching for expressions. I can use language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. I can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate my contribution s skillfully to those of other speakers.	any conversation or discussion and have a good familiarity with idiomatic expressions and colloquialism s. I can express myself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely. I f I do have a problem I can backtrack and restructure around the difficulty so smoothly that other people are hardly aware of it.
Spoken Production	I can use simple phrases and sentences to describe where I live and people I know.	I can use a series of phrases and sentences to describe in simple terms my family and other people, living conditions, my educational background and my present or most recent job.	I can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events, my dreams, hopes and ambitions. I can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. I can narrate a story or relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions.	I can present clear, detailed description s on a wide range of subjects related to my filed of interest. I can explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvanta ges of various options.	I can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.	I can present a clear smoothly flowing description or argument in a style appropriate to the context and with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points.
Writing	I can write a short, simple postcard, for example	I can write short, simple notes and messages relating to	I can write simple connected text on topics which	I can write clear, detailed text on a	I can express myself in clear, well-structured	I can write clear, smoothly flowing text

	sending holiday greetings. I can fill in forms with personal details, for example entering my name, nationality and address on a hotel registration form.	matters in areas of immediate need. I can write a very simple personal letter, for example thanking someone for something.	are familiar or of personal interest. I can write personal letters describing experiences and impression.	wide range of subjects related to my interests. I can write an essay or report, passing on information or giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view. I can write letters highlightin g the personal significanc e of events and experiences	text, expressing points of view at some length. I can write about complex subjects in a letter, an essay or report, underlining what I consider to be the salient issues. I can select style appropriate to the reader in mind.	in an appropriate style. I can write complex letters, reports or articles which present a case with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points. I can write summaries and reviews of professional or literary

(Council of Europe, 2001) (as cited in Dieten, n.d. pp. 148-150).

Appendix G

Berlitz Guidelines for Teaching Oral Language

Never translate: demonstrate

Never explain: act

Never make a speech: ask questions

Never imitate mistakes: correct

Never speak with single words: use sentences

Never speak too much: make students speak much

Never use the book: use your lesson plan

Never jump around: follow your plan

Never go too fast: keep the pace of the student

Never speak too slowly: speak normally

Never speak too quickly: speak naturally

Never speak too loudly: speak naturally

Never be impatient: take it easy

(Titon, 1968, pp. 100-101)

Appendix H

Information about the Participants of the Study

Par.	City	Sex	Deg.	Major	Grades Taught	Years of Exp.	St.	Date of Inter.	Inter Time
Ali	Misrata	M	MA	Linguistics & TESOL	university	2	IN	03/08 /12	12:56
Salem	Soluque	M	PhD	English Education	high school & university	3	IN	03/09/ 12	13:03
Ziad	Khumes	M	MA	Linguistics & TESOL	university	2	IL	03/10/ 12	20:10
Nuri	Tripoli	M	MA	Applied Linguistics & TESOL	middle & high school	14	IL	03/10/ 12	41:52
Anas	Shahat	M	MA	TESOL	high school	3	CO	03/19/ 12	9:15
Jaber	Ejdapia	M	PhD	Mechanical Engineering	high school	3	CO	03/19/ 12	13:44
Sana	Miselata	F	MSc	Dentist	institute	3	OK	04/14/ 12	home
Asma	Bida	F	PhD	Agriculture	high school & language centers	2	IW	04/17/ 12	home
Sami	Ejdapia	M	PhD	English	university	2	TE	05/02/ 12	51.53
Faraj	Benghazi	M	MA	Computer	primary	1	CO	05/24/ 12	24:48

Hani	Khumes	M	PhD	Medicine	institute	3	MO	06/12/ 12	14:17
Ahmed	Ghat	M	MA	TESOL	middle, high, institute & university	2	OR	06/19/ 12	19:39
Younis	Khumes	M	PhD	Translation	high school & university	6	IN	08/13/ 12	25:29
Fouzi	Marij	M	MA	ESL	middle school & university	2	WA	08/29/ 12	24:20
Hala	Benghazi	F	PhD	Language, Literacy, & Technology	language centers	3	WA	08/30/ 12	home
Jamal	Sebha	M	PhD	English	primary school	7 Month s	WA	08/30/ 12	21:09
Tamer	Ghat	M	PhD	Language, Literacy, & Technology	high school & university	3	WA	08/30/ 12	10:16
Ayoub	Benghazi	M	MA	Bio-Lingual Education	middle, high school, language centers & university	4	ID	08/30/ 12	16:31
Mousa	Brak	M	PhD	Teaching and Learning	high school & university	3	WA	08/30/ 12	16:04
Shadi	Sebha	M	PhD	TESOL	high school, lan. centers, & university	6	WA	08/30/ 12	22:51

Appendix I

Questions of the Interview

Please feel free to use both your native language and English—using whichever serves your needs best at any given time!

Part I: Personal Questions

Which city in Libya are you from originally?

Where are you living now? And what are you doing?

What is you major in undergrad and grad?

