An Investigation Into Academic, Professional and Pedagogic Aspects of the training Programme For Teachers Of English As A Foreign Language At AlFateh University – Libya

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Volume I
AN INVESTIGATION INTO ACADEMIC, PROFESSIONAL AND PEDAGOGIC ASPECTS OF THE TRAINING PROGRAMME FOR TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE AT AL-FATEH UNIVERSITY-LIBYA

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ABSTRACT

Following an interpretive-constructivist research framework, this study aims to investigate the academic, professional and pedagogic aspects of the training programme for teachers of English as a foreign language at Al-Fateh University, Libya. Components investigated include the role of school experience as class teachers in professional learning. School experience included ascertaining the role of the classroom teacher, the Headteacher, the school atmosphere and all the associated variables.

The study was carried out in Libya using two types of data collection: a set of three questionnaires conducted with EFL student teachers, classroom teachers and university tutors from which a sub-sample were selected to take part in both semi-structured and open-ended interviews along with a sample of Headteachers. The questionnaires provided data for statistical analysis to determine respondents' perceptions and assessment of the objectives of the EFL teacher education programme, the criteria used in assessing student teachers' achievements, the role of the University Tutor in academic and professional preparation of student teachers and also the role of school experience including that of school teachers and the Headteacher. The effect of the school atmosphere was also considered.

Findings drawn from questionnaires indicated the pessimistic view of students, teachers and university tutors regarding the programme contribution to student teachers' learning and the role played by the schools selected for teaching practice, university tutors and school experience. Findings of the interviews provided more depth and insight into the learning experience of the EFL student teachers, including illuminating factors that influence the student teachers' socialization process. During the investigation, findings were constantly fed back to all participants enabling them to reflect on findings, which emerged from the data. These indicated that the learning experience of the EFL teacher education programme is meagre and a range of constraints prevents the programme from being a success. The findings suggest that the challenge represented in the Communicative Approach underpinning the syllabus design and teaching materials is not well addressed in either the EFL teacher education programme or the actual practices of EFL teaching and learning.

On the basis of these problems and needs, recommendations and suggestions are provided for the development of the programme.
ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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<td>ALM</td>
<td>Audio-lingual method</td>
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<tr>
<td>AVA</td>
<td>Audio visual method</td>
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<td>BA</td>
<td>Baccalaureate</td>
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<td>CLL</td>
<td>Community Language Learning</td>
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<td>CLT</td>
<td>Communicative Language Teaching</td>
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<td>GTM</td>
<td>Grammar Translation Method</td>
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<td>I</td>
<td>Interviewee/informant</td>
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<td>ITE</td>
<td>Initial Teacher Education</td>
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<td>L2</td>
<td>Second language</td>
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<td>MOE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
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<td>MT</td>
<td>Mother tongue</td>
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<td>R</td>
<td>Researcher</td>
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<td>Teaching English as a Second Language</td>
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<td>Target language</td>
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<td>TPR</td>
<td>Total Physical Response</td>
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<td>VDE</td>
<td>Vocational Diploma in Education</td>
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Libya is a society in which education matters and educational resources support economic growth and development. There is a demand for modern education throughout Libyan society but Salama (2002) indicated that Libyan students still learn foreign languages in a very traditional way. The researcher aims to improve this situation.

Since 1943, English language has been taught as a curriculum subject in State Schools and teacher education with grammar being the major concern. But from 1984 to 1993 English was eradicated. Then the ‘English for Libya’ textbooks written by English authors with a communicative approach reflecting ministerial policy in 1993 were introduced.

The reintroduction of English with new books having a communicative approach to language teaching and learning, was an innovation and a real departure from the form of structure-based course books that used to be produced by local Libyan authors, mostly university lecturers. The new course books ‘English for Libya’ are a series developed by native English-speaking authors, including Alan and Fiona Tankard, D’Arcy Adrian-Vallance, Mike Macfarlane, Mark Farrell, Olivia Johnston, Mathew and Penny Hancock, Jenny Quintana, Bob Marsden, etc. and published by Garnet Education to reflect the philosophy adopted by the Libyan Ministry of Education (see section 2.5, Chapter 2 in this study for more detail).
Chapter 1: Introduction

The new series meets the curriculum specifications and stated objectives of the Ministry of Education. It falls within the National Act for developing English language curricula and reflects a national need to cope with the worldwide surge towards the communicative movement in language teaching and learning; whilst satisfying the public and private demand for it in modern Libyan society. The ultimate aim is the development of students' communicative competence through the process of foreign language teaching and learning.

The training of EFL teachers became the focus of this study. To a former teacher and teacher trainer, this aspect seemed most relevant for overall improvements in English language teaching and learning.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Recently, Libyan society has become more involved in world affairs; therefore to communicate in English with other people is necessary, both politically and in relation to the economy.

Due to rapid educational and economic change, the Libyan Government is under pressure to utilize its human resources and to develop its educational sector (UNESCO 1994).

Knowledge of foreign languages, especially English, has been one of the obsessions of the Ministry of Education which has been affected by a great many influences. As previously mentioned, in the early eighties Government policies led to the eradication of teaching English (1984-1993) from all levels of primary schools. This has badly affected the education of EFL teachers at university (UNESCO 1994). There was no
need during that time to prepare teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) since there was no demand for them in the schools.

In the 1990s, it was realized that learning English is necessary because of recent trends towards globalisation. There is an increasing need to educate EFL teachers in the Al-Fateh University English Department and to improve English teaching in schools.

However, the proficiency and achievement levels of student in EFL are unsatisfactory (UNESCO 1994). At Al-Fateh University, students enter the EFL department with only three years of schooling in English language; therefore university candidates are unable to carry out university-level work.

In the recent research there is a general agreement that EFL teachers play the key role in the learning process (Fanslow, 1987). Therefore they need to be adequately prepared and competent in using the language. But unfortunately EFL teachers in Libya are neither prepared nor competent in language skills and pedagogy (Suayeh, 1994), especially since the eradication period. With the reintroduction of English language to the secondary schools, teachers who had not taught English for nine years came back to teach without any new in-service training because of its absence from the agenda. However, the EFL teacher training system in Libya will face the problem of unqualified EFL teachers for the foreseeable future.

UNESCO (1994) considered EFL proficiency unsatisfactory, with merely 3 years English study before university students cannot work to degree level. Students are not competent in language skills and pedagogy (UNESCO 1994). Also no English teaching for 9 years followed by new in-service training, results in EFL being taught now and for some time in the future by unqualified staff.
Recent Ministry of Education policy is to develop EFL teaching in the secondary schools but ironically, these changes require a reform of EFL teacher education programmes in order to be effective.

Only a limited amount of EFL research has been conducted in the Arab world and very little in Libya where the EFL teacher training system will face the problem of unqualified EFL teachers for the foreseeable future. The situation of an EFL teacher in Libya is different from that in Western countries, conducting research within the Libyan context is essential to gain an insight into the specific situation that exists and how best to develop appropriate training.

In short, the research questions of this study have attempted to address the following problems:

1.3 Research Questions:

This research aims to investigate "How far the EFL teacher education programme at Al-Fateh University - Libya reflects the recent trends in EFL teacher education and how it contributes to language teaching and learning"

Answers will be sought from school and University staff and EFL student teachers to these subsidiary questions.

1. What are the participants' perceptions towards the status quo of the EFL teacher education programme and how do they benefit from their learning? (University and school personnel). Does or does it not reflect the recent trends in EFL teacher education programmes.

2. What is the EFL student teacher experience like, both in university-based and school-based components, as perceived by the programme participants, and what influences this learning experience? (Is the experience which EFL student teachers
undergo able to equip them with the tools and methods to respond to innovation and, if not, does it have this potential.)

3. What constraints face an EFL teacher education programme and hamper it from playing an effective role in the student teachers' learning?

The first subsidiary question seeks participants' views about the status quo of the EFL teacher education programme in relation to the recent trends in EFL teacher education. Participants include student teachers, university tutors, EFL schoolteachers and school head teachers.

The second subsidiary question addressed student teachers' learning experiences throughout the EFL teacher education programme including the university learning experience and professional school learning experience during teaching practice. Another complementary aim is to ascertain the variety of influences on student teachers' learning experience: both university-based and school-based.

The third subsidiary research question addressed the constraints that face an EFL teacher education programme and prevent it from playing an effective role in the student teachers' learning. These include both constraints based in the university and teaching practice schools.

To answer these questions assumptions were made about EFL teacher education and the views of students, university tutors, EFL classroom teachers and head teachers with constraints being kept to a minimum.

In an educational context, such as in Libya, it is hard to envisage any educational aspect without considering the constraints affecting it, and which might prevent the programme from playing an effective role in the student teachers' learning. Exploring these constraints would enable decision-makers to improve the situation basing further decisions on sound knowledge of the context.
Chapter 1: Introduction

If teacher education institutions are to provide skilled and effective teachers, they need to consult those who experience the training rather than policy makers. Therefore the researcher sees that the following themes need to be addressed and investigated.

To what extent does the university and school experience contribute to learning and professionalisation? Does the current training reflect recent trends in EFL teaching and teacher education?

New textbooks using the communicative approach will necessitate in-service training to achieve the desired results. The influence of context on EFL teacher training and contributory factors in professionalisation will be explored.

Textbooks based on a communicative approach for schools require new methods of teaching and learning to be effective and these will be investigated.

1.4 Rationale for the research

Three strands led to the beginning of this study. First, interest in investigating EFL teacher education processes and the learning experience student teachers undergo, both in university and in schools where they practice teaching. No literary study encountered by the researcher addressed the influence of the role of context on EFL teacher education and the variety of factors impinging upon it.

Secondly, the researcher had a keen desire to know more about what affects student teacher learning from the EFL teacher education programme, and to gain insight into the variety of factors involved. This coincides with an interest to ascertain the student teachers' school experience and the extent to which it contributes to learning and professionalisation in terms of the school personnel, rather than making assumptions about it.
Thirdly, the introduction of new textbooks for Libyan schools based on the communicative approach triggered a further interest in ascertaining the extent to which the EFL teacher education programme does or does not reflect the recent trends in EFL teacher education and language teaching and learning. The reason for this is because any attempt to change the curriculum, whether indirectly, through for example changes in teaching materials, or more directly, through changes in teaching methods, implies a need for teacher learning, i.e. opportunities to learn about the rationale for the new form of teaching, to evaluate it critically and understand how to get the best out of it.

The researcher's experience as an EFL teacher educator having the opportunity to interact with student teachers and other university tutors raised her interest in investigating EFL teacher education programmes. Also through her own professional development, she became aware that attention paid to the education of EFL teachers has been kept to a minimum. There is no doubt that student teachers and teacher educators in general would benefit from this investigation. Feelings of uncertainty and anxiety were constantly expressed to her in many conversations with her students, friends, teachers and fellow lecturers over many aspects of the EFL teacher education programme. As a teacher educator, she was concerned when she heard these complaints repeatedly.

An interpretive constructivist approach was used to discover the adequacy and current status of the Al-Fateh University programme and tutors', students' and teachers' opinion of it. From analysis of the responses, recommendations for future developments were made as part of the main outcomes of this research.
1.5 Purpose of the research

This study aims to investigate the EFL teacher education programme in Libya ascertaining "How far the EFL teacher education programme in Libya reflects the recent trends in EFL teacher education and language teaching and learning".

This aim is made clear through:

1. Following the interpretive-constructivist approach for investigating the pre-service EFL teacher education programme.
2. Determining how far EFL teachers are adequately prepared in the light of the recent trends in EFL teacher education and language teaching and learning.
3. Determining the current status of the EFL programme at Al-Fateh University.
4. Identifying teacher educators', 4th year student teachers' and qualified teachers' perceptions of the programme objectives, school selection, assessment criteria, the role of university tutors, classroom teachers and head teachers.
5. Ascertaining the range of constraints that face the EFL teacher education programme and which prevent it from playing an effective role in the student teachers' learning.
6. Formulating suggestions and recommendations for the development and improvement of the programme on the basis of the collected data from the respondents.

1.6 Research design

Although the methods and procedures will be thoroughly discussed in Chapter 5, they are mentioned here briefly.

In this study, methodologies are understood as a personal process rather than a set of mandates to be followed dogmatically. The process of what happens in practice needs to be described because researchers and their methodological decisions have an effect on the settings, the participants, the data and the interpretation of data (Hammersley, 1984).
Methodological accounts cannot take place in the abstract and go well beyond technical concerns. They have to be linked to the issues under examination and to the researcher's theoretical perspectives. The choice of data collection methods should suit the research area and particular epistemological stance as well as the specific research problem.

The choice of the research problem, methods and the actual research process were all guided and determined within an interpretive constructivist framework, as well as by theoretical considerations of this particular research area and the interaction between the researcher and the researched. The researcher determined that the interpretive constructivist approach to teacher education in Libya would make an important contribution to Foreign Language Teacher Education, since it can provide us with a framework and a methodology to gain access to, and examine issues of EFL teacher education previously hidden. As Guba and Lincoln (1981, p.157) state:

"This search for meaning is a search for multiple realities, truths, and perceptions. Those multiple realities are contained in the unique, the singular, the idiosyncratic, the deviant, the exceptional, the unusual, the divergent perceptions of individuals, as they loved or lived the experience."

Following some principles of the interpretive constructivist approach, the researcher designed a comprehensive framework for investigating pre-service EFL teacher education programmes and applied it to analyse the EFL teacher education process in Libya. The researcher used an interpretative multi-method approach, which employed both quantitative and qualitative methods of collecting data.

A quantitative method was used to gain a comprehensive picture about the status of the current EFL teacher programme in order to focus in more depth on some aspects in the light of the questionnaire findings.

However, because of the special characteristics of this study the researcher's approach to data was qualitative to gain in-depth understanding of educational phenomena, and to
explore in-depth, personal views of those involved in the EFL teacher education programme, such as their learning and teaching experiences. This should help determine their needs, concerns and how they perceive their preparation, and to compare and contrast the information elicited in order to formulate recommendations for the betterment of the programme at Al-Fateh University.

The following instruments were used:

1. The researcher started her investigation with an initial stage, investigating the background of the respondents through informal discussions. She also examined the available documents and records relevant to EFL teacher training to gain personal experience and direct her research.

2. A questionnaire was developed based on the respondents' claims, concerns and issues relevant to the EFL teacher education preparation in Libya. In an attempt to collect data on student teachers', university tutors' and classroom teachers' perceptions of the EFL teacher education preparation programme, items of the questionnaire covered two main components: university-based and school-based activities, and also items that can be measured on a scale and analysed numerically.

3. Semi-structured interviews were used in the second stage of the data collection, giving the participants some freedom and flexibility to express their views and feelings. Responses and a preliminary analysis of them were given to the respondents for more in-depth probing. Rich data was collected and interpretive constructivist principles were followed.

4. Open-ended conversational interviews were conducted with head teachers. Discussions followed a dialectic process, involving the views of university tutors, classroom teachers and student teachers about the head teacher's role towards EFL teacher education in Al-Fateh University. The rich data obtained from head teachers as decision makers about EFL teacher education programmes will, it is hoped, result in recommendations that will assist future developments.
With this methodology the study provides an introduction to alternative approaches to investigation and an incentive for Libyan decision-makers to attempt new research models on a wider basis than surveys.

1.7 Significance of the study
The significance of this first attempt to investigate the role of university- and school-based EFL teacher education programme includes:

1. Contributing towards the whole picture of how EFL teachers are taught and trained along with the factors affecting student teachers' learning experiences.

2. It is the first attempt in Libya to investigate the effectiveness of the university and school contributions to the EFL teacher education programme.

3. It is the first study to identify Libyan EFL student teachers' and university tutors' perceptions towards the EFL teacher education and learning programme.

4. It is the first research to identify the extent to which both teachers and head teachers are satisfied with the learning experience of student teachers in the schools where they practice, and how both contribute to the professionalisation of student teachers.

5. It is the first research to address EFL teacher education since the eradication of English language teaching in Libya.

6. The study aims to illuminate the situation in EFL teacher education and submits recommendations for further developments.

7. Methodological issues set the example for future research in education using the potential of interpretive-constructivist approaches through grounded theory to gain insight into educational phenomena.
8. This study is significant in providing an opportunity for educational researchers to use the principles of Grounded Theory, a departure from the traditional techniques that have dominated previous research.

9. Through its findings, this study could indicate the extent to which the communicative approach is feasible in Libya and the constraints involved.

Ideally, English teacher education begins with relevant pre-service preparation that ensures two kinds of linguistic expertise: knowledge about the target language and the ability to use it; as well as two kinds of pedagogical expertise: an understanding of the foreign language learning process and mastery of the many skills needed to activate the learning process effectively in any given group of students (Wallace, 1991).

For many reasons, especially the recent great expansion of public education in Libya, this ideal pre-service formula does not seem a reality for most Libyan English language teachers in training. Hence this study explores the different factors influencing EFL teacher training in this context.

However EFL teacher education assumes that students will integrate experiences provided in a different milieu. The university provides theories, methods and skills. Schools provide the classroom, curriculum and pupils; and the student teacher provides the individual effort.

Libyan teacher educators face an enormous practical need to address seemingly intractable educational problems and challenges. Prominent amongst these challenges is the transformation of education systems, as well as the concept of what EFL teacher education should involve.

Also problematic, is the perception that the education system is a key factor for social and economic regeneration of the country. These expectations necessitated re-
examination of the teacher education course at Al-Fateh University, particularly the powerful demands for practical relevance in education.

1.8 Overview of the study
The inclusion of so many elements recognises that education is a process where many factors interact in curious and often complex ways. The data from questionnaires and interviews focuses on understanding how different elements combine and interact.

This study is in two phases. Phase one is a set of questionnaires to student teachers, university tutors and classroom teachers. Phase 2 is a series of interviews, conducting semi-structured interviews with sub-samples of the questionnaires, and open-ended interviews with head teachers.

Chapter 1: This discusses the problem studied; the rationale; the research questions and associated assumptions and the purpose and significance of the study.

Chapter 2: This considers the context, including the philosophy of Libyan education, the history of English language teaching, the status of the English language in Libya, the structure of educational system, the factors affecting EFL teaching and learning, teacher education and learning and secondary school textbooks.

Chapter 3: This examines the theoretical background to EFL teaching methods focusing on how they relate to EFL teacher education. Focus is equally placed on different approaches to EFL teaching. Eight EFL teaching methods are considered in detail.

Chapter 4: Models of teacher education past and present. Different approaches to EFL teacher preparation. Role of culture in EFL teachers' training and some studies related to the EFL teacher education programme.
Chapter 5: Methodological issues and research design of the study including data collection methods, design, piloting, administration, and fieldwork. Data analysis.

Chapters 6: Findings of the study based on analysis of questionnaires and interviews. Findings of questionnaires and interviews are matched and crosschecked.

Chapter 7: The findings of the study, discussion of the results and conclusions.

Chapter 8: Implications and recommendations related to teacher education, educational research and curriculum development in the Libyan context. Suggestions for further research are advanced.

1.9 Conclusion to the chapter
This study aims to take an in-depth look at EFL teaching and learning in Libya in general, and EFL teacher education in particular, through the experiences of those who agreed to participate in this research. The timing of this study is critical as it coincides with developments planned for both EFL syllabus and textbook design in Libya, especially after the return of English language to schools following 9 years of eradication.
CHAPTER 2

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

2.1 Introduction
This chapter provides a current picture of Libya and the historical background to its educational development, especially of English language usage and EFL teacher education.

2.1.1 Location and population
Libya is the fourth largest country in Africa situated on the Mediterranean coast facing Italy. It includes much of the Sahara and shares borders with 6 countries. Strategically it is important because it provides an ancient inland trade route to central Africa, which has been in use for hundreds of years. The population is 5 million. (Web Site: www.LibyaOnLine.com/libya/index.html).

Obtaining Independence on December 24, 1951 had a profound impact on all aspects of Libyan life. Education was affected to a considerable degree, since this had never previously received any major attention from the occupying forces controlling Libya (Shebani, 1963).

2.2 A historical overview of education in Libya
The modern educational system dates from 1951 when the first law concerning primary education aimed to spread education among the population.

Throughout the Ottoman Empire rule, Italian occupation, and the Franco-British administration after World War II, formal education was limited to a few Quranic schools financed by the people and a small number of Turkish, and later Italian, schools in Tripoli. In the eastern regions a few schools followed the Egyptian curriculum (Shebani, 1963).
During the first phase of Arab rule, Islam became the religion of Libya, and Arabic its only spoken language. As illustrated by Alshaik (1972) during that period, education was primarily in 'Kuttab', a religious informal type of schooling where children learnt reading, writing and recitation from the Holy Qur'an. At elementary level, basic skills focused only on memorizing the Holy Qur'an. Meanwhile, at higher religious institutions, those who successfully memorized the Qur'an could further their education in morphology, logic and theology. Teachers required few specific qualifications.

The link between education and religion continued to be strong under Turkish rule.

"Religious institutions and their leaders have played important roles in the social, education, and political life of the country and its people. This role has a deep-rolled background, starting from the Ottoman occupation and continuing up to very recent times. The most notable and prolonged effects of religion have been on the leadership and institutions that regulate society. The Judicial System, and social and important political communities and advisory councils, for example, were dominated, by notable religious leaders." (El Fatahaly, 1980, p. 26)

The State sector was neglected and there was a feeling of inertia associated with cultural and scientific decline. Meanwhile, minor developments in Higher Education were noticed (e.g. establishing a military college in Tripoli, and modelling Libyan educational institutes on the reformed Al Azhar University of Egypt) but access to education continued to be restricted and unsystematic (El Fatahaly, 1977, p. 12). The Sanusi movement supplied the greatest cultural influence, giving rise to a number of Zawiyas (Places for Worship and Learning) from which many Libyan political leaders and religious scholars graduated (Ziadeh, 1958).

The relation between religion and education was discussed by Khalidi (1956) who indicated that the link had been weakened under Italian rule. School syllabi and curricula became subordinated to the dictates of the ruling colonisers. Italians were more interested in consolidating their control over the country than in providing for the welfare of the indigenous people. It was neither the aim nor the interest of the colonial administration to educate the Libyan people. (UNESCO, 1994, p.55)
Independence represents a turning point for Libyan education, which became a means of contributing towards the national output. Teacher training began for the first time when it became essential to raise the educational standards of all Libyans, not just because of the lack of technicians, professionals and administrators, but because less than 10% of adults had ever been to school (Shebani, 1963). There was considerable demand for technical and vocational training and adult education. The success of this was reflected in the rapid growth of school enrolment. By 1960, the enrolment for primary schools reached 60 to 70%. (Shebani, 1963)

2.3 Structure of the educational system

School education is a 12-year process consisting of kindergarten, primary, preparatory and secondary stages. See Fig (2.1).

Previously, it was confined to 6 years at primary level only. Since 1975 it has been extended to 9 years compulsory education for children from 6 to 15 years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Type of education</th>
<th>No. of years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>University, Higher and Intermediate Institutes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Secondary (age group 15-17)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(General and Technical)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In the final 2 years, students choose their specialization in sciences or arts and take the General Secondary Certificate Examination (GSCE) at the end of the terminal year.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Preparatory stage (12-14)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>(Primary stage (6-11)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Kindergarten (4-5)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. (2.1) Formal School System in Libya

Chapter 2 – Context of study

2.4 The nature and philosophy of education in Libya

The policy of the 1st September 1969 Revolution emphasized that education should be universally available to obliterate differences between classes, raising the general educational level of all citizens and ensuring national solidarity. Enormous efforts were made to increase compulsory education, to strengthen and diversify technical education, and to raise the level of higher education to keep pace with scientific and technological progress.

Ghafir (1987, p. 20) referred to the philosophy and objectives of education as they had been expressed on the 4th anniversary of the revolution:

"The philosophy of education in the Libyan Arab Republic crystallised after the September first revolution and the line and aim of the Ministry of Education were defined. The Ministry’s objective has been to prepare a generation believing in its Islamic religion as a code of ethics and conduct, and having pride in its Arab origin and heritage. At the same time it has sought to ensure equilibrium between graduates of education institutes and the country’s requirement of qualified manpower at every level of leadership."

The education system, deeply committed to the Faith of Islam and Arab unity, encouraged development and changes in education and training systems in harmony with the revolutionary principles of freedom, socialism and unity, while reflecting the rapid development of society, e.g. relinquishing some notions which restricted female education such as opposition to coeducation in university and advanced studies and the opening up of fields of study formerly considered unsuitable for women.

The Advisory Committee for Educational and Training Planning (ACETP), (International Bureau of Education, 1998) suggested goals to meet 21st century challenges as follows;

1. At basic education level, students should acquire 3 fundamental skills, reading, writing and arithmetic; and knowledge concerning cultural heritage, history, geography, capabilities and problems of Arabic Libyan society in particular and of
Arabic nations in general; they should learn love and loyalty for the homeland, be supplied with a suitable religious culture, build their physical and psychological health and wisely exploit their time.

2. At secondary level, the goals are to assist the development of religious and comprehensive moral philosophy to guide their behaviour and the ability for logical thinking, objective criticism, and the achievement of basic education standards.

3. Higher education goals are:
   (a) To train students to follow good religious and moral principles, believe in the Arabic nation’s world superiority and to acquire knowledge and a wide-ranging culture.
   (b) To discover and encourage creative, scientific and research capabilities of students and enable them to acquire the necessary skills.
   (c) To provide society’s need for an educated well-trained workforce in various fields of development.
   (d) To achieve scientific and cultural advancement through developing modern sciences and technologies.
   (e) To participate in strengthening Libya’s scientific, cultural and research relationships worldwide.
   (f) To serve Libyan society by participating in the restoration and renewal of its heritage, strengthening its Arabic and Islamic identity and achieving cultural, social, economic and military security and increased productivity.

2.4.1 Basic Education

The traditional processes of instruction included teachers providing information on a subject and learners having to listen and memorise.

UNESCO (1994, p.13) elaborated on this matter relating to various constraints such as:
   (a) Insufficient time devoted to each subject,
   (b) The high density of the curriculum and its over-loaded contents,
   (c) The concentration on rote learning in order to pass examinations and progress to a higher level, and
   (d) The lack of sufficient and efficient systems.
This traditional practice faithfully followed the principles of Freire’s (1993) “banking concept” of education, a situation quite remote from more progressive perspectives in education such as problem-solving, learner-centred education, for example. This “banking concept” applies to all levels of Libyan schools. The role of the teacher is to “deposit” in the “bank” (the student).

Throughout the history of the educational system in Libya, many labels have been used to characterise its philosophy. But the system is still quite remote from progressive learner-centred ideology. Shebani (1963) claimed that many of the shortcomings of the educational system led to its failure to bring about effective long-term reform through being highly centralised. The system is highly hierarchical with the MOE uppermost. The system defines and predetermines what is to be taught and how, the roles of teachers and learners and the intended outcomes. UNESCO (1994) noted that Libyan educational management suffers from a lack of competence, seriousness and continuity e.g. Head teachers are generally selected on the basis of their political commitment rather than pedagogical and managerial aptitudes.

The EFL classroom is no different from any other where the communication pattern is that of an active teacher and passive learners. Interaction between teachers and students is often described as superficial, and kept to a minimum even non-existent, because teachers feel that oversized classes and the concentrated content to be taught to students in a limited time admit of no other possibility. UNESCO (1994, p.13) refers to classrooms with 30 to 60 students. The number of classes increased from 24,647 in 1975 to 57,522 in 1993. Both teachers and head teachers are aware that this is one of the main barriers to effective educational achievement and express unease at the deterioration in their conditions of service as well as their social status.

Attention has always been paid to the development of course books but less is paid to the context and the policies underpinning them. UNESCO (1994, p.12) pointed out that education experts have written course books with only marginal inputs from teachers and supervisors. They are published locally without field-testing and printed in large quantities for free distribution throughout the country. They are also carefully shaped to
2.4.2 Higher Education

Royal Decree established the University of Libya on 15 December, 1955. In 1957 the Faculty of Science and that of Commerce and Economics were established followed in 1962 and 1966 respectively by the Faculty of Law and Agriculture. With the help of UNESCO, the College of Advanced Technology was established in 1961 and became the Faculty of Engineering and the Higher Teacher Training College became the Faculty of Education by removing the specialisation from the Faculty of Arts in Benghazi (Hefling, 1972).

The Faculty of Education in Tripoli:

This Faculty started as a Higher Teacher’s Training College in 1965 with the help of UNESCO aiming to upgrade the quality of teachers, to provide instruction for students, and summer refresher courses for teachers. A teacher-training programme is being introduced for graduates from other faculties.

Departments offer various specialisations such as the Language and Linguistics Department which includes Arabic, English and French. Social Science offers philosophy, history and geography. The Natural Science Department includes biology, chemistry, physics and mathematics. All students take education courses in theory, psychology, and methodology. Teaching practice begins in year 3. Students spend one day a week in schools for 4 weeks at the end of the year. The faculty members supervise all teaching practice. Teaching practice grades are determined in terms of the Faculty Supervisors, 30% given by (professional tutor), 50% by the academic tutor and 20% by class and head teacher. Those preparing to teach English or French spend the summer training in England or France. (Hefling, 1972).

The Faculty of Education includes 12 departments; the aims and requirements are stated as follows:

1. Preparing qualified teachers and tutors to teach in various fields at all levels of
Chapter 2 – Context of study

1. School education;

2. Providing qualified teams of tutors to fulfil general public needs in various educational aspects;

3. Providing educational and practical assistance to schools, colleges and teaching organisations linked to the department and strengthening relationships between educational institutions in Libya and elsewhere;

4. Conducting research to solve various educational problems, with particular attention to postgraduate studies, at home or abroad;

5. Raising and promoting public awareness, both educationally and intellectually. See Appendix (1).

Students admitted to the English programme, hold the General Secondary School Certificate.

The four-year course includes core and teaching courses such as fundamental Education, Arabic, developmental psychology etc. (see Appendices 2 and 3), specialising from Year 2 in teaching methods for their chosen academic fields. Teaching experience begins in the third and fourth year of study. Prior to teaching practice, students spend at least one class period during the session observing a class teacher in addition to practical classroom activities.

On completion of their studies, graduates are awarded a B.Ed. degree. Some gain admission to specialist courses in the teaching of one subject after graduation. Prior experience in teaching enables them to be highly qualified graduates of the Faculty. (Faculty of Education, University of Libya, 1993)

Postgraduate studies are organised on a part time basis in the Faculty leading to the M.Ed. degree, there is one-year seminar with a weekly 3 hours workload. Students then submit a thesis and defend it in the presence of a competent jury (Fenaish, 1981).

Teaching practice includes serial and block experience. The serial school experience runs parallel to and is closely integrated with college training. During block experience,
trainees spend an uninterrupted period of time in school.

For school experience, students are usually placed in schools situated near the university convenient for them and their supervisors. The schools have to have some experience in hosting student teachers during Teaching Practice. They are not obliged to accept students, but the Teaching Practice Committee invites their participation.

During teaching practice, students assume full teaching responsibility, teaching once a week for 8 to 12 weeks. (Serial Practice), and all practice teaching for the final fortnight (Block Teaching), students are trained in either preparatory or secondary schools. A guiding group includes supervisors from the university (one for subject matter, the other a professional supervisor). Students spend most of the practice period observing classes before attempting to teach for a short period.

2.5 Teaching of English in Libya

Suayah (1994) reported that the teaching of English as a school subject was introduced during the period of Franco-British administration, 1944-1951. Textbooks used an 850-word Basic English vocabulary and reading books employing the same vocabulary, and adopted a traditional, grammar-based approach, focusing on reading and writing. (*Basic way to English* by K.C. Ogden –mentioned in Suayeh (1994))


Since the introduction of English as a school subject there have been many developments and changes, the most significant being the Ministry’s abolition of English teaching in grades 7-9 in 1984, which delayed the start of English teaching until grade 10 (in the secondary phase) and its re-introduction for grades 7-9 in 1993, although with less time allocated than in the past (UNESCO, 1994).
UNESCO (1994) raised the important point that the eradication of English from secondary schools had left its mark on the English language curriculum in the secondary phase where Book 1 of 'English for Libya' was in use for grade 10, with Book 2 at grade 11 and Book 3 at grade 12. Also, university candidates and students in the Faculty of Languages had only 3 years' schooling in English like those entering the Faculty of Education to train as teachers of English.

In the early 1990s, there was great concern about teaching and learning English as a foreign language. Surging interest in this, coupled with the need to sustain the country's economic development, necessitated learning English. This frequently took place outside Libya’s formal educational system. The former “Oil Companies’ School” offered fee-paying afternoon English tuition, as did private schools for teaching English owned by individuals. However, the government was well aware of the important contribution made by the private sector, not least because it relieved the pressure on the government to provide the services involved (UNESCO, 1994).

