

**A LINGUISTIC AND TEXTUAL ANALYSIS OF CLASSROOM
ENGLISH INTERACTION AT- ALTHADI UNIVERSITY IN LIBYA**

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**A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor
of Philosophy in Linguistics in the Department of Linguistics, Faculty of Arts,
University of the Western Cape.**



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ABSTRACT

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PhD thesis, Department of Linguistics, University of the Western Cape

As English spreads and becomes a dominant language of power in global commerce, science, and technology, the need to teach and learn through it has also grown. It is not surprising that the aim of most education curriculum around the world, including the Arabic governments, has been developed to suit the curriculum of teaching and learning English inside their countries. Libya is one of the Arab countries where the government has invested heavily in the English language teaching curriculum, which is geared towards improving the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language (EFL) in schools and universities. The aim of this emphasis on the teaching and learning of English is to enable Libya to catch up in the development of its economy and to promote international exchange. Despite the government's efforts towards improving English language learning, there have been claims from various quarters in the education field that students at all education levels are not performing successfully in the language, with regard to literacy, in all the four language skills (i.e. listening, speaking, writing, and reading). Very few studies have been done on teaching English in Arabic countries in Africa. In fact, very few studies on language and classroom interaction in the Arabic social context have been done.

Using a qualitative design, this study collected the data through classroom observation, document analysis, which included written texts and materials used in teaching English, and a lecturers' questionnaire.

This study uses an interdisciplinary approach in the analytical framework combining Systemic Functional Linguistic theory (SFL) (Martin 1992; Halliday 1994), and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) (Wodak & Meyer 2001; Fairclough 1989, 1993, 1995, 2001). Further, the study draws on Christie's (1997, 2001, 2002, 2005) work on Classroom Discourse Analysis, which in turn builds on Bernstein's (1990, 1996, 2000) model of pedagogic practice and interaction, to examine dominance and power relations in the classroom. This interdisciplinary approach enabled this study to evaluate Al-Thadi university students' English language competence, linguistically and textually. The linguistic and textual analysis of classroom English interaction enabled this study to find out how the available genres and discourses are used in these interactions. In addition, it enabled the researcher to see how the curriculum and the English language course materials are supportive. In essence, this approach enabled exploration of Al-Thadi University students' English language competence in spoken and written communication. This in turn allowed the researcher to do a linguistic and textual analysis of learners' spoken and written English competence, and lecturers' and students' classroom discursive practices. The linguistic analysis enabled this study to see the kinds of grammatical errors students make in relation to cohesion, coherence, and thematic structure in their English written communication. On the other hand, the textual analysis enabled this study to analyze the sources of the errors from a genre perspective - the role of the different genres to which students are exposed to promote English language learning. The study set out to assess what teaching and learning approaches are used, and how they influence learners' English language acquisition at the university.

Finally, it also helps us to critique the concept of "appropriateness" (Fairclough 1995) of particular teaching methods in Arabic social context with a view to suggesting appropriate ways of improving the teaching and learning of the English language in the Libyan social context.

From the analytical theories, the study argues that Libyan EFL students' lack of success in spoken and written English language communication, revolves around different

reasons, including the current English syllabi at all levels not providing a clear statement or description of the ultimate goal of communicative competence; lecturers privileging decontextualised grammar teaching instead of equipping the students with the ability to use the language for communication; authority and power imbalance as located in the lecture-student socio-discursive relationship, in which the teacher is the source of all knowledge; and neglecting the students' background knowledge and first language (L1) as a resource.

One of the major contributions of this study is the extending of the theory of genre to include classroom macrogenre. As far as we are aware, this is the only study that has applied Christie's and Bernstein's pedagogical macrogenre in Africa. This study has also extended this theory to include the pedagogic macrogenres in EFL classroom practice. In the original conceptualization, the theory has only been applied in English first language classroom contexts. This study has opened up the possibility to use the theory, even in the multilingual contexts in Africa. In this regard, it is worth noting the macrogenre finding in this study that, contrary to Christie's results of the dominance of regulative register, in bilingual social contexts, the instructional register is dominant.

DECLARATION

I declare that **A Linguistic and textual Analysis of English Classroom Interaction At-Al-Thadi University in Libya** is my own work, that it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged as complete references.

Elsanosi Eldokali

Signed:

Supervisor: Professor Felix Banda

Signed:



DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to:

ALLAH

the lord, creator, and sustainer of the heavens and earth.

Then to my family:

My father and mother, wife, children, and brothers and sisters.



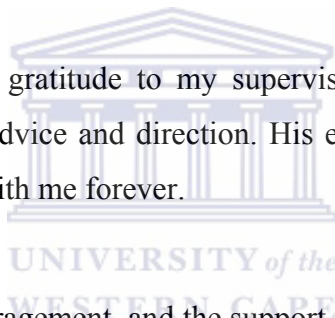
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In the name of Allah, the Beneficent, the Merciful.

I thank Allah, who gave me the ability and health to complete this study. The completion of the thesis is the result of many people's assistance and encouragement. I wish to express my sincere gratitude to all of them.

I would like to express my appreciation to the principals, lecturers, and students of the English Department at AL-Thadi University for making it possible for me to gather information leading to the conclusion of the study.

I wish to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor Prof. Felix Banda who has provided me with invaluable advice and direction. His example as a professor, advisor, and applied linguist will stay with me forever.



I appreciate the warmth, encouragement, and the support I have received from the staff of Linguistics Department at the Western Cape University, especially Mrs. A. Grovers whose energy has worked to help me to finish this work.

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All the credit goes to my father, mother, brothers and sisters for their support and encouragement. Finally, I appreciate the help and support I have received from the people at the Libyan Embassy in South Africa.

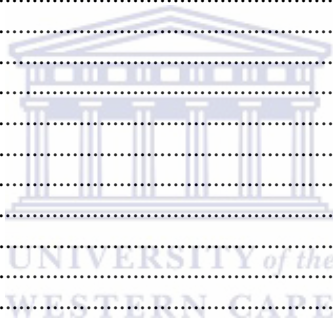


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Chapter One

Background Information and Situating the Study

1.0 Introduction

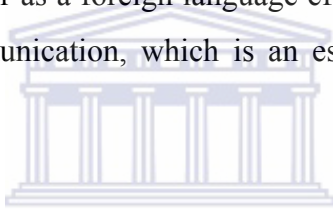
The world has witnessed revolutionary changes in the –izations since the 18th century. It has traveled through the ages of –izations i.e. industrialization, urbanization, liberalization, computerization, and now the most talked about, “globalization”. Globalization has brought with it the desire and need to have a unified form of communication, in other words, a common linguistic communication code. This common linguistic code is an important phenomenon for defining the "social community". In this connection, the question that has been raised is: what is the global language of global communication for the global community? Undoubtedly, one can say that English has occupied a global position because of its widespread use. It is important to note that over time, English has increasingly become the language of the market and globalization as well as the language of the new world order (Banda 2003; Fairclough 1995, 2001).

Nowadays, English is the most widely spoken language in the world; which is attributed to the political dominance of the British and American colonialists (Graddol 1997:10). Thus, the spread of English is seen as the result of colonization led by Britain in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries and later by the rise of the United States as the world's leading economic and military power in the twentieth century. There are 375 million native speakers of English, 375 million second language speakers of English and 750 million foreign language speakers of English (Graddol 1997). This statistical data shows how widely English has spread. But it does not tell us about the competence of its users, particularly those who use English as the second or foreign language. Apart from political dominance, English has been associated with the advancement of Science and Technology, especially Software and Information Technology. According to information gathered by Crystal (1997), 85% of international organizations in the world use English

as an official language, at least 85% of the world's film market is in English, and some 90% of published academic articles in some academic fields are written in English.

With respect for other widely spoken languages such as Spanish, Arabic, Chinese, among others, it is true that English is currently the most widespread language around the world. It is used everywhere, either as an official language or as a second language (ESL) or as a foreign language (EFL) or as a language of the world's written information or as a language of communication.

As a result of the spread of English, mainly because of the economic and political needs, almost all trades and professions around the world demand people who are able to use English as a second language or as a foreign language effectively as an essential tool for establishing meaningful communication, which is an essential condition to be able to work in today's global context.

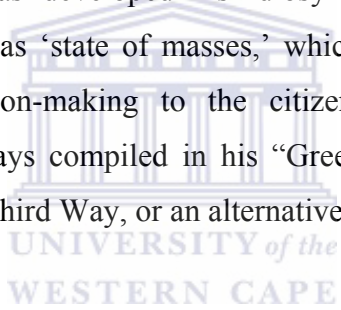


In the light of the information above, it is clear that English language teaching and learning have gained currency in many education syllabi across the world. With the increase in the use of English as a lingua franca, all Arab governments have begun to recognize its importance by introducing the teaching of English into their schools' curriculum. Libya is one of the Arab countries in which English is taught as a compulsory subject in schools, from preparatory level to university level. In Libya, English is a foreign language. It is not used in government and media or in any other social domain. Thus, students in Libya learn English in the Arabic socio-cultural context, where the students encounter the language through formal instruction - inside the classroom. Outside the classroom, the language used for communication is Arabic.

Libya as an Arab country consists mostly of huge areas of desert. It shares borders with Tunisia and Algeria in the west, and Egypt in the east, while the Sahara extends across the southern frontiers with Niger, Chad and Sudan. With an area of almost 1.8 million square kilometers, 90% of which is desert, Libya has a population of over 6 million

people. More than 90 percent of the inhabitants identify themselves as Arab, but there are scattered communities of Berber and those of mixed Berber and African descent in the southwest. Islam is the official religion and Arabic is the national language of Libya although Berber language is still spoken in places and remnants of it remain in the southern oases. English is the most popular foreign language and is regularly taught in school.

Politically, Libya is a one-party democracy whose party is known as The Socialist People's Republic of Libyan Arab Jamahiriya. The Socialist People's Republic of Libyan Arab Jamahiriya was founded on principles of political decentralization, after Mu'ammal-Qaddafi and a group of military officers seized power in September 1969. Over the ensuing 35 years, Qaddafi has developed his idiosyncratic political vision for the Jamahiriya, loosely translated as 'state of masses,' which essentially requires the total decentralization of all decision-making to the citizens themselves through direct democracy. In a series of essays compiled in his "Green Book" Qaddafi spells out a vision for what he termed the Third Way, or an alternative to capitalism and socialism.



Economically, the discovery of oil in Libya transformed her from a poor agricultural country into one of the world's leading petroleum producers, with vast sums to spend on social, health and education. Late in 2003, the Libyan government promised to end its support of international terrorism and dismantle its nuclear weapons program. As a result, the United States is slowly re-establishing formal contact with Libya and in recent months a delegation of academics and officials from both countries have toured universities in both Libya and the United States. Furthermore, the British Council signed a cultural agreement with Libya at the end of 2003 which is expected to result in an increase in the number of Libyans studying in the UK. Due to the increasing number of students enrolling in higher education through the 1980s and 1990s Libya has established a total of thirteen universities by 1995, consisting altogether of 76 specialized faculties and more than 344 specialized scientific departments. The need for improved English

skills in Libya is growing rapidly as Libya's commercial and other links with the rest of the world develop.

Al-Thadi University is one of the major universities in Libya that grants bachelor's degrees in different majors. It was founded in 1987. The academic year in this university starts from September to July and the language of the instruction is Arabic and English. It has seven faculties including Faculty of Science, Faculty of Engineering, Faculty of Medicine and Faculty of Education. The English department is found in the Faculty of Education that has nearly two hundred students at the time of the study. As has been shown later most of the lecturers in the English department are foreigners and qualified to teach English.

Given that the Arabic social context is dominant, it becomes difficult for Libyan students to communicate in English outside the classroom. Thus, the observation made by Allwright (1984) that it is easy to see that we should not expect our English language learners to be able to practice what they have learned in their classroom outside if they have never really had much opportunity to practice in circumstances similar to "real life", is quite relevant to Libya's situation.

Arising from the above discussion, it seems not easy for Libyan students to communicate in English outside the classroom if teachers of English do not provide them with opportunities or circumstances relevant or similar to real life situations. As such, one of the assumptions that this study makes is that EFL teachers in the Libyan social context seems to have failed to link English language structure with the social meanings where this language is used. This study puts emphasis on communicative language teaching (CLT) in which the teacher's role is to facilitate authentic communication among students in the target language and also be a participant in the act of communicating and negotiating meaning (cf. Breen & Candlin 1980). As demonstrated elsewhere, language is a resource or tool employed to build functionally relevant meanings in social contexts (see Chapter Two for details). Christie (2005:7) argues that "it would be educationally

insufficient and inadequate to become preoccupied either with structure or with meanings, for understanding of both is essential to effective learning.”

In addressing the English language problem in Libya, the government has invested heavily in the English language teaching. The Ministry of Education has replaced the old textbooks of English that were being used in the preparatory and secondary schools, because they were more focused on grammatical forms, which were perceived to contribute to students’ communication problems. In collaboration with “Garnet Education”, the Libyan National Centre for Education Planning and Vocational Training has introduced an “*English for Libya*” series at preparatory and secondary school levels. Native speakers of English have been designing these series of teaching material. Moreover, local Libyan graduate students of English are sent abroad to countries such as Canada, England, and South Africa to obtain higher degrees in English language teaching. Additionally, the government hires people from areas such as India and Africa to take up jobs in the language teaching profession, especially at the university level. Apart from this, the government has recently provided most of the colleges and universities in Libya with English language teaching and learning facilities such as language laboratories and audio visual aids. Despite all these measures, the teaching of English in schools in Libya still seems inadequate and lacks authentic communication between teachers and students, even though the curriculum emphasizes the importance of communication competence and intercultural understanding.