How did you learn English?

How did you learn English in your school years?

How did you learn English by any other means that may not be school-related? (e.g., via watching movies; reading magazines; talking with friends; etc.)

Tell me about your teaching English as a foreign language history.

How many class periods a day were you teaching English for each classroom?

Tell me about challenges you encountered while teaching English in Libya.

What are the main rewards or benefits about teaching English in Libya?

Second: Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Libya

Talk about the method of teaching English you were using while teaching English in Libya.

How do you see this method?

Talk about the method of teaching English you will likely use? Why?

To what extent will you follow whatever your school or college prescribes for teaching English?

In your opinion, what is the most appropriate method of teaching English in Libya? Why?

What do you think is the ideal way to teach English in Libya—assuming you had unlimited funds and freedom in curriculum?

In your opinion, what is the most inappropriate way of teaching English in Libya? Why?

Talk about the effects of these factors on your teaching English in Libya:

- Textbooks
- Technology
- Classroom
- Teacher's training
- Teacher's English fluency or proficiency
- Students' motivation
- Students' attitude to learning English
- The family collaboration

- The community collaboration.

Third: Teaching and Learning English in Libya

Talk about the situation of teaching English in Libya.

Talk about the situation of learning English in Libya.

How do you see the connections between Libyans' skills in using English and the future of Libya?

What is your opinion about Libyan teachers who teach English in Libya?

Tell me about the challenges that teachers encounter while teaching English in Libya.

Tell me about the challenges that learners encounter while learning English in Libya.

Do you think that Libya should establish a common curriculum and/or national teaching standards for teaching and learning English? Explain.

If yes, who should establish these standards? And how?

Give your comments and recommendations, if you have, about teaching and learning English in Libya.

Appendix J

Samples of Follow-Up Questions

I phoned Fouzi, Jamal, and Ayoub and asked them about the rewards or benefits about teaching English in Libya. Fouzi said, “I learned English;” Jamal said, “I had a job to get extra money;” and Ayoub said, “I find a place to practice my English.” These answers were important to evaluate Libyan teachers’ motivation and attitude to teaching English in Libya.

Some participants misunderstood the question and gave irrelevant answers. Asking about the effect of technology on teaching English in Libya, Ali’s answer was “It’s major important, especially using the visual aids like Internet access and projectors should be available in every classroom;” Nuri’s answer was “Technology, I think this is the most important key for every, because it saves time, helps teacher and the students teach and learn effectively;” Tamer’s answer was “It’s very helpful, as well;” and Younis’ answer was “We like technology during the time I taught, but I think it will be a very good beneficial to be used.” Their answers were not related to the effect of technology on teaching English in Libya. I phoned Tamer and Younis and emailed Ali and Nuri to inquire about the effect of technology in teaching English in Libya. Their answers was “Technology is not available at all in Libya.” These answers were essential to evaluate the factor of technology in teaching and learning English in Libya.

Appendix K

Sample of a Participant's Answer of a Question

Me: OK! Tell me about your teaching English as a foreign language history.

Sami:

Aaa, well, aaa after I graduated from graduated the aaaa what's now known as the University of Benghazi in Ejdapia, majoring in English, I was chosen as a teaching assistant at, at aaa the faculty, I worked there for about aaa two years, and then I started the, you know, my masters degree in, in translation and interpreting studies, and then, and that's when I started actually to teach at the university. Actually we had a lot of problems aaaa which I think hinder the efforts that, you know, sometimes the university or the Libyan university education make to, to develop the matter English education in Libya. These problems include, but I am not limited to, of course, probably lack of authentic textbooks, aaaa, you know, lack of Internet facilities, lack of, you know, proper aaaaa teaching labs, I mean teaching and learning labs, aaaaa, I mean the lack of qualified ELT teachers. When I say ELT, I mean English language teaching. Aaaa we had some, I think, some of the Libyan universities we have aaaaa a lot of ELT teachers of aaaaa, namely from India, Iraq, Egypt. Those are all non-native speakers of English. Some of them, unfortunately, are not qualified enough to teach English. Aaa, some of them you can't even hold the whole proper conversation with aaaa, I mean in English for, you know, few minutes. Aaa I could myself, you know, I am not a native speaker of English myself, but you know talking to most of my colleagues at the university I could tell that they themselves have lots of, you know,