With the 1993 reintroduction of English language into secondary schools, Suayeh (1994) pointed out that the syllabuses of English teaching in secondary and preparatory schools stressed the following objectives:

1. To train students to a point where they can understand ordinary, non-specialised English, as it is spoken by the average educated native speaker, up to the general level of vocabulary taught; where they can speak the language sufficiently well to be understood by the same average listener; and where they can read, and simultaneously comprehend English as written for foreign students at the secondary stage.

2. To utilise Libyan and Arab backgrounds as far as possible to facilitate the linguistic objectives.

3. To acquaint students with contemporary English usage and the literature which has vitalised the English language.

4. To ensure that English studies at school are a source of interest, pleasure, and pride to the students. (Suayeh, 1994, p.6).
These objectives indicate that, ideally, classroom speech would be entirely in English. However, Suayeh (1994) notes that most existing classroom interaction in Libyan schools can be characterised as follows:

1. It reveals much misuse by some teachers and many students. Most students are inaccurate in conveying meaning.
2. It displays inaccuracy in pronunciation, intonation, stress, etc.
3. Many teachers still use Arabic to convey meaning.
4. Many students do not understand what their teachers say to them in English, nor can they make themselves understood by an educated native speaker of English. (Suayeh, 1994)

A critical examination of the curriculum shows that the above objectives are unclear and not specific in nature, e.g. while the objectives stressed are those required to acquaint the student with contemporary English usage, their native language (Arabic) is frequently used.

These views were also identified by UNESCO Mission (1994, p.22), which reported that the syllabus consisted of a list of grammatical structures illustrated with sample sentences. It did not provide:

1. Specific objectives for each skill,
2. Mention of the ideas and functions that the grammatical structures imply,
3. Statements about vocabulary load and content,
4. Descriptions of situational and cultural context,
5. Guidance on evaluation and testing.

The researcher's view is that in the Libyan case it might be inferred from the nationwide interest in TEFL that the development of foreign language teaching is due to the insecure EFL educational history.

English was taught by virtue of speaking the language. Fenaish (1981). Such influence is reported in a study by Zughoul, (1987) of the status of English departments in some
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Arab countries where he found the impact of British colonialism was clear in the curricula. Early English departments were founded using structures similar to those in Britain, i.e. objectives, standards and achievement. Thus, the emphasis came to be on the literature component rather than the students’ and communities’ needs, motives and aspirations. Zughoul, (1987) concluded that most of the students of English at Yarmouk University-Jordan were not proficient enough to undertake academic work. Students reached University level lacking the solid background and study skills necessary to learn a foreign language.

Prior to the removal of English from the curriculum, textbooks used at all secondary and primary levels were entitled “English for Libya” (Gusbi, 1966, 1984) and were supplied free by the Ministry of Education. These textbooks were outdated, and their pattern was one of national uniformity.

During the reintroduction of English in 1993, a new series (English 1,2,3, by T.T. Tarhuni, R. Kara and M. Fenaish, 1993) aimed to replace Further English for Libya by Gusbi and John (1974-84). These books have been rejected by the Ministry and substituted by a new series 'English for Libya 1999-2000' developed by English native speakers. In this matter the UNESCO Mission (1994) raised the point that English language courses lack the individualisation of EFL learning which is reflected in the fact that a large proportion of students, by definition, cannot keep up with a modest pace designed for those of average ability and soon fall far behind, learning only to hate the subject. UNESCO (1994, p.24) identified that:

“In countries, such as all those in the Arab world, where the study of a foreign language is compulsory to the end of secondary schooling but there is no individualisation of learning, the result may be that even the majority of school leavers have practically no working knowledge of the language after 6 or more years of study. We believe that this is the greatest cause of failure in language learning, because it ensures majority failure even where the teachers, courses and other resources are adequate. Where these other elements are unsatisfactory too, there is no hope.”

On teaching resources, UNESCO (1994, p.24) reported that, although teaching methods used in schools are mainly audio lingual, there is no use of tape recorders and no testing of oral skills. There are no language laboratories or special English teaching rooms.
A critical view of the new text books shows that these books emphasise dialogues in everyday topics, oral practice, pronunciation drills to master the English sound system at primary level, reading aloud, reading comprehension and writing mechanics. The course book adopts the progressive principles of the communicative approach to language teaching and learning.

New books have been developed to replace the EFL school books with ones designed by native target language authors, these were the 'English for Libya' series developed by English authors, including Alan and Fiona Tankard, D’Arcy Adrian-Vallance, Mike Macfarlane, Jenny Quintana, etc. and published by Garnet Education (1999/2000). Complying with the philosophy adopted by the Ministry of Education in Libya, the new course books adopt the communicative approach to language teaching and learning and language skill integration as a philosophy. Units are organised around themes developed in terms of vocabulary, grammar and communicative functions. For example, a unit having the theme of ‘emergencies’ and ‘emergency services’ uses grammatical points, such as the past continuous and the past simple in two-clause statements and the communicative function used is ‘reporting emergencies’. Unlike previous course books, this series adopts the new approach to teaching grammar. The main concern is represented in exposing pupils/students to the ways in which language is used in everyday situations. The integration amongst and equal attention to language learning modes (i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing) is one of the main foci of the new series. Balance is thus achieved between the receptive and productive modes of language. The content on which the units of the course book are based is meant to be as authentic as possible.

In this respect, it should be noted that this new series represents an innovation that the EFL teaching and learning context needs to adopt. This study therefore explores the following questions:

(1) Is the EFL teacher education preparing student teachers to address this challenge?

(2) Is the learning experience EFL student teachers undergo able to equip them
with the tools and methods to meet the challenge represented by this innovation?

(3) Does the EFL teacher education programme have this potential?

2.6 EFL Teacher Education

Looking at the history of EFL teacher education in Libya, it is found to have been the responsibility of the Teachers Training College since its establishment in 1965 in Tripoli, the capital. This Faculty is the main source of EFL teacher’s preparation in Libya and its programme is followed literally by other institutions in the country.

EFL teachers are drawn from two main sources. The first is the Faculty of Languages and the Faculty of Education in Al-Fateh University (Suayeh, 1994). This system follows the complementary and sequential pattern; teachers are prepared in the Faculties of Education affiliated to the university. The academic and the pedagogic professional streams are parallel to each other. Within the sequential system, a shortage of qualified, competent EFL teachers came to light. The gap between demand and supply forced education authorities to look for other sources of teachers, especially graduates of other University departments. Graduates of the English Department in the Faculties of Arts and Languages were the targets. These candidates had not originally intended to be teachers (Shebani, 1963).

The second is represented in the Higher Institutes for EFL secondary school teachers. The Faculty of Languages’ prime aim is to prepare specialist teachers who have a good command of linguistic skills (Suayeh, 1994). No courses on methods of teaching or educational psychology are provided, students engage in neither teaching practice nor observation visits, as do their counterparts in the Faculty of Education. The initial training of teachers of English does not form one of the main objectives of the Faculty of Languages. It is the aim of the Faculty of Education to prepare specialists for teaching EFL in secondary schools. The Higher Institutes prepare EFL teachers for lower secondary (preparatory) schools.

The only differences between the programme offered by the Faculty of Education and
that offered by the Faculty of Languages are that the EFL department within the Faculty
of Education offers teaching practice and some general courses related to teacher
education. In this case, students study educational modules (in Arabic) in parallel with
the English modules.

However, the shortage of teachers of English has given graduates of the Faculty of
Languages an opportunity to occupy teaching posts. Although attempts have been made
to provide these graduates with some background in teaching methodology, for example
through remedial courses, most graduates currently start work at preparatory schools
immediately on completion of their studies “without teaching practice”. (UNESCO
1994, p. 20)

Currently the syllabus in the Al-Fateh University EFL department focuses on aspects
such as students’ knowledge of phonetics and linguistic theory. Less emphasis is placed
on applied linguistics in the first two years (see Appendix (3)).

The syllabus of the English department includes three categories of courses as follows:

1. **Core Teaching Courses**
   - Fundamentals of education
   - Introduction to psychology
   - Curricula
   - Developmental psychology
   - Teaching methods
   - Technology and techniques of education
   - Assessment and evaluation
   - Psychology: well-being in psychology
   - Management in education
   - Teaching training

2. **Core Intellectual Courses**
   - Arabic language and literature
   - Islamic studies
   - General history of the Arabs
   - Arabic language and literature
   - Politics
3. Specialisation Courses

- Language acquisition
- Grammar
- Conversation
- Composition
- Modern foreign language
- Translation
- Phonetics
- Civilisation
- Language lab
- Literature (drama, novel, poetry)
- Creative writing
- Oral practice
- Morphology
- Applied language science
- Theoretical language science
- Literary criticism
- Project
- Sociolinguistics
- Comparative analysis

The objectives, purposes, and expected level of English fluency of the trainee teachers are stated in the outline syllabuses of courses in the teacher training division prepared by the University of Libya, Department of English-Faculty of Education (1993). These are as follows:¹

By the end of the first year, candidates should:

1) Have accurate productive control over the basic structures taught in preparatory and secondary schools, though not necessarily a high level of fluency.

2) Be able to write legibly and confidently.

3) Be aware of the sentence as a semantic, syntactic and orthographic unit and be able to produce short connected passages in written English, properly structured in terms of sentence units.

4) Be aware of the punctuation and layout required in writing connected passages.

5) Be capable of reading with a fair degree of fluency a simplified reader within a vocabulary range of 1,000 words.

6) Be able to consult and derive information from a monolingual dictionary.

¹ Translated from Arabic
In the second year, the main goal is acquisition of oral command over the basic sentence structures incorporated into the first-year program. Among the objectives of the third and fourth years are to:

1. Acquaint students with the general principles and practice of teaching English as a foreign language.
2. Acquaint students with major linguistic theories and their applications to foreign language teaching.
3. Teach the need for lesson preparation and selection of teaching aids.

During the fourth year, students begin teaching practice in schools.

It is evident that the objectives stated above lack precision and fail to make clear the degree of English proficiency student teachers are expected to achieve.

Although, according to the objectives stated by the English department (1993), the primary aim of the language course is to foster confidence and develop the skills required to address a group of people, the program prescribed is such that, by the end of the fourth year, candidates would have the ability to teach the secondary school syllabus. But the majority of students in the language programs, particularly in the first and second years, do not acquire sufficient command of English in all four basic language skills.

Since the eradication of English language from the basic school curriculum, initial teacher education remains a controversial issue at Al-Fateh University. As reported by UNESCO (1994, p. 26), the inadequacy of pre-service training courses has made many teachers fail to grasp the knowledge and skills to teach efficiently. Such a failure can also be ascribed to their insufficient practical ability to speak and read the language and their lack of acquaintance with the vocabulary and structures needed for their academic study, together with the insufficient number of competent instructors at pre-service training colleges and institutes. As a result UNESCO (1994) recommended that:

1. Students require two years of strengthening their language of instruction before they start the degree course.
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2. The balance between English and Education in University teacher training courses should be changed to 80:20.

3. Conducting practical seminars on new approaches to language teaching for staff in the University English Department.

4. That those in charge of English teacher training be sent on suitable vacation refresher courses outside Libya.

A critical examination of the curriculum shows imbalances, false assumptions and lack of direction. One aspect of preparation has been mastering the conversational skills; however, this is the weakest element of the curriculum. Since learning to speak is acquired through repeating models and imitating the teacher as well as memorisation of basic sentences in order to help students to build their confidence and gain ability to speak a foreign language, it is unrealistic to expect any meaningful teaching or learning to take place in this aspect. Teachers have inadequate practice in how to speak the foreign language e.g. through communication and practising with a native speaker. EFL teachers' professional preparation to teach in secondary schools is questionable and needs analysis, as it is unrelated to the realities of the classroom situation (Salama, 2002). This could be related to the rapid changes in the secondary school syllabus during the last decade with no systematic follow-up or field testing which contributes greatly to the problem of EFL learning and teaching (UNESCO 1994, p.14). Taken together these conflicting issues should be the focus of this research.

2.6.1 Teacher training course

At the lower secondary level, like other sectors of the Libyan education system, teacher training faces a period of major change. Most schoolteachers are trained in teacher training institutes, which accept students after Grade 9 (the end of the basic education phase). On completion of their studies, graduates are awarded a special degree for teaching lower secondary schools. UNESCO's (1994) report highlighted that the Ministry of Education decided to replace these institutes with higher teacher training colleges. Entry to the institutes is confined to secondary stage graduates. The new colleges offer 3-year courses whose graduates teach English for grades 5 to 9.
At university level, the objectives of the teacher training program have been stated in the Outline Syllabus for the Teacher Training Division prepared by Al-Fateh University 1993. It is obvious that these objectives not only lacked precision in specifying explicitly the activities and processes necessary for teaching, but also failed to provide the professional preparation that EFL teachers need in their profession. UNESCO’s (1994) report ascribed the inadequacy of EFL teacher training courses to the following:

1. The practical aspects of knowledge were still neglected.
2. Self-activity, initiative and self-teaching were not incorporated into the curriculum.
3. Although the number of hours allocated for teaching practice was reasonably adequate, such practice has not yet received appropriate attention.
4. The conflicting demands of academic education and pedagogical training were a source of confusion and frustration for the students.

UNESCO’s Mission to Libya considered that the establishment of a General Diploma in Education was an important development. The Diploma is a one-year course mainly concerned with the professional preparation of teachers.

Recently, with the reintroduction of EFL to the secondary schools curriculum, the Government has expressed genuine concerns over the fact that EFL education in Libya is in need of serious study and reform; educators in Libya have also recognised the problems and the government now has come to regard the development of education as strategically important (UNESC 1994, p.13).

2.7 Summary
This chapter examines the circumstances, which led to conducting the research or on ‘EFL Teacher Training at Al-Fateh University in Tripoli’. The circumstances considered are as follows:

The location of Libya as a North African country on the Mediterranean coast facing Italy, led to its occupation by foreign troops. These occupiers greatly neglected the Libyan educational system from the age of 5 upwards.
The history of the education system therefore had to be started afresh, for example, religious studies at 'Kuttab' was followed by a spread of 'Zawiyas' – places for worship and learning - by the Sanusi movement. Both the Kuttab and Zawiyas were where the most widespread basic education was taught.

In 1956 – 57, the first University was established with a Science College in Tripoli and Liberal Arts and Education in Benghazi.

The role of the two University Colleges for Science and Education has been to train graduate teachers and supply them to Libyan schools for all subjects including English as a Foreign Language (EFL).

Considering EFL in particular, it should be noticed that it was not as easy as some other subjects for various reasons. It was started in 1950-51 with the first textbook being 'The Basic Way to English'.

In 1984, the English language in preparatory schools was abolished for 9 years and reintroduced again in 1993, creating a gap which shows today as a negative effect. Currently, Libya is trying to raise the standard of teaching EFL, which is proving to be a mammoth task and quite complicated for two reasons;
(a) The historical background of teaching the subject, which has been discussed above. 
(b) New developments in the field of language teaching and learning and its theories.

Additionally, there was an essential need for English language to be taught in order to assist in communication between Libya and the rest of the world. The need to raise the standards of the student teachers in Al-Fateh University has now become urgent and is the core of this research.

UNESCO has monitored the situation very closely and recommended many important matters, which need investigation.
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There is no doubt that the almost 50 years since the first University College for Education was established and the graduation of the first intake of students as EFL teachers has seen success in some tasks, however, today’s new task is to raise the standards of EFL student teachers. That is the aim of this research.

2.8 Conclusion

Taking into account all the points discussed, the researcher concludes that the historical educational background of EFL teaching in Libyan schools and universities is very important and needs to be considered as a primary factor when conducting this research in order to raise standards.
CHAPTER 3

PERSPECTIVES ON TEACHING APPROACHES TO ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

3.0 Introduction

This chapter provides a literature review and discusses theories and approaches to language teaching. The historical and conceptual framework aims to assist in understanding, and interpreting the study findings, especially those related to EFL learning and teaching which reflect the views of respondents towards their experience in Libya. The theoretical background will enhance and prepare the ground for Libyan researchers with regard to different perspectives on language teaching and learning. A discussion of various teaching approaches and their implications for language teaching and learning can therefore give us insight into the kind of education EFL teachers should receive.

Language teaching approaches

Eight different approaches to language teaching and learning are the focus of this chapter, Grammar Translation, Direct, Audiolingual Methods, The Silent Way, Total Physical Response, Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia, and The Communicative Approach. Discussion in this chapter addresses the premises of these perspectives, and their implications for EFL teaching and learning within Libya.

3.1 Approaches to language teaching methods

Three fundamental views of language teaching identified by Richards and Rogers (1986) are: traditional structural, functional and interactional views.
The traditional structural view, according to Richards and Rogers (ibid), involves the mastery of elements defined in terms of phonological, grammatical and lexical items. The Audiolingual Method embodies this view in addition to contemporary methods, such as:
(a) Total Physical Response
(b) The Silent Way

The functional view regards language as a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning. It emphasizes semantic and communicative dimensions rather than grammatical characteristics and teaching contents are organised by categories of meaning and function rather than by elements of structure and grammar (Richard and Rogers 1986). The communicative movement in language teaching as well as the English for Special Purposes (ESP) movement subscribes to this view. (Robinson, 1980 in Richards and Rogers ibid).

The interactional view sees language as a vehicle for the realisation of interpersonal relations and for the creation and maintenance of social relations and transactions between individuals. The inquiry approach draws on the development of interactional approaches that include analysis of interaction and conversation.

These models may promote a particular teaching approach such as the Audiolingual method, but they need to be supported by theories of language learning (Richard and Rogers, 1986). They argue that although specific theories of language may provide the basis for a particular teaching method, others may derive from the theories of language learning. The process-oriented theories refer to the psycholinguistic and cognitive process, habit formation, induction, and generalisation. Condition-oriented theories emphasise the nature of the human and physical context in which language takes place.

An example of both the process and the condition dimensions of learning is Krashen's monitor theory (1981). At the level of process, Krashen (ibid) distinguishes between acquisition which refers to the natural assimilation of language rules through using the language for communication and learning which refers to the formal study of language.
rules in a conscious process (Krashen, 1982).

Krashen's Monitor Theory is based on the assumption that there is a 'monitor' that refers to the conscious grammatical knowledge about a language through formal instruction, which is called upon for checking the utterances produced through the acquired system. Krashen (ibid) describes these systems as the "input" the learner receives, which should be comprehensible, slightly above the learner's level of competence and sufficient. It should be experienced in a relaxed atmosphere.

The Natural Approach derived from Terrell's experience of teaching (Terrell, 1982). Learners internalise the foreign language system without the help of introduction, developing knowledge and skills through exposure to them, which is approached from a global perspective. They progress from their own simplified system to the level where it corresponds to that used by native speakers.

This approach is supported by Krashen's Theory of Language Acquisition (1982), which distinguishes between acquisition and learning, and emphasises how second language learning must mirror the child's acquisition of its native language. Children do not consciously set out to learn language; they acquire it through contact with adults employing "roughly tuned" language, simplified to match the child's understanding.

This theory emphasises emotional readiness for learning, paying attention to what learners hear before they produce language. Students must be given large quantities of comprehensible input, at a slightly higher level than the language they actually use. They then acquire language without making a conscious effort to do so. In conscious learning, students receive finely tuned input, which is matched to their own level. Such language is not acquired but it can be used to monitor, check and repair acquired language (Krashen, 1982). In its essence, conscious learning does not directly help acquisition but can prove useful in highly restricted circumstances. The theory emphasises the concept that language that is acquired lasts longer than that which is learned.
Both Terrell (1986) and Krashen (ibid) raise the point that language learning is based on formal and informal approaches where the second language learners discover that there is a built-in system in the syllabus guided by their natural processing mechanisms to produce learning with some grammatical forms being acquired before others. Krashen’s Theory justifies learners’ error as a healthy phenomenon in natural language acquisition, while errors are corrected immediately according to the grammar translation method (Freeman, 2000).

For natural learning to occur in the classroom, teachers need to create situations that facilitate both productive and receptive language use, providing exposure to comprehensible language along with opportunities to experience the new language and internalise its system through natural processing mechanisms. Such interaction also generates a positive feeling towards language needs, which facilitates learning.

In the case of Libya, the EFL language teaching literature (Salama, 2002), UNESCO (1994) and Suayeh (1994) indicated that EFL natural learning has no place within Libyan classrooms. Therefore the focus of this research is to investigate such issues.

However, the Natural Approach (Terrell, 1982), derived from a learning theory, emphasises both process and conditions in which the learning takes place. The Silent and Counselling methods of language teaching address primarily the conditions in which the learning take place. Curran (1972) believes that a secure atmosphere for learning is crucial, whilst Gattegno’s (1976) Silent Way likewise is built around the theory of conditions necessary for successful learning.

Although Asher’s Total Physical Response (1977) method derives from a learning theory rather than of the nature of language, it appears to address both learning process and condition. It is founded on the belief that child language learning is based on motor activity, on coordinating language with action, and that this should form the basis of adult foreign language teaching.
Ellis (1997) raised an important point that learners need to acquire the rules of language learning, which may be generalised to the learning of other languages. Ellis (ibid.) discusses the strong link between the practical knowledge of the language and the role of input, including formal and informal instruction in the acquisition of a second language, concluding that both are very important in teaching English as a foreign language.

What these principles tell us is that theories may or may not lead to a single method. The outcome of blending the structural approach (linguistic) and behaviourism (learning theory) is the Audiolingual method. In the researcher's opinion, whether these principles lead to a method or not, the aim of this overview is to support teachers in developing their own teaching procedures, informed by a particular view of learning. They might also be used as a prop when revising, varying and modifying/learning procedures in the light of the learner's performance and reactions to instructional practice.

3.2 Grammar Translation Method:
The characteristics of the Grammar Translation Method discussed by Harmer (1998) are that the fundamental purpose of learning a foreign language is to be able to read the literature in it, while spoken language is not as important as literacy. The cultural aspects are viewed as consisting of its literature and fine arts (Harmer, 1998).

Translation of each language to the other is the central concern of the Grammar Translation method. According to this view, students are considered successful if they are able to translate from one language into another.

Freeman (2000) raised an important point that studying a foreign language provides students with good mental experience, which helps in developing their minds because they are required to study and memorize grammatical paradigms such as verb conjugations (e.g. drink-drank-drunk). Within this situation, the teacher and student
interaction is kept to a minimum. Thus, while reading and writing are among the primary skills students acquire, much less attention has been given to speaking and listening skills.

One very important aspect of this approach should be emphasized. That is, techniques that have been implemented by the Grammar Translation method are reflected in error correction (Richards and Rogers, 1986). If students make errors or do not know the answer the teacher has to give them the correct answer immediately.

The decoding process of a literary passage is another aspect considered in this approach. Freeman (2000) illustrated the characteristics of the Grammar Translation method elaborating on Richards and Rogers (1986) and raised an important point that the reading passage could be selected from the target language literature designed to include particular grammar rules and vocabulary while the decoding takes either written, or spoken forms or both. Reading and comprehending skills are taught to provide mental exercise in order to develop the students’ minds. These skills take the form of answering questions based on their understanding of a passage read. Students exercise their minds either through picking up answers contained within the reading passage or making inferences for answers contained in it, or to relate the passage to their experiences.

Other activities taught using the Grammar Translation method include:

(a) Antonyms/synonyms
(b) Cognates
(c) Deductive application or rule
(d) Filling the blanks
(e) Memorisation,

Using words in sentences and composition can be based on using the reading passage, grammatical rules and, since it is mostly used in the classroom, the students’ native language (Freeman, 2000).
Richards and Rogers (1986) and Freeman (2000) all mention that the role of the teacher in the Grammar Translation Method is similar to that of a very traditional, teacher-centred approach where the teacher is the authority in the classroom. Students have to do what he/she says so they can learn what he/she knows.

Reviewing the literature of EFL teaching in Libyan classrooms, the researcher sees that this approach has been implemented since the introduction of English Language as a school subject in 1944-45. The literature also revealed that students native language is mostly used in the classroom, memorisation is maximised and the approach for language teaching is teacher-centred, where teachers are the main source of knowledge within the Libyan context (UNESCO, 1994). (For more details see chapter 2).

3.3 The Direct Method:
This approach to language teaching is based on conveying the meaning in the target language through the use of demonstration and visual aids. An explicit grammar rule has never been given but the students should figure out the generalisation of the rule (Freeman, 2000).

Many writers including Pachler et al (1997), Richards and Rogers (1986) and Freeman (2000) have come to the same conclusion that language teaching is based on developing reading skills through practice with speaking, and should be developed from the beginning along with the writing skills and pronunciation. Students study the culture of the people who speak the target language and the history and geography of the country where it is spoken. Culture, according to the direct method, consists of different cultural attitudes rather than just fine arts (Freeman, 2000).

The EFL teacher’s role has been discussed by Freeman (2000) where she described the teacher using the direct method as a ‘demonstrator’ and not a ‘translator’. To do this, the
teacher should help the students to understand the meaning of the language through the use of pictures, never translating into students’ native language in the classroom. Students are encouraged to speak in the target language and communicate as if in real situations, when shopping, going to the bank etc. Students are also encouraged to think in the target language and practice vocabulary rationally by using new words in sentences rather than memorizing word lists. Grammar is taught through induction by presenting examples and deriving rules or generalisations from the examples because an explicit grammar rule is never given.

Freeman (ibid) elaborated on Richards and Rogers (1986) and discussed that the direct method is based on emphasising vocabulary rather than grammar. Although students are encouraged to work at developing their four skills from the start, oral communication is seen as important and basic. Interactions between students and teachers are encouraged as well as conversation with each other. Freeman (ibid) raised an important point that in the direct method students are evaluated by asking them to use both oral and written skills, students might be interviewed or have to write about something already studied.

Freeman (2000), offered suggestions to teachers enlightening their methods by activities such as reading aloud, question and answer, encouraging students to self correct, conversation practice, fill-in-the-blank exercises, dictation, map drawing and paragraph writing using pictures and gestures to make the meaning of a section clear. A questioning approach is used to practice new words and the grammatical structures.

The researcher is of the opinion that making the literature accessible to EFL teachers and teacher educators is essential to provide them with updated methods in this field e.g. how to provide activities or correct errors to develop their way of teaching. Data provided for this study will be discussed in the light of such literature.
3.4 Audiolingual Method:

According to recent research, the Audio-lingual Theory of language learning based on the behaviourist views is that the description of mental events are merely speculative and observable behaviour as the only reliable basis for theory building (Roth 1990, p.271-272). Mergel (2001), however, sees the behaviourist approach as being built on Pavlov, Watson, Thorndike and Skinner's stimulus and response theory thus totally ignoring the possibility of thought processes occurring in the mind. Richards and Rogers (1986, p.50) argue that teachers are described as 'active agents' in setting goals and providing reinforcements, learners are seen as passive recipients.

Language is seen as a kind of behaviour to be taught, tasks are given in small sequential steps. Language learning is most successful if the task is broken down into a number of stimulus-response links, which could be systematically practiced and mastered one at a time. Linguists normally describe language beginning with the phonological level and ending with the sentence level. This was also assumed to be the appropriate sequence for learning (Ellis, 1985; Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

Language learning is seen as the acquisition of a set of appropriate, positively reinforced-mechanical habits. Thus, it is equal to learning a set of verbal behaviour controlled by its consequences, which may be rewarded to strengthen the behaviour or punished, to weaken and eventually extinguish it (Brown, 1987, p.17-18).

In language teaching, audiolingualism gives us a clear demonstration of behaviourist principles, i.e. learning is determined by external stimuli. Correct speech habits are established by means of pattern drilling, repetition, and reinforcement by immediate correction of error and praise of success (Roberts, 1998).

Richards and Rodgers (1986, p51) indicate that one of the influences of behaviourism is the emergence of a number of learning principles, which became the psychological foundations of audiolingualism and shaped its methodological practices, as follows:
a) Foreign language learning is basically a mechanical process of habit formation;
b) Analogy (generalisation and discrimination) provides a better foundation for foreign
language learning than analysis. Drills can enable learners to form correct analogies;
c) Language is primarily speech not writing. Skills are learned more effectively when
speech is presented before writing;
d) Teaching a language involves teaching aspects of the cultural system of the people
who speak it;
e) Speaking and listening are the most basic language skills;
f) Each language has its own unique structure and rule system.

The role of the teacher is to use every possible means in order to develop learners’ good
language habits, which are based mainly on pattern drills, memorisation of dialogues or
choral repetition of structural patterns. The teacher is the active agent because of his/her
responsibility for developing the good habits and eradicating or weakening the
inappropriate ones, whereas the learner is the inert and passive recipient. The teacher
provides immediate feedback to encourage correct responses and discourage the incorrect
ones in order to lessen the likelihood of their being repeated. Audiolingualism is a
teacher-dominated method. The teacher’s role is represented in modelling the target
language, controlling the direction and pace of learning, and assessing the learner’s
performance. Through using a variety of drills and tasks, he/she can seize students’
attention. The active verbal interaction between the teacher and the learners leads to the
learning of language. Success and failure in language learning depends upon the teacher’s
proper or improper application of the method and the learner’s memorisation or forgetting
of the essential patterns and structures, with no blame resulting from failure (Richards
and Rodgers, 1986, p56).

Brooks (1964, p143) identifies in Richards and Rodgers (1986, p56-57) a set of teachers’
roles in the TL classroom as follows:
a) Introducing, sustaining, and harmonising the learning of the four skills in this order:
hearing, speaking, reading and writing;
b) Modelling the various types of language behaviour for the student;
c) Teaching spoken language in dialogue form;
d) Directing choral response;
e) Teaching use of structure through pattern practice;
f) Showing how words relate to meaning in the foreign language;
g) Rewarding trials by the student as a way to reinforce them;
h) Dictating the rules according to which the language class is to be conducted.

From the syllabus viewpoint, audiolingualism is a linguistic or structural approach to language teaching (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). The linguistic syllabus is arranged according to the order of presentation of its components of phonology, morphology, and syntax. Following this, language skills are taught in the order of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Orally presented language has priority over written presentations. In this sense, students are taught to read and write what they have learned orally through listening and speaking patterns. Classroom practices are an amalgam of dialogues and pattern drills. Books and other printed materials provide the texts of dialogues and cues needed for drills and exercises.

However, the concept of behaviourism has been criticised in three respects. First, it denies the learners' the opportunity to think or initiate. The learner's role is to give the response once a stimulus is received or manifested in an observed behaviour without reference to the mental processes that generated the actions or the observed behaviours. It also emphasised the development of oral skills only. Secondly, habit formation simply does not happen at the fast rate expected leading to students simply repeating the drills without understanding what is said and without attending to the meaning of the sentence or to the new rules it contains. Thirdly, lack of authentic language input was another criticism (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). However, in spite of these shortcomings, a structural or audiolingual approach has become dominant in language teaching around the world (Williams and Burden, 1997).
In the 1960s, the Audiolingual method became the most widespread method for the teaching of English as a second or foreign language (Richards and Rogers 1968). But criticisms of audiolingualism have emerged, regarding learning and teaching. For example, students were unable to transfer their vocabulary acquired through audiolingualism into real communication outside the classroom.

The above criticisms paved the way for psychologists and language acquisition researchers who moved on to new, more complex theories of learning more concerned with creativity (Lightbown and Spada, 1993). They promote the idea that mental models must play a key role in controlling behaviour. Chomsky (1959) stresses the role of central control in the use of language and the role of the innate structural properties of the human brain in its acquisition. He argues that the attempt to apply technical terms like 'reinforcement' or 'operant response' to the question of language in the real world was little more than a meaningless ritual.

The decline of Audiolingualism arrived when Chomsky rejected the structuralist approaches to language teaching as well as the behaviourist theory of language learning. Chomsky (ibid) proposes an alternative theory based on his theory of cognitive code learning. The cognitive code refers to any conscious attempt to organise materials around a grammatical syllabus while allowing for meaningful practice and use of language (Freeman 2000).

In the 1970s, the field of language teaching and learning experienced a period of experimentation, innovation and confusion during which some new methods were developed in linguistic and second language acquisition theory such as Total Physical Response, the Silent Way and Counselling-Learning. Meanwhile the Natural and Communicative Approaches are generally accepted as contemporary theories of language and second language acquisition.
3.5 The Humanistic Approach

Emphasis is given to the inner world of the learner, the importance of thoughts, feelings and emotions, rather than focusing on cognitive skills which Richard and Rogers (1982) called the 'interactional view' in Stevick (1990, p. 27)).

3.5.1 Brief history of development

Rivers (1981, p. 23) discussed the humanistic approach of progressive education identifying individual learners and their personality against a deterministic behaviourist emphasis. Students are encouraged to talk about themselves, to be open with others, and to express their feelings.