Therefore, this study aimed at finding out the reasons for the seemingly contradictory situation presented above, and suggests suitable alternative strategies for the teaching and learning of EFL in Libya’s social context. Although much effort has been made to improve and enhance the teaching of English in Libya, this study argues that English language teaching and learning seems not to go beyond language forms and students’ performance is still assessed only in terms of structural and linguistic competence. By structural or linguistic competence, we mean that one has an explicit knowledge about linguistic or the grammatical forms and the ways in which these forms can be combined

to form sentences. Based on Chomsky's (1965) discussion, grammatical competence means the knowledge of the rules that govern the language. This knowledge of the grammatical structure of the language demonstrates 'linguistic competence'. On the other hand, communicative competence may be defined as the ability to function in a truly communicative setting; it is the way in which particular grammatical forms may be used to express these functions appropriately (see Chapter Two for details).

This is the fruit of the insight that the ability to manipulate the structures of the language correctly is only a part of what is involved in learning a language in the EFL situation. However, there is "something else" that needs to be learned, which involves the ability to be appropriate, to know the right thing to say at the right time. This discontent was already felt in early eighties by Morrow (1981) who speaks about 'structurally competent' students, the ones who have developed the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences, and yet who are unable to perform a simple communicative task. For the majority of students in the Libyan context, English language largely remains an academic exercise with little motivation to learn more than what is required to pass examinations. Thus, it seems that there is little motivation for Libyan students to improve their sociolinguistic and strategic competence with grammar still dominating English language instruction.

Linguists such as Brumfit (1984, 1986), Brumfit & Johnson (1979), Widdowson 1972, 1973, 1978) and Hymes (1972,1974) have proven that concentration on linguistic form only does not provide the EFL students with the communicative skills that are necessary for the use of their foreign language outside the classroom. In addition to that, many scholars such as Franke (1884 cited in Richards & Rodgers 2001) argue that a language could best be taught by using it actively in the classroom. Rather than using analytical procedures that focus on explanation of grammar rules in classroom teaching, teachers must encourage direct and spontaneous use of the foreign language in the classroom. Learners would then be able to induce rules of grammar. According to Celce-Murcia et al (1997), the communicative classroom provides a better environment for foreign language

learning than classrooms dominated by formal instruction. Therefore, methods resulted in type of teaching forms courses remembered with distaste by thousands of school learners, for whom foreign language learning meant a tedious experience of memorizing endless lists of unusable grammar rules and vocabulary and attempting to produce perfect translations of stilted or literary prose (Richards & Rodgers 2001). The focus on form that traditionally has been dominant in the foreign language classroom was combined or even replaced by focus on meaning and a situation similar to authentic learning settings.

During the last decade, a shift toward more communicative approaches of foreign language teaching around the world has led to a change in instructional styles allotting more classroom time for students to actively communicate with one another. In the early 1970, a “sociolinguistic revolution” took place, where the emphasis given in linguistics to grammar was replaced by an interest in language in use (Johnson 2001). This relationship, which exists between language and social environment, is fundamental to modern sociolinguistic theory and maybe one of the keys in teaching social appropriacy (sociolinguistic competence) to learn. As will be shown in this study, several lecturers of English in the Libyan social context have so far ignored this changing paradigm of looking at language as a meaning-making system. They are only interested in language as a self-contained system of rules and not in the social contexts of communication.

Furthermore, the 15 years of international economic and political embargo on Libya by the United Nations has had a negative impact on English language teaching and learning. The United Nations Security Council imposed sanctions on Libya in 1992 to press her to hand over two suspects wanted for the 1988 bombing of a US Pan American Airways airliner over Lockerbie, Scotland. As a result, Libya was cut-off from international interaction during the time of the sanctions. The lifting of the economic and political sanctions against Libya by the UN has opened doors for many foreign companies, visitors and English lecturers who speak English as native speakers to come to Libya. This has further necessitated the need to communicate in an international language.

Due to these political and economic developments, Libya has recently changed her attitude towards English, which is reflected in the English curriculum in schools. Before the recent changes towards global politics, English as a subject in Libya was not taken seriously in academic institutions. The language was treated as a pass time subject, offered three times a week and as one of the last subjects of the lessons in a day. Students who took the subject and failed could proceed to the higher grades. Presently, English is considered to be one of the major subjects in the curriculum and students are encouraged to learn it and those who fail English remain in the same level until they have passed the subject. But still, foreigners experience problems in communicating with Libyans, as they generally do not speak Arabic and Libyans have a poor command of English, making it difficult for them to communicate with outsiders.

The aim of the education policy in Libya in including English in the schools' curriculum is to help their students to access knowledge in science and technology, economic and global politics, all of which are largely packaged in the English language. Thus, the policy is aimed at helping students to acquire English as an empowerment language for them to participate in local and global economy.

Yet, the teaching of EFL in many educational institutions in Libya is still unable to meet the requirement of the political and economic growth of the country as many school graduates find it hard to communicate in English effectively after spending a long time studying the language. Thus, this study was premised on the assumption that traditional teaching approaches, rely on outdated language material, the use of memorization and rote learning as basic learning techniques. The perceived role of the lecturer, among other things, may have hampered the effectiveness of both the teaching and learning of EFL in the Libyan social context. In this context, most Libyan students see knowledge as something to be transmitted by the lecturer rather than discovered by the students. They, therefore, find it normal to engage in modes of learning which are lecturer-centred and in which they receive knowledge rather than interpret it.

1.1 Background to the Problem

1.1.1 Teaching and Learning of English as a Foreign Language in Libya

Linguists make distinction between foreign and a second language in terms of learning and teaching English. For example, according to Nunan & Carter (2001:2) “the term ESL is used to refer to situations in which English is being taught and learned in countries, contexts and cultures in which English is the predominant language of communication”. They further state that the term EFL “is used in contexts where English is neither widely used for communication, nor used as the medium of instruction”. In addition, Stern (1983:16) provides the difference between the two language situations. According to the author, a “distinction is to be made between a non-native language learnt and used within one country to which the term second language has been applied, and a non-native language learnt and used with reference to a speech community outside national or territorial boundaries to which the term ‘foreign language’ is commonly given”.

The above definitions mean that a language, which is not used as a medium of communication within a country such as in government, business, or industry, is described as a foreign language. On the other hand, a language which is not a native language in a country but which is widely used as a medium of communication in fields such as business or government is described as second language. Therefore, there are some countries around the world which use English as a foreign language and others which use it as a second language. “[...] A ‘second language’ usually has official status or a recognized function within a country which a ‘foreign language’ does not” (Stern 1983).

To begin with, ESL and EFL learners are exposed to unequal inputs, both in terms of quantity and quality. Whereas ESL learners, who usually study English in the contexts where English is naturally more extensively used in class and in the community, have ample opportunities to use English in their social context’s life, EFL learners are restricted only inside the classroom as a place to interact and communicate with English

language. After school, ESL students can watch TV, listen to the radio and talk in English to English speaking friends and other community members while EFL students are exposed mostly to situations where only their mother tongue is used. Regarding the quality of the inputs, likewise, ESL learners usually benefit a great deal more from the more authentic, relevant, interesting inputs in both verbal and non-verbal forms. For instance, ESL learners read texts, newspapers, and magazines made available for real communication and based on the needs and interests of all members in the community. EFL learners, on the other hand, often have to deal dully with grammar rules and boring drill exercises, or, if they are lucky, some simplified bits from newspapers or magazines. Frequently, these selected materials are of no relevance to their needs or interests and they literally have no chance to choose what they want to associate with (cf. Stern 1983, Carter and Nunan 2001).

Furthermore, ESL learners' are able to engage in meaningful activities both in and outside classes, while EFL learners are inevitably restricted to what is prepared for them by their teachers. ESL learners can enjoy doing tasks tailored around news, movies, and songs in English which are available fresh everyday. On the other hand, EFL learners seldom have the chance to do so, due largely to the limited availability of such resources. As a result, we usually see ESL students having fun with the many activities such as field trips, movie viewing, interviewing people, etc., while, on the contrary, we very often perceive the picture of EFL students sitting in class quietly and listening to their teachers explaining. In addition, ESL learners usually use English in their studies, or at least most of the subjects are taught in English to them whereas the EFL learners have very few occasions where they can use English both at school, where other subjects are taught in their mother tongue, and in their community, where practically only the mother tongue is in use. Of course, at present, EFL learners in many countries can meet some foreign visitors in their towns, but such an opportunity, if it exists, is nothing compared to the real life situations under which ESL learners live and benefit from as language learners. If language learning deals inescapably with skills sharpening tasks, EFL learners lack meaningful practices through such activities.

In the case of Libya, English is taught as a subject in the university curriculum. Students study English as a main subject besides the other subjects such as Arabic, educational psychology, curriculum design, to mention but a few. However, before joining the university, students have to go through two stages where they are obliged to learn English. The first stage is preparatory school and the second is secondary school. In both stages, the students spend three years learning English.

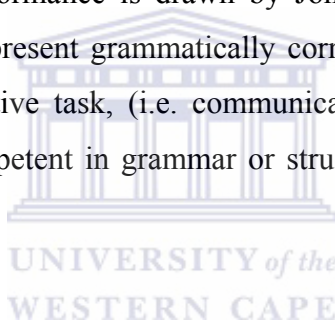
At the preparatory stage, the age of the pupils approximately ranges from 12 to 15 years. This is the first stage that Libyan learners are exposed to a foreign language. However, there are a number of problems regarding English language teaching in this stage. First, the number of the subjects at the preparatory stage is thirteen. Each subject is allocated a period of forty-five minutes, which is too short for any meaningful language learning to take place. Core subjects such as Mathematics, Science, and Arabic are usually given more time during the week than the English language subject. Secondly, the number of students came from the primary stage is very big, which leads to overcrowding as, often, classes have more than forty students. This huge number of students makes it practically impossible for individual attention to the learners by the teachers. Hence, the class sizes during English language lessons are often very big for any meaningful language learning to take place.

The preparatory stage is divided into three levels. Each level has a course book of English complemented with a workbook. These books are published and usually written by native speakers of English. The structure of the lessons in these books seems to be directed to teach students the four language skills, i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing

Even though, as we mentioned earlier, these books are well organized, learners in Libya are still unable to follow these course materials because of the learners' low English proficiency. Additionally, the teachers who currently teach English in preparatory schools in Libya are graduates of teachers' institutes, which offer four years of study beyond the preparatory school. Most of them graduated long time ago from these institutions.

Therefore, one of the assumptions that this study made was that these teachers are influenced by the traditional approaches of teaching English, which prioritises form to meaning.

In a preparatory stage, grammar seems to be a popular component in the English classroom instruction. But the teaching of language, as mentioned later in this study, requires not only rules but also other skills such as how students improve their communication with others (sociolinguistic competence). This brings us to the issue of competence and performance. The distinction between the two, according to Chomsky (1965), is that competence involves the speaker-hearer's knowledge of the language, and performance involves the actual use of language in concrete situations. Further distinction between competence and performance is drawn by Johnson and Morrow (1981) who observe that if a student can present grammatically correct sentences, but be unable to perform a simple communicative task, (i.e. communicative performance) then such a student can be said to be competent in grammar or structural rules, but incompetent in communicative performance.



In the case of Libyan context, therefore, in the preparatory stage, there seems to be little thought given to teach oral and communication practice. Moreover, the task of teachers in this stage focuses more on helping students to pass the final examinations than to acquire and develop communicative ability in English. Thus, the English content that teachers usually use inside the classroom are not geared at improving students' communicative performance. Furthermore, English curriculum has not yet gone beyond linguistic form, and learners' performance is still assessed in terms of linguistic competence only. Therefore, students in the preparatory stage are familiar with English structures but can not use the language competently.

It can, therefore, be concluded that in the preparatory stage, it can correctly be assumed that students are very weak in communicating in English because of the methods teachers use. Furthermore, this study assumes that because teachers have no access to the

development of English teaching methods, they cannot improve their methods of teaching.

At the secondary school stage, there are specific goals in the teaching of English. Some of these are that students should be able to write English passages that are grammatically correct, properly punctuated and effectively organized, and to understand and communicate in English in Libya's social context. In this stage, learners also have their specified English texts books, which are published and written by native speakers. These books cover all the four language skills. In this stage, there are three levels and at each level learners have English as one of the compulsory subjects that should be attended and passed. The learners in this stage have other subjects alongside English, such as Maths, History, Arabic, and Science, to mention but a few. Each subject lesson takes about forty-five minutes. The English subject is offered only three times a week. The English teachers in this stage usually complain about the limited time allocated to English classes. They find forty-five minutes for a language class insufficient to cover enough ground in all the skills of the language. In this stage, class sizes are usually big, which pose another challenge to teachers.

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Most of the teachers who currently teach English in secondary schools in Libya are not from Libya. They are from different nationalities such as Iraq, Egypt, Sudan, and Palestine. The teachers graduate from the institutions in their home countries and apply for jobs in Libya. Thus, these English teachers use different methods and approaches for language teaching, depending on their own experience of language teaching and learning in their home countries. Also, the fact that most of these teachers have foreign accents (usually the ones of their different home countries) makes it difficult for the Libyan students to follow and understand some of them. Foreign teachers are mostly motivated by pecuniary gains to take up teaching positions in Libya. They know that they can be well paid in the teaching jobs in Libya, and especially because the teachers come to Libya through private arrangements and not through official government arrangements. Thus, monitoring of quality of teaching of such teachers becomes difficult.