aaa proficiency problems in English, aaaa grammar problems, you know, intonation. So, I mean if you, if this is the case with the with the with the ELT teachers at this university, so how would you expect the aaaa the students of English at this university to to master English properly, so. Ya, so, I think there's this is actually aaaaaa, you know, a big, you know, issue, and aaaaa, it's very large. I mean I am not sure of the time here enough to talk about all these problems, but I think aaaa, you know, there's lots of problems to, I mean, to handle and deal with, but you know, as, you know, just summarize all of this, you know, I said textbooks, Internet, aaaa lack of, you know, technology, like, you know, computers aaaaa, you know, lack of facilities. So exposure to English is very important as well, and ,you know, that, you know, most, you know, the majority of us in Libya have almost no chance to practice English outside of school. You can't, you can't find aaaa, you know, someone to speak English with in Libya aaaaa outside, you know, the university, and even inside the university, you know, within the books limits, sometimes, we teach English through Arabic, you know, and through some different languages, sometimes using body, you know, movements and we don't even use English properly. We don't motivate our students to to use English, to practice English, to use English for the sake of aaaa communication to achieve aaaa a particular purpose, which is, you know, the main principle of the CTL or the Communicative Language Method. Aaaaa we maintain aaaaa a traditional style of English education aaaa based on GTM, which is Grammar Translation Method. Aaaaa sometimes we use the Direct Method aaaa, but I would say no use whatsoever of properly more authentic and more proper aaaaa methods of teaching and learning such as the Communicative Language Teaching aaaaaa or the

aaaaa the Content, Content Language Integrated Method, which is aaa, which is, you know, to my knowledge is is a good method as well. So, I think most of the ELT teachers in Libya probably need to be aware of how to use these methods, how to implement them in a classroom, and also some of the aaaaa, you know, aaaaa, I mean another thing is pedagogy. Aaaa, I think this is another side that we that requires a lot of work aaaaam you know because most of us as ELT teachers in Libya, I mean Libyans and non-Libyans, we need to to give some attention to aaaaa some of the pedagogical problems. So we don't, for example, know how to motivate our learners, we don't aaaaa get them involved into a successful healthy classroom discussion. Aaaa I mean discussion in English, of course, aaaa we don't maintain a good rapport, which is the aaaaa the good relationship between teacher and, between the teachers and their students. Aaaam, also the interrelationship between, you know, student-student relationship, student-teacher relationship is is important as well. Aaaaa, so I think none of us pay any attention to all of these sorts of things. Aaaaaa, all what we do, we just give the students aaaa, you know, just a bunch of, you know, sheets and aaaaa, you know, they just tell students that this is your sheet, you are, you are required to to study all of this for the entire course, and you will you will be responsible for each single word in this. Aaaa, you know, in this sense, we encourage our students to memorize, just to memorize everything by heart, so that they can do well in their aaaaa, you know, exam days. They can, so they can just do well in the exam. They can pass, and they received the next year, and that what counts for them. They don't really. Ya!

Appendix L

IRB Form

Campus Institutional Review Board 485
McReynolds Hall

University of Missouri-Columbia Columbia, MO
65211-1150

PHONE:
(573)882-9585

FAX: (573)
884-0663

October 24, 2013

Principal Investigator: Omar, Youssif Zaghwani
Department: Learning Teaching & Curriculum
Your Annual Exempt Form to project entitled *Perceptions of Selected Libyan Teachers of English as a Foreign Language Regarding Teaching of English in Libya* was reviewed and approved by the MU Campus Institutional Review Board according to terms and conditions described below:

IRB Project Number	1197640
Initial Application Approval Date	October 27, 2011
Approval Date of this Review	October 24, 2013
IRB expiration Date	November 21, 2014
Level of review	Exempt
Project Status	Closed – Data Analysis Only
Regulation	45 CFR 46.101b(2)
Risk Level	Minimal Risk

The principal investigator (PI) is responsible for all aspects and conduct of this study. The PI must comply with the following conditions of the approval:

1. No subjects may be involved in any study procedure prior to the IRB approval date or after the expiration date.
2. All unanticipated problems, serious adverse events, and deviations must be reported to the IRB within 5 days.
3. All modifications must be IRB approved by submitting the Exempt Amendment prior to implementation unless they are intended to reduce risk.
4. All recruitment materials and methods must be approved by the IRB prior to being used.
5. The Annual Exempt Form must be submitted to the IRB for review and approval at

least 30 days prior to the project expiration date.
6. Maintain all research records for a period of seven years from the project completion date.
7. Utilize the IRB stamped document informing subjects of the research and other approved research documents located within the document storage section of eIRB.

If you have any questions, please contact the Campus IRB at 573-882-9585 or umcresearchcirb@missouri.edu. Thank you,

Appendix M

Informed Consent

University of Missouri, Columbia (UMC) Research Project: Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Libya and Its Potential Relationship with the Global Community.

2011 - 2012

Purpose of the Project: The purpose of this project is to analyze the methods of teaching English as a foreign language in Libya.

Nature of Participation: The participation in this project may involve:

(a) One 30-60 minute interview with the researcher.
(b) You will be asked to talk about your experience in teaching and learning English as a foreign language in Libya.
(c) These interviews will be transcribed and may be used in my dissertation.
(d) Pseudonyms will be used for your names.
(e) You will be interviewed in English or the language of your choice (Later, the researcher will translate it into English).
(f) You might be interviewed face-to-face or through Software Chatting Programs, such as Skype, Yahoo, or Oovoo.
(g) If needed, you will be contacted for follow-up questions.