Stevick (1990, p23) argues that humanistic education should focus on how students feel about themselves, identifying 5 major components: feelings, social relations, responsibility, intellect and self-actualisation. Its concern is educating the whole person – intellect and emotions – encouraging the uniqueness and potential of each individual and counteracting anxiety in the classroom.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) also cite Moskowitz (1978) ".., humanistic techniques engage the whole person, including the emotions and feelings as well as linguistic knowledge and behavioural skills" (p.114). Humanistic learning assumes that affective aspects of language learning are as important as the cognitive aspects and the learner should be treated as a 'whole person' (Stevick, 1980). Rogers (1982) felt that human beings have an in-built capacity to adapt and grow in the direction that enriches their existence.

Rogers (1982) discusses the prominent methods built on this approach such as the Silent Way, Counselling, Total Physical Response and Suggestopedia. He also emphasised the role of the student-teacher relationship in making the learning process exciting and meaningful.
Chapter 3 - Perspectives on teaching approaches of EFL.

Humanistic methods such as Asher’s TPR, Curran’s CLL and Gattegno’s SW exhibit these principles. The Suggestopedia method also shows humanistic alignments. Common principles include:

a) Development of human values;

b) Each person is unique and whole;

c) Growth in self awareness and understanding of others;

d) Sensitivity to feelings and emotions;

e) Active student involvement in learning.

In such methodologies and techniques, the experience of the students counts and the development of their personality and the encouragement of positive feelings are as important as their learning of a foreign language (Harmer, 1998). These methods play an important role in the Humanistic Approach.

3.5.2 Humanistic Methods

3.5.2.1. The Silent Way (SW) – Gattegno, 1976

The main characteristic of the ‘Silent Way’ is that learners are expected to be independent, autonomous and responsible for their own learning. As far as possible, teachers are silent and learners are encouraged to produce a maximal amount of language. Gattegno’s method focuses on pronunciation, structured conceptually around the use of coloured sticks, known as Cuisenaire rods, and the use of a colour chart for coding sounds with specific symbols. Students match sounds to symbols as the teacher points. After a structure is introduced and understood the teacher’s responsibility is to create situations in which students can practice the structure by using the rods (Stevick, 1990).

3.5.2.2 Total Physical Response (TPR) – Asher, 1977

Asher’s TPR approach saw second language learning as parallel to a child’s first language acquisition, and linked to Piaget’s theory of memory derived from the belief that childhood language acquisition co-ordinates language with action (Williams and Burden,
1997). He emphasised developing comprehension skills before productive skills and providing effective factors to minimise stress.

3.5.2.3 Community Language Learning (CLL)
Charles A. Curran (1972) focused on classroom atmosphere and learner security, describing the role of the teacher as that of a counsellor with learners as clients. The learner presents a message in the native language, which is translated into the target language by the teacher and, in the next lesson, the learner use the target language to communicate to other learners – a technique known as alternation.

A learners' ability to progress from dependency to independence arises from a holistic approach and a good teacher-learner relationship leading to the mastery of the set goal of the target language.

One might conclude that the learner at each stage is involved in the accomplishment of cognitive language learning tasks which will lead to an effective resolution of conflict. In this matter Richards and Rogers (1986) point out this approach aims for developing high motivation and building sound relationships between learner and teacher.

3.5.2.4 Suggestopedia
Researchers such as Harmer (1998), Stevick (1996) and Richards and Rogers (1986) came to the same conclusion namely that this system originated from suggestology, which described suggestion as a constant communicative factor. Chiefly through preconscious mental activity, it can create conditions for tapping the functional reserves of personality. The aim of teaching is to emphasise memorisation and the creative solution of problems to develop conversational proficiency. The texts concern motivational stories with no functional purpose.

Harmer (1998) refers to suggestopedia as a methodology developed by Lozanov (1979) in which students must be comfortably relaxed requiring comfortable furniture and the use
of music to create an atmosphere which reduces the learners' stress and encourages positive receptivity.

The teacher should be well prepared, to create situations through performance and atmosphere, and should intervene to structure and punctuate the presentation of linguistic material. Learners sit in groups in a circle face to face to negotiate different kinds of activities. Richard and Rogers (1986, p. 55) identified the objective of suggestopedia in terms of delivering a conversational proficiency based on students' mastery of vocabulary in the target and native languages.

The researcher formed the opinion that according to Tudor (1996), Littlewood (1983) and Richards and Rogers (1986) humanistic methods contribute to the development of the learning process in specific ways, despite the controlling role of teachers in many of them. The humanistic movement emphasises learner-centeredness, providing room for learners' subjective and personal concerns. The key factor is the experience of the students, the development of their personalities and the encouragement of positive feelings about their language learning.

Humanistic methods all contrast with the audiolingual methods, which are more restrictive and built on behaviourist philosophy. By stimulus, response and reinforcement, the language habit is encouraged by repetition, immediate criticism of mistakes and praise for correct answers. In a variation of this approach, the drilling of students followed by positive and negative reinforcement forms the major focus of classroom activities (Richards and Rogers, 1986).

3.6 The Communicative Approach

This seeks to further the humanistic approach emphasising interactive communication along with the use of activities and authentic tasks involving practical use of language. The focus is on meaning, rather than forms.
3.6.1 Brief history of development

It was Harmer’s (1998) view that Chomsky’s (1959) theory made a great contribution to modern linguistics as he introduced concepts of “competence” (knowledge) and “performance” (the realisation of this knowledge as sentences). Chomsky defined these in relation to the practitioner’s knowledge about the language while Dell Hymes (1972) identified the communicative approach as a shift in language studies towards a focus on language in actual performance (cited in Savignon, 1983, p. 11).

Hymes (1972) uses the term “communicative competence” to refer to the knowledge and ability which native speakers possess including grammatical forms, together with the ability to use them appropriately. For Hymes, “communicative competence” represents what a speaker needs to know to communicate effectively (cited in Brumfit and Johnson, 1979). Hymes (ibid) stresses that there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless.

Hymes’ theory has been extremely influential in second language teaching and learning. Communicative competence lies at the heart of this approach. The term covers ability to manipulate the lexical, syntactical and phonological aspects of language, in addition to the effective use of strategies for initiating and maintaining conversation. The term has become a mainstay of the language classroom nowadays, since it emerged at a time when practitioners were becoming disillusioned with structural approaches to language learning.

Rogers’ (1982) early formulation of learner-centeredness discusses human being’s natural potential for learning and that significant learning occurs when the subject matter has personal relevance to the learners and involves their active participation. Self-initiated learning, involving feelings and cognitive activities, is most likely to be lasting and pervasive. Independence, creativity and self-reliance are most likely to flourish if self-evaluation is encouraged and criticism kept to a minimum. Rogers (1982) points out that most useful learning focuses on the learning process itself, facilitating the learner’s
openness to experience and change in coping with the demands of the modern world.

The ideas advanced by Rogers (ibid) are of relevance today. They greatly influence the communicative approach sharing common ground with the humanistic approach in developing the person as a whole.

The communicative approach has been developed through several stages to attain its current form as Richards and Rodgers (1986) (cited in Richards 1998, p. 39) describe:

"Communicative language teaching, today still one of the major language teaching movements world-wide, arose in the 1970s as a reaction to grammar-based approaches to teaching, which had been dominant since the 1950s. Communicative language teaching was an attempt to build language teaching around the theory of communicative competence." (Richards, 1998, p.39)

In the early stages, Dewey (1933) had great influence on the communicative approach. Dewey saw social and psychological aspects of learning as synthesised, and his viewpoint made a considerable impact on educational theory. He emphasised the importance of physical and social interactions between individuals and environments.

Although many writers expressed their views differently, most of them agreed that the learning and teaching process has been influenced by social, psychological and individual factors. Coolican (1996) referred to Piaget’s views of learning and teaching, learning being seen as a social activity and not just an individual concern of schemata construction. Social interactions are the root of our higher thinking processes, while thinking is a social process that develops through interaction.

Fox (1995) points out that through participation in activities with experienced people learners acquire various cognitive, social and communicative skills enabling them to function in socially appropriate ways.
The social constructivists approach views language as a social product and not an inborn mechanism (Pinker, 1994). Williams and Burden (1997) note that both Vygotsky and Feuerstein consider the teacher as a mediator who selects and shapes the content of the learning experiences assessing the learners' reaction to them in a way that develops their cognitive capacities. Both added a new dimension to learning, i.e. the role of the social context in which the learning experience takes place. They provided ways of showing learners how to learn (i.e., towards learner autonomy).

Language is significant in the process of interaction, and through language culture is transmitted, thinking develops and learning occurs (Williams and Burden, 1997). Social constructivism views the classroom as a community in which interaction and communication are necessary and where learners and teachers co-construct the activities and speech events. This has strong and palpable implications for language teaching and learning, especially in EFL contexts.

The ideas upon which the Vygotskian socio-cultural perspective is based provide a powerful basis and rationale for communicative teaching approaches. Language has a dual role both for communication and for developing thought processing. Implications of the social constructivist perspective for language teaching and learning as has been illustrated by Williams and Burden (1997) include:

a) Language is basically communication and so it is insufficient for students to simply have knowledge of the target language forms, meanings and functions but rather to apply these in negotiating meaning and communicating;
b) Language learning is a developmental process;
c) Language teachers should promote interactive practices of all kinds in the classroom to enable learners to acquire basic interpersonal communication skills so activities should be structured in small groups making this monitoring possible;
d) Language teachers should encourage learners to interact in pairs or groups for peer assessment, peer tutoring and co-operative learning because through this they acquire more familiarity with the target language and take risks and initiate;

e) The different language skills are integrated and complementary;

f) Language teachers act as facilitators and organisers of the learning experiences in the classroom situation.

Roberts (1998) argued that the process of learning to teach is not private. He shares similar views with Williams and Burden (1997) that the communicative approach owes a great deal to the social constructivist perspective in learning and teaching. Roberts (1998, p.36) expressed this link between personal and social images by emphasizing the role of the social and cultural context, as follows:

"...learning to teach is not a private journey, but it involves the adoption of a social role, a process of defining oneself as a teacher informed by one's images of others and the traditional views of teaching available to us."

3.6.2 Implications for classroom practice

Communicative methods emphasise practices which support learners in drawing inferences about the social meanings and functional needs of language.

Harmer (1998) referred to Allwright (1984) who initiated task-based approaches in the 1970s with foreign postgraduates at Essex University. In an experiment which challenged traditional received wisdom. He used activities like communication games and index cards, and found that the greater their involvement in such activities, the better was the students' use of the language.

"If the language teacher's' management activities are directed exclusively at involving the learners in solving communication problems in the target language, then language learning will take care of itself." (cited in Harmer, 1998 p.34)

Brumfit and Johnson (1979) and Littlewood (1983) had similar views and stressed the use of activities involving real communication, selecting them according to how well they
engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use and perceive foreign language learning as a conscious/unconscious process. Littlewood (ibid.) and Brumfit and Johnson (1979) address the conditions needed to promote learning. Littlewood (1983) emphasises the importance of functional communication activities such as information gap, reading maps, and social interaction activities (e.g. conversation, dialogues, face-to-face interaction, discussion sessions and role-play) directed at the accomplishment of meaningful tasks.

The communicative approach to language teaching and learning shares a common ground with the humanistic approaches to learning. Quoted in Medgyes (1986), Moskowitz (1978, p.109) indicated:

"... in both [the humanistic-psychological approaches and the communicative approach], learners are seen not so much as full-time linguistic objects at whom language teaching is aimed, but rather as human individuals whose personal dignity and integrity, and the complexity of whose ideas, thoughts, needs and sentiments should be respected...."

A comparable view has emerged in teacher education, including the following features:

a) Recognition of the need to respect teachers' personal autonomy when system-wide change is introduced into the curriculum (e.g. Day et al., 1987; Cline et al., 1990; Elliott, 1993);
b) Adaptation of counselling models to intervention with experienced teachers (e.g. Day et al., 1987);
c) Partnerships between supervisors and student teachers in initial teacher education (e.g. Turney et al., 1982);
d) Initial teacher education as a process of self-realisation (Smyth, 1987; Diamond, 1985);
e) Recognition of the emotional dimension to personal changes and therefore of teachers' needs for support (e.g. Easen, 1985; Rudduck, 1982).

Humanistic values have influenced teacher education in English language teaching. A strong example is the widespread lack of in-service teacher education provision by
employers in the private and state systems which has promoted teacher self-help groups and the expectation of self-directed learning (Gebherd, 1990; Freeman, 1990, 1992; Underhill, 1992; and Edge, 1992).

The humanistic perspective gives vital insights into teacher learning considering that changes in language teacher education needs to start from a sympathetic understanding of the identity and perceptions of the teacher as she/he is. Above all, it reminds us that in every situation, and especially in formal learning, it is essential for learners to feel valued. However, this perspective disregards the social imperatives of teaching, which develop through exchange between our social and occupational contexts. A good illustration is given by Roberts (1998, p.22) who said; "the shape and size of the adult plant derives from its context: the rain, sun, wind and space it needs to grow".

In communicative language teaching, the teachers' role is more that of a facilitator and organiser rather than an instructor. They play a major part in providing the activities and situations in which acquisition and learning take place, and have a range of responsibilities. To achieve this, Pachler and Field (1997, p.53) argue that activities should focus on using the target language for communication: the teacher’s function is to help the learner take responsibility for his learning. Littlewood (1983) also suggests that the teacher has to develop practical techniques for stimulating the exchange of meaning in the classroom, helping learners to communicate through organising resources and assigning tasks in the classroom and should bear in mind the learners' way of learning.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) suggest that teachers should hold group and individual sessions to cater for them. Tudor (1993) advocates that teachers should select the teaching method on the basis of students' experiences and socio-cultural context. Without this, learning may not be so effective. He suggests that the teacher should guide students to different learning strategies and resources to help their learning. Richard and Rodgers (1986:78) state that the teacher can foster communication by encouraging learners to paraphrase what they say to parents.
To summarise, the comprehensible input in conscious learning and acquisition has a great value in learning via the communicative approach (Harmer, 1998). That is, if learners are sufficiently exposed to language through teachers' informal talk, they will be able to use the language themselves.

3.6.3 Critical look for communicative approach

The literature review indicated that the communicative approach is extremely influential in EFL teaching. Richards (1998) raised an important point that it is still considered as a major language teaching approach worldwide. However this does not prevent some critical viewpoints, for example Swan (1985) states that the communicative approach is irrelevant to foreign language teaching. Theoretical confusion can lead to practical inefficiency. It can lead to time and efforts being wasted on unprofitable activities while important priorities are ignored.

The critical views concerning the communicative approach are summarised below:

1) The value of an utterance is given by the interaction of its structural and lexical meaning with the situation in which it is used (Swan, 1985). For example, if someone indicates that he/she is hungry, the response 'There is some stew in the fridge,' acquires meaning simply because the utterance takes on value in that situation.

2) In terms of skills and language learning strategies, Swan (1985) claims that it does not make sense to teach foreigners via methods such as the comprehension skill through predictive strategies, because if we ask the native speakers to guess about what they hear and read about, they will call on their familiarity with the speaker or the writer through their background knowledge, armed with the linguistic insight. But on the other hand, we do not expect foreign learners to be at the same level as the native speakers unless they know something about the subject matter, speakers, and writers, or know enough about the language. Thus if they do not read adequately in a real-life comprehension task, it could be due to a lack of essential background knowledge or insufficiency of language...
proficiency.

3) Swan (1985) sees the English language as a wealth of colloquial, slang and taboo expression. Therefore foreign learners need to acquire this wealth, vocabulary, structure and idioms to say the right sentence in the right situation (Hymes 1972).

4) Foreigners have their communicative skill in their own language but what they need are the lexical items and words to communicate which are not easy to achieve according to the researcher’s viewpoint being a foreign learner (Swan, 1985).

5) Foreign learners need to:
   a) Know the intention and be aware of conveying the communicative learning (Wilkins1983).
   b) Know about how these sentences, patterns and words are put to communicative use (Widdowson 1978).
   c) Develop skills of adjustment and negotiation (Brumfit 1988). Based on this view, Swan (1985) claims that the lack of this may lead to the foreign learners’ failure to transfer communicative skills from their mother tongue resulting from the fallacy of the communicative approach to language teaching as well as the whole system.
   d) Acquire the interpretive skills for verbal and non-verbal language.

Adding these factors together, learners have trouble in jumping through the hoops we set for them. These views should be taken into consideration and should be accessible to teachers and teacher educators within the Libyan context.

3.7 Implications for Classroom Teaching in Libya

EFL teaching within the Libyan context has been affected by the history of English language teaching since its introduction in the National Curriculum in 1943 (see chapter 2). Yazigy (1991) raises an important point about the traditional methods for teaching EFL in the Arab World. These methods were based on teaching/learning English literature and became widespread in areas affected by British colonialism. This situation could be related to Libya as being one of the Arab countries sharing similar culture and social trends.
Since the introduction of EFL during the period of Franco-British administration 1943-44, teaching English was characterised by the introduction of textbooks based on an 850-word Basic English vocabulary and 'The Basic way to English' by Ogden which adopted a traditional, grammar and translation approach (Suayeh, 1994).

In the early 1950’s a new series, “English for Libya” (Gusbi, 1956,1966, 1974,1984) was adopted aiming to convey knowledge of English vocabulary and grammar in the context of Libyan and Arab culture. These books adopted a traditional grammar-based approach focused on the teaching of reading and writing. According to Fenaish (1981), they were outdated and were not adequately designed for teaching English. He added that there is no doubt that they left their marks on teaching English as a foreign language (Fenaish, 1981).

In a critical examination of teaching methods used in schools, UNESCO (1994) reported that although the audio-lingual method was used, there was no use of tape recorders in English language laboratories and classrooms.

In 1999-2000, new ‘English for Libya’ books by a host of English authors have been developed to replace the EFL schoolbooks (see Chapter 2).

Since the introduction of English in the National Curriculum in 1943, it has been taught as a second language in Libya after the native language (Arabic) (Suayeh 1994). It continues to hold this position, because of the commercial and strategic influence of English in the world today. Also, it is seen as the language of information and technology transfer, and of modern media and culture. In Libya, the Ministry of Education, and interested private sectors have adopted a new teaching philosophy and provided new course books, which adopt the philosophy of the communicative approach to language teaching and language skill integration. The units in these books are organised around themes developed in terms of vocabulary, grammar and communicative functions in order to keep pace with modern teaching methods worldwide. It is hoped that the new course will give classroom teachers more freedom to use the language, leading to more
progressive methodologies and practices, so that learners can develop the ability to communicate competently. The new course has been welcomed by teachers and viewed as liberating documents enabling them to consider changing their classroom practices within the limitations of the socio-cultural context. These issues will be discussed in the light of the data provided for this research (see Chapter 6 & 7), which reflect the teaching methods as perceived by the respondents.

Critical examination of the Libyan educational system indicated that EFL teaching has been affected by its educational history (see Chapter 2). Taking into consideration the literature review, the researcher concluded that, in order to ensure effective EFL learning, EFL teaching methods in the Libyan context need to be selected on the basis of students' past experiences, beliefs about teaching, methods and socio-cultural views. Teachers also need awareness of the learners' style of learning and to guide them to use a variety of strategies and resources. Also Willis and Willis (1996) noted that teachers needed to improve their ability in teaching vocabulary to enhance their professional development.

According to Freeman (2000) and Richards and Rogers (1986), although all methods such as the grammar translation method, direct method, silent and communicative methods are been practiced nowadays, they are not equally distributed in the classrooms around the world. Elsewhere, some of these methods have more influence at times than others e.g. in the 1950s and 1960s the Audiolingual method was dominant in the USA.

UNESCO (1994) stated that the audio-lingual method was implemented in parallel with the grammar translation method in the Libyan EFL curriculum but had been implemented inadequately due to the lack of facilities and resources.

Government policy affected teaching methods with the reintroduction of EFL to the secondary schools in 1993 using the communicative approach. UNESCO (1994) raised an important issue about the communicative approach in particular, which is seen as being necessary for facilitating and increasing confidence among learners of English in Libya.
The effective content of strategies related to the needs of the learner might seem quite new in the Libyan English teaching context.

Meanwhile, researchers such as Fenaish (1981), Suayeh (1994) and UNESCO (1994) provided a clear picture of EFL teaching methods implemented in Libya. The grammar translation method endured for years because it suited the Libyan educational context, teaching and learning strategies, teaching methods, teachers’ education and social and cultural aspects. (For more details see Chapter 2, The History of EFL Teaching in Libya).

The literature indicated similarities as well as fundamental differences between the methods. Similarities relate to the main goal of teaching students to communicate in the target language. The dominance of using the grammar translation method in Libyan classrooms (Fenaish, 1981, Suayeh, 1994 and UNESCO, 1994) could be related to what Freeman (2000) discussed about the similarities and differences among methods used in EFL teaching.

Other viewpoints include, for example, researchers such as Palmer (1998), Holiday (1994) and Freeman (2000) who debate the contextual framework of teaching methods. They agree that these methods are shaped by the teacher, students, instruction and socio-cultural context. As Palmer (1998, p.147) mentions, 'the method which works for someone else doesn’t work for the other because it is not bounded in who the person is, and what makes the method successful is that investment in it'. Meanwhile, Holiday (1994) claims there can be no right method for everyone. He warns that teaching methods should not be exported from one situation to another, a process he called "relativism". Each method has its own weaknesses and strengths, and not all are suited for all situations. Freeman (2000) elaborated on Holiday (ibid) and concluded that there is no single method that would work better within one situation than another.

Also, Prabhu (1990) argues that language is a human attribute that varies according to contextual factors. He adds that the reasons that make a teacher perceive one method to
be more acceptable in a given context are the socio-political ones. (Prabhu, *ibid*) calls this “pluralism”. Teachers may, however, use both practised and different methods within the same context. Elaborating on Prabhu's pluralist view, Freeman (1991) states that when teachers choose from many methods to create and blend their own, it is true that they should have a consistent philosophy to guide their selection in accordance with the reasons why they do what they do in the light of the complexity of classroom reality, including the social lives of the participants (Allwright, 1984; Nunan, 1992, 1987, 1989; Prabhu, 1992). But Freeman (*ibid*) added that one could not deny that there are many factors or decisions outside the control of the teacher; e.g. they may teach from the same text, or may have a class with negative attitudes. But still teachers can play a role in the learning process as observed by Fanslow (1987, p. 11):

“Perhaps as little as 2% of the variance that contributes to learning may be controlled by the teacher, and lack of learning means anything less than one 100%, the 2% we are responsible for makes the difference between learning and not learning.”

The researcher shares Freeman's conclusion that there is no single method that would work better within one certain situation than another because of the individual differences between learners and teachers. Larsen-Freeman (1998b) also concludes she could never master teaching because what she needed to know, including the students, was always changing. In other words language learning and teaching are a dynamic process and there is nothing fixed about them. Therefore, when teachers approach teaching as a mystery to be solved, their teaching will be a continuing process of professional renewal. Larsen-Freeman (2000) concludes that teachers' attitude of inquiry perhaps serves teaching best.

Although the researcher feels that this research could contribute to the development of English teaching in Libya, it is worthwhile examining the situation in relation to the literature reviewed, because implementing a certain method to fit the Libyan context is not practicable, particularly if teachers need to prepare for planning unpredictable learning outcomes taking into consideration their beliefs and experiences (Bell and Gilbert 1996). Therefore, EFL teaching methods need to be based on enquiring what will lead to the teacher's professional development within the Libyan context.
3.8 Summary

Perspectives on teaching approaches to English as a foreign language

There are eight approaches to language teaching and learning: Grammar translation, Direct, Audiolingual, the Silent Way, Total Physical Response, Community language learning and Suggestopedia and three views of language teaching i.e. traditional, functional, and interactive.

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<th>Traditional view</th>
<th>Functional view</th>
<th>Interaction view</th>
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<td>Using Phonological,</td>
<td>Using semantic and</td>
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<td>and ethnomethodology.</td>
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Each view needs to be supported by theories of language learning, such as:

(a) Process-oriented theories: referring to the psycholinguistic and cognitive process, habit formation, induction, and generalisation.

(b) The condition-oriented theories: emphasising the nature of the human and physical context in which learning takes place.

Ellis (1997, p.59) discusses the strong link between practical knowledge of the language and the role of input, including formal and informal instruction in the acquisition of a second language. He concluded that both formal and informal inputs for learners are very important in EFL teaching.

Language has a dual role both for communication and for developing thought processing. Therefore, the communicative approach owes a great deal to the social constructivist perspective in learning and teaching. Roberts (1998) expressed this link between the personal and social images by emphasising the role of the social and cultural context. Also it shares common ground with the humanistic approaches to learning. A comparable view has emerged in teacher education, including recognition of teachers' personal views, taking into account experienced teachers, establishing partnerships between supervisors
and student teachers and also supporting teachers’ emotional dimensions.

It is recommended that teachers should have to consider the:
(a) Linguistic and cultural needs for the students in addition to their learning style;
(b) Group and individual sessions to cater for the students;
(c) The choice to select teaching methods on the basis of students’ experiences and the socio-cultural context.

Despite the fact that the communicative approach has more advantages than other methods, it has also some critical limitations and should be used cautiously since a foreign learner has limited vocabulary, knowledge of the targeted language, spoken language, idioms and communication skills.

The new course book series ‘English for Libya’ has adopted the communicative approach to language teaching and learning. The units in these books are organized around themes that are developed in terms of vocabulary, grammar and communicative functions. It has been welcomed by teachers and has persuaded them to change their classroom practices within the limitations of the socio-cultural context.

There was a 9-year gap (1983-1992) when English was removed from the secondary curriculum. This was a major setback for the development of English language teaching in Libya.

Not all approaches to teacher training are easily transferred because of cultural differences. The researcher agrees with the opinion expressed by Freeman (2000) that there is no single method that would work better within a certain situation than another. Miller (1993) shared similar views to Freeman (2000) and referred to the individuality of the learners and the individual differences between learners and teachers.
3.9 Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the literature of EFL approaches to language teaching and their implications for language teacher education. The review serves to provide teacher educators in Libya, as well as providers or developers of teacher education programmes, with a range of strategies for EFL teaching and learning. It also serves to help them to define the adequate approaches they can use in teaching English as a foreign language in Libya. The focus in this chapter has been placed on different approaches to EFL teaching and learning, providing an evolution of teaching methods starting from the grammar translation mode of instruction, to the humanistic approach, followed by the more progressive and recent social constructivist via the communicative approach to language teaching and learning.

While audiolingualism, constructed on the behavioural perspective, provides insights into skill learning, the humanistic approach emphasises self-realisation and self-determination but ignores the fact that personal change cannot be transferred wholesale to language teacher education design. This is probably because student teachers are bound by public requirements on whether they meet external accreditation criteria or fulfil the role that schools and society have constructed for them; as a result, they have only partial choice in their own development.

The review presented in this chapter also aims to highlight prominent trends and ideas, which marked specific periods and allows us to trace the evolution of thinking about language teaching and learning. It also provides insight into the trends that have an impact on language teaching and learning. Will the situation of EFL teaching in Libya reflect any of the principles underlying the recent trends in language teaching, learning and teacher education? This is what the next chapters are intended to reveal. The historical and conceptual framework provided will assist in understanding, interpreting and analysing the research findings.
CHAPTER 4
TEACHER EDUCATION

4.1 Introduction

EFL teacher preparation has attracted the attention of language educators and researchers for many years. Kelly (1970, p. 10) discussed the unpredictable and uncertain nature of the teaching situation and outcomes on the part of the learners. Meanwhile (Schon, 1983) elaborated on Kelly's (ibid) views and argued that EFL teachers preparation is more than helping teachers to apply previously learnt knowledge. Teachers need to be prepared within the dimension of the unpredictable classroom events as well as the uncertain ways in which they occur.

This chapter presents EFL teacher education programme components in terms of university- and school-based knowledge, e.g. university-based knowledge includes subject, pedagogical and practical components and activities provided by the University before the student teachers practise in schools. School-based teacher education includes school experience and teaching practice, supervision and assessment techniques.

EFL teacher education models such as the craft, applied and reflective models have been discussed. Because “experienced teachers, as well as student teachers, make their own sense of the world within a social context and social interaction” (Williams and Burden, 1997), it is worthwhile considering the mental approaches to EFL teacher education such as the cognitive, reflective and the constructivist approaches which reflect the way teachers’ mental constructs influence their teaching style.

The culture and role of EFL teacher education and related fields have been researched in order to further understand the problems, to make the findings accessible to EFL teachers and teacher educators in Libya, and to analyse the data provided for this study in the light of this literature.
4.2 Assumptions about teaching and teacher education

All models of teacher education represent assumptions/approaches about teaching and teacher education. A model designates the roles of teachers, learners, teacher educators, teaching materials, etc. Models of teacher education and teaching represent a continuum starting with the conventional centralised models to the more decentralised (Roberts, 1998, p 103). In an operative model, the teacher is restricted to meeting the requirements of a centralised system, as in Libya and most developing countries. Examples include following the planned schedule from delivery of textbooks to a set of competencies determined by the centralised syllabus, supervision requirements and guidelines. On the other side of the continuum lie the problem-solving models where curricula are decentralised. Teachers move freely and more autonomously making their own decisions. Those who have control over their own teaching schedules and classroom activities are more insider rather than outsider controlled. In this situation curricula are negotiated and diversified, characterised by learners' needs and the teachers have the responsibility for diagnosing problems, adapting materials and designing activities (Nunan, 1986, 1990, 1998). In this position the function of an English Language Teaching Programme is to prepare teachers as free agents able to take decisions that are context-sensitive (Roberts, 1998, p.103).

Models of teaching and EFL teacher education vary because of the position they take regarding knowledge (epistemology). Distinctions amongst different paradigms of knowledge have been drawn including how knowledge is obtained and how it guides our actions. These paradigms serve as compass points (Roberts, 1998, p.108) in considering knowledge and learning.

Our perceptions of teaching and teacher knowledge are orientated by fundamental distinctions, which underpin such contrasts as the 'What?' and 'How?' orientations in the language syllabus and models of 'the teacher as operative' or 'the teacher as problem-solver' (Roberts, 1998: 108). The first model is that of teacher as 'the deliverer of knowledge and information fountain' i.e. knowledge-centred. Knowledge is always normative, objective and impersonal. The second is that of the teacher as a person and thinker. Knowledge in this model is person-centred, person-bound and subjective. These contrasts represent two opposing traditions, respectively the positivist ('knowledge-centred') and phenomenological ('person-centred') paradigms of knowledge.
Explanations of these traditions are best represented by Roberts (1998, p.110) in the table below.

Table 4.1 Paradigms, views of the person and language teacher education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paradigm</th>
<th>Knowledge-centred</th>
<th>Person-centred</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The natural science paradigm</td>
<td>Humanistic paradigm:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'External' perspective: behaviour is determined by</td>
<td>Internal perspective: behaviour is</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>environment</td>
<td>self-determined</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Focus on objective knowing</td>
<td>Focus on personal knowing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>View of curriculum</td>
<td>Type A: focus (e.g. grammatical syllabus)</td>
<td>Type B: process focus (task-based syllabus)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>View of person</td>
<td>Person as input-output system</td>
<td>Person with self-agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>View of teacher</td>
<td>Operative/employee</td>
<td>Professional / 'free agent'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aspects of model</td>
<td>Model-based language teacher education</td>
<td>Nondirective intervention</td>
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<tr>
<td>teacher education</td>
<td></td>
<td>'Whole person' changes and affective reactions</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The person as constructivist</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Focus on change in thinking</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reflection on personal models and</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>direct experience</td>
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</table>

Source: Roberts (1998, p.110)

It should be noted that a selection of one position apart from others reflects our assumptions related to knowledge, teaching, teacher education, and the whole educational enterprise. A scientific description is based on predetermined decisions about what is significant to describe and how to describe it. That is why the scientific paradigm is deterministic and normative. Reality is always measurable and objective. In a constructivist paradigm reality is personal, interpersonal and social.

Concern in the positivist position is always with issuing generalisations over larger populations. It seeks general and reliable truths that are free of subjective distortion (Roberts, 1998: 111). In a phenomenological position, concern centres on the way in which each person makes meaning of the world. The importance lies in the attempt to understand behaviour by understanding the person's inner life, perceptions and expectations.
Positivistic approaches are context-free, whereas phenomenological approaches are context-bound. It is, thus, clear that the two traditions, the positivistic and the phenomenological humanistic, reflect ethical and political differences which are most clearly seen in their approach to individuals, their right to self-determination and their uniqueness (Roberts, 1998, p.112).

There are two aspects related to teacher training programmes:

1. How to teach a process. This involves the learning of cognitive and pedagogic knowledge and skills for use in the classroom and
2. How to be a teacher. This deals with professional responsibilities in and beyond the classroom.