Further, the high demand for English teachers in Libya is another hurdle for the government. They cannot afford to institute strict control measures to dispense with the would be unqualified teaching job seekers. Also, the Libyan government cannot easily evaluate teachers' professional ability because of the very high demand of English teachers in Libyan schools.

Teaching English in the secondary school levels also seems to concentrate on English form and to repeat what other teachers do in the preparatory schools. Students in this stage are treated like parrots that have to memorize all the English forms and reproduce them when called upon to do so.

The preparatory and secondary school stages prepare the students for higher learning of English at the university level. The university level is the setting of this study. In this level, the students are taught English for four years. The chance of learning English in this stage seems better than the preparatory and secondary school levels. In the university level, the time for the English class is extended to two hours instead of forty minutes for each session. All the lecturers are highly qualified and can be described as 'good' English language speakers. In addition to that, the government has provided the universities with language facilities such as language laboratories. However, the teaching of English in this stage seems to be inadequate too, and students do not seem to benefit from the English teaching curriculum since foreigners occupy most of the teaching posts at the university level and communication in the first language (i.e. Arabic) does not take place to assist students who cannot follow lessons exclusively in English. This study argues that using the L1 in the classroom alternatively would not hinder foreign language learning. Moreover, in contexts where English is hardly heard outside the classroom, the L1 has a facilitating role to play in the classroom and can actually help English language learning. Therefore, it is argued that there is sense in using the L1 alternatively in creating authentic L2 users rather than shunning it at all costs.

The assumption this research also made was that lecturers at the university level still privilege English structure as a departure point in their teaching than meaning. Furthermore, the lecturers are not confident in the ability of learners in English which makes the relations between students-as learners and lecturers-as mentors be that of power and dominance, with the latter as a powerful participant in the classroom discourse. Secondly, the fact that the lecturers seem to be oblivious of the negative effects of the powerful role (in the classroom interaction) they play in relation to the students' learning makes the lecturers become an agent of the enactment and perpetuation of this power imbalance. Therefore, Libyan students' unsuccessful English learning revolves around authority and power imbalance as located in the lecturer-students socio-discursive relationship. This relationship results from lecturers' privileges decontextualised grammar teaching as a model of literacy (cf. Van Dijk 1993, 2001).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

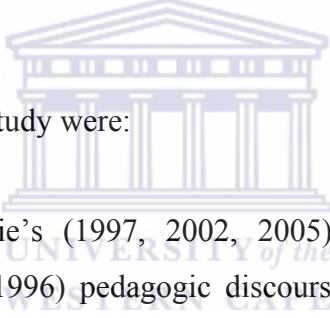
Arising from the assumptions made in the introduction above, that there is a problem in the EFL teaching and learning strategies in the Libyan social context, there is need to investigate the whole EFL teaching and learning process in the English department at Al-Thadi University. In particular, there is need to focus attention on the students' English language competence at the university level. As noted in the background information, despite the improved English learning situation existing at Al-Thadi University, students in the English department are still said to be unsuccessful in their English language performance in all the four language skills. Therefore, there is need to investigate the methodologies used in English teaching in Libya so as to see how they impact on students' EFL English language competence. There is also need to investigate the pedagogical skills of the lecturers in teaching English in the Arabic social context. Given the predominance of the Arabic social context, there is also need to investigate the English classroom interaction between the lecturer and students. Therefore, the general aim of this study was to investigate the suitability of EFL teaching and learning strategies in Al-Thadi University. The specific aims are presented in the following sections.

1.3 Aim of the Study

The general aim of the study was to do a linguistic and textual analysis of English classroom interaction at AL-Thadi University in Libya. This entails doing a linguistic and textual analysis of the student-lecturer relationship in the English classroom interaction to find out how the available genres and discourses are made use of during these interactions. Also, to see how supportive the curriculum and the English language course materials are to the teaching and learning process. Finally, this study intended to critique the concept of English “appropriateness” in the EFL learning (see Fairclough 1995) with a view of suggesting ways of improving the teaching and learning of the English language in the Libyan social context.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of this study were:

- 
- 1.4.1 To explore Christie’s (1997, 2002, 2005) curriculum macrogenres and Bernstein’s (1990, 1996) pedagogic discourse (regulative and instructional) register in Libyan school context;
 - 1.4.2 To explore the classroom discursive practices dominant in Libyan EFL classroom;
 - 1.4.3 To identify and describe the dominant linguistic features in students’ English written texts with regard to cohesion (referencing, conjunctions, verb forms and spelling) and thematic structure as textual meaning (theme and rheme, contextualization topic) in order to see how the Libyan students construct English meaning in the contexts in which they interact;
 - 1.4.4 To identify and describe the students’ spoken communicative competence with regard to classroom interaction - finding out how students interact with instructors, and interact with each other and with the teaching materials, approaches, and methods using the English language;

1.4.5 To critically examine English language syllabi to see how useful they are in supporting English language learning;

1.4. To establish the textual and interdiscursive relationship of the dominant style, genres, and discourse of students' spoken and written texts.

1.4.7 To critically analyse (1.4.1-1.4.6) in the Libyan social context.

1.5 Assumptions

The following assumptions guided this study:

1.5.1 That instructional is the dominant register in EFL class stages because of the bilingual situation where English is not used for wider communication;

1.5.2 That teacher-student and student-student interaction will be minimal in classroom practice;

1.5.3 That students who lack textual skills can not develop themes and write in a coherent manner;

1.5.4 That EFL lecturers fail to link language structure with social meaning and opt for decontextualised grammar teaching as a model of literacy;

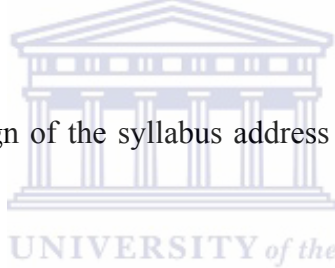
1.5.5 That the first language, in this case Arabic, is not used to assist students who cannot follow lessons exclusively in English;

1.5.6 That authority and power imbalance is located in the lecture-student socio-discursive relationship, in which the teacher is the source of all knowledge, and the students' participation is neglected hindering English learning in EFL classes;

1.6 Research Questions

This study was guided by the following research questions:

- 1.6.1 Are Christie's curriculum macrogenres and Bernstein's pedagogic discourse (regulative and instructional) registers applicable in EFL classroom practice in Libya?
- 1.6.2 How do the theories, methods, and approaches currently in use address the needs of the Libyan EFL instructors and students?
- 1.6.3 What appropriate and inappropriate language features are dominant in the students' spoken and written discourse with reference to cohesion and thematic structure?
- 1.6.4 How does the design of the syllabus address the students' language learning requirements?
- 1.6.5 How does the Libyan context influence the students' leaning of spoken and written discourse (i.e. linguistic, textual and interdiscursive relationships)?



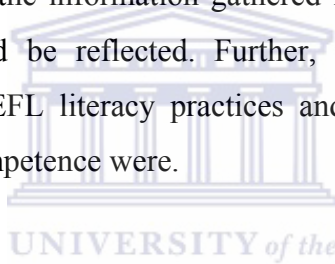
1.7 Methodology

This study used a conceptual framework constructed from Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). Further, it draws on Christie's work, which in turn builds on Bernstein's (1990, 1996, 2000) model of pedagogic practice and his interest in how interaction reflects unequal power relations in the classroom (see Chapter Two for details). In this study the following data collection techniques were used:

Classroom observation: This involved five classes of EFL Libyan students. The main focus was the students, lecturer, language, the learning process, the lesson, teaching skills and strategies, classroom management, and materials and resources.

Document analysis: This involved students' written texts and the university's English syllabi. In the former, the focus was on the English language competence with relation to cohesion, coherence, and thematic structure. In the latter, the focus was on how the curriculum and the English language course materials are supportive of the teaching and learning of English in the Libyan social context.

Questionnaires: These included the lecturers' questionnaire which was used as a way of triangulation - to see whether the information gathered from the classroom observation and document analysis would be reflected. Further, they were aimed at soliciting lecturers' view on students' EFL literacy practices and what the expectations of the students' English language competence were.



In short, it was hoped that these tools would enable this study to do a comprehensive linguistic and textual analysis of the spoken and written discourse of students at Al-Thadi University. The linguistic analysis would help this study to see the kinds of language literacy practices students perform. It was envisaged that the textual analysis of spoken and written discourse would help this study to see what influence students' language literacy performance from genre perspective, that is, the role of the genres learners, are exposed to in promoting English learning. The methodology used in this study is discussed in full in Chapter Three.

1.8 Rationale

The lifting of United Nations sanctions on Libya opened up the country's frontiers to the outside world. This development, in turn, enabled Libya to establish and enhance socio-economic relations with other countries. For this reason, there has been a growing local

demand of increased literacy levels in the English language so as to enable Libyan nationals to function locally and globally as their country becomes actively involved in the global economics. Thus, it is very important to reflect on the English curriculum being used in Libya so as to find out how it has been designed - the pedagogical approaches used - in order to suggest ways of improving students' learning of the English language.

The government of Libya is spending a lot of money in hiring expatriates to teach English in the higher institutions of learning in the country. This study hopes to contribute in helping hasten the acquisition and use of English thereby enabling Libya to produce competent local teachers who will, in turn, teach English and thus reduce the budget on hired expatriates.

1.9 Scope and Limitations

This study limited itself to Sirte region in Libya and AL-Thadi University as the study area. The study investigated students' linguistic features in spoken and written communication, English syllabus material in Libya's social context. Thus, AL-Thadi University in this case is used as microcosm of Libya's universities because, like any other university in Libya, AL-Thadi admits students from more or less similar socio-cultural background found in Libya.

1.10 Organisation of the Thesis

This study comprised six chapters with each chapter focussing on particular aspects as follows:

Chapter One, presents, the introduction, background to the problem, statement of the problem, and the rationale of the study. In addition to that, it also includes aims, objectives, assumptions, and the research questions.

In Chapter Two, the theoretical framework for this study is presented. The framework is an interdisciplinary conceptual approach formed from the critical linguistic theory, namely, Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL) supplemented by Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) and Curriculum Macrogenres in classroom discourse analysis (an extension work of SFL). This chapter also covered issues on language competence in EFL in Libya's social context, and the learning and teaching of English in other Arab Countries.

Chapter Three presents the methodology used in the thesis. The chapter covers issues on the research design, description of the sample, and the research tools. The chapter also covers the procedures followed for collecting the data, namely, documentary analysis, classroom observations, and questionnaires for lecturers. Additionally, the chapter gives details of the interdisciplinary analytical framework followed in the study.

Chapter Four, deals with the classroom observation and documents analysis. With relation to classroom observation, the discussion focuses on macrogenres (regulative and instructional) registers and how these two registers work in EFL classroom practices. In documents analysis, the work is divided into two parts. In the students written texts analysis, the focus is on the appropriate and inappropriate language features dominant in students' written texts with relation to cohesion, coherence, and thematic structure. In syllabi design, the focus is on how the design of the syllabus addresses the students' language learning requirement.

Chapter Five, deals with lecturers' questionnaires. The themes on this part focus on issues relating to students motivation for learning English, dynamics of classroom discourse interaction in Libya, lecturers' approach to EFL literacy in Libya, and the appropriacy of the English syllabus in Libya's social context. Other issues include students' early access to school literacy, lecturers' contradictory claim between their perceptions of students' discourse performance and the real classroom situation, and the hegemonic influence of English among the lecturers.

Chapter Six presents the discussions and findings. In relation to the objectives and research questions, the discussion in this chapter is also constructed around eight thematic areas, namely, dynamics of classroom discourse interaction in Libya, the applicability of Christie's curriculum macrogenres in EFL classroom, lecturers' discursive practices (i.e. lecturers' discursive practices, which privilege English as form only approach to literacy learning of EFL), appropriacy of English syllabus and lecturers' perception of EFL literacy. Other themes include lecturers' contradictory claim between their perception of students' discourse performance and the real classroom situation, hegemonic influence of English among the lecturers and finally lecturers' approach to EFL literacy in Libya.

Chapter Seven, deals with the general conclusion. From the aims and study objectives reiterated earlier, the conclusions for this study revolve around eight thematic areas, namely, Christie's macrogenres, thematic development and Halliday's three metafunction, students' literacy performance in EFL context, lecturers' perception of EFL literacy and English syllabus in Libya's social context. Other themes include lecturers' discursive practices, lecturer-student relationship in EFL classroom, students' commonsense knowledge vis-à-vis their uncommonsense knowledge and lecturers' contradictory claim between their perception of students' discourse performance and the real classroom situation. Furthermore, this chapter presents the implications of the study to the teaching and learning of English in Libya's social context.

1.11 Conclusion

This chapter explained the motivation of the study and provided the background to the problem regarding students' literacy practice in English as a foreign language in Libya's social context. The purpose was to see Libya in the context of the present educational scenario where the country has to play an effective role in global economics, especially after the lifting of embargo. The divergent varieties and classes of “—izations” of the past few centuries have been taken into consideration with a revolutionary academic bent of mind, especially in Libya's context of imparting language education from the

perspective of a foreign language. The socio-political, economic, and scientific situations in Libya urgently stress the need of the mediums like English to enable Libyans to participate effectively in these socio-political, economic, and scientific discourses in the global sphere.