Participation is Voluntary: Participation in this study is strictly voluntary. You may choose not to participate or withdraw participation at any time. For additional information or to ask questions regarding human participation in research, please feel free to contact the UMC Campus IRB Office at (573) 882-9585.

Confidentiality: Every effort will be made to keep your information and identity confidential. All information collected will be stored in a secure area. In presentations and publications, we will use pseudonyms and/or assign numbers instead of names of real people and places. Data will be stored for seven (7) years beyond the completion of the study and at that time it will be destroyed. Data will be made available to the participants upon request.

Risks: This project does not involve any risks greater than those encountered in everyday life. Every attempt will be made to keep your identity confidential and to conduct interviews in an environment that is open, trusting, and warm.

Benefits: This research may contribute valuable information to the field of education that assists English language learners and teachers. The study will provide a safe environment in which you can reflect language learning and teaching in a thoughtful way.

If you have any questions about this research study, please feel free to contact me, Youssif Zaghwani Omar (Ph.D. student in English Education, University of Missouri-Columbia) at (573)271-8531 or at yot33@mail.missouri.edu. The faculty advisors for this study are Dr. Roy Fox, Professor for Learning, Teaching, & Curriculum; FoxR@missouri.edu. or (573)882-0899 and Dr. Amy Lannin, Assistant Professor for Learning, Teaching, & Curriculum and Director for Campus Writing Project; LanninA@missiouri.edu. or (573)882-1798.

Appendix N

Sample of Interviews

Name of Interviewee: NURI

Name of Interviewer: Youssif

Place of Interview: In the interviewee's apartment in Carbondale, IL.

Date of Interview: Saturday, March, 10, 2012 at 10:15 p.m.

Time of Interview: 41:52

ME: HELLO!

NURI: Hello!

ME: WHICH LANGUAGE DO YOU LIKE THAT WE START THIS CONVERSATION? ENGLISH OR?

NURI: English.

ME: ENGLISH! OK! SO, LET'S START. OK, FOR THE PERSONAL QUESTIONS, WHICH CITY IN LIBYA ARE YOU FROM?

NURI: I am from Tripoli.

ME: AND WHERE ARE YOU LIVING NOW?

NURI: Right now, I am in Carbondale, Illinois.

ME: AND WHAT ARE YOU DOING?

NURI: I am studying for my master in majoring in, in applied linguistics and TESOL. This is my third semester.

ME: WHAT IS YOUR MAJOR IN UNDERGRAD?

NURI: English.

ME: AND IN GRAD?

NURI: Applied linguistics and TESOL.

ME: OK! HOW DID YOU LEARN ENGLISH?

NURI: First I learned English when I was seven years old for, about for I think six months my father brought a tutor to our house and all of me and my brothers, I mean and sisters learned English at home, basic English. This is the first time I started learning English, and then we started English at prep, preparatory school, and then exclude, excluded English in 1986 I think 1987 for five years. So, I learned only one in preparatory, I mean middle school.

ME: SO, HOW DID YOU LEARN ENGLISH IN YOUR SCHOOL YEARS?

NURI: There was a gab, I mean I told you I learned one year in preparatory school and then English was excluded for five years, so I aaaa. There was a gap between the first year, and then when I started secondary school, high school, I started from the second year for learning English, so it was, but I didn't depend on school. I was listening to music, watching movies, so most of my English learning was using music and movies.

ME: OK! TELL ME ABOUT YOUR TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE HISTORY IN LIBYA.

NURI: OK, my. I have been teaching for, for about fourteen years. I started learn, teaching English after graduation in 1989, 1998. First year, I didn't teach. I just took classes when teachers absent, was absent, I took the class, give them some basics, play games, and then the second year, I started teaching two classes, and then every year the classes increase, and I taught from first, first year to third year in public school like preparatory and secondary school.

ME: SO, HOW MANY CLASSES DID YOU TEACH A DAY?

NURI: It depends. I mean every year is different, was different, so sometimes two classes, sometime three classes, sometimes four classes.

ME: A DAY?

NURI: No, it depends. Sometimes I have twelve classes a week, sometimes one class a day, three classes another day, so it depends on the schedule. Every year is different.

ME: OK! TELL ME ABOUT THE CHALLENGES THAT YOU ENCOUNTERED WHILE TEACHING ENGLISH IN LIBYA.

NURI: Aaaaaaa preparatory students are different from secondary school teacher, aaaaa, students because they are younger. When the students are younger, they are easy to handle and to teach, but secondary school students are very, aaa, I mean they don't, they weren't cooperative. They were trying to evacuate, try to do anything during the class to not let the teachers teach, so most of the class you are shouting on

them or telling them to stop talking, something like that, but most of the time, it's, it depends on the teacher, if the teacher's strict on the beginning, I think he can handle that. But even the number of the students, I mean the number of the students who study are less than. In our generation, we have many, I mean many students, most of the students in the class were studying and doing their best, and three or four in the class were, were like lazy and not doing anything. But it's different; it's the opposite. It's reversed, three or five, three or five are the best students and the rest are very lazy.