Many would not disagree with this view, but there are ongoing discussions about the content and structure of programmes for new teachers.

Studies (e.g. Connelly and Clandinin, 1988; and Louden, 1991) report that new teachers (and in-service teachers) feel that a more practical experience in the classroom is needed. This view is based on a misconception about the nature of theory and practice. According to some studies, theory and practice are seen as two separate entities rather than entities that are inextricably linked and mutually dependent (Knowles and Cole et-al, 1994). Wallace (1991) sees the importance of new teachers being given opportunities to perceive the link between theories and classroom practices during both lectures and teaching practice. Teaching practice has become an integral component within the structure of many current teacher preparation programmes (Wallace 1991).

The researcher decided to use these views as a torch to light the way for Libyan EFL teachers and teacher educators about teacher preparation programmes. It is also intended that the data provided for this study will be analysed in the light of this literature.

4.3 Typology of EFL teacher education

Research has yielded a number of categories that have been applied to the day-to-day working knowledge of teachers, and each has generated its own field of literature (Calderhead, 1996: 716).
Teacher education has been envisaged in terms of three types. The 1975 TESOL Guidelines have had considerable impact on teacher education programmes. These recommended that ESL/EFL teacher preparation should be based on three major areas of education:

"- General Education: courses and experiences which help him [sic] become a well-educated person with a strong background in the liberal arts and sciences, including psychology
- Academic Specialisation: courses and experiences which help him [sic] become proficient in his [sic] area of specialisation
- Professional Training: courses and experiences which help him [sic] prepare himself [sic] as a teacher." (p.12)

Richards (1998) stated that second language teacher education should be based on six requirements: (1) a concept of education which recognises that effective teaching involves a high level of cognitive ability; (2) the need for teachers and student teachers to adopt a research orientation to their classroom practice; (3) less emphasis on prescription and top-down directives and more on inquiry- and discovery- oriented approaches (bottom-up); (4) devising experiences requiring students to generate theories and hypotheses and reflect critically on teaching; (5) less dependence on linguistics and language theory as the main source discipline for all standards of second language teacher education and more on an attempt to integrate sound, educationally-based approaches; (6) the use of procedures that involve teachers in gathering and analysing data about teaching.

Richards (1998, p.29) identified six domains forming the core knowledge of second language teacher education: (1) theories of teaching, (2) teaching skills, (3) communication skills, (4) subject matter knowledge, (5) pedagogical reasoning and decision making, and (6) contextual knowledge. The focus on these dimensions of teaching as the foundation of Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE) is an attempt to give priority to teaching itself and to acknowledge the complexity of what we understand about the nature of effective second language teaching.

Language proficiency has indeed constituted the bedrock of the professional confidence of non-native English teachers and is rated as the most essential characteristic of a good teacher. Richard (1998) refers to Johnson (1990) describing the design of a unit on classroom language for Hong Kong Chinese secondary school teachers in all subject areas, which aims to make them aware of the role language plays in the classroom. The course
employs both classroom sessions, language laboratory work and tasks as follows:-

1. Development: Particular teaching acts are identified and communication tasks prepared.
2. Practice: Teachers complete the communication tasks and evaluate their performances.
3. Application: Teachers identify general principles governing the effective completion of such tasks and discuss ways of applying them.

Monem (1986, p. 125) in his study on non-native EFL teacher preparation concluded that the essential standards of EFL teacher preparation programmes include:

"1. Linguistic standards, covering language proficiency, phonology, syntax, semantics, psycholinguistics, language acquisition, and discourse analysis, including the application of these skills to ESL teaching situations; 2. Literary and cultural standards, including an understanding of cultural life and learning styles of English-speaking people and the foreign student population; and 3. Pedagogical standards, comprising an understanding of teaching methods and techniques of English to speaking of other languages, language assessment of student proficiency, and other educational processes." (p. 125)

This set of standards establishes literary and cultural learning as having equal importance with pedagogical and linguistic knowledge. They concur with Saville-Troike (1977), and Pachler (1997) who view culture as not being an optional component. Therefore, cultural training should play an important part in EFL teacher preparation programmes. In comparing the three standards suggested by Monem (1986) with the three components advocated by TESOL, it seems that the linguistic standards, literacy and cultural standards of Monem (1986) can be included in the Academic Specialisation Component of TESOL.

According to Doff (1997), a teacher's confidence in the classroom is undermined by a poor command of language, which can affect their self-esteem and prevent the teacher from fulfilling the pedagogical requirements of a more communicative approach to language teaching.
Therefore Doff (1997, p. 8) provided an approach to teachers’ training bearing in mind the differences between native and non-native English speaking teachers. She reported that it is these differences that account for the failure of much teacher training; the differences are not only in resources and physical conditions, but also in underlying assumptions about language, learning and the teacher’s role. Doff’s approach to teaching English is to bridge the gap between the two worlds by presenting methodology that is accessible to teachers. This could include; (1) New ideas, (2) Teaching materials, (3) English proficiency courses for non-native speakers, (4) new teaching methods, (5) Applied linguistic theories.

Although writers differ in the way they express their views, they come to the conclusion that teacher preparation programmes are usually divided into: General, Specialist, and Professional Education (Calderhead, 1996).

4.3.1. General pedagogical knowledge

This encompasses the teacher’s knowledge and beliefs about teaching, learning and learners that transcend particular subject-matter domains (Borko and Putnam, 1996, p. 675). It includes knowledge of various strategies and arrangements for effective classroom management, instructional strategies for lessons and creating learning environments along with more fundamental knowledge and beliefs about learners, how they learn, and how that learning can be fostered by teaching.

The work of Furlong et al (1996, p.32) concluded that reflection and theoretical knowledge combine to provide the central features underpinning teacher development, supporting the move from dependency to autonomy. So any teacher’s content knowledge should include theories of teaching, teaching skills, communication skills, subject matter knowledge, pedagogical skills and contextual knowledge.

In 1983, Gower and Walters listed the following important skills for EFL teaching: appropriate presentation language; controlled practice; checking and evaluation of both teaching, and teaching materials; eliciting dialogues and narratives; using both dialogues and texts and the setting up of communication activities.

Richards and Nunan (1990) agreeing with Furlong et al (1996) stated that second language teacher education should be based on six requirements; (1) a concept of education which recognises that effective teaching involves a high level of cognitive ability; (2) the need for
teachers and student teachers to adopt a research orientation to their classroom practice; (3) less emphasis on prescription and top-down directives and more emphasis on inquiry- and discovery-oriented approaches (bottom-up); (4) devising experiences requiring students to generate theories and hypotheses and reflect critically on teaching (5) less dependence on linguistics and language theory as the main source discipline for all standards of second language teacher education and more on an attempt to integrate sound, educationally-based approaches; (6) use of procedures that involve teachers in gathering and analysing data about teaching.

Richards (1998, p.29) also supports Furlong et al. (1996, p.32) concerning the six domains of knowledge which Furlong (ibid) regarded as essential, merely elaborating on the pedagogical skills of 'reasoning and decision making'. He believes, that for any EFL/ESL teacher-training programme to be effective, it must establish the basic teaching competencies required by teachers and the skills comprised by the programme at various levels. He argues that any such programme should utilise the process of teaching itself.

4.3.2. Knowledge of subject matter (Specialist)

Few people would disagree with the statement that having a flexible, thoughtful, conceptual understanding of subject matter is critical to effective teaching. Much of the research on classroom interaction and the thinking of teachers has focused on the managerial aspects of teaching, how teachers organise the classroom and children, and general strategies of planning (Calderhead, 1996, p.716).

Several important distinctions within this area have been made by researchers studying teachers' knowledge and learning (Borko and Putnam, 1996, p. 676). Shulman (1986) highlighted the importance of studying teachers' understanding of their subject and the role this plays in helping children develop their understanding of the subject.

The Holmes Group (1986) extended the discussion of programme components to include teacher competencies. They reported that competent teaching is a compound of three elements: (1) subject matter knowledge, (2) systematic knowledge of teaching and (3) reflective practical experience. Classroom teaching is the application of a teacher's acquired knowledge to the real teaching situation. EFL teacher competencies enable such applications to happen.
How well a language teacher is instructing in the classroom depends upon the competence of the teacher to utilise their knowledge while teaching. EFL educators have expressed various opinions when defining an effective language teacher. For example, Cameron (1991) argued that teachers need to be well educated in general and in their own subject, such as adequate classroom command of the language being taught, as well as having adequate qualities of personality as a teacher such as an encouraging manner, a sense of humour and tolerance.

Many writers including (Richards, 1998, Louden, 1991, Wallace, 1991 and Doff, 1997) suggest that the basic components for a well-balanced EFL teacher preparation programme should consist of general education, specialised education, linguistics (psycholinguistics and socio-linguistics), professional education (pedagogy) and cultural education (anthropology).

4.3.3. Professional education content knowledge:

Lee Shulman (1987) developed the construct of "pedagogical content knowledge" (PCK) in response to some problems of teaching and teacher education. This is an important addition to thinking about teaching. There is a connection between content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge in language teaching. Careful reading reveals connections between the two that cannot be neglected. For example, teachers' knowledge of classroom organisation requires a deep understanding of content. This is what Shulman (1987) refers to when stating, "the key to distinguishing the knowledge base of teaching lies at the intersection of content and pedagogy" (p.15). In this case, language teachers must be capable of preparing content, which usually takes place outside education faculties.

Most language teacher content knowledge comes from disciplinary fields, while the understanding of teaching comes from mainstream education. Support for this has come from research showing that science teachers approach scientific problems differently from scientists due to their understanding of the pedagogical implications of learning science (Borko & Putnam, 1996).
4.4 EFL Teacher Education

In the context of a study on EFL teacher education, it is essential to provide an overview of what constitutes teacher knowledge and gain more insight into the variety of factors that impinge on student teachers and shape their knowledge. The concept of teacher knowledge has been a focus of attention from educationalists and teacher education researchers over the years (e.g. Richards and Nunan, 1990, Freeman, 1996; Richards, 1994 & 1998; Woods, 1987 & 1996; Freeman and Johnson, 1998; Dunkin and Biddle, 1974; etc.).

To date, much of the work in language teacher education has been animated more by tradition and opinion than by theoretical definitions, documented study, or researched understandings (Freeman and Johnson, 1998, p. 398). Richards (1998) refers to Long (1984) that prior to the mid-seventies period, teaching was described as a set of discrete behaviours, routines, or scripts drawn from empirical investigations of what was effective or what expert teachers did in practice. In this sense, teaching behaviours, if carried out efficiently, would ensure student learning (Dunkin and Biddle, 1974). Attempts to legitimise teaching, as a profession, are based on the assumption that, when more research-driven knowledge was provided to teachers, their teaching performance would improve (Holmes Group, 1986).

In this sense, what constitutes teacher knowledge is determined not by teachers themselves, or even by participatory examination of their work, but by researchers who view teaching as discrete behaviours, distance their conclusions about teaching from the contexts within which it occurs and ignore the individual perspectives and understandings of the teachers who carry out the very teaching practices that they have studied (Woods, 1987).

In the mid-1970s, a new body of research viewed teacher behaviour as essentially influenced and even determined by teachers' thought processes (Clark and Peterson, 1986, p.255). This shift in focus was the result of a variety of influences, which were highlighted by Calderhead (1996, p.709-710) as follows:

(a) The growing dissatisfaction with the narrow focus of behaviourist studies, which define teaching competencies in terms of behavioural skills (Flanders,
1970) and relate particular patterns of classroom behaviour to learning outcomes (Brophy & Good, 1986; Rosenshire, 1971). This helped to leave much of the skilfulness of teaching unaccounted for;

(b) The influence of cognitive psychology which considers that humans are capable of constructing their own reality and responding to it in unique and idiosyncratic ways directed psychologists’ interests to the interactions of knowledge, thought, and behaviour;

(c) The increasing recognition of the centrality of the teacher in educational processes. The inability of several large-scale development projects in the 1960s and early 1970s to alter teaching and learning processes in classrooms drew attention to the role of the teacher in curriculum development (e.g. Doyle & Ponder, 1977) and to the intrinsic involvement of teachers’ own professional development in the processes of curriculum change.

There has been debate related to the differentiation of teacher knowledge and beliefs and what constitutes each and the interdependence between both. This is the focus of the section below.

Freeman (2000) argued that, although EFL teacher knowledge has been debated for many years in terms of how teachers can be prepared to be good teachers, researchers tend to have similar views, in that there is no one specific method for EFL teaching and teacher education. In reflecting her experience as a teacher, Freeman (ibid) emphasises that teacher education is a life-long process and should be based on professional development as it is not fixed and needs to be continuously discovered and redefined. (see Chapter 3)

In the field of teacher education, subject matter content knowledge is seen as the most important component of content knowledge. Shulman (1986, p.9) defines subject matter content knowledge as “the amount and organisation of knowledge per se in the mind of the teacher”, and pedagogical content knowledge as “the ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others".”
4.4.1 Language Proficiency

Language proficiency is one of the most important components of content knowledge. The American Council on Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) states that the FLT education programmes should provide students with opportunities to develop competence in speaking, listening, reading, and writing. For details see Gunterman, (1993, p. 224).

Gunterman also adds an extra six points to the guidelines (ACTFL) so that training programmes can be examined progressively and continually in terms of language proficiency development as follows:

(1) The presence of written goals for each level of language study

(2) Language courses focusing on the totality of communication and also, on culture, grammar, literature and pronunciation.

(3) An articulated sequence of courses balancing culture, grammar, language use and literature.

(4) Opportunity for intensive language experiences.

(5) Use of appropriate evaluative instruments e.g. Oral Proficiency Interview.

(6) Effective use of available technology for providing authentic language models and efficient learning. (Gunterman, 1993, p. 225)

The acquisition of subject matter knowledge is fundamental to the teaching of a foreign language. Research has shown that trainee teachers spend a great deal of their time studying subjects other than the foreign language they should be learning to teach. Morain (1990), in his study at the University of Georgia, reported that 3 out of 6 courses in education are devoted to the teaching of foreign language and culture, while 13 are in language specialisation. The problem, however, is that the number of courses taken have no predictable correlation to the linguistic and cultural proficiency attained by the takers. Those courses such as, composition, phonetics, the history of the language, and conversation are not producing students who are linguistically proficient. Morain (1990) suggests that courses such as ‘the art of story telling’ and ‘discussion’ should be the focus of the curriculum design in order to help the learners to be fluent in mastering the language.
4.4.2 Teacher Training Activities

A number of other studies focus on teacher training models, activities and their content. Ellis (1986) discusses teacher training practices and divided them into two components: experiential and awareness-raising. In the experiential training the trainees are involved in actual teaching, requiring them to teach students in a real classroom situation or by simulation through peer teaching. Awareness-raising practices are intended to make the trainee aware of the principles of EFL teaching as well as the practical techniques used within certain lessons. Ellis's awareness-raising and experiential components are explained in 13 points (see Ellis, 1986, p. 91).

Miller (1993, p. 687) suggested that teachers and teacher educators should exercise caution in instituting learner training based on these strategies. Questions to consider include:

1) What is the evidence that use of a particular strategy causes more efficient learning than not using it?
2) How can a particular strategy be translated into a specific, teachable behaviour?
3) Will that behaviour prove useful for all language learners or only for some?
4) Are the students ready and willing to try the behaviour?
5) What factors will influence the effectiveness of learner training in general and in specific instances, and have these factors been taken into account when planning the training?

A different way of conceptualising the activities for the development of teachers' awareness has been referred by Richards and Nunan (1990). Both the micro- and macro-dimensions of EFL teaching and teacher education must be addressed (Larsen Freeman, 1983).

According to Richards and Nunan (1990, p.4), the micro approach to EFL teacher preparation starts with examining teacher characteristics such as: "interests, attitudes, judgment, self-control, enthusiasm, adaptability, personality, or degree of training to see how these factors influenced learning outcome" (Richards and Nunan 1990, p. 4).
On the macro approach Richards and Nunan (1990, p. 9) identified that this implies different goals for teacher preparation.

Holistic approaches work towards training goals, not all of which can be broken down into individually verifiable training objectives, and they stress the development of personal qualities of creativity, judgment and adaptability. The formulaic or prescriptive nature of a mere "vocational training" approach to teacher training in TESOL is contrasted by holists with an "education" in more general principles (Britten 1985a, p. 113).

Activities and learning experiences in the first domain- the microperspective- reflect the training view of teacher preparation: Teaching is broken down into discrete and trainable skills such as setting up small-group activities, using strategies for correcting pronunciation errors, using referential questions, monitoring time-on-task, explaining the meaning of new words or organising practice work. Training experiences, which can be provided for novice teachers include the following:

- Assisting an experienced teacher in all classroom activities, such as using classroom aids and administrating tests.
- Participating in simulated classroom events, for example, to develop the ability to handle discipline and management problems.
- Working as a tutor, for example, in a writing laboratory, to gain experience in the use of feedback techniques.
- Participating in Workshops and mini-courses focusing on specific instructional techniques, such as use of waiting-time.
- Presenting structured mini-lessons using specific strategies and techniques.
- Observing films or videos in which desired teaching strategies and behaviours are demonstrated (Richards, 1987, p. 221).

Activities in the second domain, the macro-perspective, reflect a view of teacher preparation as education and focus on clarifying and elucidating the concepts and thinking processes that guide the effective second language teacher. Therefore learning experiences include practice teaching and participating in a variety of teaching experiences, all closely supervised by a skilled teacher. In this matter Bowers (1987, p. 138) offers a three-phase
pattern for clinical supervision as it has been presented within the context of foreign language teaching within the teacher education program at Ain-Shams University Cairo.

1- Hear and observe. Here the trainee sees the importance, performance and discussion of issues in this context.

2- Record and analyse. This demonstrates the importance that agreed questions could be developed between the trainee teachers and supervisors.

3- Consider and evaluate. He advises preparing as many questions, and getting as much evaluation as possible done by the trainee teachers themselves.

Observation. Observing experienced teachers in a focused way and exploring with the teacher, in a follow-up session, why things happened as they did and attempting to determine the kinds of conscious or unconscious decision-making that guided the teacher.

Self and peer observation. This allows reflecting on performance in actual teaching situations, through audio and video recordings, in order to gain a deeper awareness of the processes and principles being employed.

Seminars and discussion activities allow reflection on the degree to which one’s own experience as a student teacher relates to theory and to the findings of relevant research (Richards, 1987, p.222).

This approach to teacher preparation in TESOL requires changes in the role of both student teacher and teacher education. The aim of TESOL teacher education must be to provide opportunities for the novice to acquire the skills and competencies of effective teachers and to discover the working rules that they use.

The focus on principles underlying classroom practice offers an important perspective on teaching, and how people acquire the capacity to teach, especially since beliefs and principles serve as a filter through which new information and experience is interpreted (Richards, 1998). Richards (ibid) added; “if teachers are guided in their teaching and learning to teach by their personal maxims as well as the instructional considerations, then the nature and use of these maxims deserve to be recognised in teacher education programs.”
Teacher’s beliefs about the principles underlying successful teaching form part of the knowledge student teachers bring to SLTE. They are a key element in determining how the student teachers respond to their training experiences.

Almarza (1996, p.59) emphasises the importance of recognizing the nature and role of teachers’ beliefs as follows:

"Although their ideas might not have been put forward in academic discourse, they may serve as a basis on which to make the connections between theory and practice, which are crucial in their professional development. Yet we won’t be able to establish what kind of contribution teacher education courses make to student teachers’ development and how they contribute to student teachers’ education if we do not know what was already there and how this old knowledge relates to practice." Richards (1998, p.61).

The maxims both teachers and student teachers use to guide their teaching can be identified through narratives, journal writing, discussion and other critical reflection. Prior to teaching the lesson, teachers articulate what principles they hope to apply during the lesson. Following the lesson, they can review it to see in what ways the lesson reflected their principles. Baily (1996, p.37) suggests that student teachers discuss ways in which their lesson departed from their lesson plans; what did and did not work within the lesson and, in the process, identify the principles that accounted for such departures.

Pre-service teachers can learn more from each other and more experienced teachers through discussion. Also they can learn by examining videotapes or transcripts of lessons taught by other teachers. Once student teachers’ maxims have been identified, they can serve as a source of information helping them to interpret and evaluate their teaching and that of others.

However, the supervisor could challenge the teachers’ maxims, if he/she sees that teachers’ maxims do not represent an appropriate way of teaching or for any other reason. But to identify and examine the role of the maxims in shaping thoughts and actions can be a step forward for teachers’ professional development. On the other hand, Wallace (1991, p. 94), referring to MacLeod and McIntyre (1977, p. 261), comments on the complex nature of
classroom teaching. They suggest that teacher behaviour is not the demonstration of individual micro skills but of certain broad constructs.

Recently teaching behaviour in the classroom situation has attracted the attention of many educators such as Freeman and Richards (1993) who argue that the notion of one conception of teaching somehow being better or more effective than another is a myth. They claim that, although the argument for the supremacy of one method over another still persists, a more important perspective of methodology is one in which teaching cannot be treated as a behaviour separate from the reasoning on which it is based. Freeman and Richards, (ibid) had similar views to Prabhu (1990) who stated that to assess methods apart from the teacher who implements them, the setting and the learners with whom they are implemented is fallacious (Richards, 1990).

According to Freeman and Richard (1993), to understand teaching we need to look at how it is conceived. They also criticised the approaches, which are based on comparing classroom practices as these only provide partial information. They raised an important point that research in their field involved a conceptual view of teaching. They refer to Smith (1970) who states that the efficiency of one methodology over another from this behavioural perspective has been largely inconclusive.

4.5 EFL Teacher Training Models
Models of teacher education vary amongst themselves according to the philosophical position adopted by each. Discussion of teacher education in the literature has referred to underlying paradigms, which provide views of teaching, teacher expertise and teacher learning. Wallace (1991) suggested three models of teacher education: the craft model, the applied science model and the reflective model. Zeichner (1983) suggested the behaviourist model; the personalistic; the traditional craft and the inquiry models as paradigms of teacher education. These models are summarised in Table 4.2 below:
Table 4.2
Models of teacher education and their underlying philosophy
(adapted from Roberts, 1998, p.118)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Underlying philosophy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Craft model</td>
<td>The young trainee learns by imitating the expert’s techniques, and following the expert’s instructions and advice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applied science model</td>
<td>Professional education seen as acquisition of empirical scientific knowledge as the basis for effective practice, a theory-into-practice approach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflective model</td>
<td>Develop expertise by direct experience and conscious reflection about that experience; enable development by exposing assumptions that underlie routine behaviour and considering alternatives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviourist model</td>
<td>TE as mastery by imitation of scientifically validated behavioural skills (e.g. micro-teaching).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personalistic model</td>
<td>TE as growth of the whole person and assertion of the self (e.g. counselling-based approaches)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional craft model</td>
<td>TE as mastery of inherited craft knowledge by means of apprenticeship to a master teacher (e.g. whole school-based ITE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inquiry</td>
<td>TE as a skills-orientated development in attitudes enabling teachers to analyse novel pedagogic problems and arrive at contextually appropriate solutions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.1 The Craft Model

The craft or apprenticeship-based teacher education model shares the view of teacher learning as essentially imitative in process and model-based in content (Roberts, 1998, p.16). According to this model, the student teacher works alongside a master teacher in school and follows his/her instructions, advice and personal example. Accordingly, newly qualified teachers or apprentices learn how to teach by following the model of an experienced teacher.

McIntyre (1993) raised an important view concerning the craft model of teacher education in terms of different mentoring processes, which depend upon an apprentice observing and learning from the expert who is usually someone with experience in the profession and probably much respected by colleagues and the community for professional craftsmanship. Several features are identifiable with this model:

a) Learning is imitative;

b) Knowledge moves in one direction, that is, from expert to apprentice;

c) Knowledge is transferred or handed down from one generation to the next.
Such a model is highly effective if the job routinely requires a set of behaviours to respond to a set of situations. While the craft model is recognised for promoting observation as essentially a good thing (provided the apprentice is exposed to good practices), criticisms levelled at this model include

a) It does not take into account of the various roles that are expected of the teacher and the nature of teaching;
b) The apprentice depends on the expert for knowledge and is not expected to contribute to the existing body of knowledge;
c) This mode of expected behaviour perpetuated the transmission syndrome of knowledge and skills from one generation to the next;
d) The expert craftsman teaches as he/she was taught and passes on skills that were passed on to him/her by his/her master regardless of the quality of this knowledge or whether it copes with recent developments in knowledge. The role of the apprentice was thus limited to that of absorbing as much knowledge and skill as possible from the master (Roberts, 1998, p.17);
e) This model is based on the behaviourist theory and it is highly reliant on imitation as a learning process and the behavioural-perspective of teaching (Alexander et al., 1984; McIntyre, 1988);
f) Exposure to a single model of teaching prevents exposure to alternative teaching strategies and the conditions under which these alternatives might be appropriate (Roberts, 1998, p.16-17).

Williams et al. (1997) criticises a craft model that is fairly common in EFL teacher-training programmes used worldwide based on imparting skills and competencies. This approach is based on traditional craft models in which teachers practice the desired techniques under the guidance of an observer, who in turn will give them feedback.

Despite all criticisms, it is found appropriate for conservative societies where there is a need to preserve values and traditions and maintain their delivery from one generation to another. That is why modelled behaviours may not transfer to culturally different settings because their meaning is not the same (Roberts, 1998, p.17).
In response to a growing understanding of the nature and the processes involved in teaching and learning, a more appropriate approach to learning to teach was needed. This resulted in the emergence of specialist areas such as socio-linguistics and psycholinguistics within teacher education (Wallace, 1991).

### 4.5.2 The Applied Science Model

This model of a teacher education programme was developed on the basis of evidence gathered from the hard research knowledge of experts (Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992). Teacher education programmes adopting this model were developed on research findings into teacher variables and their impact on student achievement (Shulman, 1987). This approach became known as process-product research with notable contributions in the past from Brophy and Good (1983), Gage (1978) and Dunkin and Biddle (1974).

According to Richards (1990, p.7), the findings of studies of teacher-student interactions in the classroom gave rise to the assumption that:

"Teaching can be characterised by recurring patterns of behaviours. The teaching process is viewed in terms of the repertoire of strategies (e.g. control of question patterns and waiting time) employed by the teacher during instruction".

Professional knowledge about teaching and teacher behaviour can be derived from applying scientific theory and techniques, something which is termed 'technical rationality' (Schon, 1983). Teaching problems can be solved by the application of empirical science to the desired objectives (Wallace, 1991, p. 8).

A number of criticisms were launched by Schon (ibid) about the concept of applying an established set of problem-solving behaviours. Schon (1983) argued that, should a problem fall outside the parameters of the expected problem solving behaviours, the practitioner would not be able to solve it by choosing from the standard repertoire of behaviours.

Another criticism levelled at this approach is the split between research and practice and with it the implied superiority of those who research over those who practise. In addition, this concept of 'outside-in', where teaching and learning ideas were imposed from outside...
with little teacher autonomy, showed "a disrespect for teachers' professionalism and quality of their classroom judgements" (Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992, p.3).

According to Shulman (1987), effective teacher behaviour was identified by researchers "Through an act of synthesis...in which the individual behaviours associated with desirable pupil performance were aggregated into a new composite" (Shulman, 1987, p.12).

One might conclude, it is acknowledged, that confidence in developing teacher preparation programmes based on process-product studies was eroded by inconclusive empirical evidence, the studies offered "A well-founded knowledge base of what constitutes 'good teaching', and what works and what doesn't..." (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992, p.3). What the studies did not reveal was the reason why some ways of teaching work and others do not (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992).

4.5.3 The Reflective Model

The notion of reflective behaviour is not new and is related to Dewey (1933) when he posted the concept of reflective teaching, which opens the door for an alternative approach to understanding the complex mental constructs underpinning teacher behaviour. In this matter, Freeman (1996, p. 313) referred to Dewey (1933) who suggested three conditions for reflective teaching: (1) open mindedness, (2) responsibility and (3) whole heartedness. Although these conditions are necessary, Freeman (1996) has argued that in addition awareness of the social conditions is vital also.

Wallace (1991, p.56) discussed the reflective model of teacher education in terms of the 'reflective cycle'. Thus reflection may take place before the event (e.g. getting knowledge from a book or a lecture) or by the process of recalling relevant knowledge or experience (reflection on action) and also during practice (reflection-in-action).

Wallace (1991, p. 15) presents the reflective cycle (see Fig 4.1) in terms of received and experiential knowledge, practice and reflection. Within this cycle, teachers need to draw on their received and experiential knowledge and relate both to practice, and continuously reflect on the practice in order to develop and adjust it in a beneficial way. Key features of
this model are that it acknowledges the existing experiences of trainees and it involves reflection on shared experience during teaching practice providing language teachers with the opportunity to make their own decisions and think creatively. The focus is that EFL teachers learn how to teach through experiential learning. Therefore, Wallace (1991, p. 17) suggests that a teacher education programme has to have two main dimensions:

- ‘received knowledge’ which includes, among other things, the necessary and valuable element of scientific research, and
- ‘experiential knowledge’ related to the professional’s ongoing experience.

![Fig (4.1) The Reflective Model](Source: Wallace (1991, p.15))

Much attention in recent studies has been given to teachers thinking both introspectively and retrospectively about their practice and the possible links between reflection and action in the development of classroom practice. Many teacher preparation courses claim to have adopted the concept of reflective practice (Furlong & Maynard, 1994), in order to "facilitate teachers’ development of their own theories of educational practice, understanding and developing a principled basis for their own classroom work" (Calderhead and Gates, 1993, p. 2). Although these writers illustrate that the reflective approach has been implemented in many teacher education programmes, this does not make those such as Wallace unaware that it has strengths as well as weaknesses. Wallace (1991) discussed some problems facing this approach in terms of focusing on the privacy of the experience pointing out that experience is private not shared. Teachers develop expertise by direct experience and conscious reflection about that experience. Therefore they differ in the way they learn to teach when they try some activities with their classes. Teachers are practitioners; not inanimate machines that can be remotely controlled by
outsiders who dictate policies to them. Wallace (ibid) also raised the problem of a potential lack of focus in the discussion while interpreting experience, and mentioned that this could be due to a lack of structure in the mode of articulating reflection. Wallace (1991) also offered some suggestions to overcome these problems by talking about one’s ideas with another person, which he describes as a powerful way to clarify confusion and identify appropriate questions. Wallace (ibid) also suggested that microteaching; transcripts and observed teaching practice are ways of providing shared experience.

Reflective practice is becoming an important feature of ESL/EFL teacher education programmes worldwide. The literature review indicated that reflective practice has been implemented in EFL teaching. Farrell (1999) in a study on the reflective practice in an EFL teacher development group found out that group discussions promote reflective thinking.

In English language teaching, Pennington (1992, p.51) proposes a reflective orientation “as a means for (1) improving classroom processes and outcomes, and (2) developing confident, self-motivated teachers and learners...”. Richards (1998, p.5) shares the view with Freeman (1996 P. 313) that reflection is a key component of teacher development. He goes on to say that self-inquiry and critical thinking can “help teachers move from a level where they may be guided largely by impulse, intuition, or routine, to a level where their actions are guided by reflection and critical thinking”. What one concludes is that these models reflect a different philosophy, which underpins and is rooted in a specific methodology for EFL teacher preparation.

Learning to teach can be considered as a people-oriented process of socialisation (Roberts, 1998). The social and cultural dimensions influencing teachers’ socialisation need to be considered, as this helps in understanding the process of how teachers learn. In this matter, Schon (1987) raised an important point that the language could be better learnt when introduced within the cultural and social context. In the case of Libya, Libyan society accepts different cultures such as Turkish, Italian, and British (for more details see Chapter 2). It is worth introducing newer methods, such as the reflective approach, to teacher education as long as they do not violate and invade Libyan culture. The researcher also emphasises that the choices need to be made knowingly. This could
be achieved through preparing EFL teachers within their socio-cultural dimension as well the political context.

Although each model is based on a different philosophy, the researcher sees these models as interlocking and overlapping under the umbrella of the reflective approach, for example the craft model based on behaviouristic and apprenticeship approaches (Richards 1998) and the applied science model based on empirical evidence. This has the potential to lead to better learning and teaching experiences (Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992). The reflective approach is based on Dewey’s philosophy in which reflective behaviour reflects the reflective thinking. Wallace (1991) considered that through discussion sessions, conferences and observational techniques learners are able to communicate their views and exchange ideas. Through observation, learners not only observe but also internalise and reflect on their views (Lortie, 1975).