The linguistic and textual analysis of Libyan learners' competence in spoken and written English has been earnestly attempted. This study used the conceptual framework constructed from SFL, CDA, and Classroom Discourse to investigate students' language literacy performance using. Using these theories, the study set out to see how the different genres and discursive practices that learners are exposed to can be instrumental in promoting or hindering English language learning.



CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

2.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the issues and concepts which informed this study as guided by relevant literature. The chapter begins by discussing issues on language competence in EFL Libya's social contexts and issues of learning and teaching of English in other Arab Countries. Next, the chapter presents an interdisciplinary conceptual framework which, as has been mentioned earlier, comprises Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL) (Halliday 1985, 1994; Eggins 2004), particularly some aspects of Christie's (1997, 2001, 2002, 2005) Classroom Discourse Analysis and Bernstein's (1990, 1996, 2000) and Critical discourse analysis (CDA) (Fairclough 1995, 2001; Wodak & Meyer 2001).

As mentioned earlier, this study adopted this interdisciplinary approach for different reasons. Firstly, these linguistic theories emphasize the social aspect of language, in that, language plays a central role within social phenomena and is considered as a part of material social process. Secondly, the theories involve looking at both language form and language-function. Therefore, this approach helps this study to analyse and explain how meanings are made in everyday linguistic interactions and, in this case, in the classroom. For each theory, we give an account of how the reviewed literature informs this study and thus contributes to a deeper understanding of the theoretical underpinning around the research problem.

2.1 Issues on Language Competence and Performance in EFL Learning Situation

As a basis of discussing English communicative competence, it is informative to begin by defining communication. Morrow (1977) describes seven features which characterize

communication, namely, interaction-based, unpredictable in both form and message, and varies according to sociolinguistic discourse context. Moreover, communication is carried out under performance limitations such as fatigue, memory constraints, and unfavourable environmental conditions and also always has a purpose (to establish social relations, to express ideas and feelings), involves authentic materials, as opposed to textbook contrived language and is judged to be successful or unsuccessful on the basis of actual outcomes (Morrow in Rivera 1984:39).

In relation to Morrow's features of communication presented above, we shall demonstrate that they are hardly found in the Libyan social contexts, and certainly do not seem to exist in students' academic environment to enable the EFL Libyan students to communicate in English language. English is not used in students' school and home environment for ordinary social interaction. Nor is it used for official communication. Communication in using a language as a resource between the two interlocutors (lecturers and students) do not also seem to exist as EFL lecturers do not always speak the students' language (in this case Arabic) and students have a lack of ability in English communication. Furthermore, lecturers favour form rather than meaning in their English teaching and never link form to the social meaning. Therefore, communicative activities and practice in the classroom are pedagogically useful as they represent a necessary and productive stage in the transfer of classroom learning to the outside world.

Savignon (1985:130) views communicative competence as "the ability to function in a truly communicative setting - that is a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total information input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors". Furthermore, Savignon (1983:8-9) characterizes communication as

dynamic rather than.... static... It depends on the negotiation of meaning between two or more persons... It is context specific. Communication takes place in an infinite variety of situations, and success in a particular role depends on one's understanding of the context and on prior experience of a similar kind.

The central characteristics of competence in communication in Savignon's view are associated with the dynamic, interpersonal nature of communicative competence and its dependence on the negotiation of meaning between two or more persons who share, to some degree, the same symbolic system. The application of both spoken and written language as well as of many other symbolic systems is therefore important.

The concept of negotiation of meaning plays a significant role in current language learning theories. Breen & Candlin (1980) give a thorough description of this concept which, they state, is a process whereby the learners, through discussing with their partners or working individually on texts in the target language, are able to interpret and construct meaning for them. Through such a process of learning, the learners' knowledge of the language is refined, the knowledge of the subject they are learning is simultaneously increased, and the communicative competence is enhanced. Therefore, to help learners in the EFL classes to acquire communicative competence, they need to be given opportunities to negotiate meaning in the target language.

In this case, it is crucial to look at the role of context in determining a specific communicative competence, the infinite variety of situations in which communication takes place and the dependence of success in a particular role on ones' understanding of the context and on prior experience of a similar kind (cf. Savignon 1983, 1985) in Libyan social contexts.

The problem is that Libyan students who have received several years of formal English teaching frequently remain deficient in the ability to actually use the language, and to understand its use in normal communication. To have real communication to take place, learners have to acquire various knowledge systems which include the rules of use, the rules of usage, and the negotiating procedures of communication (cf. Widdowson 1978). In the late seventies, Widdowson (1978:3) emphasized the importance of language use by differentiating 'usage' of a language from the 'use' of it. 'Usage', he explains, as being the rules of grammar and 'use' the ability to apply those rules to real life communication.

He notes that knowledge of 'usage' is significant, but not adequate in achieving communication.

Therefore, the issue is that the ability to compose correct sentences is not the only ability EFL students in the Libyan social contexts need in order to communicate effectively. Communication only takes place when students make use of sentences to perform a variety of different acts of an essentially social nature. Thus, EFL Libyan students do not communicate by composing sentences, but by using sentences to make statements of different kinds, to describe, to classify or to ask questions, make requests, give orders, and so on. Therefore, since English is a foreign language in the Libyan social contexts and rarely used as a language of communication outside the classroom, this study argues that English lecturers at the university level seem not be giving this issue much consideration during their English teaching. Further, they never take language use as a main target of their English teaching. As will be shown later, the English teaching curriculum does not only involve structural linguistic competence, but also the other competencies such as sociolinguistic competence, discourse , and strategic competence, in establishing English communicative competence for the EFL learners.

Communicative competence is a relative term. One depends on the cooperation of all participants, a situation that makes it reasonable to speak of degrees of communicative competence (for details see **2.3.2**). Thus, students in communicative language teaching classrooms are generally more successful communicators than their predecessors who received instruction focused solely on structure (William 1995). This is one of the reasons that the Libyan government replaced the old books that focused only on form by new books that focused on both form and meaning in the preparatory and secondary schools. Hence, Libyan students need, in addition to the knowledge of grammatical rules, the knowledge of how language is used to achieve particular communicative goals, and the recognition of language use as a dynamic process.

According to Chomsky (1965) the concept of grammatical or linguistic competence are highlighted as ‘cognitive aspects’ of human language acquisition and learning. He distinguished between competence (one’s underlying knowledge of the language) and performance (the realization of language in specific situations). In Chomsky’s (1965:4) words:

We thus make a fundamental distinction between competence (the speaker-hearer’s knowledge of the language), and performance, the actual use of the language in concrete situations.

In the view of Krashen’s (1981 in Richards & Rodgers 2001) view, the second and foreign language acquisition is an unconscious process of using language, not directly obtained by conscious learning. Thus, the major task for the English teachers is to create an environment or a setting for students to acquire English by using it through activities in classroom. Krashen’s theory also addresses the conditions necessary for the process of “acquisition” to take place. He describes acquisition in terms of the type of “input” the learner receives. Input must be comprehensible, slightly above the learner’s present level of competence, interesting or relevant, not grammatically sequenced, in sufficient quantity, and experienced in low-anxiety context.

Hymes (1972, 1974) introduced communicative competence as one of the earliest terms for this theorisation. In coining the term, Hymes demonstrates a shift of emphasis away from a narrow focus on language as a formal system, a focus most clearly seen in the work of Chomsky’s (1965), to language as a meaning system in social contexts. Hymes (1972) adds the ‘communicative’ element to ‘competence’ and observes that,

... rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless. Just as rules of syntax can control aspects of phonology, and just as rules of semantics perhaps control aspects of syntax, so rules of speech acts enter as a controlling for linguistic form as a whole (p.15)

Hymes extended Chomsky's notion of competence into communicative competence by including both grammatical rules and rules of language use. Hymes (1972:6) criticized Chomsky's position, in that the theory is inadequate to cope with "the difference between what one imagines and what one sees" and also that the social and cultural factors are not explicit and have no constitutive role for the theory to cope with the "realities for the children as communicating beings". Hymes is talking about competence, which is integral to attitudes and values concerning language and other codes of communication. Here there is a reference to "social factors" which he exemplified as positive productive aspects of linguistic engagement in social life: there are rules of use without which rules of grammar would be useless. Therefore, according to Hymes, communicative competence includes not only linguistic competence but also other competencies such as sociolinguistic competence.

Hymes, as a sociolinguist, was concerned with the social and cultural knowledge which speakers need in order to understand and use linguistic forms. His view, therefore, encompassed not only knowledge but also ability to put that knowledge into use in communication and, for that reason, other terms thought to be more effective in describing what it means to know and to be able to use language knowledge have developed. Hymes's work proved to be of substantial influence among English language educationists, coinciding, as it did, with a growing dissatisfaction with the predominantly structural approaches to English language teaching in the 1960s and early 1970s. Moreover, other influences were at work in the ELT profession.

As the goals for all become more concerned with enabling learners to interact successfully with members of other societies, so the explorations of applied linguists into the components of communicative ability assumed increasing relevance and usefulness to the work of classroom teachers and materials designers. The key components of this communicative ability as identified by researchers such as Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983), and Bachman (1990), can be listed as: linguistic competence, pragmatic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence.

Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983), who have become canonical in applied linguistics, perceive communicative competency as a system of required knowledge and skills for communicating. Knowledge refers to what a person knows. Skills refers to the extent one is capable to implement this knowledge in real communication. These linguists do not suggest that grammar is unimportant; rather they situate grammatical competence within a more broadly defined communicative competence. There are several components of the communicative competence as identified by Canale & Swain (1983) in relation to four different components, or subcategories. The first two subcategories - that include grammatical competence and discourse competence - reflect the use of the linguistic system itself. The last two subcategories - sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence - define the functional aspects of communication. The former subcategories include one's knowledge of lexical items, morphology, syntax, semantics, and phonology in a language. The latter subcategories encompass the knowledge of rules governing the production and interpretation of language in different sociolinguistic contexts and the capability to sustain communication using various verbal or nonverbal strategies when communication breakdown occurs. These linguists argue that the neglect of any of these four main components will inhibit an individual's ability to communicate effectively.

Therefore, basic English ability is one of the steps towards overall communicative competence. The first factor, grammatical competence, addresses this issue. Without any doubt, grammatical understanding is a key element. A foreign-language user must be able to understand what is being said to them and how they should reply. Therefore, as mentioned earlier, English is a foreign language in the Libyan social contexts and, further, it is not used frequently as a language of communication. Libyan students may need to work more in the second subcategories that encompass the knowledge of rules governing the production and interpretation of language in different sociolinguistic contexts and the capability to sustain communication using various verbal or nonverbal strategies. Thus, in order to achieve this goal, it is held to be insufficient to develop learners' linguistic competence in foreign language only, understood as the subset of phonological, morphological, syntactic and lexical rules and elements of foreign

languages. While such competence provides the means necessary to realize verbal acts, it does not include systematic knowledge about which acts and functions can be performed under which contextual conditions by whom and to whom, and what the most appropriate linguistic means are for implementing these acts and functions (Paulston 1974).

Another perspective worth examining is the one by Bachman (1990). Bachman's framework was an extension of earlier models, in that, "it attempts to characterize the processes by which the various components interact with each other and with the context in which language use occurs" (Bachman 1990:81). Bachman's framework included three components: language competence, strategic competence, and psychophysio-logical mechanisms (Bachman 1990:84).

Language competence comprises two further competences, organisational competence and pragmatic competence, each of which is broken down further, with organisational competence covering grammatical and textual competence, and pragmatic competence covering illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence. Bachman (1990:84) defines language competence as "a set of components that are utilized in communication via language". Bachman's grammatical competence is consonant with Canale and Swain's grammatical competence, in that, it comprises abilities to control the formal structure of language. Textual competence pertains to the knowledge of conventions for cohesion and coherence and rhetorical organization. It also includes conventions for language use in conversations, involving starting, maintaining, and closing conversation. Bachman's textual competence can, thus, be said to have both part of Canale and Swain's discourse competence and part of strategic competence.

Bachman's pragmatic competence, the other element in language competence, mainly focuses on the relationship between what one says in the communicative acts and what functions intends to perform through utterances. This concerns the illocutionary force of an utterance, or "the knowledge of pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable language functions" (Bachman 1990:90), which he embodies as illocutionary competence

under the pragmatic competence. Illocutionary competence enables a speaker to use language to serve a variety of functions, and the hearer to interpret the illocutionary force of an utterance or discourse required.

One needs, however, more than illocutionary competence to successfully execute an act to intend a certain communicative function. Bachman calls it ‘sociolinguistic’ competence and this is the other component for his pragmatic competence. Bachman discusses three abilities pertaining to sociolinguistic competence: ability to be sensitive to regional and social language varieties, ability to be sensitive to differences in register, and ability to produce and interpret utterances based on naturalness of language use.

Thus, Bachman (1990), in his schematization of language competence, takes a broader view of the role of strategic competence than Canale and Swain do. While the ability to solve receptive and productive problems due to lack of knowledge or accessibility remains an aspect of strategic competence, it is now more generally thought of as ability to use linguistic knowledge efficiently. Bachman adds that the extension is compatible with the view that language use, a version of goal-oriented behaviour, is always strategic.