ME: YA! OK! WHAT ARE THE MAIN REWARDS OR BENEFITS ABOUT TEACHING ENGLISH IN LIBYA?

NURI: It depends on you If you like, if you like teaching. It depends on your preference. If you like what you teach or what you are teaching, what you are working, you will do your best. Sometimes, you choose. Some people choose teaching because they, it's the easiest job. I mean you don't have to take full time job. It's, it depends on the number of classes or if you the manager, I mean the headmaster in the school, you will, maybe you will not, you don't have to go to school.

ME: OK! LET'S NOW GO TO THE SECOND PART OF THIS INTERVIEW, THAT'S METHODS OF TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN LIBYA. TALK ABOUT THE METHOD OF TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE YOU WERE USING WHILE TEACHING ENGLISH IN LIBYA.

NURI: There wasn't a specific method of teaching English when I was teaching because I, we didn't, we didn't learn this in university, so we depended on, depended

on our teachers' methods when we were students, and we chose the best one to teach with some adjustment and some other things like using tape recorders or players. We grammar translation, I think we use grammar translation method. The names of the methods, I wasn't familiar, I mean they weren't familiar to me, but when I started my major, my master, I become familiar with these methods. So, we don't have audio-lingual because we don't have any kind of technology. We still have traditional method, using blackboards, and then the last five years, they started using white board, so we depended on chalk and blackboard, and you, we used our utilities, like tape recorders, not computer. We don't use computer because it isn't, it wasn't available. Aaaaa, my, my method was first make the students like me first to accept what I am going to teach them, so it's, it was very hard to attract them at the beginning because you need time, like first two weeks you have to know what their names and some background, some information about their aaaa, where they live, aaaa like it depends on the kind of the questions you ask, you know these questions it is not, they are not questions, they weren't questions directly. It's like for me to know because I think when you know the students and the, the neighborhood, or the place where he lives will help you to, to deal with any situation or any kind of problem, I think, with the students. So, the students need someone to take care them to, to treat them equally, so. So using Arabic is not helpful, but we, I couldn't exclude Arabic sometimes, especially grammar because it's very difficult to explain it, even using examples, many examples, I don't.

ME: SO, HOW DID YOU SEE THE METHOD THAT YOU USED TO USE IN THE CLASS?

NURI: The method, I think it depends on the curriculum. The curriculum isn't, the textbooks are not, were not helpful because they were very intensive, and most of the lessons were not, like taught properly because we started step by step in the beginning, and then we rushed and we started to give the lessons to finish the textbooks, so half, like 50% of the textbook wasn't helpful, wasn't taught very well.

ME: SO, TALK ABOUT THE METHOD OF TEACHING ENGLISH THAT YOU ARE GOING TO USE WHEN YOU COME BACK HOME.

NURI: I, my, I don't aaa, I don't like using a specific method for teaching. I like to use as many methods as I can because sometimes one method is not perfect. Nothing is perfect. So, I have to use the best thing in every method to make my class productive and effective. I think this is my opinion. I think it is not about one method because every method has advantages and disadvantages, so taking the best thing in every method will help, I think, and mix it in one method depends on the skills and grammar. And sometimes the method doesn't match with the mentality of our students, like Libyan students, it needs very, it needs a lot of patience from the teacher to make students adapt with the method or the kind of the method the teacher is going to use. So, it is not like lab experiments, but I can say we try to use the method which goes with, which match, matches with the students' environment and traditions. This is my opinion.

ME: YA! TO WHAT EXTENT WILL YOU FOLLOW WHATEVER YOUR SCHOOL OR COLLEGE PRESCRIBES FOR TEACHING ENGLISH?

NURI: Aaaaaa the problem with extent is that you are aaaaa, that you are given the textbook. You don't choose the textbook, and you have a schedule every year. I mean yearly schedule and monthly schedule, so you have to finish aaaa, it doesn't matter that the lesson is difficult or easy you have to finish on the schedule, the year schedule. And we are inspected like 3 times a year, I think. So, there are, we have inspectors, who came to, to inspect us and to see how our students perform. That's I think, but we don't control, it depends on the school or the college.

ME: IN YOUR OPINION, WHAT IS THE MOST APPROPRIATE METHOD OF TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN LIBYA, AND WHY?

NURI: I told you before there wasn't any perfect method to teach English as a foreign language, but there are methods, which, which work better with Libyan or with some kinds, some types of countries more than other countries, so sometimes grammar translation, or translation grammar method is not very good, or very effective method for teaching because the students will depend on the translation, and they will not learn English. So with some adjustment or modification I think the method will be adapt, or will, I mean the students will adapt the method if you are making some adjustment, or some which will match with students or the class because every class is different, it is not the same. Every year is different.

ME: YA! OK! TALK ABOUT THE EFFECTS OF THESE FACTORS ON YOUR TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN LIBYA. FIRST, TEXTBOOKS?