The researcher is of the opinion that these approaches to EFL teacher education could be of great help for the betterment of EFL teacher education in Libya, since the model of teaching in other Arab and Islamic countries is based on rote learning (UNESCO, 1975, Yazgi, 1991, Ali, 1989). The grammar translation and audiolingual methods are common in Libyan EFL teaching. This could be due to the conservative nature of Libyan society as well as that these approaches are well suited to the socio-cultural patterns of the Libyan educational system in general (UNESCO, 1994).

Therefore the researcher is of the opinion that to make these EFL teacher preparation models accessible for the development and betterment of EFL teacher training programmes in Libya, it is worth taking the Libyan socio-cultural aspects into consideration as well as the community, students and teachers’ needs, background experiences and learning strategies (Miller, 1993). It is feasible for EFL teacher training programmes to make use of the applied science approach and as well as the craft model through providing what EFL teachers need to learn, namely ‘received knowledge’ (Wallace, 1991). This could be enhanced by the role played by the supervisory techniques such as the discussions and also through observing colleague teachers or supervisors while learning-through-seeing (Lortie, 1975).
Other views recommended by the researcher such as the consideration of EFL teachers' mental constructs and their effect on teacher behaviour in classrooms need to be researched and taken into consideration in relation to EFL teacher education, if we, as educators look forward to the betterment of EFL teacher training programmes. Although within the Libyan curriculum UNESCO, (1994) sees the development of the communicative approach as a matter of urgency, the researcher sees that it is not feasible and not an adequate solution for the problems of EFL teaching and teacher education. The researcher sees that the reality of the Libyan educational context is not compatible with this proposal. Any attempt to implement the communicative approach seems to be unreasonable. The innovation in curriculum should address the whole educational context and should be accommodated to the potentialities of the society for which it is intended (Fullan, 1990, Legutke and Thomas, 1991). (For details see Chapter 7, sec. 7.6, p. 353).

4.6 The Role of Mental Constructs in Approaches to Teacher Education

The following section discusses (1) cognitive, (2) reflective (3) constructivist approaches to language learning and their relevance to the EFL Teacher Education Programme.

4.6.1 The Cognitive Approach

In the early nineties different studies of teacher cognition were influencing the content of teacher training programmes and providing various explanations of cognitive processing underlying teacher’s decision making, exemplified by models developed by Peterson and Clark (1978) to explain the complex thought processes involved in teachers’ interactive decisions during instruction. When a teacher assesses that a lesson is not progressing as planned, several alternative courses of action are available. These alternative paths reflect teachers’ level of tolerance of learner behaviour during lessons.

Clark and Peterson (1986) developed a model explaining cognitive processing and the behavioural responses which take place when teachers are engaged in planning lessons, implementing them and reflecting on their outcome. Cognitive processing involves two interrelating domains: teacher thought processes and teacher actions.

This model indicated that teacher thought processes operate at an invisible level but their
outcome is made visible through teacher-learner actions and the events taking place in the classroom. In this model teachers plan lessons in response to learner behaviour and learner needs. Learner achievements and behaviour are, in turn, affected by the lessons and teacher behaviour. The relationship between teacher and learner is represented therefore in a cyclical and circular process illustrating the ongoing interactions between them both.

According to Clark and Peterson (1986) there are 3 categories of teacher thought:

1. Planning;
2. Interactive thoughts and
3. Theories and beliefs.

Clark and Peterson (ibid) reflected their views concerning the existence of distinctively different thought processes that take place before, during and after lessons, indicating that, within these phases, teachers were found to engage in different thought processes appropriate for their planning purposes. Consequently, they affected teachers’ lesson planning decisions.

The model shows factors that constrain teacher thought and teacher-learner behaviour in the lesson planning process. These include examinations, bureaucracy and school policy which may be seen as giving teachers opportunities to engage in interactive thought and decision-making when planning, implementing and evaluating their lessons.

Although writers provide their views differently they share common observations concerning the cognitive process, socio-cultural beliefs and educational background, which underpin their language learning strategies. In terms of the cognitive strategy a good language learner is an active participant in the learning process through seeking clarification, asking questions, making inferences and using deduction (Stern, 1983; Oxford, 1990; and Gardner and MacIntyre, 1992).

Miller (1993) referred to Chaudron (1988) who stated that the characteristics and the strategies of good language learning behaviour are still imprecise. However, Tarone (1980) argues that the cognitive strategies are defined so broadly that it is questionable whether they can be specified as specific, observable or universal behaviour that could be taught to students. Therefore, what teachers can do is to make sure that their techniques are
exemplary in the learning strategy they wish to teach. In order to be able to know whether teaching has been successful teachers must check and observe students performing the technique and practicing the target strategy.

The behaviours defined in terms of successful learning strategies practiced by good language learners, may be based on their cultural models. Politzer and McGroarty (1985) in their study reported in Miller (1993) observed that, although Asian language learners did not show highly visible behaviour in and out of classrooms, they made greater gains in the course study because of their well-developed strategies for rote memorisation than did Spanish speaking students who scored higher on these good language learner behaviours. Politzer et al (ibid) concluded that many good language-learning behaviours are based on highly ethno-centric assumptions about language learning and teaching. In this matter Wong (1985) concluded in his study that 'there is no single way to characterise either the good or poor learner'. But the facts suggest that language learning is affected by social, cultural and individual preferences.

**Factors Influencing Classroom Activities (Case Study)**

Similarly the learner's age, educational background and past experience should be taken into consideration. Strutridge (1989) in Oxford (1990) concluded that, 'playing games in English is a waste of time, it can also irritate learners'. As Bialystok, (1985) mentioned in Miller (1993) for example, 'if techniques proved to be too unfamiliar or perceived as a waste of time they will be resisted by the learners'. Based on the learner's past experience of learning, Porte (1988) in Miller (1993) indicated that students would use strategies and techniques that have proved personally successful in the past. The educational environment from which they come will influence these chosen strategies. Oxford et al. (1989), revealed in their study that more than 1200 US students taking foreign language courses chose to use formal, rule-related practice and general study strategies that would lead to success in a curriculum based on the influence of their own past experiences.

On the other hand, the humanistic approach emphasised that the effective factors need to be taken into account as noted in Oxford (1990), "...that the chances of the success of the language learning activities would seem to be influenced to some extent on how highly the individuals are motivated about the language they need to learn as well as being with
homogeneous goals e.g. if the students are feeling the effects of culture and language shock, they are less likely to be a successful language learners and they will be most resistant to trying new or unfamiliar learning techniques."

Miller (1993) raised another reason for the failure of learner training schemes, namely the mismatch between the teachers' and the learners' beliefs about how to learn the language. For example, Miller (ibid) referred to Horwitz (1987) and Weden (1986) who indicated that both teachers and students hold quite strong beliefs about the nature of language and how best to approach learning another language. Therefore they classify their respondents into three categories:

Those who believed in

a) The importance of learning about the language, vocabulary and grammar rules;
b) The importance of using the language in natural environment; and
c) The personal factors such as attitude and feelings are essential.

From the above discussion the researcher summarises the factors influencing learners classroom activities as: (1) ethno-centric factors; (2) educational background; (3) past experiences; (4) the educational environment; (5) motivation and (6) beliefs about how to learn a language. Therefore she sees that raising these issues will be of great help to EFL teachers and teacher educators in Libya.

4.6.2 The Reflective Approach

Definition

The concept of reflective thinking was described by Dewey (1933) as a way in which we apply thought that involves a state of doubt and hesitation in which thinking originates and searches for materials to resolve the doubt.

This approach to teacher training is not new: the importance of reflective thinking was emphasised by Dewey in the early 1900s, and defined by him (1933, p. 12) as follows:

"Reflective thinking, in distinction from other operations to which we apply the name of thought, involves (1) a state of doubt, hesitation, perplexity, mental difficulty, in which thinking originates, and (2) an act of searching, hunting, inquiring, to find material that will resolve the doubt, settle and dispose the perplexity."
**Reflective practice**

Reflective practice only occurs when reflective thinking gives rise to behavioural changes (Brubacher *et al.*, 1994). It is a tool that promotes the development of proficiency. Viewing problems from various perspectives and understanding relationships between events enables thinking about what is happening, why it is happening and what options are available if a solution is required. Only when decisions are made in a conscious and rational manner can the resultant actions be justified. Through reflection, doubt and perplexity can be resolved (Dewey, 1933).

When these 3 requirements, leading to (1) open-mindedness, (2) wholeheartedness and (3) a sense of responsibility, are achieved, an individual may be said to become a reflective practitioner. Open-mindedness allows the absorption of new ideas and a willingness to listen to all viewpoints, while wholeheartedness means that tasks will not be tackled in a superficial manner and responsibility implies due consideration to the consequences of actions (Loughran, 1996). Freeman (1997) elaborated that within the reflective process, teachers deconstruct and reconstruct their experiences individually and collectively.

Loughran (1996) notes that thinking about practice has been called ‘reflection’ while, Graves (1990) regards reflection as a way of thinking about educational matters that involves the ability to make rational choices and to assume responsibility. Both views reflect Dewey’s concept of reflection.

Brubacher *et al.* (1994) divide reflection into 3 types: for-action, in-action and on-action. Schon’s (1987) ideas distinguish reflection according to timing: in the middle of practice, it constitutes reflection-in-action; after practice, it is reflection-on-action. Reflection-for-action, this is defined as the desired outcome of both types of reflection, because one reflects in order to control future action. He also argues that to enhance reflective teaching, the practical experience needs to be supervised appropriately.

Brubacher *et al.* (1994) define 3 stages of reflective practice, employing a hierarchical model of reflection proposed by Van Manen, which analyses reflection into levels of thinking. The first, entitled ‘technical rationality’, is concerned with the effective application of skills and technical knowledge in the classroom setting. The second level
involves the practical application of educational criteria to teaching practice, in making individual and independent decisions about pedagogical matters. The third is critical reflection, which entails the questioning of moral, ethical, and other types of normative criteria, which relate directly and indirectly to the classroom situation.

Brubacher et al (1994) focus on three elements that are significant in promoting reflection and reflective practice. They introduce Sparks-Lange and Colton’s identification (1991) of cognitive, critical and narrative elements. The cognitive element concerns the knowledge required for decisions in and about the classroom. The critical element concerns moral and ethical aspects of social compassion and justice. The narrative element relates to a teacher’s account of classroom experiences, which may have different forms and serve a variety of purposes.

As already indicated, the focus of reflective teacher education is to relate theory to the practice of teaching, linking received and experiential knowledge in a relationship which might be seen as mutually beneficial to everyone involved in the educational process. Thus mentors, student teachers and the students they meet in the classroom all feed on each other, while continually evaluating and revising their work after due reflection.

The observation technique in EFL teacher education provides opportunities for students to ‘view in action’ specific teaching skills already studied in pedagogy courses, enabling them to understand the influence of behaviour on the minds and feelings of school students and the generation of a desired response and that is when mentor and student view feedback as a source of information which can be critically evaluated (Grimmett et al., 1990).

The link between the observation period and the reflective model

Freeman and Richards (1996, p51) agree with Wallace (1991) and reported during the observation period that teachers not only observe but also internalise teaching models, which they then activate in the classroom. Moreover, students construct their knowledge not only through observation, but also from informal language learning experience to which they will attach different meanings. Richards (1991, 1998) contended that using procedures such as reflective writing, narrative and autobiography and professional reports required
teachers to collect data on their teaching practice, to reflect on their own decision-making and then examine their values and assumptions about teaching in a critical manner.

**The role of the mentor**

Frost (1993, p.141) takes the mentor's task beyond simple assessment of a student's classroom skills, arguing that mentors should encourage reflection concerned with theoretical dimensions and questions of value, which form part of a teacher's basic requirements. Freiberg and Waxman (1990) raise an important point about the mentors' task in terms of assessing the students' skills that can make students aware of their effectiveness (or otherwise), claiming further that emphasis on self-assessment in ITT will encourage students to think critically about their own teaching. Mentor comments combined with self-assessment give students specific information about self-improvement.

**The demands of reflective teaching**

Tann (1993), and Wallace (1991), indicate a constructive relationship between classroom competence and the process of reflection through which this competence is developed and maintained. Additionally, they point out that reflective teaching demands skill in methods of classroom enquiry to strengthen the development of competence, with the requirement of embracing appropriate types of cognitive, interpersonal and motivational competence to achieve high quality teaching. Although it is not easy for trainee teachers to choose the appropriate teaching competencies from their own repertoire to meet the needs of those they are teaching, they must develop their ability to make such professional judgements.

**Reflective Approach links: Theoretical and experiential knowledge**

According to Wallace (1991) the Reflective Approach is based on the idea of relationship between theoretical knowledge and experiential knowledge coming together during practical teaching experience, for details see (4.5.3 'The Reflective Model').

The cycles of reflective activity take place when student teachers are engaged in a process of re-evaluating their teaching practice in the light of real classroom experience and the knowledge gained through language courses. Nevertheless, authorities should always bear
in mind that the practice of teaching must be the main focus, in the endeavour to provide students with high quality tutors, as Bartlett (1990) states:

"Becoming a critically reflective teacher is intended to allow us [the teaching fraternity] to develop ourselves individually and collectively; to deal with contemporary events and structures (for example, the attitudes of others or the bureaucratic thinking of administrators) and not to take these structures for granted. Reflective teaching as a form of critical inquiry is located in a socially critical orientation to teaching."

Some criticism levelled at the reflective approach is the lack of evaluation. Ross (1990) is among the few authors who recommend research into the activities of newly qualified teachers, focusing on how much they use inquiry-oriented approaches. Despite his recommendation, Ross foresees difficulties. Firstly, reflection is a complex mental process, which is difficult to assess. Secondly, all teaching practice is situated within the social context influencing educational practice. Ultimately, because reflection does not generate specified behaviour that can be readily measured, it may never be possible to provide investigators with clear criteria for evaluation.

Since the focus of this study is to make suggestions towards improving the EFL teachers programme at Al-Fateh University, the researcher shares the view with Wallace (1991) that discussion sessions need to be taken into consideration in order to overcome the criticism levelled at the reflective approach. As stated by Carr (1986, p. 6):

"Any approach to teacher education which does not encourage teachers to reflect critically on their own educational views and on the nature of education as it is realised in the institutional setting of schools will be either inherently conservative or dangerously doctrinaire."

4.6.3 The Constructive Approach
The constructivist approach to teaching and teacher education has evolved from the Personal Construct Theory (Kelly, 1955).

The philosophy underlying the Personal Construct Theory (PCT) is a concern about how each person makes sense of the world. To enable an individual to do so is to be constantly engaged in observing, interpreting and theorising about the world around him. The world
surrounding an individual is constantly changing and individuals find themselves in the midst of it all (Kelly, 1970, p.10). According to Kelly (ibid) this theory means different things to different people. It is also appealing to a profession such as teaching that is often beset with uncertainties or unpredictable outcomes.

Richardson (1996, p. 5) referred to psychological constructivism where the individual is viewed as the primary source in the process of constructing meaning. Therefore, the role of the teacher is to engage his/her learners in activities that would lead them “toward higher levels of understanding and analytic capabilities.”

Although this view encourages individuals to question, for example, accepted knowledge and to reinterpret it in ways that are personally meaningful, there is a real concern in terms of the dilemma it creates for the individual concerning the acceptability of reinterpreted knowledge within existing norms. Being a member of a larger social environment, the individual may find that the outcome of personalised meaning may contradict the general view.

Roberts (1998) suggested that the social constructivism view of social and cultural contexts shapes teachers’ development and identities. This theory bridged the gap in previous thinking. Teachers do not develop in terms of their personal cognitive processing or in terms of their individuality, which are major limitations of constructivism and humanism. In a social perspective each individual develops a social identity to fulfil a significant public role. A social perspective reveals that there is far more in learning to teach than acquiring techniques and some specialist knowledge. Roberts (ibid) argued that learning to teach is a process of socialisation, emphasising the role of socialisation and quoting Feiman-Nemser and Folden (1986, p. 508) as follows;

“Just as child socialisation instils beliefs about the nature of the occupation and the knowledge needed for it: ‘teaching cultures are embodied in work-related beliefs and knowledge teachers share’ socialised- beliefs about appropriate ways of acting on the job and rewarding aspects of teaching”.

In this sense, teachers are socialised by experiencing a complex of social and individual influence: experience as pupil, development of craft knowledge through teaching
experience, personality preferences, and public educational theories acquired from training
courses or from reading. Consideration of the social and cultural dimensions influencing
teacher socialisation helps in understanding how they learn, as follows:
a) Structural aspects of the occupation determine its social status (Lortie, 1975 and Schon,
1983);
b) The knowledge and attitudes which affect the receptiveness of student-teachers to initial
teacher education: the ‘pattern of orientations and sentiments’ (Lortie, 1975; Somekh,
1993; Richards and Lockhart, 1994);
c) Norms of classroom interaction which affect teachers’ practice and development
(Zeichner et al., 1987; Calderhead, 1990; Kransh and Sullivan, 1996).

The social constructivist perspective for language teacher education implies that teacher
educators and student teachers alike need to assess the relationships between their work and
wider social conditions: “Learning by teachers in teacher development situations is
occurring within wider social and political contexts. They need to be assessed, not ignored
when building a profile of teacher performance” (Bell and Gilbert, 1996, p. 57-58). In this
context, student teachers should be engaged in the realities of schoolwork. To achieve this
they need to understand one another’s ideas and those of teachers through dialogue and
interpersonal relationships.

Roberts (1998, p. 46) sees that the social constructivist position adopts a framework, which
suggests that teacher learning is best promoted by cycles of related activities, which
integrate the dimensions of teacher learning. This suggests the need for language teacher
education to offer combinations of different activity types, such as learner-teachers’ self-
awareness, access to new information and the development of skills and attitudes (Roberts,
1998).

From these views and those of Black and Amonn, (1992), Powell (1992) and Feiman-
Nemser and Buchmann (1986) one could conclude there is a strong relationship between
the constructivist approach and teacher education. Feiman et al. (1986) emphasise
implementing this approach to teacher education in order to achieve a conceptual change in
teacher behaviour while Powell (1992) points out that personal and previous life
experiences influence student teachers’ thinking about their teaching and their professional
role. Black and Amonn (1992) suggest that student teachers need to be aware of the cognitive process their pupils experience in order to realise their concepts, just as teachers do. The constructivist approach provides a powerful aspect to teacher education and preparation. It is not a straight jacket or a special model for teacher education or a preparation method for teaching. The constructive approach applies to the student teachers as being the central concern of the preparation programme. Bell and Gilbert (1996, p58) claim that the process of teachers’ learning, experiences, opinions and values, as well as preparing them for unintended learning outcomes, needs to be taken into consideration. The individualistic and the social dimension of the constructive approach gave way to a more widely acceptable social perspective of learning which accepts the influence of the social context of the learning process (Bell and Gilbert, 1996, Williams and Burden, 1997).

According to recent research, teaching can be categorised as people oriented activities where teachers interact with each other, students and the community as a whole. Classroom teachers and students are involved in a mutual learning process where they learn from each other. Teachers have as much to learn from their students as learners from their teachers (Allwright, 1991, p. 75). MacKinnon and Scarff-Seatler (1997) concluded that student teachers learnt to teach science concepts effectively through using the learning constructs of their pupils, as they were able to build good social relationships with their students in the classroom. They were also able to perceive the learning needs from the perspectives of the learners as well as being able to present concepts they were keen to teach successfully. According to Mackinnon et al. (ibid) “this process requires reconstruction on the part of the student teachers which helps them to look at their learners and where they have reached as a central concern before putting their pedagogic skills and knowledge into practice.”

Overall, in Libya the role of the mental constructs in approaches to teacher education needs to be considered, as this approach focuses on teachers’ socialisation with colleagues, learners and others. It is not a straight jacket for teacher education, because it prepares teachers for unpredicted learning outcomes in their classrooms (Kelly, G. A. 1970). The researcher sees that the cognitive, reflective and constructivist approaches would be of great help for teachers and teacher education in Libya as they open new windows on EFL teacher education programmes in Libya as well as indicating a more acceptable social and cultural context for the learning process.
4.7 School-based teacher education

Gilroy (1992) criticised the decision of taking initial teacher education out of universities and giving the responsibility to schools, as no attempt was made to consult teacher educators. Furthermore, this regulation generated a contradiction because the new system seems to imply higher education tutors cannot effectively train teachers. In that case, how can they be expected to train mentor teachers to teach teachers to teach?

However, school based teacher education has been strongly supported for giving greater responsibilities to schools, taking into consideration the substantial concerns of the tutors and student teachers during 1970s when the applied science model predominated (Wilkin, 1993). Wilkin (ibid) elaborated on Gilroy (1992) and claimed that:

"Since the Conservatives came to power in 1979, initial teacher training in the United Kingdom has been subject to government intervention to a degree that would have been inconceivable during the 1960’s or 1970’s". (p. 37)

Wilkin’s (1993) views were discussed in terms of theory and practice. While Brumfit (1979) argues against the insufficient emphasis on practice compared to that on theories. He saw that courses should be integrated and explicitly related to the need to solve practical problems. Wallace (1991) raised the point that theories are not the opposite of practice but are its foundation. Teachers draw upon theories and need to use them as a foundation for their practice. Teaching, in this sense, should be based on receptive and practical knowledge.

In terms of social status (Hoyle and John 1995, p.15), argued that, although for some time the status of teaching was not as high as that of other professions, it is believed that the only way to enhance education quality is to increase the professionalism of teaching with teachers participating in the selection and preparation of new teachers.

Allwright (1977) discussed how the teacher’s role is influenced by the environment in which the target language is learnt and motivational incentives such as the job itself, salary, hours worked and the physical environment.
However, there are problems in organising such a partnership, which requires schoolteachers to be actively involved in Initial Teacher Training (ITT) and selection and preparation of trainees. Teachers have the most contact with students and are expected to provide day-to-day support and guidance during teaching practice. They are expected to teach, supervise and assess student teachers' practical training while forming a satisfactory relationship with them. The main area of concern for mentors is how to provide objective feedback on student teaching practice and how to reflect on progress while guiding them gently when they are in school as well as teaching school pupils. Meeting all these requirements is not easy. In the past, they rarely received any extra time or training for their mentor role and all too often were ill informed about the student teachers (DfEE, 1998). The success of the course depends to some extent on the teachers’ success and on how well they perform their roles. Thus, schoolteachers’ needs and expectations should be taken into consideration.

The task of teachers who accept training responsibilities cannot be limited to planning, supervision and assessment of the practical training of the students. (DfEE, 1998) They are also expected to form a satisfactory relationship with student teachers, yet need to observe objectively and assess levels of competence regarding their preparation and the evaluation of the pupils’ learning (DfEE, 1998).

The success of school-based training is dependent on the role played by mentors. McIntyre (1994, p.78) proposes three types of mentor training modules: (1) apprenticeship, (2) competency and (3) reflective. McIntyre (ibid) emphasised that the aim is to increase mentors’ competence in a variety of interpersonal skills as well as classroom practice; therefore they need to be trained in a reflective way. He emphasised the role of communication in establishing co-operative relationships arguing the effectiveness of higher education institutes (HE) in initial teacher training is not just a matter of validation or status. It is important because HE can make a contribution that schools cannot to the preparation of teachers.

The School-based training could be justified not only on the basis of schools and teachers sharing responsibility with higher education institutions for training new teachers. The success of the collaboration depends on the quality of academic knowledge, the quality of
schools and teachers selected and the quality of collaboration and communication (DfEE, 1998).

As for the role of personal contacts, there is emphasis on teachers, tutors and students working collaboratively. When teachers plan the students' programme with tutors and join in when the students' lessons are reviewed and when ideas and resources are shared, all the participants benefit (DfEE, 1998). Schools, and higher education institutions are required to monitor the ongoing development of competencies in teaching during initial training and to assess the student teachers. These guidelines are provided by training institutes where they prepare written documents, handbooks for tutors, students and schools relating the details and development of school experience. The emphasis is on producing high quality documents that have been written with the active participation of experienced teachers (DfEE, 1998).

4.8 Teaching practice and school experience

Aspects of teaching practice including its relationship with teacher education programmes and the cultivating in trainees of appropriate behaviour along with other views about professional practice which influence preparation for their future profession will be discussed in this section. Various forms of practical training and school experience have been seen as two faces of a coin. A common understanding exists among course providers of the relevance and importance of practical teaching to the overall development of the teacher so that teaching practice has become an integral part of teaching programmes. Zeichner, Tabachnick and Densmore (1987) noted that the two major components are educational methods, foundation courses and school-based experiences. Likewise learning to be a teacher goes beyond acquiring pedagogic knowledge and skills; it is also their use in practical aspects of pedagogy in classroom situations. Thus, many pre-service teacher programmes are formulated on the theory-practice premise. During the course of learning to become a teacher, student teachers usually experience the practical aspects of becoming a teacher through the components of school experience and/or teaching practice. (Cole et-al, 1993)

According to Gower (1983), teaching practice is a situation in which a teacher in training teaches a group of students under supervision. In developed Western countries, many new
techniques such as microteaching, peer teaching and reflective teaching are used to improve classroom teaching. Lortie (1975) in Freeman (1991, p.51) pointed out that early school experiences seem to constitute a more powerful influence than teacher education programmes on the process of learning to teach, both in the way student teachers interpret their training and teaching and in the way they teach.

Zeichner et al. (1984) and Wallace (1991) discussed the value of teaching practice for the development of professional education. Also, school experience were evaluated by Elliot (1993, p.245-246) who stated that:

"Teachers develop their professional theories (which are developed through training in the Universities) and test them in practical situations".

Crandall (1999) elaborated on teacher preparation in USA including the substantial opportunities for observation through school experience, including the pairing of U.S. and international students in observations to encourage a collaborative approach to observation and reflection. One student said, "There is much more to a good teacher than good teaching, and much more to a good school than the good teachers" (Crandall, 1999). School experience is based on overlapping contextual aspects. Genuine opportunities for application and reflection help student teachers develop the flexibility to teach EFL.

Crandall (ibid) discussed the effectiveness of the partnership in which students identify a real need in a real context, and engage in productive collaboration with experienced colleagues, while also benefiting others with their work. Such projects encourage authentic learning. By integrating theory and practice, schools and universities are brought together, with students involved in a project working with teachers, principals and administrators e.g. they co-teach in various ESL classes, design and implement after-school programmes and workshops and conduct studies at school sites.

Crandall (1999) emphasized that EFL teacher education is grounded in the reality of classrooms, communities and classroom discussion. She suggested a number of ways to help teachers to construct new understandings of themselves as teachers and the various ways in which they can help learners. These are:
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- Reducing the theoretical components and increasing opportunities for practice are not sufficient. What teachers need is to be prepared with opportunities to have sufficient knowledge of learning theories and cross-cultural communication;
- Engaging student teachers in classroom observation and real teaching practice helps them to develop teaching skills such as classroom management, grouping strategies and the like;
- Involving student teachers in evaluating the curriculum and materials;
- Providing student teachers with opportunities to use the technology necessary for teaching;
- Engaging student teachers in task-based research and collaborative work;
- Helping student teachers to develop understanding of the socio-political context of the English language; and
- Helping student teachers to write articles for publication and attend conferences and the like.

These approaches are reflected, in some way, in Wallace (1991) who sought a link between theory and practice through applied science and craft knowledge. Thus, there is always a need to bridge the gap between theory and practice and provide opportunities for reflection. They are complementary; one without the other is meaningless.

Richards (1998, p.53) argued that student teachers are concerned with more than issues of curriculum contexts when they teach. Therefore, the objective of school experience is to provide them with opportunities to implement a personal philosophy of teaching. Richards (ibid) sees school experience as a central issue in second language teacher education in order to develop pedagogical reasoning skills and decision-making. He refers to Schulman’s concepts of them saying that they provide a useful framework for examining these dimensions of teachers’ expertise. Schulman (1987) characterises pedagogical reasoning as a process in which the teacher turns the subject matter of instruction into forms that are pedagogically powerful and adapted to individual differences in students’ abilities and background.

The importance of teaching practice in teachers’ development cannot be over stated. In the last two decades, educational research found that student teachers placed a high value on
the practical aspects of their course such as teaching practice and school experience (Lanier and Little, 1986; Calderhead, 1991; Grossman, 1992; and Calderhead and Shorrock, 1997). Studies by Folkert (1978); Paese (1985); and Calfee (1983)- in McIntyre and Byrd (1996)- found that, regardless of its length, student teachers gained positively from their teaching practice experience.

Freeman (1990, p. 104) situates teaching practice within a wider context of "any form of teaching, from micro teaching to teaching an individual lesson to a sustained practicum over which the student has direct and individual control". Orem (1981) succinctly describes teaching practice as wanting "to know what they (student teachers) do, how and why". Schon (1983) argues that teaching is more than just applying previously learnt knowledge in the classroom. Since events occur in unpredictable ways, teachers cannot learn predetermined ways of responding. Therefore, learning how to cope with unexpected events in the classroom usually begins under guidance during teaching practice.

Calderhead and Shorrock (1997, p. 10) offer the following explanations why teaching practice is of immense value to student teachers. Firstly, teaching is viewed as an action-oriented behaviour. Teaching involves (1) moving about in the classroom; (2) talking to students and other teachers; (3) writing on the blackboard; and (4) grading exercises and even shifting classroom furniture for group work. Reading, researching and reflecting about teaching and learning are not viewed as action-oriented activities and are, thus, less appreciated and remembered. In addition, there is an emotional attachment to teaching practice. Interpersonal relationships established between student teachers and teachers and with learners in the school represent an essential aspect of the teaching course. It is, thus, necessary for student teachers to realise that becoming a teacher is not limited to overt and observable behaviours in or away from the classroom (Britten, 1988).

Dunne and Harvard (1993, p. 117) assert that it is undeniable that teaching practice provides "powerful learning experiences" but they stress that while studies reveal that teachers think that the longer time spent in school-based activities is a desirable aspect of their training and they wished it could have been longer, it cannot be assumed that "more experience is better experience"(Dunne and Harvard, ibid.), neither does it always lead to more learning because, as they argued, other factors, such as good counselling from
supervisors, may influence what student teachers learn from school based experiences regardless of their duration. The assumption that practice can improve one’s teaching is evident in reflective teaching programmes, which aspire to develop teachers who are predisposed to engage in systematic enquiry into personal practice. (Elliot 1993, Barrett et al. 1992)

4.9 The assessment procedures
Recent research highlights assessment and supervisory techniques as essential aspects related to the development of EFL teacher education. Reviews of the assessment procedures have indicated that the school experience and its supervision are still being debated (Wallace, 1991, McIntyre, 1994). Across the recent research, the assessment procedure is given much attention by educators. McIntyre (1994) shares similar views with Wallace (1991) that assessment techniques should be diagnostic and summative. McIntyre (ibid) also claimed that different people should carry out these functions at different levels and on specific occasions. But if both functions have to be done by the same person, the trainers need to be aware of the capacity in which the supervisor is operating and whether formative or summative techniques are being used.

Meanwhile the assessment of the practical teaching is the most controversial aspect of classroom performance. In this matter Wallace (1991, p.126) suggests it should be appropriately diagnostic, formative and summative, providing feedback to student teachers and staff on the extent to which the learning objectives are being realized in order to provide help for improvement. Wallace (ibid) recommended assessment procedures of the following forms.

4.9.1 Assignments
Different modes of assessment procedures have been discussed by Wallace (1991) demonstrating various aptitudes and attitudes of trainees. The presentation is an individual task in which the trainee reads materials on a given topic and speaks about it to his or her group, while the essay shows if the trainee has read widely in certain areas and is capable of analysis and judgment of the authors' works.
Reading is an assignment where the trainee will be expected to answer questions about the text. 'Workbook' relates to a structured series of tasks carried out by trainees in respect of studies and techniques to which they have been introduced, and which are centred in a workbook. A Folio is a book-type log in which trainees annotate contexts of professional action, including supervised and unsupervised events.

In total, these activities provide trainees with a different range of opportunities within which to reflect their aptitudes and attitudes.

4.9.2 Examinations
An important view concerning the situation under which examination should be required has been raised by Wallace (1991). He suggested that examinations should be given in order to achieve certain objectives and not solely a matter of routine or tradition. They should test certain aspects of performance including one which tests ability to understand and discuss certain information skills and concepts which tend to be internalised as part of the trainees' experience of the course. Examinations should test the trainees' ability to demonstrate skills in discussion and arguing under reasonable pressure and constraint of time and circumstances. They may also utilise the ideas and/or audio-based materials used in teacher education to develop the trainees' powers of observation and reflection. Trainees can then be asked to view or listen to part of a lesson and comment upon it. Examination papers may also expect trainees to answer 'open-book' questions and fulfil prepared tasks. Such papers are intended to help trainees demonstrate and recall certain key information under controlled conditions. Although individual oral examinations are time consuming, they provide the opportunity to test strengths and weaknesses in an interactive way.