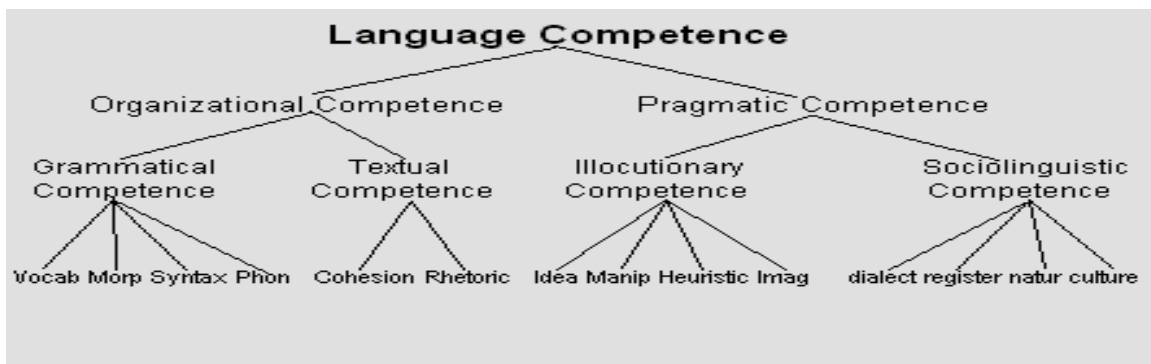


Figure: 2.1 Components of language competence
(Adopted from Bachman 1990:87)

Adoption of communicative-oriented foreign language teaching, popularly known as communicative language teaching (CLT), in English classrooms has been repeatedly

stressed by researchers, and, indeed, there have been many studies attempting to determine its effects on L2 learners (cf. Breen & Candlin 1980; Canale 1983; Canale & Swain 1980; Widdowson 1978). CLT has been seen as a response to the traditional methods such as grammar translation method and audio lingual method, among others. Critics of these old theories assert that this over-emphasis on repetition and accuracy ultimately did not help students achieve communicative competence in the target language (cf. Richards & Rodgers 2001).

In discussing syllabus design, Canale and Swain (1980) justify the application of CLT by defending it against the claim that the communicatively oriented syllabus tends to be disorganized in terms of acquisition of grammar. They believe that there are no empirical data to support it and that the functionally organized communicative approach is more likely than the grammar-based approach “to have positive consequences for learner motivation” (Canale & Swain 1980:32) as it provides a form of in-class training that makes learners feel more comfortable, confident, and encouraged, with a clear, visible purpose for L2 learning, namely, successful communication.



Brown (1994: 245), viewing CLT as an approach (that is, a theoretical position about the nature of language and of language teaching) rather than a specific method of teaching, describes four underlying characteristics in defining CLT in a second language classroom, which are summarized as:

- Focus in classroom should be on all of the components of communicative competence of which grammatical or linguistic competence is just a part.
- Classroom activities should be designed to engage students in the pragmatic, authentic, and functional use of language for meaningful purpose.
- Students have to use their target language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts under proper guidance, but not under the control of a teacher.

This means that successfully learning a foreign language is assessed in terms of how well learners have developed their communicative competence, which can loosely be defined as their ability to apply knowledge of both formal and meaning aspects of a language with adequate proficiency to communicate.

The debate over whether English language classroom should include or exclude students' native language has been a contentious issue for a long time (Brown 1994:195), but as of yet the research findings have not been entirely persuasive either way. Those advocating an English-only policy have tended to base their claims on theoretical arguments such as the idea of learning being heavily determined by the quantity of exposure to the language. Meanwhile opponents of an English-only policy have often focused only on the fact that students usually support the idea of using the first language in the classroom (Mitchell 1988:29).

Thus, the first language (L1) in second language (L2) acquisition has taken different swings depending on which theoretical framework was in vogue at any one particular time. Direct methods in the first half of the twentieth century saw no place whatsoever for the L1 in the classroom, the grammar translation method used the L1 so extensively and at the expense of L2 practice that, even today, translation is in many instances regarded as an illegitimate practice because of its associations with this method (Richards & Rodgers 2001). As mentioned earlier, this study argues that using the mother tongue language (in this case Arabic) in the EFL classrooms alternatively with the target language does not hinder foreign language learning (in this case English), and it could play a facilitating role in the classroom and can actually help English language learning.

2.2 Learning and Teaching English in Libya and other Arab Countries

The problem of communicative competence in English has not been able to excite much research interest in the Libyan social contexts. There are two researchers who have done a commendable research in the Libyan social contexts as a part of their Master Degrees.

Eleshhab (1999) explores how communicative language teaching has become a widely used method in ESL classes in North America and Europe. It seems important that this approach can be introduced to Arabic speaking countries. To that end, this project starts by defining communicative competence and communicative tasks and reviewing the relationship between the two. This research project discusses the importance of preparing EFL learners in Arabic countries to communicate in the target language and the importance of showing EFL teachers how to teach communicatively. It demonstrates EFL classroom oral communicative activity types providing more specific description of oral communicative activities that can be implemented in EFL classes. Finally, this project discusses the purposes and the advantages of oral communicative activities in EFL contexts and the difficulties that might be encountered by EFL teachers in Arabic countries.

The second research has been carried out by Gende (1999) as a part of his Master's Degree under the title "Students' Perceptions of Communicative Language Teaching Practice: A Libyan Example". This research explores and examines second and foreign language students' perceptions of communicative language teaching practices in both ESL and EFL programs. These perceptions include: students' thoughts, beliefs, and insights into the language learning process; their expectations, and reactions to certain classroom practices; their perspectives; and their knowledge and experiences from which they perceive these programs. The research concentrates on Libyan students in Canada and investigates how students' perceptions may affect their participation in the classroom. This research "project" attempts to address some pedagogical concerns and offers some suggestion for improvements. Both studies did not look deeply into the problems of Libyan students in English communication. Furthermore, they did not link language learning to the social contexts where this language can be used.

More research has been done in this field in other Arab speaking countries such as in Jordan, Sudan, and Egypt. The situation in these countries is different from the Libyan situation because in the former, students are exposed to English very early and widely,

while in the latter this is not the case. However, researchers such as Kambal (1980) in Sudan, Abdulhag (1982) in Jordan, and Wahba (1998) in Egypt, found that EFL learners encounter problems in both spoken and written English in these countries. The researchers concluded that the sociolinguistic environment of these countries is not conducive for English language learning, as Arabic is used for communication in all domains of social life. Students' performance problems in EFL as identified by these researchers relate to all the four language skills and covering higher discourse organisation to clause structure level. Below, we present few examples of such problems as identified by the researchers in the social contexts of Arab countries.

In Sudan, Kambal (1980) analysed errors in three types of free composition written by first-year Sudanese university students. The study gives an account of the major syntactic errors in the verb phrase and the noun phrase in an attempt to improve the quality of the remedial English programme in the contexts of Arabisation in the Sudan.

Kambal (1980) reported on three main types of errors in the verb phrase: verb formation, tense, and subject-verb agreement. He discussed errors in tense under five categories: tense sequence, tense substitution, tense marker, deletion, and confusion of perfect tenses. With regard to subject-verb agreement, three types of errors were identified. These involved the third-person singular marker used redundantly, and the incorrect form of the verb "to be."

Abdulhag (1982:1) states that, "one of the linguistic areas in which students in the secondary cycle commit errors is in the writing skill." He adds "There are general outcries about the continuous deterioration of the standards of English proficiency of students among school teachers, university instructors and all who are concerned with English language teaching." In support of Abdulhag's view, Zughoul and Tamini (1984:4) found that "Jordanian EFL students commit serious lexical errors while communicating in English."

Wahba's (1998) study in Egypt focused on spoken English. His study shows that Egyptian students face problems related to stress and intonation. Most of these problems are attributed to the differences in pronunciation between English and Arabic.

In conclusion, students' inability to communicate in the target language has been widely acknowledged by researchers in the Arabic countries. However, these studies mostly performed error analysis in their investigation. Furthermore, they focused on discreet linguistic items, without linking them to the social-cultural contexts of the countries in which English was taught and learned as a foreign language. This study looks at students' communication problems within the contexts of social practices of Libyan society. It is for this reason that this study used SFL and Classroom Discourse Analysis, supplemented by Critical Discourse Analysis as the analytical framework (see 2.4 below for details).

2.3 Interdisciplinary Conceptual Framework

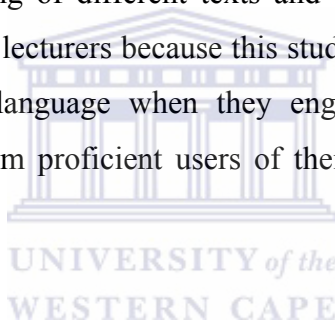
It has been noted earlier that this study followed a conceptual framework formed from two critical linguistic theories namely: Systemic Functional Linguistic and Critical Discourse Analysis. Further, this study used some aspects of Christie's Classroom Discourse Analysis based on the two critical linguistic theories mentioned above. Following this approach, classroom discourse is viewed as an aspect of social practice, whereby language forms an integral part of the material social process. A focus on social practice enables this study to analyse EFL lecturer students' discursive practices in the Libyan social contexts, that is, "within a structured network of practices, and a domain of social action and interaction ..." (Fairclough 2001:122). The main notions for each theory are presented below.

2.3.1 Critical Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis (henceforth DA) is a term that encompasses scholarship from different disciplines, such as sociolinguistics, linguistics, anthropology, and pragmatics, with each

discipline having its own take on the subject. Furthermore, DA emerged as a field of study in reaction to structural and formal approaches to language, which considered the sentence as the ultimate unit of analysis. DA, on the other hand, is concerned with stretches of language consisting of more than one sentence and has led to the realization that language cannot be studied in isolation from the communicative intentions of language users and the contexts within which they use language (Stern 1983).

Thus, DA is the examination of language use by members of a speech community. It involves looking at both language form and language-function and includes the study of both spoken interaction and written texts. DA identifies linguistic features that characterize different genres as well as social and cultural factors that aid in the interpretation and understanding of different texts and types of talk. It is therefore of immediate interest to language lecturers because this study needs to consider how people (lecturers and students) use language when they engage in learning exercises and activities aimed at making them proficient users of their target language, in this case, English.



Critical Discourse Analysis (henceforth CDA) is a practically oriented form of DA aimed at addressing social problems. The theory of CDA owes much to the contribution from a number of scholars such as Van Dijk (1977), Fairclough (1995, 2001) and Wodak & Meyer (2001) who have a shared understanding in what critical linguistics espouses, and especially their emphasis on the social aspect of discourse. CDA as a critical linguistics approach emerged as a reaction against such programmes as Chomskyan (structural) linguistics, which itself came as part of a revolutionary development at the onset of the post-Second World War.

As mentioned earlier, Chomskyan linguistics programme focuses on the structure of language with the exclusion of social and cultural dimension. It was against this backdrop that CDA emerged as a ‘movement of resistance’ focusing attention, instead, on the social aspect of language and its associated semiotic aspects. Thus, CDA seeks not

merely to describe language but also to offer critical linguistic resources to those wishing to resist various forms of power (Fairclough 1995, 2001, Van Dijk 1977, 1993, 2001). It has developed out of the contemporary 'linguistic turn' in social theory, which has resulted in language being assigned a more central role within social phenomena. It is a highly integrated form of discourse analysis in that it tries to unite at least three different levels of analysis: the text which looks at phonology, grammar, vocabulary, and semantics, in addition to supra sentential aspects of text organisation, cohesion and turn taking; the discursive practices (that is, the processes of writing/speaking and reading/hearing) that create and interpret the links between text and social practice; and social practice, which centres on power and ideologies at different levels of social organisation, and the institutional context or social contexts. In so doing, CDA aims to show how these levels are all interrelated (cf. Fairclough 1995, 2001).

In CDA (Fairclough 1995, 2001; Wodak & Meyer 2001), language is considered as an integral part of material social process and semiosis, which "includes all forms of meaning - visual images, body language, as well as language" (Fairclough 2001:122). In this idiom, social life is perceived as an interconnected network of social practices of discourse sorts (i.e. economic, political, cultural and so on) (Fairclough 2001:122).

According to Van Dijk, (1993) CDA is a field that is concerned with studying and analyzing written and spoken texts to reveal the discursive sources of power, dominance, inequality, and bias. It examines how these discursive sources are maintained and reproduced within specific social, political, and historical contexts. In a similar vein, Fairclough (1993:135) defines CDA as:

[...] analysis which aims to systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events and texts, and (b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power; and to explore how the opacity of these relationships between discourse and society is itself a factor securing power and hegemony.

In the preface to Fairclough (1995), Candlin describes the strengths and nature CDA thus:

Its innovations for students of linguistics in particular, was to critique some of the premises and the constructs underlying mainstream studies in sociolinguistics, conversational analysis and pragmatics, to demonstrate the need of these sub-disciplines to engage with social and political issues of power and hegemony in a dynamic and historically informed manner...(cited in Fairclough, 1995:vii).

According to Wodak (1996), CDA investigates discourse particularly in terms of its relationship to power, ideology, and hierarchy as he explains:

CDA may be defined as fundamentally interested in analyzing opaque as well as transparent structural relationships of dominance, discrimination, power and control as manifested in language.

Hence, research in CDA to date has examined and analyzed a wide range of corpora including media articles, doctor-patient exchange, teacher-student talk, political speeches, advertising, and leadership discourse. Of particular interest to us, as CDA researchers, is the ability of organization to discursively establish hierarchies through hegemonic means (i.e., how those in power use discourse to set the organization's ideological agenda with or without the consent of those not in power). Fairclough (1995:94) notes the strong relationship between discourse and hegemony:

The concept of hegemony implies the development of various domains of civil society (e.g., work, education, leisure activities) of practices, which naturalize particular relations and ideologies, practices which are largely discursive. A particular set of discourse conventions...implicitly embodies certain ideologies-particular knowledge and beliefs, particular 'positions' for the types of social subject that participate in that practice...and particular relationships between categories of participants...In so far as conventions become naturalized and commonsensical, so too do these ideological presuppositions. Naturalized discourse conventions are a

most effective mechanism for sustaining and reproducing cultural and ideological dimensions of hegemony.