NURI: Textbook, I think, is the, is the most important , but I think textbooks only are not enough; they need good teachers, and they have to be attractive, I mean textbooks. They have to be attractive and updated.

ME: WHAT DO YOU MEAN BY ATTRACTIVE?

NURI: Attractive like illustrations, many pictures. It depends, even they are teenagers, I mean even they are college students, textbooks they are colorful and have many pictures, even they are old, old students.

ME: OK! TECHNOLOGY?

NURI: Technology, I think this is the most important key for every, because it saves time, helps teacher and the students teach and learn effectively.

ME: CLASSROOM?

NURI: Classroom! The number of, the number of the students and the place, the position of the classroom are very important for teaching. Sometimes, the reflection of the sun on the white board or on the blackboard at, it's like the summer. So, the position of the classroom, the size of the classroom, the number of the students, I think these are very important for, for a good classroom.

ME: GOOD! THE TEACHER'S TRAINING?

NURI: I think teacher's training has to be like a license, like six months, every six months has to be. Teacher sometimes if he knows, if he or she knows that they are going to teach the same textbook, they will not make any effort or prepare because they, they have everything ready for the first year. They teach the same textbooks

every year, will be the same, they change the date. So, they don't make any efforts, and their performance will be less than, I mean decrease, not increase.

ME: OK! TEACHER'S ENGLISH PROFICIENCY? FLUENCY?

NURI: Aaaaaa proficiency is not limited. Teacher has to practice a lot, use English a lot to, to be proficient, I think. So, if you stop like, it's like the sport. If you are doing any kind of sport. If you stop for a week without doing any exercise, you will find difficulty to return to the same level of performance. So, it's the same, like if you practice English, like in a daily basic, I think you will get proficiency.

ME: STUDENTS' MOTIVATION?

NURI: There's a reason for every student to learn a language, especially English, so you have to find this motivation and in every student to help the students learn, and it will make your teaching easier, I think.

ME: STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TO LEARNING ENGLISH?

NURI: Aaaaa the general attitude of students is to travel. That's why most of them to work in international companies. If you speak English, this is the idea, this is their aaaaa if they go to, to learn English or aaaa, it depends, sometimes they like English, their attitude is, isn't stable; it depends on the, the, there is sometimes their surroundings, their friends, sometimes they don't decide, someone else decide for them, so sometimes, they take classes, English classes, but they don't perform very well because they have 3 friends or 4 friends. They follow each other, so their attitude is not, are not, I mean attitudes are not stable, changes every time.

ME: OK! FAMILY COLLABORATION?

NURI: It depends on the family. If they are, I mean if the students have parents, not one parent. It depends, sometimes I think the family works, I mean they play a very important role in, in helping their children and working with the teachers and the school to, to provide a very good environment for learning and teaching.

ME: THE COMMUNITY COLLABORATION?

NURI: I think it works very well in big cities, not in the country. Sometimes the community, they have other important matters more than learning a language. It depend, it depends on the, the region or the area priorities because they have priorities sometimes they don't care about. So, it depends big cities or small cities.

ME: OK! LET'S GO NOW TO THE THIRD PART; THAT'S GENERAL QUESTIONS. TALK ABOUT THE SITUATION OF TEACHING ENGLISH IN LIBYA.

NURI: Right now?

ME: YA! IN THE PAST, WHEN YOU WERE TEACHING ENGLISH THERE.

NURI: We think that every year will be different, will be better than, but it's different. It's reversed. Every day, every year is worse, is worse than the year before like you don't have the same generations, the best generations, the best students were few. We find 3 students, 3 good students in let's say in 150. I am not pessimistic, but I think there are other things that occupy their minds or their families because they their families sometimes they guide them or they to aaaaa, I don't know, cheating. I think

cheating is changing everything because students they know that they are going to pass, they are going to succeed at the end, so they don't care. They don't care about doing any efforts during the school year because they know that they are going to pass. This idea even from families, not only, families are participating in this, in this disaster, matter.

ME: YA! TALK ABOUT THE SITUATION OF LEARNING ENGLISH IN LIBYA.

NURI: OK! So, I think I talked about learning first. I am going to talk about teaching. Sorry! The first thing is about learning. Aaaaaa, the salary, I think the salary is, is very important for an English teacher. If, if they have a very good salary, I think they will perform better than they are performing now. The other thing the gender. Most of the teachers are female, and males they are avoiding teaching or taking any for English for the language, not for other classes or specialization. So they, because of the social situation, because they want to get married sometimes, so they want to find another job, which is, which they can save money, and they can build a house, or rent a house, or buy a car. So most of the, most of the teachers females, are females. And even people, I mean men when their, when they get married, their ideas of if they accept their wives to, to work, so the best job for a married woman is teaching. They choose the schools, which are close to their homes.

ME: OK! HOW DO YOU SEE THE CONNECTIONS BETWEEN LIBYAN SKILLS IN USING ENGLISH AND THE FUTURE OF LIBYA?