4.9.3 Professional action
Professional action is that part of practical experience in which trainees have to demonstrate their capabilities as classroom practitioners. During assessment they show their capability to participate in the process of supervision and data collection as well as analytical observation and self-evaluation. Therefore this kind of assessment of the trainees' performances is formative as well as summative, Wallace (1991). Also observation schedules are devised, not only to give a reliable and valid assessment of performances but also to act as a diagnostic instrument to improve that performance,
organizing the supervisory programmes in a sequence of meetings. The earliest ones should be formative and supportive and the latter summative and flexible e.g. the trainee may be assessed on the 2 best performances out of 3. As reliability is an acute problem in the summative assessment of professional action, assessors need to take into consideration factors which might help or hinder the students' growth as a teacher, among these are assessment procedure, areas of assessment and the practice schools. The student teachers should be informed about the supervisor's visit for assessment and also the method by which they will be assessed. McIntyre (1994) argued for the possibility of developing forms of assessment, which include aspects of teaching performance. Although these differ considerably in detail, they focus on performance relating to personal characteristics such as appearance, manner, voice and speech, knowledge of subject matter, planning for instruction, classroom management and control, teaching techniques and skills, human relationships with pupils and colleagues and professional conduct and growth. The culture, facilities and equipment of practice schools must be taken into account because the trainees are not in the same position as normal members of staff who are fully integrated into their chosen organizations. Student teachers need to be knowledgeable about pupils' social and educational backgrounds because they might be allocated a totally unsuitable class or have been inadequately briefed on the class composition or asked to take a class with almost no warning.

The assessment of professional action is an important variable of practical experience since it provides guidelines for the trainees' professional growth.

4.10 Culture and EFL Teaching

Culture is defined as the cumulative deposits of knowledge, beliefs, values, religion, custom and norms by a group of people and passed on from generation to generation (Yazigy, 1991). It has been claimed that it is impossible to disassociate language and culture in any real sense. However, there are two conflicting pedagogical views toward the role of culture in the teaching of EFL abroad according to Alptekin and Alptekin (1984). One view, held mainly by native speakers of English, is that English teaching should be done with reference to the socio-cultural norms and values of an English-speaking country, with the purpose of developing bilingual and bicultural individuals. The other view, held
largely by non-native speakers of English in the country where the instruction is taking place, is that it should be independent of its nationality-bound cultural context, with a view to creating bilingual yet not necessarily bicultural people (Alptekin and Alptekin 1984).

Hyde (1994) discusses the educational situation in Morocco, which reflects the need to disassociate the English language from the culture of English-speaking countries. In this case EFL learners' desire to become bilingual without becoming bicultural gives English the role of a pure instrumental tool and a linguistic means to gain employment, a stronger economy, international banking and access to English texts and higher education.

Generally the host culture benefits from EFL instruction because it provides the accessible knowledge of advanced technology and industrial development. Yet Wilkin (1975) suggested that the cultural norms and values of the target language are usually considered "alien" and unacceptable. Therefore the host country needs to feel secure that its own culture will not be submerged completely.

This evidence would suggest that it is possible to teach language without teaching culture, however, there is other evidence to the contrary: it may be impossible to teach a language without also teaching its culture. Hyde (1994) points out that the separation of English from its cultural baggage would also strip students of very valuable knowledge. In order to better understand this point one has to consider the more general nature of knowledge and education and their relationships to culture. Whether the language is being learned as a second, foreign or auxiliary one, by its nature it reflects, transmits and conveys the cultural messages of the society explicitly or implicitly. In this sense teachers need to identify the culture of the environment and their own cultural values, ideologies and politics, so that decisions are made knowingly. Therefore, teachers who are concerned with the technical dimension of bilingualism only, without a thorough understanding of its political and ideological implications, cannot be educators (Freire and Macedo, 1987, p. 126).

We must take into account the role of the social and cultural context in shaping the set of beliefs and knowledge that a teacher has in the process of socialising them for the job. Likewise in a study on EFL teaching in Libya, Salama (2002) found that in a classroom situation, students’ feared participating in order to avoid committing errors. A traditional
proverb 'Who talks commits errors' together with other similar sayings, prohibits them from airing their views aloud for fear of losing face. Errors have no place in the classroom situation and so errors have to be immediately corrected and eradicated.

In Libyan culture teachers are viewed as knowledge holders (Shebani, 1992, p. 211). If they do not display their knowledge in lectures, if they play games or ask students to role-play in class, then they are not doing their job! Teachers are too authoritative to be challenged where knowledge is concerned and students are not in the habit of contributing their own point of view, even if teachers accidentally make mistakes. They have been trained to be obedient and learn by rote ever since kindergarten. Also, the prophetic image of the teacher acts as a barrier between teacher and students within the classroom situation. For example, famous Arab poets like Hafez Ibrahim said; "Kum lel muallim waffehe attabjeela. Kaad al inuallim an ykuna rasoula", meaning, "Pay due respect to your teacher. He/she is nearly a prophet". Studies conducted in similar contexts include (e.g. Karavas, 1993; Gimenez, 1994; Almarza; 1996; Bailey, 1996; Freeman, 1996; Zeichner & Gore, 1990; Burden, 1990; Breen, 1986 & 1991; etc.)

An understanding of the role of the social and cultural context in the education of EFL teachers in terms of its influence in shaping their beliefs and practices is essential to gain insight into why teachers do what they do in their classrooms. Also, essential to achieve an adequate understanding of the educational system, theories underpinning it and the trends it represents compared to the worldwide situation.

The importance of locating the educational enterprise, including teacher education, in interconnected layers of context is acknowledged in research from the ELT context (e.g. Burns, 1996; Gimenez, 1994; Kennedy, 1987 & 2000; etc.). For example, Kennedy (2000) stated that behaviour at national level affects and is affected by behaviour at institutional level, which, in turn, affects and is affected by individual teacher's behaviours. Based on the above, the role of the context determines the model of the teacher education seen as appropriate.
4.11 Other research related to the study

In a survey of EFL in seven Arab Countries (excluding Libya) Larudee (1970) at the American University in Cairo Egypt studied the teaching of English in Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Tunisia and Egypt. Among his findings was that the majority of the EFL teachers in these countries lacked not only professional qualifications as language teachers, but also proficiency in language skills and the ability to use English correctly.

Gebhard (1990) concluded in his study that supervisory conferences are essential for the development of student teachers’ abilities to reflect on their teaching. They referred to the case of the student teacher (June) who became successful in error correction techniques through supervisory conferences. However, Richards and Nunan (1990, p. 24) referring to Gebhard (1990) argued that if the aim of the teacher preparation programme (TPP) is to prepare effective language teachers, the programme should describe and develop principles for effective teaching and the preparation of language teachers through the process of teaching itself. Although many writers, such as Wallace (1991), differ in the way they express their views, most of them agreed that supervisory techniques are important in EFL teachers’ preparation (TP) and that the supervisors also need to be trained adequately.

Ur (1992) points out that, teachers typically feel the theoretical components of their courses fail to contribute significantly to their professional learning. Her study was based on a theory of course design called “technical rationality” (Schon 1983).

Ur (ibid) reported that the theoretical knowledge could be useful if a proper educational practice takes place. According to this course design, trainees first learn the theory from university-based research and study, then put it into practice in the classroom. The purpose of this research-based orientation in teacher preparation programmes (TPP) is to make the future teacher an “academic” by upgrading his/her status. Ur, (1992) points out that dissatisfaction with this position, mainly on the part of the trainees themselves, has been increasing because of a perceived insufficiency of teaching practice.

“The theoretical component of their courses fails to contribute significantly to their professional learning; and this results in claims that there is not enough practical teaching experience or that formal theoretical studies are relatively useless” (Ur, 1992, p. 57).
Bettinelli (1998, p. 152) reports that the Italian EFL teachers feel insecure about their command of the language; this is partly due to the fact that proficiency in using the foreign language has serious implications for language teaching. She concluded that, teachers who are not fluent speakers tend to be insecure in class and have difficulties in correcting mistakes. Her findings confirms those of Mathews (1983, p. 228) who reports that, for most of the Portuguese teachers, it is an ordeal to explain or demonstrate a piece from their teaching materials in front of their colleagues for fear of showing themselves up.

Karavas (1993), in her study of 14 EFL teachers in Greece, found that their attitudes to the use of collaborative activities were not manifested in their classrooms because of ‘large class size’ and the lack of knowledge of the communicative approach.

In Malaysia, Haji Ismail’s (2001) study focused on 13 ESL student teachers from one teacher training college on a 3-year Diploma course in Initial Teacher Education (ITE) and the mentor teachers and College staff involved in supervising them during their teaching practice. The findings reveal that there was no significant difference between the participants' perceptions of the mentors' roles, but a significant difference when it came to the mentors' practices. There were also major differences between the mentor teachers' and the college supervisors' practices. Mentor teachers generally adopted a prescriptive approach, focused more on teaching dimensions than student teachers' knowledge or pupils' learning and dominated most of the talk during the supervisory conferences. The college staff, however, adopted a deductive approach, focused more on student teachers' progress in teaching and learning, and encouraged them to reflect on their teaching. There was also an indication that the mentoring processes had some influence on student teachers' performance.

Similarities can be observed between this study and Haji Ismail’s study, especially in his conclusion concerning the research participants' perceptions of various aspects of the EFL programme and its influence on mentoring.

Dornyie (1994) found that, despite the fact that the Hungarian context permits communication and friendships with foreigners only in the context of travel or through the media, the socio-cultural orientation emerged as one of the main reasons why Hungarian
students learn English as a foreign language. These findings confirm those of Elhensheri (1977) who reported that socio-cultural factors have a great influence on student attitudes towards EFL learning. In Libyan secondary schools, though the audiolingual and the direct method were practiced using Gosbi’s course books throughout the period 1964-1984, yet the students were motivated to learn English. This was enhanced by the learners’ attitude towards the foreign countries, media and the English language speakers and their culture.

In Libya, Elhensheri (1977) in her study found that the relationship between teachers and students as well as the learning atmosphere has a great influence on the learners’ motivation. Pupils’ motivation was greatly influenced by the attitude of the community. She reported that the learners’ motivation is made up of different factors: such as summer training courses in the U.K., teaching practice supervised by English native speakers, materials provided by the British Council and the culture and social life reflected by the British community in Tripoli.

Alkhateeb (1978) in his study of teacher preparation (TP) in Libya reported that among the significant factors that influence teacher behaviour in the classroom is that their social status may reflect the need to improve their standard of living by taking other jobs. He concluded that the status of teaching within Libya is not highly valued compared to other careers and lacks the financial encouragement to attract teachers.

Salama (2002) analysed some EFL classroom behaviour in teaching new required language materials and concluded that EFL class teachers still teach new language material using traditional classroom behaviours and strategies. For example, EFL teachers still control and dominate the learning process through making the students sit passively to receive information. They also keep students’ interaction to a minimum level, while doing most of their work in their own native language (Arabic) at the expense of practising the target language (English). He also concluded that those teachers had not enough exposure to modern classroom strategies and techniques of foreign language teaching.

Boyle (2000) in his study on the education of teachers of English in China, found that the enthusiasm for English language learning there has been growing at an astonishing pace over the past few years and also the willingness to employ foreign teachers of English to assist in the task of making China part of the global English-speaking community. His aim in exploring respondents’ motivations was to enlighten the situation and provide social,
cultural and pedagogical suggestions, which might be considered relevant in the training of those interested in working as teachers of English in China.

Politics can be influential in determining student teachers' attitudes towards learning English. This confirms the studies of EFL researchers in other parts of the world. Boyle (2000) cites the example of 1st July 1997 when Hong Kong became part of Mainland China with SAR (Special Administration Region) status. Hong Kong's recent history has been very different from that of the rest of China. As a British colony, it had an environment which was much more favourable to English language learning. Shortly after the handover to China, Hong Kong schools were obliged to change from an English medium of instruction to Chinese, a policy which met with widespread opposition from schools and parents alike. Although the reasons are somewhat distinctive, yet they highlight the impact of politics on the learning of EFL.

These studies form the framework and the basis for further discussion and analysis of data collected for this study.

4.12 Summary

1. Aim
Teacher Education (TE) is the central issue of this research aiming to look at most of the available approaches to TE, to discuss and examine them in order to help the development of EFL teacher education in Libya.

2. The TE Network
The TE programme is part of a network of interacting systems (Roberts, 1998, P102), which consist of six components: (1) learner, (2) teacher, (3) classroom, (4) school, (5) local community and (6) national education. These systems depend on each other; any significant change in one is most likely to affect the others, the so-called 'ripple effect'. The following diagram shows the TE links with the six components, emphasising their role in TE programmes.
3. Models of Teacher Education:
Conventional centralised, in an operative model, teachers are restricted to meeting the requirement of a centralised system as in most developing countries such as Libya. The decentralised model is where teachers autonomously make their own decisions as in most developed countries.

Knowledge-centred is always normative, objective and person-free. Person-centred is that of the teacher and pupil as thinker and person. Knowledge in this model is person-based and subjective.

4. Modules of Teaching
(1) Curriculum operative: The language teacher delivers a prescribed textbook as required by central planners.
(2) Problem solver: The teachers’ role is to support independent learning. Curriculum is decentralised. Teachers diagnose the unique needs of learners and make decisions about the syllabus, materials and tests.

5. Types of Language Teacher Knowledge
(1) Content knowledge: knowing target language systems, text types etc.
(2) Pedagogic content knowledge: Contents are adapted for communicating linguistic knowledge according to the learners’ needs.
(3) General Pedagogic knowledge: Principles, strategies, planning, aids, resources and assessment for classroom management.
(4) Curricular knowledge of the language and resources, (textbooks, examinations etc).
(5) Contextual knowledge: knowledge of learners’ characteristics, behaviour and expectations, together with knowledge of the school norms of classroom behaviour, colleagues, legal and community accountability and expectations.
(6) Process knowledge: Ability to relate to learners, peers, parents and including skills in study, teamwork, observation, classroom inquiry and language analysis.

6. The Core Knowledge Base of Second Language (SL) Teacher Education
Six domains form the core knowledge base of second language teacher education: (1) theories of teaching, (2) teaching skills, (3) communication skills, (4) subject matter knowledge, (5) Pedagogical reasoning and decision-making and (6) contextual knowledge. (Richards, 1998, p. 29)

7. Language Competence
For non-native English teachers, language competence is essential. The standards of EFL teacher preparation programmes are:
1. Linguistic;
2. Literary and cultural;
3. Pedagogical.

In general, poor command of the English language has a negative effect. It can prevent the teacher from fulfilling the pedagogical requirements of a more Communicative Approach to language teaching.
Other important factors are the differences between the worlds of native and non-native English speaking teachers. Doff's approach to teaching English is to bridge the gap between the two worlds by presenting methodology that is accessible to teachers. This approach takes into account the following principles: (1) materials, (2) new ideas, (3) language improvement courses, (4) new teaching methods, (5) Applied linguistic theories and (6) training course.

8. Competent teaching is a compound of three elements:
(1) Subject matter knowledge,
(2) Systematic knowledge of teaching and
(3) Reflective practical experience.

9. History of Language Teaching Development
From the early 1970's to the present time (30 years) there has been a turning point from using old methods passed from one generation to another to trying different approaches. For example, language teaching is no longer looked upon as being only 'language grammar' and has expanded to four specialist areas: (1) Speaking, (2) Listening, (3) Reading and (4) Writing. Up to now these have still not been applied in Libya.

10. Paradigms of T.E

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paradigms of TE (Roberts, 1998, p.118)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Behaviourist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Personalistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Traditional craft</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Inquiry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Craft model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Applied science model</td>
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<tr>
<td>7 Reflective model</td>
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</table>
The qualities of these views show the advantages and disadvantages of each one thus giving a deeper understanding of how we can choose the most suitable approach to introduce the development of EFL teacher training.

11. Subject Matter Knowledge
Definition: Subject matter knowledge refers to what second language teachers need to know about their subject - the specialised concepts, theories and disciplinary knowledge that constitute the theoretical basis for the field of second language teaching.

Courses in areas such as the following are typical in both pre-service and in-service SLTE programs and reflect views about what constitutes appropriate subject matter for second language teachers:
1. Phonetics and phonology.
2. English syntax.
3. Curriculum and syllabus design.
4. Discourse analysis.
5. Sociolinguistics.
6. Analysis of TESOL methods.
(Richards, 1998, p.8)

To summarise, subject matter knowledge refers to what teachers need to know about what they teach, rather than about teaching itself, (see Cochran, DeRuiter and King 1993) and constitutes knowledge that would not be shared with other subject teachers or non-teachers (Richards, 1998).

4.13 Conclusion
An extended review of different approaches to EFL teacher education has been provided in this chapter including programme components and models of teacher education. In fact each model highlights important factors that can help to develop teacher preparation programmes as well as how best to prepare teachers for the profession.
Since the T.E. program is part of the national education system there are strong influences affecting its success. This network should be addressed and considered in future planning.

The knowledge-centred mode of teaching is the commonest model applied in most developing countries such as Libya.

Language competence is very important in preparing a good EFL teacher, therefore the program should include three standards: linguistic, cultural and pedagogical.

In the communicative approach, a proficiency in English is vital and the 7 recommended subjects for T.E. programs are: Phonetics and phonology, English syntax, Curriculum and syllabus design, Discourse analysis, Sociolinguistics, Analysis of TESOL methods, and Testing and evaluation.

The contextual concepts influencing EFL education such as the socio-cultural and political context have been examined. The terminology of teacher preparation components, school experience and teaching practice has been reviewed. Supervisory and assessment techniques have been presented and also the approaches to EFL teacher education such as teachers’ mental constructs. The cognitive, reflective and constructive approaches, beliefs and culture have been presented. A range of studies related to EFL teacher education and to the topic under study has been explored to serve as a conceptual framework for interpreting the data provided.

Chapter 5 represents a set of methodological procedures used in this research in order to explore the status quo of EFL teacher education in Libya. Data collection and analysis are discussed in detail.
5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology and the research framework of the study starting with a description of two modes of inquiry: the positivistic, and the interpretive-constructivist, followed by a rationale for the research paradigm adopted. Data collection procedures including the design and administration of instruments and the fieldwork process are delineated and constraints impinging upon the fieldwork procedures are identified and pinpointed.

The fieldwork, which included collection of data, yielded rich amounts for analysis. The set of three questionnaires were subjected to quantitative data analysis procedures and the interview data to qualitative analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994 and Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000, Glaser, 1995, Bryman and Cramer, 2001). The collection and analysis of data were conducted within the interpretive-constructivist research framework adopted for the study. It is assumed that using this approach will make an important contribution to the EFL research field in Libya and facilitate analysis of the EFL teacher education process, the views of student teachers, qualified teachers and tutors. It also will help in gathering information about their concerns and formulating suggestions for the betterment of the programme under study.

5.2 Methodological Issues of the Study

In terms of the methodological issues of the study, the Libyan social and cultural context in general and the research context in particular, are rich with contextual factors that have their bearings on the methodology of research studies in human sciences in Libya. In educational research the positivistic paradigm dominates the scene, which considers educational phenomena as always observable and quantifiable (Ghafir, 1987 and Abufarwa, 1988). Using an interpretive-constructivist approach as in this study is unprecedented in the positivistic research tradition in Libya. It has
always been the case in educational research in Libya that educational phenomena are expected to be divisible, measurable, always objective and devoid of personal bias.

The dominance of this approach may have been due to the collectivist nature of Libyan society in which respondents in research samples at the first stages of data collection show their reservations about voicing their opinions openly, especially the teachers and student teachers. This could be due to factors such as traditions and social values, and why people's opinions are mistakenly taken for granted or are not attended to appropriately (Clandinin, 1987).

Making use of the interpretive-constructivist approach in this study has been innovative, opening new aspects that are promising and rewarding. The research process followed throughout, highlights the potential for investigating educational phenomena in Libya by invading a new territory, which is EFL teacher education.

General research in the area of 'EFL teacher education' identifies few studies relative to teacher education in ELT. The gap in both research and curriculum development led the researcher to explore the essential variable, namely the learning experience that student teachers derive from the EFL teacher education programme.

In the study of the teaching and learning processes the focus has invariably been on the observable phenomena rather than on the most important and influential variable, namely the teacher. During recent years, especially following the English language eradication period, research focused on the running of EFL classrooms throughout the country with little attention being paid to pre- or in-service EFL teacher education (Suayah, 1994).

Course books are frequently daunting in the atmosphere of ELT in Libya. In recent years research indicates that little attention has been paid to whether EFL teacher education programmes or EFL classroom teachers already teaching are able to address and assimilate the changes in the curriculum and make them their own (UNESCO 1994). Thus, the need to investigate the EFL teacher education programme in Libya has been obvious and became the focus of this study.
Fieldwork followed and the contextual constraints appearing in the collection of data indicated the difficulty of using a paradigm that addresses people who have their own perceptions and constructs of reality. The research context has been questionnaire and interview-based. The questionnaire acted like a passkey for the interviewers and gave informants in phase 2 of the study the opportunity to have their say. Also it acted as a springboard for the interviews but did not control them. It gave a deep, global, though not totally precise picture of the situation. The design and layout of the questionnaire were tailor-made to suit the target respondents, the cultural values and structural constraints involved.

Also, there were certain ethical issues to be considered which the researcher would not sacrifice for the sake of applying the research agenda. Among the issues to be discussed later in this chapter, many of which were beyond the researcher's control, are the respondent's reservations towards using the tape recorder and their inflexible timetable. Therefore, conducting the interviews was tempered by social and cultural factors related to the respondents.

Some of the methodological issues raised by the study resonate with research studies on teacher education in general and EFL teacher education in particular in terms of access and social and cultural values (e.g. Karavas, 1993 and Lee, 1999).

Karavas (1993), in her study of EFL teachers' attitudes towards the communicative approach in the Greek context, cited contextual constraints in data collections, such as access, teachers' crammed timetables, lack of time, financial resources, etc. Similarly, in a study on ESL teachers' teaching metaphors in Malaysia, Lee (1999) described how the access procedures that he followed suggest a rather closed system.

Methodologically, these findings strongly indicate that teachers are able to articulate perceptions and have something to say if given the opportunity through qualitative modes of research. This again emphasises the importance of studying the target research context and implementing more than one approach of enquiry in Libya. Therefore, this study has highlighted the richness of using the interpretive-constructivist approach and its effectiveness in exploring the phenomena.
The researcher’s arguments in adopting this position are not to debate the experimental design or the positivistic mode of inquiry totally from the Libyan educational research context. Rather, it is to urge researchers to take the risk of trying other modes of inquiry and hence catering for the multi-dimensionality of the human phenomena instead of being heavily weighted towards one approach.

5.3 Research paradigms

Nunan (1992) raised the important point that research is a systematic method, which involves both the researcher and the methods used to gather information for broadening our understanding of the nature of the phenomena under investigation. To achieve their research objective, researchers adopt different methodologies that have been presented by different research paradigms. How to organise and carry out research depends entirely on the researcher’s knowledge in theory and in reality (Nunan 1992).

The research paradigms can be categorised as follows:

- Post-positivism (human behaviour can be predicted approximately, but never be fully understood, Hitchcock and Hughes 1995),
- Positivist (human experience is a self-control behaviour examined by natural science methods, Cohen and Manion 1994), and
- Interpretive (the focus is on the individual and to understand the world of objective experience, Guba and Lincoln 1991).

The last two have been used widely in social science research. The positivist is referred to as quantitative research and the interpretive presented as qualitative research.

Quantitative research aims at discovering causal relationships between different parties by using controlled and objective instruments and, as a result, placing little emphasis on individual behaviour (Guba and Lincoln 1991). To prove or deny hypotheses, numerical data are collected for statistical analysis in order to reproduce or generalise the findings in the context. By contrast, qualitative research is seeking a
dynamic and subjective reality through naturalistic, uncontrolled data collection procedures for expanding the knowledge of phenomena through the exploration of the individual's subjective information of mind (Cohen, Manion and Morrison 2000; Kincheloe 1991).

This discussion considered that quantitative and qualitative research should not be viewed as mutually exclusive. Rather, the researcher held the belief that a combination of the two methods would best serve the purpose of this research so the current research has taken the issue of triangulation into consideration looking at a research issue from more than one perspective (Cohen and Manion 2000). Having done this, the study adopts different techniques of data collection. Such a method would be expected to gather rich quantitative data for generalising the results and qualitative in-depth data for providing explanations of the findings (Cohen and Manion 2000). In other words, data generated can avoid being bound by one specific method of data collection so that genuine and trustworthy findings can be revealed.

Social reality is realised in a social context that has a significant and palpable effect on the ways humans construct and interpret social reality (Williams and Burden, 1997). Therefore, achieving a better understanding of social reality and the sense-making process of people should be within this social context. Participants are treated as active contributors to the interpretive process in which they are engaged. In view of the exploratory nature of this study, the researcher held the belief that the assumptions of each mode of inquiry, which the researcher would not sacrifice for the sake of introducing a new research agenda within the Libyan educational research context, would be considered. The basic assumptions of each mode of inquiry are summarised in Table (5.1).
### Table (5.1) Proposition of quantitative and qualitative modes of inquiry
Adapted from Glesne & Peshkin, (1992, p.7)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POSITIVISTIC MODE</th>
<th>INTERPRETIVE/CONSTRUCTIVIST MODE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ASSUMPTIONS</strong></td>
<td><strong>ASSUMPTIONS</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Social facts have an objective reality</td>
<td>1. Reality is socially constructed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Primacy of method</td>
<td>2. Primacy of subject matter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Variables can be identified and</td>
<td>3. Variables are complex, interwoven, and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Relationships measured</td>
<td>4. Difficult to measure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Etic (outsider’s point of view)</td>
<td>5. Emic (insider’s point of view)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PURPOSE</strong></td>
<td><strong>PURPOSE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Generalizability</td>
<td>1. Contextualization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Prediction</td>
<td>2. Interpretation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Causal explanations</td>
<td>3. Understanding actors’ perspectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>APPROACH</strong></td>
<td><strong>APPROACH</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Begins with hypotheses and theories</td>
<td>1. Ends with hypotheses and grounded theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Manipulation and control</td>
<td>2. Emergence and portrayal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Uses formal instruments</td>
<td>3. Researcher as instrument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Experimentation</td>
<td>4. Naturalistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Deductive</td>
<td>5. Inductive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Seeks consensus, the norm</td>
<td>7. Seeks pluralism, complexity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Reduces data to numerical indices</td>
<td>8. Makes minor use of numerical indices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>RESEARCHER ROLE</strong></td>
<td><strong>RESEARCHER ROLE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Detachment and impartiality</td>
<td>1. Personal involvement and partiality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Objective portrayal</td>
<td>2. Emphatic understanding</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 5.4 The paradigm followed in the study

A review of the studies on ELT adds methods to the growing lists of qualitative research methods. For example, repertory grids have been used as a strategy (e.g. Saka, 1995, Sendan, 1995, Yaxley, 1991, Corporal, 1991, Diamond, 1991). Seven

In view of the exploratory nature of this study, the naturalistic orientation of qualitative research appeared to be an appropriate choice. The aim is to understand actualities, social realities and human perceptions that exist untainted. Rather than providing generalisable hunches on human phenomena, the aim is to uncover the many idiosyncrasies and present slice-of-life episodes documented through natural language to represent as closely as possible how people feel, what they know, and what their concerns, beliefs, perceptions and understandings are (Ernest, 1994, Bennett et al., 1994).

Since this study aims to explore the situation of EFL teacher education in Libya and to come to grips with the reality as it is, the qualitative mode of inquiry is suited to the purposes of the study. The aim is not to measure reality through a predetermined set of instruments, but rather, and more significantly, to gain insight into what is there in order to move on to what should be. This is due to the concept of the present study, which is targeted to explore the extent to which the present EFL teacher education programme reflects the recent trends in EFL teacher education.

The study aims to come to grips with social reality in terms of how the school and university staff would see the EFL teacher education programme. More specifically, the aims included ascertaining how student teachers, their university tutors, classroom teachers and school Head teachers perceive the programme of EFL teacher education in Libya. Their reactions to the programme are of great significance in formulating a holistic overview of the socialisation process that EFL student teachers undergo in Libya. An invaluable aim is to assess where the present situation of EFL teacher education in Libya stands within the recent trends of EFL teacher education. Thus, in
the context of this study, respondents are understood from the constructivist perspective to be "meaning-making organisms, theory builders who develop hypotheses, notice patterns, and construct theories of action from their life experience" (White & Gunstone, 1992).

The interpretive-constructivist mode of inquiry has the potential to get the informants to articulate themselves. The social construction of reality and the ways in which social interaction reflects actors’ unfolding definitions of their situations are the things which render the natural social world intelligible (Ernest, 1994).

The researcher’s role is non-interventionist and non-manipulative. The social world should be studied in its natural state (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983). The researcher comes close to the phenomenon or the informants under study, and, at the same time, keeps a certain distance from them for the purpose of maintaining as much objectivity as possible. By getting close to informants, for example through meetings and discussions, invaluable information, perhaps not thought of before the investigation, can be obtained.

Interpretive modes of inquiry are concerned with the relationship between meaning-perspectives of actors and the ecological circumstances of action. This is because situations are fluid and changing rather than fixed and static; events and behaviour evolve over time and are richly affected by context- they are situated activities (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000).

The researcher builds a picture of the different voices, dialectically constructing a synthesis of the experience under study. "The investigator wants to understand the minds and hearts of the research participants in as total and unadulterated a way as possible" (Ely, 1991, p.122). Both the researcher and the researched are interlocked in such a way that the findings of an investigation are the literal creation of the inquiring process (Radnor, 1994 and Guba & Lincoln, 1991). It is the interaction between the inquired and the inquired into that creates the data (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992). Because inquirers are human, they cannot set aside their own subjectivity or ignore the subjectivity of the inquired into (Guba & Lincoln, 1991).
In terms of methodology, the qualitative mode of inquiry and the belief that methods
of inquiry must be appropriate to the aims of inquiry is essential (Kincheloe, 1991). Unlike quantitative research, the qualitative mode is concerned more with the abstract characteristics of events. Data are collected in a natural setting. Therefore, it is "not possible to go into the field of inquiry with a tight research design" (Radnor, 1994, p. 9) as this might delude researchers into seeing only what they want or expect to see.

Investigating the social world of the EFL teacher education programme in Libya as distinct from teacher education programmes of other school subjects or even as distinct from EFL teacher education in other countries would unfold reactions to and definitions of the EFL teacher education programme held by research participants.

The purpose of this study, following the interpretive mode of inquiry, is to gain a holistic picture of the research phenomenon under study, and to gain insight into what EFL teacher education in Libya is like. In the attempt to investigate the situation, the study made use of interviews and questionnaires. Questionnaires were used for various purposes but generally to obtain first hand data.

The researcher is of the opinion that the interpretive mode of inquiry would contribute to the development of the research context in Libya. The critical examination of the literature indicated that the research context in Libya has been mainly questionnaire-based (Salama, 2002, Ghafir, 1987, Dughri, 1980).

People are used to researchers coming down to their workplaces and asking them to fill in questionnaires anonymously. The fact that questionnaires are common as a data collection instrument (Oppenheim 1992) has facilitated the access to the informants for further interviews. This is because conducting interviews in a research context, where people are not used to expressing their opinion openly, is a difficult and painstaking task. The researcher is of the opinion that the research tradition in Libya has been for so long the positivistic mode of inquiry in which research findings have been based on what people say, whilst people expressing their views openly is something that has almost been absent from the research agenda. Researchers are used
to launching their research projects using predetermined sets of data collection instruments that in most cases reflect the expectations of the researchers themselves rather than giving a representation of reality as it is, or as it is seen by the informants themselves.

Previous research was conducted using a single research method for data collection. That is why the use of more than one data collection method in this study can be considered a contribution to the Libyan educational research context.

It should come as no surprise to find multiple methods in a naturalistic inquiry as a means of gaining a deeper perspective into the research phenomenon, crosschecking information as well as offsetting problems that may arise. In view of the fact that naturalistic inquiry often deals with opinion and interpretations, using more than one method reinforces the findings. Triangulating information gathered through multiple methods adds rigour to the data and reaffects findings. Many methods give greater validity and reliability of the findings (Patton, 1990). The element of generalisation of findings to a wider context has never been a goal of naturalistic inquiry. However, the in-depth nature of the inquiry means that the findings give explanations and insights into a phenomenon, which could be useful to other people in similar situations (Allwright & Bailey, 1991, and Fenstermacher, 1986).