Thus, CDA adopts a social definition of discourse and also uses discourse as a countable noun, so that the competing discursive practices of a society can be spoken of as different discourses. Discourse is both constitutive and creative with regard to social conversations and hierarchies, and much of the creativity arises from the competition between discourses in various social fields and their novel re-combinations (Fairclough 1995).

However, the CDA model followed in this study owes much to Fairclough's (1995, 2001) framework. Fairclough offers a framework of analysis whose model focuses on the multifunctional linguistics theory embodied in Halliday's (1978, 1985, 1994) Systemic Functional Linguistics (henceforth SFL). Halliday's approach of linguistic analysis is constructed from three basic claims as regards to the metafunctional organisation of language, the notion of language as a system, and the relationship of language or "text" and 'context' (see Christie 2005 and section 2.3.2 under SFL for details).

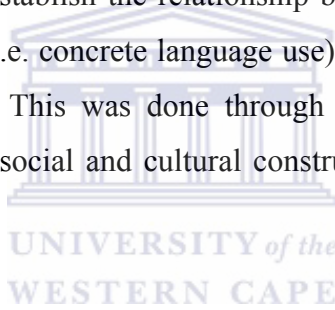
The CDA theory is an interdisciplinary approach to the study of text, which views "language as a form of social practice" (Fairclough 1989:20). Fairclough (1995:2) articulates a three-dimensional framework for studying discourse "where the aim is to map three separate forms of analysis into one another: analysis of (spoken or written) language texts, analysis of discourse practice (processes of text production, distribution and consumption) and analysis of discursive events as instances of sociocultural practice" (see also Fairclough 1989). One of the CDA's concerns is the unequal access to linguistic and social resources that are institutionally controlled. Specifically, CDA looks at the pattern of access to discourse and communicative events.

In terms of method, CDA can generally be described as hyper-linguistic or supra linguistic, in that, practitioners who use CDA consider the larger discourse context or the meaning that lies beyond the grammatical structure. These include the consideration of

the political, and even the economic, contexts of language usage and production in order to examine ideologies and power relations involved in discourse. Fairclough (1989:15) notes "that language connects with the social through being the primary domain of ideology, and through being both a site of, and a stake in, struggles for power".

In this respect, using CDA, the language performance of Libyan students in English was analyzed linguistically and textually (cf. Fairclough 1995, 2001; Wodak & Meyer 2001). Issues of interest in the former are on how students handle the choice of words to express specific significations, and their arrangement in utterances to express propositions, and their physical relations, either as sounds or as written symbols.

Textual analysis was used to establish the relationship between the data obtained in the linguistic analysis of the text (i.e. concrete language use) described above, and the wider social and cultural structures. This was done through identifying dominant language features that give evidence of social and cultural constructs, which determine students' use of language.



Accordingly, CDA enables this study to analyze students' classroom interaction (text and context) in terms of textual and interdiscursive relationships between texts, genres, and discourse in the Libyan social contexts.

By focusing on networks of practices, the study was able to problematize the dialectal relationships between semiosis (including language) and other elements of social practices. Thus, semiosis, as social practice, entails using language in a particular way and being a student, for example, means writing an essay using certain conventions. Therefore, the analytical framework for this study, which is modelled upon the critical theorist Roy Bhaskar's concept of explanatory critique (Fairclough 2001:125), is schematically represented as follows:

1. Focus upon a social problem, which has a semiotic aspect - to do *English classroom interaction at AL-Thadi University in Libya*.
2. Identify obstacles to it being tackled, through analysis of:
 - (a) The network of practices it is located within -I *describing the English Language learning environment in the Libyan social contexts*.
 - (b) The relationship of semiosis to other elements within the particular practice(s) concerned - *to critically examine English language syllabus and the course materials, approaches and methods to see how useful they are in supporting English language learning*.
 - (c) The discourse (the semiosis itself).
3. Interactional analysis- i.e. *observing classroom interaction (see methodology)*
4. Interdiscursive analysis - *to identify from students spoken and written text the dominant styles, genres, and discourse and establish textual and interdiscursive relationships between them in an Arabic social contexts*.
5. Linguistic and semiotic analysis - *to identify and describe the linguistic that characterise students' language use in written and spoken communication with regard to cohesion and thematic structure*.
6. Identify possible ways past the obstacles - *basing on the findings, to give suggestions on how the teaching and learning of English can be improved in Libya*.
7. Reflect critically on the analysis (1-6), (Fairclough 1995, 2001; Wodak & Mayer 2001) - *to critically analyse (1-6) in Libyan social contexts*.

2.3.2 Systemic Functional Linguistics

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) is a framework for describing and modelling language in functional rather than formal terms. The theory is functional in that language is interpreted as a resource for meaning making, and descriptions are based on extensive

analyses of written and spoken text (Halliday 1994). According to Halliday, the value of a theory lies in the use in which that theory can be made of. Halliday (1985:7) considers a theory of language to be “essentially consumer oriented.” Language cannot be studied without reference to meaning. Any use of language is motivated by a purpose.

The SFL theory views language in its social contexts, as an instrument of social interaction, rather than as a formal, cognitive system, which can be studied in isolation from social contexts (cf. Christie 1997, 2002, 2005). Just as Chomsky approaches grammar from a mentalist perspective, Halliday (1994) approaches it from a social perspective. Chomsky is interested mainly in linguistic competence whereas Halliday is mainly interested in pragmatic competence, that is, knowing how to use language appropriately in order to achieve certain communicative goals or intentions.

Thus, language in the SFL theory is not seen as a collection of discrete phrase production rules working upon a deeper syntactic structure, but as an interwoven collection of systems realizing a deeper semantic structure and functional intention. SFL is based on a descriptive, not a prescriptive approach to language. In the words of Christie (2002:2):

Systemic functional descriptions of language are not lists of rules based on what powerful social groups prescribe as ‘correct’ usage or on what language structures it is neurologically possible to produce...is concerned to describe ‘meaning potential’- the linguistic options or choices that are available to construct meanings in particular contexts.

According to Christie (2002), since the meaning-making systems of language that SFL describes are based on how people actually use language in different social contexts, the descriptions of the systems of language must necessarily be related to the descriptions of social contexts. An essential concept of the theory is that each time language is used in whatever situation, the user is making choices. These choices are essentially choices about meaning, but they are expressed through choices from within the systems of formal

linguistic features made available by the language. The choices individuals can actually make from these systems are, however, constrained by two factors. The first one is that meaning is always constructed within a context, and context limits the range of meanings that can be selected. The second factor that constrains individuals' linguistic choices is that not everyone within a culture or community has access to all of the possible contexts and therefore all the possible ways of speaking or writing (Christie 2002). The functional model of language used in SFL states that text and context are intimately related, so that a context is known because of the text and gives it life. Conversely, a text is known only because of the context that makes it relevant (Christie 2005).

Thus, SFL is considered to be a distinctive linguistic theory that approaches language as a social resource for making meaning. Any language use serves to construct some aspects of experience, to negotiate relationship and to organize the language successfully, so that it realizes a satisfactory message (Halliday 1994, Martin 1992, Christie 2005).

It has been pointed out earlier that the SFL framework has three paradigms, namely, metafunctional organisation of language, language as a system, and the relationship of language as text and context. In the SFL theory, any language will serve these broad functions, but “so pervasive are the functions in any natural language” (Christie 2005:11) that Halliday and his associates termed them ‘metafunctions’. Under metafunctions are three other constructs, ideational, interpersonal, and textual.

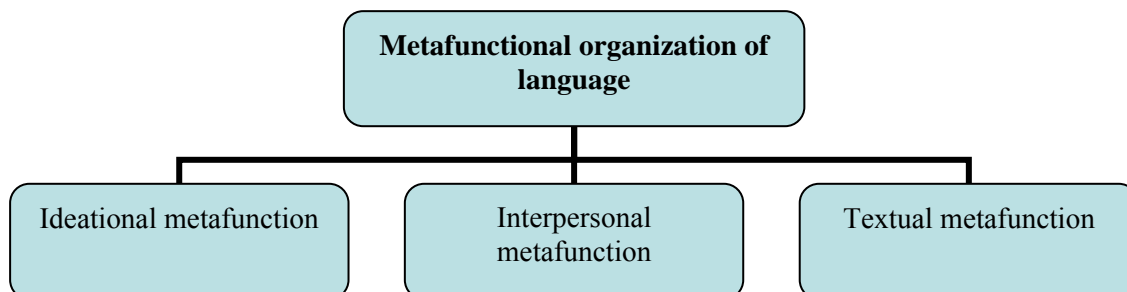


Figure 2.2: The instruction of the metafunctions in Halliday's study

Halliday (1994) develops SFL theory of the fundamental functions of language in which he analyses lexicogrammar into three broad metafunctions: ideational, interpersonal, and textual. Each of these metafunctions is about a different aspect of the world, and is concerned with a different mode of meaning of clauses. The function and relationship between these three metafunctions should be understood as follows: Ideational metafunction deals with the representation of the world, so the relationship between *participants, processes and circumstances* are major features in this metafunctional. The interpersonal metafunction concerns the relationship established by the speaker, both with his audience and with his message, and *mood, modality and person* are major features in this metafunction. The textual metafunction deals with the structuring of the message and hence *thematic structure, information structure, and cohesion* fall within the terms of this metafunction (cf. Halliday 1994; Christie 2001, 2002, 2005). Thus, Halliday's (1994) major contribution to linguistic analysis is the development of functional grammar by showing how meaning - ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions - is expressed in English clauses structures and also how language is used in social interactions, that is, in texts.

The 'ideational metafunction', as Halliday discusses it, refers to "those aspects of the grammar" directly involved in "representation of the world and its experiences". To be specific, the ideational metafunction, which is concerned with mapping the reality of the world around us (i.e. who is doing, what to whom, when, where, why, how), reflects differences in field, which are realized through both transitivity selection and lexical choices. The ideational metafunction has two types: the experiential and the logical. The resources of transitivity and of lexis are involved in representing experience, and these are indeed the resources most directly involved in realizing the experiential metafunction (Christie 2005).

Turning to Halliday's description of transitivity, Christie (2002), in classroom discourse analysis, notes that Halliday identifies some broad types of transitivity processes. Some processes have to do with material event or action, some have to do with behaviour,

while some have to do with mental activity. A significant proportion of the process types have to do with realizing aspects of students' behaviour.

The logical metafunction is of a rather different order, for it is involved not directly in the building of the meanings within the clause, but rather in the matter of building connectedness between the meanings of clauses. Such a logical connectedness is realized in those resources in the grammar which are involved in two different sets of relationships: those to do with the interdependency or 'taxis' between clauses; and those to do with the logico-semantic relations between clauses brought about by either projection or expansion (Christie 2002:12).

In relation to the ideational metafunction (process, participants, circumstances), this study argues that EFL lecturers in English teaching cycle emphasize and privilege grammar as form rather than meaning, which, itself, as mentioned earlier, is educationally insufficient and has to be foregrounded appropriately over a full teaching program (Christie 2005). Furthermore, lecturers in the EFL classes prioritize the process of demanding information but not in creating interaction between the students themselves by using the target language. Privileging form upon meaning has a negative impact on the EFL students' English language competence in that they can recite the rules specific English construction-types (grammar), but fail to use them in communicative interactions with others. Thus, and as will be shown later, Libyan students have a problem in representing their experiential and logical metafunction in the analysis of their English written texts (see Chapter Four).

The interpersonal metafunction, as mentioned earlier, refers to those grammatical resources in which the relationship of interlocutors is realized, including those of mood, modality, and person. Christie (2002) states that the important point to note here is that people do not simply use language to tell other people things. Language is used as part of a two-way process of exchanging meaning. We may use language to change the way

people feel, to give them information they may not have, to express our own attitudes and feeling, to get them to provide us with something or some information and so on.

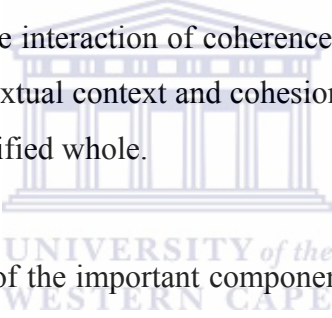
In relation to classroom discourse, Christie (2002) notes that teachers in the ESL classes often use high modality to indicate the importance of a course of action to be pursued. However, sometimes they (teachers) use low or median modality to make the directions to behaviour more oblique while, elsewhere, they use the first person singular as part of indicating their expectations of students. Finally, they may use the second person when overtly directing students' behaviour. Furthermore, the person system has significance in classroom. Teachers classically use the first person plural when building solidarity with their students in some enterprise to be undertaken.

From this point of view, mood, modality, and person would help this study to look at the clauses as exchanged in the EFL classroom and the focus is on what aspects of the grammar of the clauses realize such interpersonal relationship between the lecturer and the students in classroom interaction. This was also reflected in the CDA notion of socio-discursive relationship between the instructor and the student. Within the CDA framework, such a relationship is structured around power and dominance.