NURI: Libyan! Most of Libyans are very clever, but the problem they don't use their. They don't want to use their mind. That's the problem with Libyans. There are other

things, which are priorities in their life. Their skills are not used very well. Aaaaaa most, I think the best skill they use is listening and speaking . Reading and writing are very, are very difficult for them. They don't like reading or writing, but they are good in listening and speaking. Speaking not, but they can speak. Aaaaa the problem of, for the students to not use their skills very well because of their classmates or the environment because they are trying, even trying to do their best, they will find someone who is joking or laughing at them, so they will not trying to use their skills in front of other people. Maybe they will use it privately or with their families, but they don't show their skills. But I don't know in the future maybe will be different. I hope it be, I hope it will be very creative.

ME: WHAT'S YOUR OPINION ABOUT LIBYAN TEACHERS WHO TEACH ENGLISH IN LIBYA?

NURI: As I said before most of the teachers are, were and are females. And females their situations are different from males because if they have children married or single these will affect their performance. They are absent more than males because of the physical, and aaaa. I think physical factors affect.

ME: OK! TELL ME ABOUT THE CHALLENGES THAT TEACHER ENCOUNTER WHILE TEACHING ENGLISH IN LIBYA.

NURI: Aaaaaa depend on their personalities. Sometimes, the problem with teachers they are very sensitive. When they, when they teach students for a long time, they become very aaaa, they were different because they don't teach the same when they started from the beginning. They, they are strict and trying to do aaaa, try to teach very

well or properly, but when they know students day by day, I mean they know them, they will, their judgment , or their decision, or their evaluation will be different because of, as I said, because they are females, and they use their emotions more than. So, they are emotional. Sometimes, they don't, they are not equal. They treat or deal with some students aaaa, they take care of some students more than the other. Maybe because most of the students are teachers', other teachers' children. So, if you take care of my children, I will take care of your children. It's like, so it depends. That's why I think teachers should teach outside their community, I think, to be equal and neutral. But if they teach, even teaching for 3 years 4 years, they have to change their school. First year will be neutral, but the second year and the third year will be different because they will know each other. I mean they will be friends, they will be like they have their ways of changing people's or teachers' personalities.

ME: OK! TELL ME ABOUT THE CHALLENGES THAT LEARNERS ENCOUNTER WHILE LEARNING ENGLISH IN LIBYA.

NURI: Aaaaa challenges not all students or learners have the same facilities or same utilities or same aaa because of the social classes difference, because they are not equal like in their living, in their aaaa, even you will find differences in their life style, I think, and the other things aaaa, and most amazing thing is you find poor people, poor learners are better than rich learners, even though they don't have the same aaaa, the same facilities, the same utilities, or same, they are more, they are better than.

ME: OK! DO YOU THINK THAT LIBYA SHOULD ESTABLISH COMMON CURRICULUM AND OR NATIONAL TEACHING STANDARDS IN TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH?

NURI: I think Libya should update. I mean should be updated, not being or not used the, not used the curriculum from other countries without aaaaa, without, because I think the curriculum which doesn't reflect the country, or the country's environment or surrounding s, traditions, life style will not help that country or that community. Curriculum! English is the same, but you can make English match with every country or each country, depending on the kind or type of information you have from that country to make the curriculum, which matches with that country.

ME: SO, WHO SHOULD ESTABLISH THESE STANDARDS, AND HOW?

NURI: They started from, I think they start, they should start from the one who interact with the students more. They have to take their, or they should take their opinions and their points of view, and then they go like form bottom up, from the one, which, the one, who is closest, or who is close to the students to the administrator, administration. Everyone is aaa, even psychologist, even psychiatrist. All these things, I mean it is not. Social, sociologist, any kind of, I mean every major is very important in establishing these standards because it is not only about teaching; it's, it's everything in life. Teaching, you don't teach students only the language, you teach them other things with the language.

ME: OK! GIVE YOUR COMMENTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS IF YOU HAVE ABOUT TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN LIBYA.