5.5 Design of the study

The above overview relates to different modes of inquiry and the assumptions underpinning each illuminate the situation and lay the ground for the research position adopted by the study. This, as indicated, has had implications for the researcher’s role and access, the procedures for data collection and data analysis. The study makes use of both quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments. The questionnaire used close-ended questions matched against a Likert rating scale encouraging respondents to indicate the extent of their agreement or disagreement. The experiment of piloting the questionnaire indicated that almost none of the respondents answered the open-ended questions related to each closed ended question because of variables like time constraints or suspicion about putting anything in English on paper. Therefore the
space provided to write their views on each point under discussion was deleted, and substituted with space at the end of the questionnaire to write their comments and views about the programme constraints, concerns and problems facing them, as well as what they need and see as being appropriate for the development of the EFL teacher preparation programmes in Libya.

5.6 Data collection

This study took a two-pronged approach to investigating EFL teacher education. The first approach utilised close-ended and open-ended questions at the end of the questionnaire.

A set of three questionnaires was designed, piloted and administered to three samples of respondents: (1) student teachers, (2) EFL classroom teachers and (3) university tutors (Phase 1).

The second approach utilised semi-structured interviews with three sub-samples drawn from the original three sets of questionnaires along with unstructured interviews with Head teachers (Phase 2). Thus, the interviews were of two types: semi-structured and unstructured. Fig (5.1) presents the research framework of the study.
DATA COLLECTION

PHASE ONE
Initial Interviews with samples of respondents

ALLOCATING THEMES FROM THE INITIAL INTERVIEWS

DESIGN OF QUESTIONNAIRES TO BE ADMINISTERED TO:

1. STUDENT TEACHERS (SAMPLE 25) (RESPONSE RATE 83.3%)
2. UNIVERSITY TUTORS (SAMPLE 22) (RESPONSE RATE 88%)
3. CLASSROOM TEACHERS (SAMPLE 28) (RESPONSE RATE 93.3%)

PHASE TWO
(SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS WITH SUB-SAMPLES OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES SAMPLES)

➢ STUDENT TEACHERS (SAMPLE 10)
➢ UNIVERSITY TUTORS (SAMPLE 6)
➢ CLASSROOM TEACHERS (SAMPLE 8)

AND UNSTRUCTURED INTERVIEWS WITH
➢ SCHOOL HEADTEACHERS (SAMPLE 4)

DATA ANALYSIS

QUANTITATIVE
USING SPSS
1. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS
2. INFERENTIAL STATISTICS
(Bryman & Cramer, 2001)

QUALITATIVE
INTERVIEWS: CONTENT ANALYSIS
BASED ON GROUNDED THEORY
(Glaser & Strauss, 1995)

Fig. (5.1) Methodological Framework of the Study

The aim at this stage was to obtain as much information as possible from the participants related to the issues under investigation, such as the objectives of the programme, criteria followed in assessing students' progress, the role of the Head teacher, the role of the university tutor, etc.
In stage 1 the aim of the study was to gather information from final year students (ST), University tutors and also EFL class teachers (CL) regarding their views about the status quo of the current EFL programme at Al-Fateh University. Because of the nature of the study, the researcher opted to use questionnaires as the most suitable methods of gathering information at this stage.

Questionnaires have probably been the most frequently used research tool in general education research (Oppenheim, 1992) especially in exploring views and opinions towards language teaching programmes.

Bell (1987) claimed that questionnaires tend to be low cost for collecting and processing data. On the other hand, a questionnaire can provide an effective means for expression without fear of embarrassment to the respondents, who are free to answer at their convenience (Oppenheim, 1992; Cohen and Manion, 1994).

With a well-planned questionnaire, different types of information can be collected from large numbers of people. Questionnaires can provide quantitative and qualitative data, which can be analysed using sophisticated or basic statistical analysis or qualitative analysis (Oppenheim, 1992; Nunan, 1992; Bell, 1987).

However, using questionnaires has disadvantages. These include frequent low response rates and consequent bias (Oppenheim, 1992; Cohen and Manion, 1994). Furthermore questionnaires do not give the opportunity to correct misunderstandings or to probe responses or to offer individual explanation or help. The weakness of the questionnaire is that respondents will interact with it and may project upon it an image of some kind of person or organisation behind the questions and this may mould their responses.

Considering the advantages and limitations of using questionnaires, the present study employs a questionnaire as a means of eliciting data and as a pass key to the interviews. The questionnaire design is based on a constructivist position, where the respondents were given a space to write their comments. In phase two, these views and
responses were further investigated. Details related to the design of the questionnaire and its piloting as a data collection instrument are presented in the section below.

5.6.1 Phase one

5.6.1.1 Construction and development of the questionnaire

The use of questionnaires has for long been one type of data gathering for research purposes. They function as a tool to be used for the *elicitation, recording, and collecting* of information. The three italicised words in this definition summarise the essence of what questionnaires are about (Kirakowski, 2001). In this study, they were used as a way to elicit, and record what respondents think about the EFL teacher preparation programme they experienced in terms of both university and school education.

Design of the questionnaires in phase one of the study was guided by the desire to understand the research phenomenon as seen by participants themselves and not filtered through the researcher's schema or expectations. The piloting of the questionnaire has given the impression that it is grounded in context. Additionally, a major guide in the process of questionnaire design was the literature related to initial teacher education in general and EFL teacher education in particular.

The design of the questionnaires related to the target student teacher sample. It was administered to 4th year students because it was believed that they are more able to reflect on the programme as a whole since they have experienced every aspect of it over 4 years of undergraduate study, including its academic and professional aspects. The questions also addressed the university tutors and the schoolteachers in their own terms, something that indicated it would be beneficial to compare their views with those of student teachers. The scaling of the questionnaires was context sensitive.

Considerations taken into account when designing the questionnaires included reviewing the relevant literature on language teaching and learning and EFL teacher education and also the role of school and university in foreign language teaching.
Additionally, recommendations and guidelines of professional organisations such as IATEFL, the National Council of Teachers of English, and TESOL were also considered.

The guidelines of the EFL teacher preparation programme offered by the Universities of Buckingham and Wolverhampton were also considered. Course details such as requirements and assessment procedures for preparing EFL teachers to teach overseas were given by Dr G. Loftus and Dr T. Little Heads of EFL departments at Buckingham and Wolverhampton Universities respectively.

Following the principles of the interpretive-constructivist approach, the researcher held preliminary meetings with the respondents where issues, claims and concerns were discussed. These issues were taken into consideration when constructing the questionnaires.

The questionnaire was developed over a period of time with three major draft stages. The first draft was submitted for comment and further recommendations to two postgraduate students at Warwick University who had graduated from the English Language department at Al-Fateh University. On the basis of this feedback and further comments from the research supervisor (Prof. Allison) a second draft was produced. The third was finalised and produced after approval by the researcher's new supervisor (Dr. Kearsey).

The questionnaire consisted of eight categories corresponding to information background, objectives of the programme, attitudes towards the criteria of school selection, assessment procedures, the role of university tutors (Academic and Professional) and the role of class and Head teachers.

The 5-point scale (Likert in Openheim, 1992) was reduced with the approval of Prof. Allison to a 4-point scale to avoid neutrality.

Each question had 4 options ranging from (1) Strongly Agree (SA), to (4) Strongly Disagree (SD). Participants were expected to choose according to their perceptions of how adequately they are prepared by the EFL programme (Al-Fateh University). All
responses were coded on a scale of 1 to 4 to determine their mean value. A response of 1 (SA) indicated strong agreement, and 4 (SD) strong disagreement. The questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter explaining the purpose of the study and containing instructions on how it should be completed. General background information was requested at the beginning of the questionnaire (see Appendices 4, 5 & 6).

Denscombe's (1998, p: 97-100) and Cohen and Manion's (1994, p: 108-109) guidelines were considered for the wording of questions. Demoralising and offensive questions were avoided and questions were mainly in the respondents' frames of reference, (i.e. theoretical jargon was avoided). Leading questions and asking the same question in a different form, which might have confused the respondents, were also avoided.

5.6.1.2 Pilot study and questionnaire validity:
According to Oppenheim (1992) and Bell (1987), validity is defined as the degree to which an instrument measures what it is supposed or intended to measure.

The purpose of the pilot study was to test comprehensibility of the questionnaire, checking the significance and relevance of responses in relation to the aims and objectives of the study. In this respect the views of De Vaus (1996) were taken into consideration, e.g. questions were developed in phase 1, tested in phase 2 and polished in phase 3 (De Vaus, 1996, p. 100).

The process of designing and trying out questions and procedures is essential to the development of sound research procedures (Bell, 1993, McMillan, 1984). Similarly, Oppenheim (1992, p. 51) suggests that:

"The ELS stages of pilot work are likely to be exploratory, and will be primarily concentrated with the conceptualisation of the research problem, they might involve lengthy, unstructured interviews; talks with key informants or the accumulation of essays written around the subject of the enquiry."

In other words the pilot study also enabled the researcher to explore its validity.
It is important, therefore, to know that a questionnaire cannot be a valid measure unless it is a reliable measure (Robson, 1993) and, according to Oppenheim, (1992), it is important that at least one other person should read the questionnaire thoroughly before it is finalised, preferably someone who is not involved in its preparation in order to provide an independent point of view.

Therefore the piloting was conducted prior to the collection of data for the main study on site with the researcher present using samples of typical respondents. The first draft of the questionnaires involved two postgraduate Libyan EFL students in Coventry. The aim was to clarify any ambiguity in wording and sort out any possible misunderstanding related to the questions. Taking suggestions into consideration in addition to discussions with the researcher's supervisors, the questionnaires were revised and modified. The final draft was piloted with five student teachers, tutors and classroom teachers.

The respondents who were approached were willing to answer the questionnaire. Most of them found it interesting. When designing the questionnaire the researcher thought a space should be given at the end for respondents to express themselves freely, giving opinions and suggestions concerning the problems and constraints experienced.

To maximise validity, the responses of a sub-sample (the interview respondents) were further validated in follow up interviews where the respondents were asked to confirm their responses. The 100% confirmation of their responses validated the quantitative data.

The aim at this stage was to:

a) Check whether the structure and organisation of questionnaires met the requirements of the study (Powney and Watts, 1987), especially for the target research;

b) Check the ways and means relating to respondents in general (Glesne and Peshkin, 1992);

c) Identify inappropriate wording or ambiguities;

d) Check the extent of responsiveness to the questionnaires;
e) Ascertain the timing and the time required to conduct each questionnaire;
f) Check the feasibility of conducting the study in the target research context;
g) Determine the adequacy of the sampling frame; and
h) Establish the adequacy of the questions to be asked (Burton, 2000).
i) Checking the pilot test in order to revise questions where necessary, finalise the
skip patterns for filter questions and to make sure that the final layout of the
questionnaire is clear for respondents. (De Vaus, 1996, p. 100).

The respondents managed to complete the questionnaire in 45 minutes. This confirms
that its length was about right. To add validation to responses at this stage, follow-up
meetings were held where the researcher had the opportunity to explain in Arabic the
questions to the class teachers and student teachers to make sure that the views given
were actually those intended by respondents. Feedback was obtained on the spot
through discussions (Bennett et al, 1994), which yielded insight for the refinement and
adjustments of the wording and reinforced the clarity of the statements.

Examples of the changes that were made to the questionnaires include:

a) Some terminology was avoided; e.g. (Mentors);

b) The Likert scale used in the piloted versions of the questionnaires was reduced
from a 5 to a 4-point scale. The neutral cell was deleted, since it was found that most
of the respondents tended to take a neutral position. One reason is cultural. People
sometimes analogously misapply a religious value and tend to take the middle position
in every aspect of life when choices are given. Because the researcher was keen to
obtain definite answers from the respondents to the issues under investigation, the
neutral cell was intentionally deleted;

c) The number of questions became small compared to the first version (De Vaus,
1996, p. 100). This was because of deleting the open-ended questions related to each
topic under discussion and the need to be as direct as possible guaranteeing as much
concentration as possible in understanding and responding to the questionnaires.
Precautions were also taken not to use too much of participants time and not to make
them lose face (especially student teachers) in expressing themselves to others because of their limited ability in English, especially in written forms.

5.6.1.3 Reliability of the questionnaires
Reliability is defined as the extent to which a test produces consistent, accurate results when administered under similar conditions (Hatch et al. 1991, p. 530).

Oppenheim (1992) shares a similar view with Hatch et al. (ibid) and suggested that reliability measures how accurate and precise the instrument is. It also refers to the ability of a measuring instrument to produce the same answer on successive occasions when no change has occurred in the thing being measured (McMillan, 1984, p. 126). A reliability test can help in investigating whether the measurements produce the same, or significantly close answers on different occasions. Meanwhile, Hatch et al. (1991, p. 531) referred to the following points for estimating reliability:

1. Consistency over time—correlation between test-retest scores;
2. Equivalence in form—correlation of parallel or comparable tests;
3. Equivalence in judgment—reliability checks; and
4. Consistency within a set.

Hatch et al. (1991) also warn that factors such as time span, history and the selected sample (Ss) physical and psychological state could be sources of error variance. Hence they refer to Henning (1987, p. 531) who suggests that the time span should be less than two weeks in order to minimise the impact of learning, forgetting and maturation.

The sample used in this study consisted of student teachers, class teachers and University tutors from the area where the study has been conducted (Al-Fateh University and selected secondary schools nearby). A stability test/retest technique to check the reliability was used to obtain the consistency of stable characteristics over a period of time through administering the same test to the same individuals.
Therefore a consistency over time correlation between test-retest has been selected by following Pearson correlation. The coefficient of stability is provided by correlation scores from the same test of each group of individuals on two different occasions. Questionnaires were simultaneously administered to samples of respondents typical of the target respondents in the main study. Scores of the responses in both cases were compared and calculated.

The coefficient of 0.86 was obtained, as the respondents seemed to move in the same direction. According to Hatch et al. (1991, p. 531), “the Ss at the top in the first test will still be at the top in the second, and so forth”. They also go on to state that “An ‘r’ in the high 0.80s or 0.90s would show that the data are reliable (i.e. consistent and trustworthy)“.

This test-retest procedure assumes that the variables measured (the responses of the individual) remain consistent. Thus, the overall reliability of the results was considered to be adequate for the study.

### 5.6.1.4 Description of the questionnaires

After making necessary changes in the light of the feedback obtained through the pilot study, the questionnaires took their final shape described below:

1. **Student Teachers Questionnaires**
   
   This questionnaire consists of eight parts (see Appendix 4) aimed to ascertain student teachers' views about a set of issues, as follows:
   
   a) Information background;
   
   b) Objectives of the programme;
   
   c) School selected for teaching practice;
   
   d) Criteria used for the assessment of student teachers' progress and achievement;
   
   e) Academic role of the University tutor;
   
   f) Professional role of the University tutor;
   
   g) Role of the school Head teacher;
   
   h) Role of EFL classroom teacher.
2. **University Tutors Questionnaire**
This consists of six parts, (see Appendix 5) aimed to ascertain University tutors' views about a set of issues, as follows:

a) Information background;
b) Objectives of the programme;
c) School selected for teaching practice;
d) Criteria used for the assessment of student teachers' progress and achievement;
e) Academic role of the tutor;
f) Professional role of the tutor.

3. **EFL Classroom Teachers' Questionnaire**
This questionnaire consists of six parts, (see Appendix 6) aimed to ascertain classroom teachers' views about a set of issues, such as:

a) Information background;
b) Objectives of the programme;
c) School selected for teaching practice;
d) Criteria used for the assessment of student teachers' progress and achievement;
e) Role of the school Head teacher; and
f) Role of the EFL classroom teacher.

5.6.1.5 **Administration of the questionnaires in the main study**
The researcher administered questionnaires personally on the site of the fieldwork to the target samples of respondents as shown in Table (5.2) below.
Table 5.2
Samples of respondents in phase one of the study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaires</th>
<th>population</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Total sample</th>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Response rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student Teachers</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Al-Fateh University</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>83.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Tutors</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>Al-Fateh University</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom Teachers</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Abu Menyar</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>93.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(9) teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ali Wuraith</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(13) teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7th of April</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(16) teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Jamal Abdel</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Naser (11) teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.6.1.6 Selection of the population in phase 1 of the study

The samples of University tutors and student teachers came from Al-Fateh University, the only one within the district of Tripoli, Libya's Capital, that offers the EFL teacher education programme. Being a member of staff, frequent visits were made by the researcher to the university but free access did not prevent the researcher from caring about ethical issues. For example, the Registrar was visited and the purpose of the study and the reasons for collecting information about EFL students and the tutors were explained.

A list of all the students in the final 4th year and their tutors was provided including their contact phone numbers and addresses. Another meeting was held with the Head of the Department, the head of the Teaching Practice Committee and a number of EFL tutors to whom the purpose of the study was explained and discussed. Help and information about the EFL teacher preparation programme was requested. In those meetings the possibility of translating the questionnaires from English into Arabic was
raised and an agreement was reached that they should not be translated but that an explanation in Arabic could be provided.

Since the total number of student teachers in the 4th year was relatively small (30 students), it was intended to include all of them in the sample because it was not possible to select the participants randomly. Therefore, the researcher counted on all of the available students being willing to participate voluntarily in the study. Fortunately all but 5 of EFL students in the 4th year met the requirements of the study and were willing to participate and become involved. Questionnaires were distributed and self-administrated to avoid bias on the part of respondents. The researcher was nearby to clarify and explain in case there was ambiguity or misunderstanding. Full freedom was given to the respondents to express their views without any intrusion on the researcher's part with the help of the researcher's colleagues, who spared no effort to assist, a session having been arranged specifically for that purpose. During the classes the researcher met the students and explained to them the purpose of the study and the stages that could follow in the research. After the completion of the questionnaire a small feedback session was organised to discuss the whole process with students. The structure and the style of the feedback was organised according to Bennett et al. (1994). Most of the students found this session very helpful in answering the questionnaire. The session was face to face and the feedback responses were given immediately.

Respondents were asked not to write their names on the questionnaire unless they were willing to participate in a follow-up interview. Ten of the students agreed to participate in stage two of the study.

Due to the nature of this study, the same procedures were used for selecting the University tutors; taking into consideration that EFL teachers are graduated from the Faculty of Education at Al-Fateh University, being the only institution that prepares EFL teachers. A list of 44 EFL staff members (Tutors) including their names, contact phone numbers and address was provided by the Registrar. The list has been checked carefully in order to meet the requirements of this study. In the light of this procedure, the researcher decided that it was not possible to select the participants in any other
way, but to count on all the academic and professional tutors who met the requirements of the study as being EFL teacher trainers at Al-Fateh University. Therefore, the total number of 22 tutors was selected in terms of being EFL teacher trainers involved in EFL teacher preparation and willing to participate in the study. Luckily all but 3 were willing to participate and became involved in the study.

For the Tutors' Questionnaire, quick meetings to clarify the purpose and aims of the study were held with the tutors at their request since they were busy lecturing and doing other administrative work. Questionnaires were distributed in their free time with a covering letter attached giving clear instructions concerning its completion.

The procedure used in selecting EFL secondary school teachers was dependent, by the nature of the study, on their being graduates of the EFL department at Al-Fateh University. They also had to have experience of teaching EFL in the Governmental Secondary Schools in Libya. Therefore the representative schools that have appropriate teachers for this study were selected. Schools were also selected on the basis of being willing to host student teachers during their school experience. Although schools are not obliged to accept student teachers for the period of teaching practice, these schools have often had experience of hosting student teachers and their supervisors for practical teaching. All secondary schools are single sex. All host schools are governed and funded by the Ministry of Education. Consequently, EFL teachers are graduates of the EFL Department at Al-Fateh University and appropriate for the study.

A visit was paid to the Educational Administration Office in Tripoli to request access and help. A list of 4 highly ranked secondary schools in Tripoli were suggested, as being a suitable environment for this study since many of EFL teacher graduates from Al-Fateh University have been located at those schools. Teachers in each school were nominated and their names and numbers, qualifications, schools and the date of recruitment were provided. These schools were Abu Menyar Secondary School for Girls (9 teachers), Ali Wuraith Secondary School for Boys (13 teachers), 7th of April Secondary School for Girls (16 teachers) and Jamal Abdel-Naser Secondary School for Boys (11 teachers). The list was careful examined and it was found that only 30 EFL teachers met the requirements of the study as being graduates of EFL teacher
training programme at Al-Fateh University. However, 19 teachers were excluded as being graduates of the Faculty of Languages and not trained to be EFL teachers. Since the number of qualified teachers was relatively small it was not possible to select the participants randomly, instead the researcher counted on all the available EFL teachers who met the criteria of the study being willing to participate. Fortunately all but 2 were willing to participate and respond to the study. A visit was paid to each school to meet the English teachers and the Principals of the schools. This was followed by frequent visits, as it was not possible to meet all the teachers at one visit either because of absenteeism or their busy timetables. Another visit was made to each school to the EFL teachers where the purpose of the study and the way the questionnaire should be completed were clarified. A follow up session for feedback was held after completing the questionnaires to discuss the process of the study. In each school, teachers met in a hall where the questionnaire was administered. Like the student teachers, the secondary school teachers were interested in completing the questionnaire and eight of them agreed to be interviewed and discuss their education and career as EFL teachers. This number is considered to be reasonable, especially if we take into account teachers' caution in expressing themselves freely and also, the interview, as a data collection technique is not as familiar in Libya as questionnaires.

5.6.1.7 Analysis of the questionnaires

The set of three questionnaires was analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. The data was keyed into the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) computer programme, descriptive and inferential statistical procedures were used. The analysis of the questionnaires was carried out addressing the following aims:

1. To identify the perceptions of student teachers, university tutors and EFL classroom teachers about the current EFL teacher education programme;

2. To identify any differences there might be among and between respondents in their perceptions of the objectives of the programme; the school selected for teaching practice; the criteria used for the assessment of student teachers'
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progress and achievement; the role of the school (including that of the Head teacher and of the classroom teacher); and the role of the University tutors;

3 To investigate if the respondents perceptions of the EFL teacher programme variables differ according to their teaching/supervision experience (tutors and EFL class teachers) and experience in using English apart from academic study (student teachers).

For the purpose of identifying the first aim, the descriptive statistics of each statement of the questionnaire were determined and total frequency and percentages were calculated.

For the second aim, the Kruskal Wallis\(^1\) test was used to compare the differences among and between the three groups, to determine the significance of the differences between the group means of the responses, grouped with regard to the above categories.

For the third aim a t-test\(^2\) was used to examine the effects of teaching experience, supervision experience (for tutors and EFL class teachers) and using English apart from the academic work (student teachers) with regard to the questionnaires' categories:

5.6.2 Phase 2: Interviews

The aim was to collect information in depth about the items that have no clear-cut answers. It was also a stage where findings from the questionnaires could be validated.

In this study two types of instruments were used to collect data for this stage. The first was a semi-structured interview with a sub sample of the respondents who responded

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\(^1\) Kruskal-Wallis is a non-parametric test used to compare scores in more than two groups, for example to compare the rated quality of work for people in four ethnic groups (see Bryman and Cramer, 2001, pp.34-35). This test is found useful for comparing between the three groups of respondents in their perceptions of the objectives of the EFL teacher education programme, the schools selected for teaching practice & criteria used for the assessment of student teachers' achievement and progress.

\(^2\) t-test is used to determine if the means of two unrelated samples differ. It does this by comparing the difference between the two means with the standard error of the difference in the means of different samples (see Bryman % Cramer, 2001, pp. 140-141).
to the questionnaires. The interview questions were based on data already collected through the questionnaires and for which further investigation was needed. The second was an open-ended interview with 4 Head teachers who were not included in the questionnaires. The aim of investigating their views was to validate those given by student teachers and class teachers towards the role played by the Head teachers.

In constructing the interviews, the researcher used the same process as for the questionnaires. Qualitative analysis of the interviews added significantly to the findings of the study because it enabled the researcher to include issues and concerns that would have been difficult to include in any other way.

Interviews, as a research technique, can be used in investigating a wide variety of research problems and projects. They are one of a range of survey and investigation techniques, which can play a vital part in the systematic practice of finding out or researching information and exploring many aspects of the social world (Allison, 1996, p.100).

Interviews with the participants of the study were mainly included in the research design because of their potential to enable participants to have their say about the programme of EFL teacher education in Libya in general, and about the role of teaching practice, including school experience, in particular. Obtaining as much and as deep information as possible and from as many and various participants as possible provided more than one viewpoint on the research phenomenon under investigation. Interviews were mainly regarded as a major research instrument that aimed to explore how the interviewees construct their views of the world and make sense of their experiences (Brown and Dowling, 1998). Personal opinions, understanding, and perceptions on learning and teaching vary according to the individual background and social context and it is difficult to include these in the questionnaires, however, it was the qualitative aspects of the respondents' perceptions that the researcher was aiming to collect and use in forming the suggestions from this study.

Interviews conducted in the study were oral. Oral interviews have been widely used in applied linguistics (Nunan, 1986); in second language teacher education contexts (e.g.
However, other quantitative approaches such as a case study or a life history might provide a better insight into the perceptions of the respondents in relation to their education, training and background. However, these methods are costly in terms of time and resources, both of which are significant limitations within the Libyan context, hence the researcher decided to conduct semi structured and unstructured interviews for this stage of data collection using a reasonable size of sample of tutors, class teachers and student teachers.

**5.6.2.1 The strength and weakness of personal interviews**

Research indicated that any type of research method has its strengths and weaknesses (Cohen and Manion, 1994), Radnor (1994) and Kerlinger (1986). Cohen and Manion noted that using interviews to collect data enables us to access what is inside the informant’s heads, to explore their thinking. They may be used to gather data used in testing a hypothesis or suggesting new ones, or as an explanatory device to help identify variables and relationships. As the aim of stage 2 is to explore the perceptions and feelings of student teachers, class teachers, Head teachers and university tutors towards the EFL teacher training programme, probing into respondents’ attitudes and beliefs is needed; therefore the personal interviews appears to be most appropriate. Radnor (1994) also indicated that interviews enable the researcher to dig deeper beyond the intellectual context to explore the values, emotions, and beliefs that make up the life experiences of individuals within their own social context.

Interviews, like any other research method, have advantages as well as disadvantages. Miller (1994) raised an important point that the advantage of the interview is the possibility of accommodating spontaneity to solve the problems related to tightly structured aspects. This is because during the interview chances are provided to clarify
questions and responses, which are not possible if only a written, structured questionnaire is used.

On the other hand Kerlinger (1986) and Cohen and Manion (1994) refer to the problem of obtaining valid information e.g. Kerlinger (1986, p. 387) warns that “the survey interview can temporarily lift the respondent out of his own social context, which may make the results of the survey invalid. The interview is a special event in the ordinary life of the respondent. This apartness may affect the respondent so that he talks to, interacts with the interviewer in an unnatural manner”. However Kerlinger (ibid) remarks that by following careful techniques for phrasing and asking questions it could be possible for interviewers to limit the effect of lifting respondents out of their social context. Cohen and Manion (1994) acknowledge the problem of validity and suggest that interview data should be compiled with instruments that have already been shown to be valid. Bearing this in mind, when designing the interview questions and approaches used, these limitations were taken into consideration. Interviews were conducted to supplement the questionnaire as an instrument of investigation, in order to combine the positivist reliability with the interpretive approach. The interview was tried with a sub-sample before it was used for the actual sample.

5.6.2.2 Development of the follow up semi-structured Interview

Having decided the appropriateness of using the interview techniques in this stage, some views were taken into consideration. According to Cohen and Manion (1994) there are four types of interview that are commonly used in data collection; the structured, unstructured, non-directive and focused. Nunan (1986) gave a continuum ranging from unstructured through semi-structured to structured. The unstructured interview is guided by the responses of the interviewee rather than by the agenda of the researcher, who exercises little or no control on the interview direction, which is thus relatively unpredictable.

However, one of the principles of the interpretive approach outlined by Radnor (1991), is that both the researcher and the researched interlock in such a way that the findings of the investigation are the creation of the inquiry process. Therefore the semi-structured interview was selected because it allows the interviewer to lead the
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participants to a focused and systematic inquiry on the proposed topic, at the same time it gives the participants some space, power and flexibility in expressing their views and feelings (Nunan, 1986). The focus in the semi-structured interview is on getting informants to talk and articulate freely about the issues that have already been well defined in the questionnaires, but within the predetermined schedule of themes prepared by the researcher.

The semi-structured mode of interviewing was used in this study with three sub samples drawn from those who responded to the questionnaires. These included student teachers, University tutors and class teachers.

During the process of designing the interview schedules, various suggestions given by researchers were been taken into consideration. For example, Radnor (1994) suggests that researchers could use open-ended questions in conjunction with probes on the part of the interviewer. That is because the interviewers in the semi-structured interview have a general idea of where they want the interview to go, and what should come out of it, but Radnor warns that the interviewers should not enter the interview with lists of predetermined questions. Rather they are directed by a set of general themes to encourage interviewees to talk about their experiences. This technique also allowed interviewers to expand on what they sees as well as keeping the conversation free while enabling them to ask subsidiary questions in a manner that keyed into the style of the conversation (Radnor, 1994).

Therefore this approach was adopted in designing the questions for each topic that needed further investigation. For example:

"You mentioned so and so .........., could you please tell me what do you mean by ..........? Please explain."

In addition, this study made use of the procedures recommended by Cohen and Manion (1985), Miles and Humberman (1994), Spradley (1979) and Denzin et al. (1994). Once the research objectives were established, they were formulated into questions. Then, a list of areas or themes was made to collect information about them.
Care was taken to cover the issues addressed in the questionnaires and to achieve greater clarity for the issues that the questionnaires’ preliminary findings showed to be ambiguous. Minor questions and probes were used bearing in mind the respondents’ background and the contextual constraints expected.

Interviews were mainly conducted in Arabic since freedom was given to the interviewees to use their native language to facilitate expression and to talk for themselves and provide their own perspectives. The researcher took into consideration various suggestions related to interviewing by different researchers such as Tuckman (1972, p. 277) who referred to the use of semi-structured questions. This was because of their flexibility that allows the interviewer to probe for more in-depth information, to clear up misunderstandings and to help the interviewer to test the respondents’ knowledge and to establish rapport. Questions were launched in a “funnel” fashion. This starts with a broad question and then breaks down to more specific ones. Tuckman (1972) comments on the construction of the questions claiming that direct questions make respondents conscientious and opt to give answers that can fit into the interviewer’s expectations. The researcher wished to avoid this. Bearing the above suggestions in mind, the interviews included some indirect questions, especially when asking respondents about the role played by the University tutors and classroom teachers, taking into account their socialisation as future EFL teachers. This helped to promote discussions to the extent that the respondents criticised freely the eradication of the English language from the national curriculum for secondary schools and highlighted its negative effects on their EFL learning and teaching.

The researcher decided to use semi-structured, both direct and indirect questions depending on the theme under discussion and the informant’s readiness to talk. After assembling the interview protocols, they were passed to experienced people for comment (the researcher’s supervisor when she was a student at the University of Libya) because “what seems straightforward to the researcher may be baffling to another person not fully in the picture” (Wragg, 1978, p. 15). Piloting the protocols was took place on site with University tutors, student teachers, classroom teachers, and Head teachers. Based on this, the final shape of the interviews was decided (see
Appendices 7, 8, 9, and 10). Below is a description of the three interview protocols used in the study.

5.6.2.3 The protocols of the semi-structured interview

The semi-structured interview conducted with student teachers discussed the following:

a) Their views about what the course or programmes prepared them for (i.e. the objectives of the programme);

b) The aspects of the EFL teacher education programme that could help more in preparing student teachers for teaching;

c) Their opinions concerning teaching practice or school experience;

d) Opinions about the role of the University tutor in the professionalisation of student teachers;

e) Opinions about the learning and teaching approaches followed;

f) Opinions about the teaching materials used;

g) Criteria used in the assessment of their progress;

h) Views about the role of classroom teacher;

i) Their views about the role of the school Head teachers;

j) The “constraints” facing them and what they suggest for developing the education and training of EFL teachers.

The semi-structured interview conducted with the University tutors addressed the following issues:

a) Their views about the objectives of the EFL teacher education programme;

b) Their views about the approaches followed in the preparation of EFL teachers;

c) Their views about the criteria used in the assessment for EFL student teachers’ progress and achievement;

d) Their views about the school experience including teaching practice and their supervisory role in the training of student teachers; what they liked and what they did not like about the selected schools;

e) What they think is/should be the role of the liaison between the University and school in the education of EFL student teachers;

f) The resources provided for student teachers;
k) The obstacles that student teachers encountered; and what they suggest for improving and developing the EFL teachers' programme.

The semi-structured interview conducted with the EFL classroom teachers focused on the following issues:

a) Their views about the EFL teacher education programme (i.e. its objectives);
b) The quality of help EFL classroom teachers provide to student teachers and how;
c) The influence of teaching the new course book on their experiences;
d) Their opinions as to whether the EFL teacher education programme they experienced related to the world of practice in schools;
e) Their views about the role of the Head teacher, for example, during the induction period, the assessment of student teachers' progress and achievement, etc.
f) The difficulties they see encountered by EFL student teachers and what they would suggest to improve their training.