Thus, in relation to the interpersonal metafunction, the lecturers' position of power results from their access to institutional power resources (cf. Van Dijk 1993) which involves their position as lecturers, their knowledge of the discourse genres - because of their membership of the academic community, and, in the case of English and Libyan social contexts, their knowledge of English including familiarity of the formal academic conventions. The argument is that since the lecturer-student relationship in the Libyan social contexts seems to be asymmetric, it is the lecturer who exercises particular power in offering information, in eliciting information, and in directing the nature of activity. This is marked in the operation of the pedagogic discourse (regulative and instructional) registers. Moreover, since the concentration of the lecturers in EFL classes seems to be on 'content', it is argued that EFL lecturers in the Libyan social contexts rarely use any

high modality to indicate the importance of a course of action to be pursued and to build any solidarity with the students as Christie (2002) suggested. Additionally, they never use L1 (in this case Arabic) as a resource in order to help EFL students getting access to the English knowledge.

The textual metafunction is that which enables expression of how parts of text are related to other parts of the text or to the greater context. Resources in the textual metafunction enable a clause to be assessed as a 'message' related to other clauses and the context of discourse. Halliday & Hasan (1985) define text as any passage spoken or written that forms a unified whole. They say that text refers to any passage of coherent language. It is also a meaningful passage of language that hangs together. Text can be distinguished from non-text by 'texture'. Texture is what holds the clauses of a text together to give them unity. Texture involves the interaction of coherence and cohesion. Coherence is the text's relationship to its extra-textual context and cohesion is the way the elements within that text bind it together as a unified whole.



Cohesion is considered as one of the important components in English written discourse. It is the formal link between sentences and clauses. Halliday & Hasan (1976) believe that most texts display some links between sentences in terms of grammatical features. These features include base forms of conjunction (which connect the parts of sentences, phrases and clauses together, pronominalization (which refer to words in their pronoun-form) and finally, ellipsis (which is the omission of clauses, phrases and words that can be recovered from context or elsewhere in the discourse. Without it, the reader may be left with an incoherent piece of non-sequential discourse to decipher. Therefore, they describe cohesion like "glue", since it sticks the elements and meaning together. It also expresses the continuity that exists between one part of the text and another. Martin and Rose (2003: 120) classify conjunctions further into two types: internal conjunctions - those "items used to link logical steps internal to the text itself" and external conjunctions - those items "linking events in the world beyond the text itself." This means that the role of conjunctions is not just to connect activities i.e. organizing experience as sequence of

events, but also to organize discourse whose units are referred to as arguments by Martin and Rose (2003).

Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman (1999:461) define conjunction, or coordination as “the process of combining two constituents of the same type to produce another, larger constituent of the same type.” There are three major ways of using conjunctions in English. The first is to combine like constituents with a coordinating conjunction, such as *and*, *but*, and *or etc...*, which is considered as a simple coordination. The second is called ellipsis, in which redundancies in the clauses are eliminated. The third option includes use of a pro-form such as the third person’s pronoun such as *he*, *she*, and *it*.

In the light of the information presented above, it is clear that cohesion is a very important aspect in establishing the flow of the information as it goes forward in the written English text. With regard to the linguistic analysis in this study, the focus is on identifying and describing the dominant linguistic features in EFL students’ English written texts with regard to cohesion (referencing, conjunctions, verb forms and spelling) and thematic structure. As Winter (1977) and other linguists point out, these conjunctions can be clue items to understand the lexical relationships in discourse.

In relation to the thematic structure, there are different kinds of themes. These include topical theme, hypertheme, hypernew, macrotheme, marked themes, and multiple themes (Martin & Rose 2003). In this study, the focus is on three kinds of themes which are: topical theme, hypertheme, and hypernew.

Topical theme functions as the subject of the clause. In the topical theme, we can attach transitivity role such as actor, behaviour, sensor, or circumstances. Hypertheme functions as the topic sentence. Hypertheme gives us orientation to what is to come, that is, the frame of reference, and predicts how the text will unfold. After the hypertheme any new information accumulated from the hypertheme is referred to as a hypernew. Hypertheme tells us where we are going and hypernew tells us where we have been (Martin & Rose

2003). It takes the text to a new point. As has been demonstrated later in the written text analysis, the EFL Libyan students have difficulties to contextualize the topic in their written texts, thus making it difficult for any reader to distinguish where the argument is going. Further, they have difficulties in the construction of the clauses with relation to the topical themes, hyperthemes, and hypernew.

Textual structure of the English clause, as the Systemic Functional Linguists described (see Halliday 1985; Halliday & Matthiessen 2004; Eggins 1994), combines two parts: theme and rheme. The definition of theme, as given by Halliday (1985:39), is that it is the element which serves as the “starting- point for the message: it is what the clause is going to be about”. It contains well-known information which has already been mentioned before in the text. Theme is the starting point of the clause, realized by whatever elements comes first, and Rheme is the rest of the message, which provides the additional information added to the starting point and which is available for subsequent development in the text (cf. Halliday 1985; Christie 2002; Martin & Rose 2003; Eggins 1994, 2004). As writers typically depart from the familiar to head towards the unfamiliar, the rheme typically contains unfamiliar or “new” information (Eggins 1994). In a sentence, once the theme is identified, it becomes easy to identify the rheme since it is everything else in a sentence which does not form part of the theme (Martin & Rose 2003). Christie (2002:17) describes the position of the two terms, given and new information, in the English clause and found that:

what is expressed as given information falls towards the start of a clause, while what is termed new information comes towards the end...what is new information falling in the Rheme in one clause will often then be picked up and reinstated as given information in the topical theme position in a new clause.

Thus, readers and listeners usually need to be reassured that they are following the development of the text, and many texts are signposted by placing elements from the theme of one clause into the theme of the next, by repeating meanings from the theme of one clause in the theme of subsequent clauses. There are thematic progressions patterns

and the basic principles' underlying these patterns is that thematic choices should not be unexpected; they should be connected with ideas presented in a previous theme or rheme (cf. Halliday 1994; Eggins 1994).

Eggins (1994:303) describes how the thematic shifting can be achieved, either “accidentally” with the new theme coming from outside the text, or cohesively, in which the thematic progression is described. Eggins mentions two main kinds of thematic progression patterns: the zig-zag and the multiple themes. In the zig-zag theme, an element which is introduced in the theme in clause one gets promoted in clause two to become a theme. Zig-zag pattern achieves cohesion in the text by building on newly introduced information. This gives the text a sense of cumulative development. On the other hand, in multiple themes, the theme of one clause introduces different pieces of information. Each piece is picked up and made a theme in the subsequent clauses.

Thus, the theoretical framework of SFL presented above, shows that theme has three components: the textual theme, which consists the lexical elements that enable the connection between clauses, and these elements are used to orientate or to structure the text; the interpersonal theme which includes elements that reflect the kind of interaction taking place among speakers; and the topical theme which contains a realization of the experiential representation of participants, a processes, or a circumstances (cf. Halliday 1994; Christie 2002).

In relation to the textual metafunction, this study looks at how EFL students construct their English written texts in order to make English meaning. Through the focus on language as resource, not just as set of rules, this study argues that it would be educationally insufficient and inadequate to become preoccupied either with structure or with meaning, for understanding of both is essential to effective learning (cf. Christie 2005).

The second paradigm in SFL theory is that which considers language as a meaning system, where, according to Halliday (cited in Christie 2005:13), a system is “a set of options with an entry conditions”. Further, Christie adds that language is “polysystemic, in that it operates through the exercises of clusters of choices or options.” In order to construct an English clause, one makes simultaneous choices from the grammar with respect to theme (the point of departure for the message of the clause), mood (and hence the speech function taken up), and transitivity (the type of process, associated participants and any circumstances) (Christie 2005). The available sets of choices with respect to each of the systems of theme, mood, and transitivity are various and often quite complex, and for the most part they are not conscious. The interest for the SFL theorist is in looking at how language users exploit and deploy the language choices to make meaning (Christie 2005).

Transitivity choices involve selections from the various process types, which are realized in verbal group, while the associated participant roles are realized in nominal groups and any circumstances are realized in either prepositional phrases or adverbial groups. Christie (2002:19) argues:

To represent experience is to create clauses that use the verb to realize some process of participating in the world, to use associated nominal groups to realize participants involved in the process, to use adverbial groups and/or prepositional phrases to represent some associated circumstance(s) and to use conjunctions to build logical relationships between the messages of the clauses.

The third paradigm of the SFL theory is what is said of the relationship of text and context. The functional grammar proposes the relationship of text and context arguing that when language is used in any context, there are always three variables - field, tenor and mode - that apply in shaping the organization of the language used, and hence the meanings that are made. Field refers to the ‘text-generating activity’ and activates the ideational. Tenor’ refers to the ‘role relationships of the participants’ and activates the interpersonal. ‘Mode’ refers to ‘the rhetorical modes’ being adopted by the participants

and activates the textual (cf. Halliday 1985). Thus, when one moves into any context of situation, these are some features of the language that are primarily to do with the meanings, ideas, and values expressed.

There is a consistent relationship, then, between particular aspects of the context of situation and the metafunctions of language. The relationship is “bi-directional” because one can infer the values of the contextual (register) variables from the language of the text and one can also predict the meanings likely to be constructed in language from the values of the register variables. The relationship between these notions is represented diagrammatically below:


Situation: features of the context	Realized by	Text: components of meaning
Field of discourse (what is going on or ‘context’)		Experiential meanings
Tenor of discourse (the relations of people taking part)		Interpersonal meanings
Mode of discourse (the role of language in organizing meanings)		Textual meanings

Table 2, 1: Relationship of elements of register in a situation of use and the meanings realized in a text

(Adapted from Halliday & Hasan 1985: 26)

The concern of this study is with the EFL social contexts and, hence, SFL was used as an important social theory of language that seeks to explain the nature of language and its role in human behaviour, as well as its significance in the shaping of social processes, including processes in school learning. SFL theory provides a useful tool for this study to analyse spoken and written English texts in the Libya’s social contexts. It is

predominantly a socially oriented theory of language whose task is to explain how meanings are made and exchanged through the resource of grammar and lexis.

2.3.3 Systemic Functional Linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis

As mentioned earlier, much work from the CDA perspective relies on SFL for its analytic framework. Both share key ideas on the relation between choices made at the linguistic level and the social and cultural contexts associated with them. SFL provides a way of describing and analyzing the links between the linguistic choices and the sociocultural contexts.

According to Halliday's SFL, any examination of the lexicogrammatical choices within spoken or written discourse reveals aspects of the immediate social contexts and the wider cultural setting in which these choices operate. Under the SFL approach, discourse is seen as a social construct that incorporates and promulgates a multilayer of meaning.

The experiential meaning relates to the processes, participants and circumstances associated with the social action in which the discourse operates. The experiential meaning relates to the field of the discourse. The interpersonal meaning relates to the roles and relationships of those involved in the discourse. The interpersonal meaning relates to the tenor of the discourse. The textual meaning relates to the communicative form the text takes. Textual meaning relates to the mode or channel of the discourse. Therefore, SFL focuses on lexicogrammatical modes of meaning in relation to specific aspects of the immediate social setting. Crucial to SFL is the way in which the analysis of meanings created or reflected in discourse can offer insights into how different texts provide different ways of viewing and understanding the world.

Following this approach, discourse, whether spoken or written is viewed as an aspect of social practice, whereby language forms an integral part of the material social process. A focus on social practice enables the researcher to do linguistic and textual analyses of

lecturers' students' discursive practices within the contexts of social practices of Libyan society and also to determine how these practices impact on the Libyan students' English language competence.

2.3.4 Classroom Discourse Analysis

Christie (2005) offers a model of classroom discourse analysis that is based on SFL theory and associated genre theory (Bernstein 1990, 1996) to develop a view of classroom episodes as 'curriculum genres', some of which operate in turn as part of larger units of work called curriculum macrogenres.

Language is said to be a social semiotic system. The study of semiotics is the study of meaning making (Christie 2005). Christie notes that when people engage in meaningful behaviours of various kinds, they are said to engage in acts of semiosis. Christie observes that language is primary in enabling humans to construct order and negotiate their world. Christie (2005: 8) argues that language is significant and useful as a social semiotics for at least three reasons:

In negotiation of relationship and meanings; in the nature of the language structures in which meanings are expressed; and that learning language is not primarily a matter of learning rules but learning how to employ a resource or tool to construct meanings of many kinds.

While learning happens in different semiotic systems such as schools, Christie (2002:184) observes that,

The principal resource available to teachers and students with which to achieve educational goals is language. It is in the language of the classroom that a great deal of work will go on towards negotiating understandings, clarifying tasks, exploring sources of difficulty and assessing students' progress.

This does not mean that other semiosis should be neglected but “language is often drawn upon to interpret and explain the other forms of semiosis that students are learning to use” (Christie 2002:184). Christie further argues that the uses of language need to be understood along with uses of the other semiotic systems.

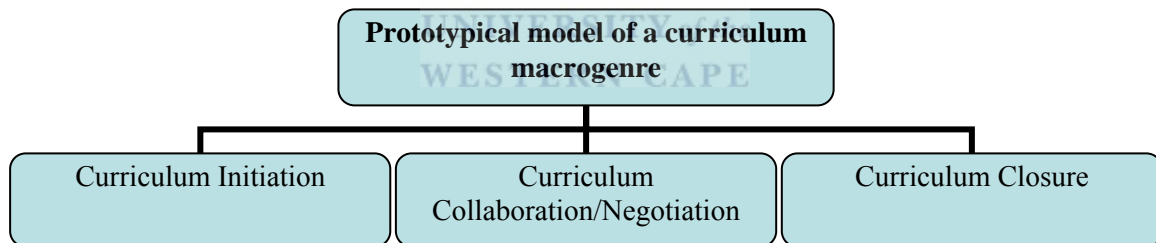
On the language of classroom interaction and learning, Christie (2002) shows that there are two important responsibilities for any conscientious teacher: first to clarify goals for teaching, and second to ensure the goals are met. A good deal of careful thought must go into establishing what the actual purposes are for teaching the content, what kinds of knowledge and skills the students are ideally to develop, how best to teach for understanding of these, and finally how to ensure that the students have learned what they were supposed to learn. Christie (2005) argues further that teachers generally are responsible for the directions taken in teaching-learning activity. They are responsible for the pedagogical goals, and they largely shape the pacing of the activity as well as the assessment of students’ performance.