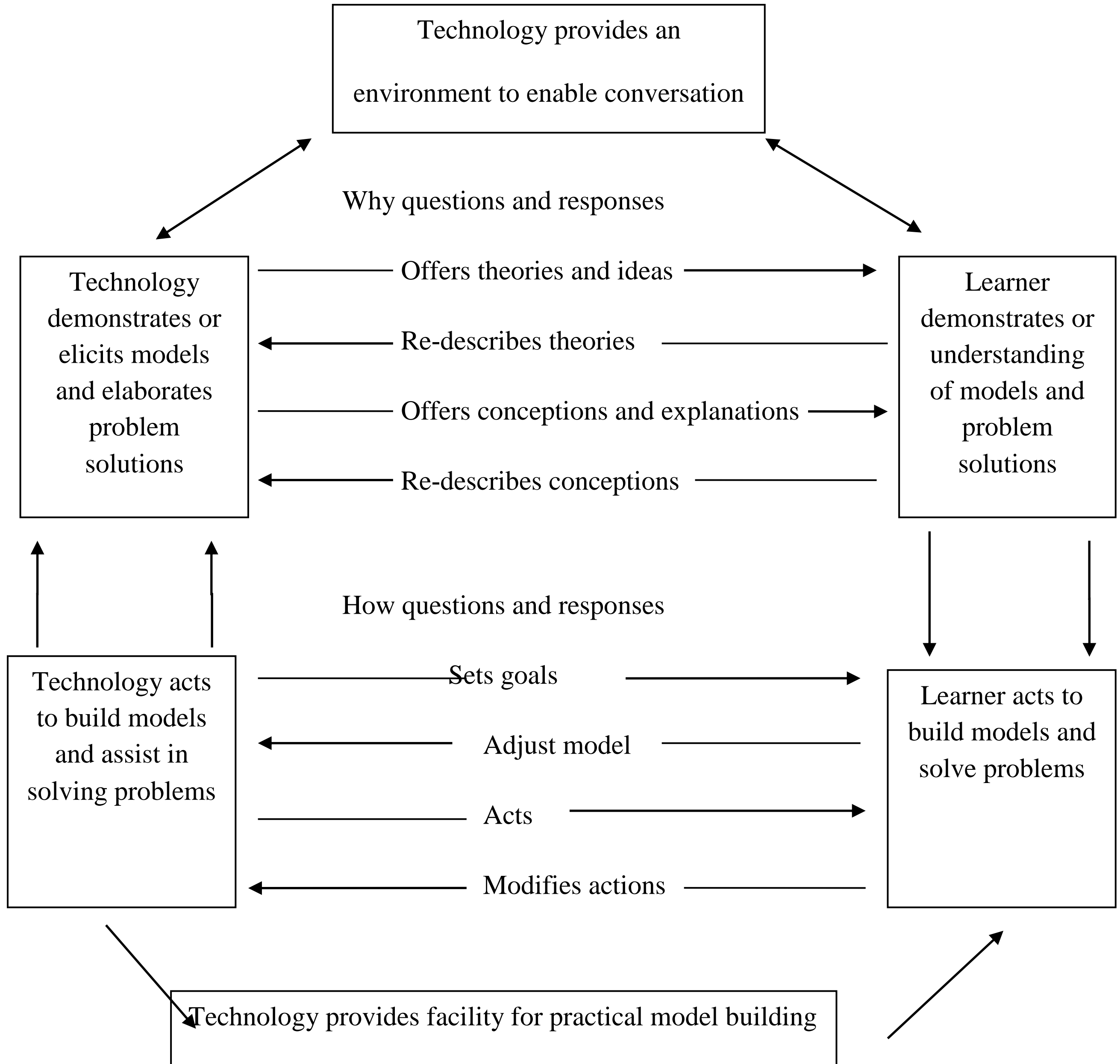
NURI: Even though I have been teaching for fourteen years, I am still learning. And I think aaa I am not only a teacher, I am a learner. My comment, I think, aaaa everything has to be changed, has to be changed in schools, and the most important is the mentality of teachers and students. The people they have to change their mentality, and they don't aaaa, they will not succeed in making education a very good, I mean very good in Libya they don't work together and avoid any, any effects or any influences will affect their type of teaching or their way of teaching. I think, my recommendation, I think training is very important. Age is also very important. Teachers, old teachers are, they give enough I think. It's time to aaaa, for young people to take the steer, steering wheel, but we don't neglect these old teachers. We need their consolation and their expertise to make our schools and our education better.

ME: OK! THANK YOU VERY MUCH! I APPRECIATE YOUR HELP. THANKS A LOT.

NURI: You are welcome.

Appendix O

The Role of Technology in Supporting Conversational Learning



(Naismith, Lonsdale, Vavoula, & Sharples, 2004, p. 16)

VITA

Youssif Omar was born and brought up in Benghazi, Libya. He graduated from high school in Benghazi and joined the University of Benghazi, where he received his bachelor degree in business administration in 1987. In 1990, he joined the Department of Translation at the University of Benghazi, where he received his bachelor degree with honor in translation in 1994. He started his masters' program in English at the University of Benghazi in 1998 and received his masters' degree in English in January 2005 as the second graduate student in English at the University of Benghazi. In 2001, he started his masters' program in business administration at the Academy of Graduate Studies in Benghazi and received his masters in business administration in July 2004. In 2002, he started his masters' program in translation at the Academy of Graduate Studies in Benghazi and received his masters in translation in May 2005 as the first graduate student in translation in Libya. He was appointed as a lecturer at the University of Benghazi in 2005 and as the head of English Department at the College of Arts and Science in Wahat in 2006. He started his doctoral program in English Education at the University of Missouri in August 2008 and received his PhD in English Education in 2014. During his study years in English Education, he published four papers and participated in more than 40 conferences. He is now working as the managing editor of *Artifacts Journal* for undergraduate students' writing at the University of Missouri, an assistant editor of *ECV* (Engaging Culture Voice), and as an instructor in German and Russian Studies Department, teaching Arabic classes.