As the study aimed to ascertain participants' views related to improvements in the EFL teacher preparation programme, the process of investigation adopted through the study was socio-political where the social, cultural and political aspects are cared about and integrated. Based on this, participants, who are involved in the EFL teacher education process, such as the University and school staff, were of great help in the investigation. Opinions and perceptions of the learning and teaching of EFL from the viewpoint of the tutors who were in the decision-making position at the University and school Head teachers were also an essential data source for this study.

5.6.2.4 Respondents to semi-structured interviews

In the first stage of data collection respondents were asked not to include their names unless they would agree to be interviewed. Some from each group who answered the questionnaires agreed. The semi-structured interviews were conducted with student teachers, University tutors and classroom teachers.

Based on this, the sub-samples of the interviews in Phase 2 of the study can be considered opportunity samples (Bennett et al., 1994) i.e. interviews were mostly conducted with informants that were willing to talk and express themselves freely.
The selection of respondents was based on their willingness to talk and participate in the study. Two of the University tutors acted as decision-makers for EFL teacher education in Libya. The first was the Head of the Teaching Practice Committee and the second was the Head of the English Language Department. Two were subject tutors (English Department) and two were pedagogical trainers (Education Department).

The interview with the two tutors who acted as decision-makers was of great benefit to the study. Information they gave provided a deeper perspective on the EFL teacher education process and the factors that influenced it. They provided invaluable information related to EFL teacher preparation, including the University admission policy, graduation requirements, programme guidelines, academic and administrative affairs and constraints involved. Thus the data obtained included a rich source of comments, concerns, criticism and suggestions.

The sample consisted of 10 EFL student teachers, 8 EFL classroom teachers working in schools where students practice teaching, 4 University tutors and 2 of the University decision makers. All were amongst those who responded to the questionnaire and expressed a willingness to participate.

5.6.2.5 Development and administration of open-ended conversational interviews with Head teachers

The unstructured interview has been variously described as naturalistic, autobiographical, in-depth, narrative or non-directive. Whatever the label used, the informal interview is modelled on conversation and, like conversation, is a social event with two participants. As a social event it has its own set of interactional rules that may be more or less explicit, and recognised by the participants (Blaxter et al.,

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3 The Head of the Teaching Practice Committee is a University tutor and one of the participants included in the Tutors Questionnaire Sample. He is a member in the committee in charge of decision making related to EFL teacher education in the country.

4 Subject tutors are those lecturers in academic subjects related to the knowledge of the subject matter, such as poetry, novel, drama, language grammar and phonetics, etc.

5 Pedagogical tutors are those lecturers of pedagogy that aim to give student teachers a knowledge of general pedagogy and subject-specific pedagogy. Namely, they are tutors of subjects, such as educational psychology, history and philosophy of education, comparative education, and methods of teaching English.
2000). The interviewer can become more adept at interviewing in terms of the strategies, which are appropriate for eliciting responses.

In the informal interview the shape of the interview is determined by individual respondents. The unstructured interview centred around a topic, may, and in skilled hands does, produce a wealth of valuable data, but such interviews require a great deal of expertise to control and a great deal of time to analyse. Conversation about a topic may be interesting and may produce useful insights into a problem but it has to be remembered that an interview is more than just an interesting conversation (Bell, 1993, p.92-94). In this conversational view, the interview conversation is a pipeline for transmitting knowledge.

In this part of the study the use of unstructured interviews proved to be very productive. The preliminary interviews aimed to find out which areas or topics are important and were when people directly concerned with the topic were encouraged to talk about what is of central significance to them. At the first stage of the study, the researcher was looking for clues as to which areas should be explored and which omitted. Only note taking was used, which was of paramount significance since it enabled the researcher to extract points of interest and topics for inclusion in the study.

With Head teachers, use of the unstructured interview proved to be the most appropriate for this study. This is because people in authority like to have the space to talk and express themselves rather than being interrupted from time to time by prompts or short questions that aim to guide the interviewee in a certain direction, especially in the Libyan context. Since Head teachers share in the evaluation of the EFL student teachers, it was important to include their perspectives in the research. Head teachers were interviewed in their offices at their request since interviews with them had to be accommodated according to their timetable. Participants were three female Head teachers and one male. They shared the responsibility for the school-based teaching practice for prospective EFL teachers.

To save time, arrangements for the open-ended interviews were made one week ahead of the scheduled time because the Head teachers were busy with final examinations and other administrative work. The interviews took three weeks to conduct.
Explanations of the purpose for conducting the research were provided, and respondents assured of confidentiality.

Interviewees in the study had the choice of the language they wanted to use. Few of them chose English and most chose Arabic, especially the Head teachers. At the beginning of each interview, the researcher spent a few minutes talking about current topics to build rapport and Arabic was used whenever needed for the purpose of clarification. Each interview lasted between about 45 minutes to one hour. Notes were taken.

The aim of focussing on this group of people was to examine the underlying philosophy of the programme and ascertain how the world of practice sees the world of theory. Namely, the aim was to obtain a deeper understanding of what affects the education of teachers in general and what impacts impinge upon EFL teacher education in particular. The views of both University tutors and student teachers, and the schoolteachers and Head teachers helped to give a holistic picture of the process of EFL teacher education under study and the variety of factors impinging upon it.

Including such a variety of participants in a research study, especially concerning teacher education, can be taken as a contribution on the part of this study. The participants gave different perspectives on the research topics under investigation in their own terms. This led to obtaining much wider and deeper understanding of how the University and the school contribute to the education of EFL teachers.

5.6.3 Interviewees selection and familiarity with the research

Official permission from the Libyan cultural section (in London) acting on behalf of the Ministry of Education proved essential to access the school EFL teaching staff and conduct the interviews. Considerable attention was paid to choosing the informants in terms of their background and experiences. Luckily all respondents were willing to participate, give their opinion and articulate their views. The respondents' selection was based upon their willingness to be interviewed and to share their learning and teaching experiences. Their responses to the questionnaires in Phase 1 where considered (see Appendix 6).
To ensure the informants' familiarity with the research, a set of briefing memos (see Appendix 13) was handed to them including the overall aims of the study. Some interviewees chose to have a look at the interview schedule beforehand since the aim was to encourage informants to talk openly about themselves and reflect upon their experiences. Discussions sometimes ranged well beyond the list of the topics to be researched but were relevant to the overall aims.

5.6.4 Conducting the interviews

The follow up interviews were carried out from May to July 2000, the data being collected over a period of 10 weeks. A considerable amount of effort was required in arranging the schedules because tutors, teachers and student teachers were busy preparing for the final examinations. Once the researcher managed to contact the respondents, their schedules were set up as conveniently as possible for them. Interviews with student teachers were on campus. Classroom teachers were interviewed in their school staff room. Each interview lasted from 45 minutes to one hour. They were conducted mainly in Arabic because of the limited ability of the interviewees to express themselves in English.

At first, the researcher intended to use a portable sensitive tape recorder to record the dialogue. However, the interviewees objected expressing reservations because socio-cultural restrictions especially for female respondents. Consequently, none of the interviews were recorded and so, the researcher wrote down the responses using notepads. In all the interviews, the researcher adopted the approach of encouraging the interviewees to talk freely, and to provide explanations and elaboration on what had been said through summarising or repeating at the end of conversation (Radnor, 1994). During the interviews the researcher tried to follow Radnor's recommendations that an effective way of encouraging the respondents to talk at length is by summing up.

All respondents were assured of confidentiality. The interview script was handed back to each respondent for verification before the data analysis to ensure respondent validation. Being from the same culture as the respondents and also both an insider and outsider, some aspects of the research might be thought to affect the researcher's
objectivity as a researcher. To minimise bias during the interview process, she implemented a less controlled approach to interaction during the interviews where she left the interviewees to control the conversation and listened carefully to them thus establishing good rapport with respondents but this did not entail identifying completely with them (Powney and Watts, 1987). This procedure involved probes, clarifications and the ability to read their verbal cues indicating confusion or hesitation. Probes that were used included simple gestures, such as nodding or saying "uh-huh", "I see" and "Yes" or neutral questions like "Could you tell me more about...?", or for more clarification like "What do you mean exactly?" to motivate the informant to say more. In most cases, the researcher used a series of questions that progressed from the general to the specific and from the semi-structured to the more specific.

For administrative reasons as the respondents were being prepared for the final exams, some interviews were interrupted in the middle and completed afterwards because interviews were conducted during teachers' non-teaching time. Sometimes, to help them get back into the picture, the researcher intended to allow the discussion to arise from their conversation, but from time to time the researcher pulled their attention to certain questions where more viewpoints were added concerning the subject under discussion (Radnor, 1994).

The interviews were mostly relatively informal. The use of semi-structured questions helped to lessen formality between the interviewer and the interviewee. This gave the researcher the freedom to direct the conversation towards the focus of the topic under discussion. It also gave the interviewees the freedom to shift back and then forward again in the interviews to clarify, emphasise, and contextualise sometimes. In this way, the protocols did not act as straitjackets over the interviewees or the researcher. This also helped in eliciting more in-depth information. The researcher's role during the interviews was more like that of an active listener in a naturalistic setting rather than that of an interlocutor with a list of predetermined questions (Denscombe, 1998, p.114).
Chapter 5 — Methodology and Design of the study

The interviews in most cases started with an introduction mentioning the purpose of the interview. The purpose was to establish a good rapport with the interviewee (Wragg, 1978, p.17) and to make sure the ground was clear, and give a chance to the interviewee to express their feelings and to ask questions if they want to. Another essential purpose was to confirm confidentiality. During the interviews, big research questions were broken down or subdivided into "mini" questions that acted like probes to incite the interviewees' memory and thinking (See Appendices 7,8,9 and 10).

5.6.5 Preparation procedures

The preparation procedures included organising field notes, memos and translating the data provided by the respondents in the semi-structured and the open-ended conversational interviews. Notes made during the interviews were translated into English. For translation accuracy, samples of the interview notes were checked and validated by another native bilingual speaker who teaches translation in the English department at Al-Fateh University. No major discrepancies were found. The notes after being compiled were validated by the informants. But, because of the time limitations discussed in section 5.6.8, and upon agreement with the researcher's supervisor, follow up telephone calls were used for the purpose of providing as much clarification of the respondents' views as possible. Interviewees were called and the comments reported in the interviews were clarified. They confirmed that the reported content were theirs. This helped to keep the interviewees in touch with the research.

The researcher used multi-methods for validating the interviews such as host verification and triangulation (Guba and Lincoln, 1991).

There were two sources of interview data collected in this study, semi-structured interviews and open-ended unstructured interviews. Both were analysed qualitatively. All 28 interviews were coded as in Table 5.3 below with respondents being assigned different codes for confidentiality.
Table (5.3) Codes and symbols given to the respondents in phase 2 of the study

The assigned code consisted of letters followed by a number. The letters indicated the respondents’ status (i.e. school Head teacher (HT), classroom teacher (CT), student teacher (ST), University tutors (UT)). Within each group, each respondent was assigned a number.

5.6.6 Qualitative analysis of data

Interview data was analysed by using the approach of content analysis. This technique was used to analyse the written and visual materials in order to identify specific characteristics of the material. Cohen and Manion (1994) refer to three approaches that could be used in analysing text, these are the word count, identifying categories and identifying units. The identifying categories approach was used in this study and the method of abstracting the categories was carried out by adopting the grounded theory approach (Glaser, 1995), which maintains that the data needs to be analysed without taking the ground from theories existing in the literature. The procedure is often exploratory in nature, emerging from the data provided rather than being certificatory (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994).

Responses to semi-structured interviews (with student teachers, EFL classroom teachers and University tutors) and unstructured conversational interviews with school
Head teachers were analysed as follows bearing in mind the seven stages provided by (Bennett et al, 1994).

The data analysis started with data separation followed by domain extraction and the identification of the categories. Each transcript was examined and read carefully, important key words were highlighted and the main ideas were summarised and kept in the right margin of the transcript for later reference coding.

After the transcriptions were re-read carefully, the main domains that emerged from the initial analysis were:

1. EFL learning and teaching;
2. EFL teacher education;
3. The University and school-based constraints (conversions between theory and practice);
4. The role of context.

However, the EFL teacher programme is the focus of this study, as well as being the umbrella under which the role played by the University and school in teachers' learning and teaching experiences is placed. Hence under each domain, different groups of data were classified, and preliminary patterns emerged.

Once the domain of the data was identified, the repeated topics and shared experiences were organised in a system that accounted for the common ground in important experiences and events of each individual respondent and became themes and patterns in the EFL teachers' programme (Bennett et al, 1994). The process of identifying themes was very effective in facilitating the classification of interview data.

5.6.6.1 Coding procedures

When reading the transcripts, the main task was to build categories and sub categories into groups through coding and labelling to assign units of meaning to the data. This was done manually (see list of codes, Appendix 12). Codes or labels were attached to groups of varying size-words, phrases, sentences, or whole paragraphs, connected or
unconnected to a specific setting. Some groups were given straightforward category labels or codes or more complex ones (e.g. for metaphors, story telling, etc.). The focus at this stage was placed not on the words but on their meanings and connotations since a word or a phrase does not contain its meaning as a bucket contains water, but has the meaning it does by being a choice about its significance in a given context (Bliss, Monk, and Ogborn, 1983). This system of coding and labelling proved beneficial when the need arose to refer back to or retrieve the data, and hence it was easy to access the data in order to cluster the segments and allocate the particular research questions, constructs or themes.

Because the topics identified recurred regularly throughout the transcripts, use of shorthand was beneficial in this respect. The coding followed the style of marginal remarks (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Codes reflected different levels of analysis. Some were created at the first reading and others arose in the second and some in the third reading of the notes.

Codes were firstly created by means of a provisional “start list” (Miles and Huberman, 1994). This list was partly originated in the conceptual framework of the study representing the aims and research questions as well as the key variables related to the study and partly in the first round of reading the interview notes. This helped to obtain “a more code-in-use flavour than the generic-code-for many-uses generated by a prefabricated start list” (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 58).

Additional categories or subcategories were then created when they appeared to be needed to accommodate the data. For example, ‘lack of teaching competences’ was extracted to represent discussions of the teaching-learning difficulties. Consequently, ‘lack of teaching competence’ became a subcategory of a range of ‘constraints of EFL teacher preparation programme’. After categorising all the data, each transcript was read again and subcategorised whenever relevant. This process was repeated until all the data had been completed satisfactorily.

The identification of subcategories facilitated the completion of data treatment. The process of classifying information according to the subcategories which emerged from
data, helped in identifying and understanding the respondents' perceptions towards their preparation (Bennett et al., 1994).

5.6.6.2 Trustworthiness of the qualitative data
To avoid problems with the trustworthiness of the researcher's interpretation and data analysis, certain measures were taken to achieve validity. For example, Lincoln and Guba (1983, p.300) suggest that using the term “trustworthiness” is more suitable than validity and reliability, which are used for quantitative data. They also indicate that trustworthiness includes 4 main criteria: "Truth value, applicability, consistency and neutrality". Therefore these views were taken into consideration in analysing and interpreting the data provided. Because the data were oral and textual in nature, ironically they were open to multiple interpretations. As the respondents communicated their perceptions toward EFL preparation orally, the researcher had to interpret these views according to her own experience and constructs. Therefore it could be possible for different frameworks to be used to interpret the data.

To overcome problems of the trustworthiness of data interpretation, different measures were taken to validate this by classifying textual responses into as many categories as necessary in order not to lose the essence of the data. Also, attempts were made to interpret the responses holistically and to look for confirmation of meaning in different examples.

To avoid personal bias and values during interpretation of the data and to minimise any personal prejudice; data were cross-validated by two postgraduate research students. They were given a list of categories with examples from the data. After discussion and joint interpretation of the data, a compromise was reached that the list of categorisation needed to be readjusted. Secondly, this categorisation of data was to be reported to respondents whose work was being validated.

The interviewees were asked to check whether the interpretation and categories assigned to their given responses agreed with the meaning behind them. All respondents agreed that their responses matched the assigned categories.
To achieve greater reliability of both coding and categorisation, coding was cross-checked in two additional ways: (1) by coding twice at two different times; and (2) by asking a colleague in the same field to code two interviews to find out whether he gave the same codes for the same segments of data. Through discussion, we concluded that both the other researcher's coding and the researcher's own coding fit into a structure. (For a detailed description of the coding and categorisation of qualitative data analysis including the use of 'grounded theory' approach, see Miles and Huberman (1994).

The grounded theory is based on a more open approach to data analysis, which is particularly good for dealing with transcripts. It recognises that the large amount of non-standard data produced by qualitative studies makes data analysis problematic (Bennett et al., 1994). In quantitative data analysis an external structure is imposed on the data, which makes analysis far more straightforward. With qualitative data, however, the structure used has first to be derived from the data. This means systematically analysing it so as to tease out themes, patterns and categories. As Jones (1987) comments (in Bennett et al, 1994), grounded theory works because “rather than forcing data within logic-deductively derived assumptions and categories, research should be used to generate grounded theory, which ‘fits’ and ‘works’ because it is derived from the concepts and categories used by social actors themselves to interpret and organise their worlds”.

The analysis of the study was guided by the views raised by Bennett et al (1994) who refer to different stages which need to be taken into consideration when working with transcripts of in-depth interviews, which are, in her words, “one of the more intractable analysis problems” (p. 25).

Therefore the following seven main stages were considered:

1) *Familiarisation.* Re-read the data transcripts again. Doing this will enable some first thoughts to emerge: be aware and notice interesting things. When reading, draw on unrecorded information as well as recorded. This is where the field notes and personal diary come into the analytic process.
2) Reflection. At this stage desperation may begin to set in. There is usually so much rich data that trying to make sense of it seems an impossible task.

3) Conceptualisation. Is the stage where there is usually a set of concepts or variables which seem to be important for understanding what is going on.

4) Cataloguing. Once it is established that the concepts identified do seem to occur in people's explanations, they can then be transferred on to cards as a quick reference guide. When this is done there is an issue of labelling.

5) Recoding. This is the stage where all the references to particular concepts are known; it will be possible to go back quickly and easily to those places in the data to see what was actually said. It may, for example, be noticed that some concepts were used within different contexts or used to explain different phenomena.

6) Linking. This is the stage at which the analytical framework and explanations should be becoming clearer, with patterns emerging and concepts spotted that could fit together.

7) Re-evaluation. In the light of the comments of others, the researcher may feel that more work is needed in some areas. For example, the analysis may have omitted to take account of some factors or have overemphasised others.

5.6.6.3 Ethical considerations

Researchers engaged in human research are aware of the risks that may be placed on individual participants who openly voice their views when participating in their research projects, especially if these opinions are disclosed to people in authority over them. An awareness of this aspect led the researchers such as Burgess (1984), Connelly and Clandinin (1988), and Miles and Huberman (1994) to agree to a wide range of ethical guidelines acknowledging that there should be a balance between the public right to know and the individual's right to privacy. Participants' needs and interests must come first. Also they should be informed about the objectives, as well as
the negotiation of reports, in order to reflect on their perceptions and to improve their statements.

Taking these views into consideration, the researcher was aware that the participants are the most important part of the research. Therefore different codes were provided to protect their rights and privacy and in order to ensure that this research will not harm them in any way, especially since this study has been conducted within a conservative context (Al-Fateh University – Libya). In this respect Baily (1996) sees that carrying out research is a social encounter; therefore, the researcher had to take into consideration a number of ethical issues. She had to ask for an official permission for her fieldwork from the Libyan Embassy in London, via an official letter from her supervisor, Professor Allison. Being a member of Al-Fateh University staff, privileged to conduct research in the UK, as part of the researcher’s work there, the researcher did not need to have permission for access to the University. Once permission to visit schools was obtained, a few meetings were held to give the participants a clear picture about what needed to be done.

In terms of informed consent, in this research the free choice was left to the individuals whether they wanted to participate in this study or not. All the participants were volunteers, responsible and mature enough to give relevant information. In addition all were well informed and had a clear idea about the research.

During the whole process of the research where anonymity and confidentiality were involved, certain codes were given to replace participants’ real names and organisations; especially as some aspects were about sensitive issues, e.g. student teachers’ and class teachers’ perceptions towards the programme and the roles of tutors, and Head teachers. Although the respondents’ names in the first stage of the study would be retained, they were also assured of the confidentiality of their real names and status. However most of the university tutors were not highly sensitive about anonymity, but the researcher used codes instead of real names to sustain the research framework, especially on issues of confidentiality and respect for participants’ dignity, ideas and decisions.
To conclude, all participants were informed about the outlines of the study and its objectives. Although the respondents were asked if they would agree to be interviewed and give up time for similar activities, they had the right to say no to an interview request.

An overview of the process of interview data analysis can be summarised in Fig. (5.2), as follows:
Chapter 5 – Methodology and Design of the Study

RESPONDENT VALIDATION OF THE INTERVIEWS NOTES
The interview notes that were taken down in Arabic were handed to the interviewees. They were given freedom to add, adjust or even delete what they saw so as to be as representative of their views as possible.

TRANSLATION OF THE INTERVIEWS NOTES AFTER HAVING THEM VALIDATED BY THE INTERVIEWEES
All the notes that were taken down during the interviews were translated into English. The Translation was cross-checked by a professional translator.

CODING
Marginal remark coding of the interview notes to mark off units that cohered or dealt with the same topic making use of a flexible start list of codes took place.

CHECK-CODING
The coded interview transcripts were given to a colleague researcher to code and to see whether he gives the same data chunks.

CATEGORIZATION AND SUB-CATEGORIZATION
The codes were compiled into categories. The categorisation was guided by literature and previous studies, the aims of the study and the research questions.

CHECKING THE RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE CATEGORIZATION
Two research students referred to as (A) and (B) were asked to revise the researcher’s categorisation of the interview notes. Both of them are non-native speakers of English. Both were asked to tick next to the categories they agree with. In some instances, they provided their own categories, which were similar to the researcher’s and sometimes they added some categories. Through meetings with them an agreement on the categorisation was reached.

THEORY BUILDING STAGE
Linking the categories together in order to ascertain the main themes & sub-themes emerging from the data across the informants. Exploring the consistency or inconsistency amongst them taking guidance from the aims of the study, research questions, a priori established ideas from the literature, the data themselves and the social and cultural context.

VALIDATION OF DATA ANALYSIS
The analysis was reported back to the informants through telephone calls to give them freedom to change, add or reject whatever they see that does not represent their views.

REPORTING THE INTERVIEW DATA

Fig. (5.2) How the analysis of the interview notes was conducted
5.6.8 Limitations of the study

In the social research field, it is not likely for research to be carried out without limitations. The limitations which emerged in the present research include:

Samples:
The researcher managed to collect quantitative data from all EFL student teachers in their final year of study, EFL tutors in the EFL department at Al-Fateh University and EFL class teachers from four different schools which met the requirement of the study i.e. all EFL teachers were graduates of Al-Fateh University. Despite this, the sample size can be considered as relatively small compared to a large-scale survey (Allison, 1996).

In phase two, the sample size of EFL teachers in the selected schools, EFL student teachers at Al-Fateh University, EFL University tutors and Head teachers could be considered adequate for this study which aims at approaching the respondents quantitatively. Taken altogether, the respondents managed to provide a holistic picture for the phenomena under study in spite of the time limitation and the examination pressures which led to interruption of the interviews from time to time.

Instruments:
Data was collected by using questionnaires and interviews. Other methods such as, written assignments, observations, and diaries could have been used in the process of investigating different issues of the programme. This was not feasible because the period of teaching practice was very limited within the schedule; also it was difficult for the respondents to tolerate working with methods that needed more time and flexible schedules. The researcher too, was under time pressure during this research, because of the structure of this study where the first stage has to be collected and analysed before obtaining in-depth information. However, despite these limitations, the researcher managed to tackle an in-depth study by using questionnaires and interviews, which seemed appropriate for the purpose of the present study and the context in which she was working.
Analysis:
The researcher is aware that different methods of analysis could be used to present the results, but as the main focus of data collection was on the qualitative data the interpretive mode of analysis based on grounded theory has been used. The questionnaire was analysed using simple statistical methods suitable for the purpose.

For the qualitative data analysis, the researcher worked hard to minimize her personal bias in order not to influence the interpretation of the responses. The researcher's experience did not prevent her from taking these ethical issues into consideration, during the process of analysis, categorising, labelling, recording, linking and reporting.

Other constraints:
Other constraints affecting the research, included:
1) The sad and untimely death of the researcher's supervisor, Professor Allison, caused an interruption of the research.
2) The researcher's visa to stay in the UK had to be validated every six months, where the validation takes up to one year; during these periods the researcher's passport was at the Home Office preventing travel anywhere abroad. Also the United Nations sanctions, which were imposed on Libya on 1992, caused travelling inconvenience which put the researcher under severe time pressure when conducting activities such as classroom observations. Thus the researcher had to use other ways of corresponding with teachers such as telephone calls.
5.7 Summary

This chapter presents the methodology and the research framework of the study, in order to meet the aim of the inquiry:

What are student teachers', their University tutors', classroom teachers' and school Head teachers' perceptions towards the programme of EFL teacher education in Libya, and what suggestions do they see as appropriate for the development of the programme.

The two main modes of inquiry included questionnaires and interviews. The research process of the study is shown in Fig. (5.3).

According to the phases of the study, sampling procedures came in two stages, as follows:

Stage one: Conducting the sets of questionnaires for student teachers, university tutors and EFL classroom teachers. University tutors and EFL classroom teachers varied in terms of their years of experience, and educational background.

Stage two: Conducting semi-structured interviews with sub-samples of respondents drawn from samples of the questionnaires in addition to using unstructured open-ended interviews with 4 Head teachers.

1. A positivistic mode of inquiry was used for quantitative data collected by questionnaires. Phase 1 aims at discovering causal relationships between different parties, placing little emphasis on individual behaviour.

2. An interpretive-constructivist mode of inquiry was used for qualitative data collected by interview in Phase 2. The qualitative data explores each individual's perceptions such as in the interview procedure.
| I. TOWARDS EXPLORING THE CONTEXT |
| EXPLORING THE NECESSITY OF INVESTIGATING THE EFL TEACHER EDUCATION IN LIBYA IN GENERAL AND EFL STUDENT TEACHERS’ UNIVERSITY AND SCHOOL EXPERIENCE IN PARTICULAR |

| II. FORMULATING THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS |
| THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS WERE IDENTIFIED IN EXPLORATORY FASHION |

| III. LITERATURE REVIEW: ILLUMINATING THE CONTEXT |
| GETTING SUPPORT FROM THE LITERATURE FOR THE RESEARCH AREA |
| REFINING THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS IN THE LIGHT OF READINGS |

| IV. DESIGN OF THE STUDY |
| Manoeuvring to explore investigate the research context under study. Piloting. Piloting the instruments for data collection. Refining the instruments. |
| DATA COLLECTION AND SAMPLING FOR THE MAIN STUDY PHASE ONE |
| Conducting a set of three questionnaires to student teachers, University tutors, and EFL classroom teachers. |
| PHASE TWO |
| Conducting interviews with sub-samples of the three questionnaires samples and a group of 4 school Head teachers. |
| DATA ANALYSIS |
| Both quantitative and qualitative procedures were followed. |

| IV. REPORT & DISSEMINATION |

Fig. (5.3) Research Process of the Study
The data collection was split into two phases;

Phase one- Questionnaires: a set of three questionnaires has been used for;

(a) EFL student teachers  (25 ST )
(b) University tutors  (22 UT )
(c) EFL classroom teachers  (28 CT )
Total  ( 75 respondents )

The questionnaires acted like a pass key for the interviews in phase 2 of the study. The design and layout of the questionnaire was tailor-made to suit the research questions, the target respondents, cultural values and structural constraints involved. Also, the questionnaires used close-ended questions and a Likert rating scale.

The experiment of piloting the questionnaire indicated that none of the respondents would willingly answer the open ended questions because of variables like time constraints or fear of exposing one's self to others, especially in writing.

The questionnaire had 3 major draft stages on the basis of the feedback and further comments. The second draft was produced and the third draft was finalised and approved.

The first draft was submitted to two Libyan postgraduate students at the University of Warwick. On the basis of this feedback and further comments by the researcher's first supervisor, the late Professor Allison, a second draft was produced. The third and final draft was finalized after the approval of the researcher's second supervisor, Dr. Kearsy.

The questionnaire consisted of eight categories corresponding to (1) background information, (2) the programme objectives, (3) attitudes towards criteria of school selection, (4) assessment procedures, (5) the academic role of university tutors, (6) the professional role of university tutors, (7) the role of class teachers, and (8) the role of Head teachers.
A pilot study was used in order to test and validate the questionnaire, which respondents completed in 45 minutes confirming that its length was about right. Following Pearson Correlation, the quantitative data appeared to be reliable, the reliability being tested using the coefficient of stability (Hatch et al, 1991).

After making necessary changes resulting from feedback obtained through the pilot study, the questionnaires took their final shape.

**Phase 2—Interviews:** Semi-structured interviews were used which allowed the interviewer to probe for more in-depth information and to clear up misunderstanding. The use of tape recorded interviews of the respondents and their flexible timetables was one of the constraints that was out of the researcher's control as were unstructured interviews with Head teachers. Some of the responses in Phase 1 were further investigated in Phase 2. Interviews were mainly conducted in Arabic to facilitate interviewees' expression of their own perspectives. All participants had the right to decline an interview request, and names of participants and places remained confidential.

The study aimed also to ascertain participants' views about how to improve the EFL teacher preparation programme. The process of investigation adopted was the interpretive-constructivist approach where the social, cultural and political aspects are considered and integrated.

Opinions and perceptions of the learning and teaching of EFL from the viewpoint of the tutors who were in the decision-making position at the University and school Head teachers also provided essential data sources for this study.

All respondents were assured of confidentiality. The interview script was handed back to each respondent for verification before and after the data analysis to ensure respondent validation.

Notes taken during the 28 interviews were translated into English. All interviews were coded.
The combination of the two modes served the purpose of the research by gathering rich quantitative data for generalising the results and qualitative in-depth data for providing explanations of the findings. Moreover, the use of several methods means greater validity and reliability for the findings.

The set of three questionnaires was analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. The data were keyed into the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) computer programme. Descriptive statistical procedures were used. Further analytical tests (Kruskal Wallis) were used to compare the differences between the three groups and the t-test to examine the effect of the teaching and the supervision experiences.

5.8 Conclusion

The study made use of both quantitative and qualitative data. The purpose behind this was not to use the quantitative data to crosscheck the qualitative nor vice versa. Rather, the interviews were intended to complement and provide a deeper perspective for the research phenomena, something that the questionnaires alone could not do.

Even though the choice of methods and the sample used has been justified, it cannot be claimed that the methodology used was the best for this study, but rather the best within the web of constraints since “no methodology, whatever it is, has ever claimed to be ‘the method’” (Modood, 1999).

The researcher faced and acknowledges that there are still problems and limitations in the study. For example:

(a) No classroom observations were conducted to ascertain the extent to which student teachers or classroom teachers were acting upon their expressed opinions. Likewise,

(b) No observations were conducted in the schools where student teachers practise teaching to ascertain the extent to which the school staff’s views coincide with their articulated perceptions of the school experience. However, the student teachers notebooks for teaching practice were examined.
All these issues can be addressed by further research studies. The size of the samples of respondents in Phase 2 of the study causes some limitations on the possibility of generalising the findings of the study to a larger population. All these have to be taken into account if an adequate understanding of the findings is to be achieved.

Since the aim of this study was to conduct research in Libya in order to inquire "How student teachers, their university tutors, classroom teachers and school Head teachers see the programme of EFL teacher education in Libya and what suggestions they see as being appropriate for its development".

Throughout the process of completing the research, there is no doubt that it is a complicated matter containing many variables, constraints, limitations and some problems which make the use and selection of the most suitable methods and techniques difficult. It took about three months, which was relatively costly in terms of both time and effort for the people involved in conducting the research and all aspects of the fieldwork in England and Libya.

Because of these facts it seems that:

1. There is no one particular method better than any other for conducting this type of research but the choice depends on the circumstances of each case, in order to meet all the conditions, variables and constraints.
2. Therefore, the researcher suggests that a pilot survey should be used more than once in order to give a fair chance of applying more than one method in order to obtain the best result as it applied in this research using;
   (a) The interpretive-constructivist mode for qualitative analysis
       (Silverman, 1993); and
   (b) The positivistic mode of inquiry for quantitative analysis.

Chapter 6 presents the findings of the study, which are based on the quantitative, and qualitative analysis of the data obtained from questionnaires and interviews.