According to Christie (2002), pedagogic discourse could be thought of as creating curriculum genres and sometimes-larger units referred to as curriculum macrogenres. Curriculum macrogenres have certain features in common with curriculum genres. Most notably, they have a ‘beginning, middle, end’ pattern, which unfolds through various shifts in the language. Some options in language use are opened up, while others are often abandoned, making changes in the nature of the pedagogic subject position in construction and in the forms of cognition associated with this position.

According to Christie (2002), curriculum macrogenres will typically have an initiating genre (which may last for one or more lessons) whose function is to establish overall goals for the teaching and learning, predisposing the students to address certain issues, defining possible strategies for work, and generally charting the course programme of work to be pursued. An ultimate task to be completed is very often established in the prospect of this initiating genre, as a necessary aspect of establishing the evaluation

principles that will apply. It is the middle genres that show the greatest variation from one macrogenre to another, depending upon the overall goals of the programme of work, the nature of the instructional field and the age of the students. The final genre will provide some clear sense of a closure, normally requiring students to complete some task(s).

Thus, in using the term curriculum macrogenre to refer to classroom discourse, Christie is referring to extended discourse, which consists of a number of ‘elemental genres’. Christie (2002:100) identifies an “overall patterns of prototypical model of a curriculum macrogenre” as being “Curriculum Initiation^ Curriculum Collaboration^ Curriculum Closer. In this overall pattern “Curriculum Initiation” represents the opening genre, which establishes goals, crucially predisposes the students to work and think in particular ways. The middle genre involves pursuing the work necessary towards achievement of the tasks. The Curriculum Closer represents the final genre, in which the task is completed. This relationship is presented in the following diagram:



Teacher direction → Teacher/students sharing of direction → Students independent activity

Figure 2.3: Prototypical model of a curriculum macrogenre adopted from Christie (2002)

Thus, Christie (2002) proposes that the Curriculum Initiation is revealed to consist of one genre only, having within it three elements of schematic structure. The first of these is a task orientation, in which the teacher points directions and sets purposes for the whole macrogenre. The second element of the schematic structure is the task specification, in which the nature of the tasks the students are to undertake is established. The third element of structure is the task conference, in which the students and teacher confer over

the distribution of the tasks to different working groups within the class. This schematic structure is presented diagrammatically below:

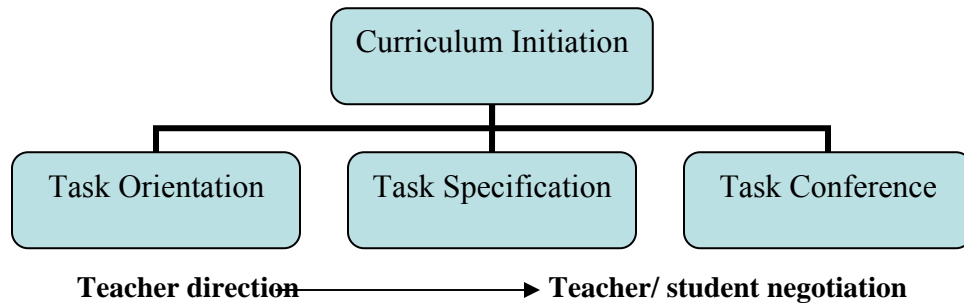


Figure 2.4: Simplified model of the Curriculum Initiation adopted from Christie (2002)

Following Christie (1997, 2001, 2002, 2005), another useful tool in studying classroom practice relates to what is called ‘pedagogic discourse’, a concept, as has been mentioned earlier, borrowed from Bernstein’s (1990, 1996, 2000) theoretical work and genre theory in the SFL tradition (Halliday 1994, Martin 1992, Christie & Martin 1997). The tool is useful in studying the patterns of language use in schools as a form of ‘pedagogic discourse’.

Operating within instances of curriculum macrogenres, Christie argues that classroom discourse ought to be analyzed and understood in terms of the operation of two registers: a first order or regulative register refers to sets of language choices which are principally involved in establishing goals for teaching–learning activities, and with fostering and maintaining the direction of the activities until the achievement; while the second order or instructional register refers to language choices in which the knowledge and associated skills being taught are realized (Christie 1997). Accordingly, the function of the regulative register is to guide and direct the behaviour of the pedagogic subjects: Its functions will have been achieved, when at the end of a curriculum macrogenre, the subjects are enabled to do certain new things, where these are realized in instructional register choices (Christie 1997:136). Besides, Christie suggests that where the language of the regulative register is focused, the directions towards the tasks the students are to

achieve will be correspondingly clear. The very clarity of the directions at those critical points in lessons where pedagogic goals are being established will ensure that students receive unambiguous information about the steps to take to achieve those goals (Christie: 2001). Therefore, this study argues that in EFL situations, where English is neither used as a medium of instruction nor as language of wider communication, appropriate and alternate use of L1 (in this case Arabic) and EFL as part of curriculum genres will be very helpful for English literacy development.

Furthermore, Christie (2002) suggests that the regulative and instructional registers work in a patterned and predictable ways to bring the pedagogic activity into being, to establish goals, to introduce and sequence the teaching and learning of the field of knowledge at issue, and to evaluate the success with which the knowledge is learned. The successful teaching-learning activity occurs when there is a very intimate association of the two registers at significant development stages across the genre, or across the macrogenre. In this way, both the regulative and instructional registers have each their own field, tenor, and mode realizations (in the Hallidayan tradition) in the language choices made in classroom interaction. In the Libyan social contexts, these features are available in two languages, however, this study notes that EFL lecturers, unfortunately, do not use Arabic as a resource to access English field, tenor, and mode. In other words, students do not benefit from the knowledge they already have in Arabic language and culture with regard to field, tenor, and mode.

It is the nature of all pedagogic activity that some language choices are to do with the behaviours of the participants in the activity, while others are to do with the content or instructional field of information, which is at issue (Christie 2002:15). In the analysis, the two registers operate in such a way that the former fundamentally determines the introduction, pacing, and ordering of the other (Christie 1997).

According to Christie (1997:186), where the teaching is really successful there will be long sequences in which the two registers converge as students engage with learning

about the ‘content’ (realized in the instructional register), while learning working towards clearly defined tasks (realized in the regulative register). Nonetheless, as the sequence of lessons proceeds, the instructional register is eventually foregrounded, while the regulative register remains operating only tacitly, predisposing students to behave in ways valued for pedagogic purposes.

In the views of Christie (1997:137), the teacher paces the students as they learn, on the one hand, how to go about their tasks (the regulative register), and, on the other hand, the ‘content’, topics or information (the instructional register) they are to use in order to complete their tasks.

As has been noted above, the relationship of the two registers is so intimate. Christie argued that the regulative register ‘projects’ the instructional register, where the term is used metaphorically from the functional grammar, following Halliday’s (1994) advice, about the value of thinking grammatically about a text, modelling its organization on that of the clause. Where a relationship of projection applies, the secondary clause is said to be projected through the primary one (Christie 1997). Christie (2002:185) elaborates thus: “The instructional discourse will be taken from some location outside the school and relocated for the purpose of teaching and learning.”

Christie’s observations were based on early childhood education 1989, the upper primary years, in 1994 and 1995, and the secondary years, 1995 and 1998, where English is used as a medium of instruction. This study argues that in a foreign language situation where English is not having enough exposure, the curriculum macrogenres and the procedure of the two registers (regulative and instructional) must operate in alternative way by using Arabic and English as part of the curriculum in order to help students’ English literacy development. As will be demonstrated in this study, in an English foreign language situation, we argue that EFL lecturers are not getting advantages from other available semiosis by lecturers insisting on using only language form as resource in teaching English.

Given the central role of language in teaching and learning, and the registers that operate within them (Christie 1997, 2001, 2002, 2005), this study considers these tools as very important in analyzing the English classroom discursive practices at Al-Thadi University in Libya. The analysis will show the role that language plays in the construction of knowledge through the different stages of activities, the negotiation of relationship of lecturer and students or students with each other, and, finally, how regulative and instructional registers operate during the classroom activities.

2.4 Conclusion

The chapter discussed the issues and concepts, which informed this study as guided by relevant literature. Two themes were handled: language competence in EFL Libya's contexts and the issues of learning and teaching English in Arab countries; and the presentation of interdisciplinary conceptual framework from Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL), Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), and the implications of SFL in classroom discourse analysis.

Literature brought out the fact that ability to compose correct sentences is not the only ability students need to communicate; they also need socio-linguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence.

Further, it emerged that there is a shortage of literature on EFL in Libyan social contexts. A few researches have been done in the Arab context in countries such as Jordan, Sudan, and Egypt. The researchers concluded that the sociolinguistic environment of these countries is not conducive for English language learning, as Arabic is used for communication in all domains of social life. This information, although not directly related to Libya, helped in situating the current study.

The study made use of CDA and SFL and its extension SFL, curriculum macrogenres, because they emphasize the social aspect of language and see language not only as

storing and exchanging experience but also as construing it. The theories involve looking at both language form and language function, which is in line with the objectives of this study – that is analyzing EFL in Libya’s social context.

In this respect using SFL, curriculum macrogenres, and CDA, the language performance of Libyan students in English was analyzed linguistically and textually. Issues of interest in the former are on how students handle the choice of words to express specific significations, and their arrangement in utterances to express propositions, and their physical relations, either as sounds or as written symbols. The textual analysis was used to establish the relationship between the data obtained in the linguistic analysis of the text (i.e. concrete language use) and the wider social and cultural structures. This was done through identifying dominant language features that give evidence of social and cultural constructs, which determine students’ use of language.

The SFL framework has three paradigms, namely, ideational metafunction, interpersonal metafunction and textual metafunction. Through its emphasis on the functional basis of language structure and the view of language as meaning potential, SFL provided a useful tool for this study to analyze spoken and written English texts in the Libya’s social contexts.

Chapter Three

Methodology

3.0 Introduction

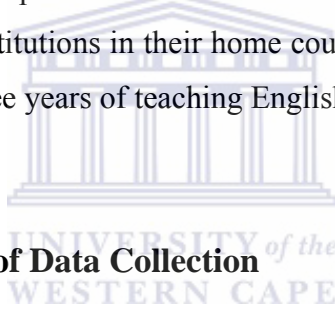
In this chapter, I explain the methodology followed in this study. I begin by explaining the research design, giving reasons for its relevance in my study. Then, I describe the tools and instruments used for data collection, data collection procedures, and analysis. Finally, I explain how I addressed ethical issues.

3.1 Research Design

This study followed a qualitative research design, based on the data collected from English department at Al-Thadi University. According to Wiersma (1995), qualitative research investigates the complex phenomena experienced by participants by examining people's words and actions in descriptive ways thereby allowing the researcher to operate in a natural set up. This paradigm was relevant to this study since it was examining language as used in natural set up of a classroom. As it has been noted earlier, the general aim of this study was to do a linguistic and textual analysis of English classroom interaction at AL-Thadi University in Libya. This included, but not limited to, the investigation of the methodologies used, the pedagogical skills of lecturers, and the English classroom interaction at the university. A qualitative research, as a descriptive analysis, was appropriate in this case study. Furthermore, this approach allowed me to be a part of the research exercise. This was also in line with the view that qualitative research uses the researcher as the data collection instrument and employs inductive analysis (see Maykut & Morehouse 1994).

3.2 Sampling Techniques

This study used judgmental sampling to select four classes from the English department at Al-Thadi University. The classes were from different levels. We selected one class from the first, second, third, and fourth years of schooling. Thus, the sample involved a total of 60 students: 15 students from the first year, 20 students from the second year, 15 students from the third year, and 10 students from the fourth year of study. These students have English as the main subject in their curriculum, as they are trained to become lecturers of English. All the students had previous experience of studying English in preparatory and secondary schools. They are also native speakers of Arabic, but they are learning English as a foreign language. This study also involved ten English lecturers from the English department. These lecturers were of different nationalities and the majority were non-Arabic speakers. The lecturers are very qualified and obtained high degrees from different institutions in their home countries. Most of the lecturers had an experience of more than three years of teaching English in this department.



3.3 Types and Procedures of Data Collection

The techniques applied in this study were classroom interaction observation, documentary analysis, and questionnaires. The sections below explain how the techniques were applied in this study.

3.3.1 Classroom Observation

Classroom observation tasks show how to use observation to learn about language teaching. It does this by providing a range of tasks which guide the user through the process of observing, analysing and reflecting, and which develop the skills of observation. It contains a bank of structured tasks, which are grouped into areas of focus. In this study, the main focus was the learner, lecturer, language, the learning process, the lessons, teaching skills and strategies, classroom management, and materials and

resources. Classroom interactions were video recorded to enable the evaluation of verbal and non-verbal strategies in practice. The researcher carried out the observations personally, sitting in the classes from the beginning to the end of each session. The length of time of the observations varied from twenty to forty minutes. For each classroom session, the researcher managed to attend and make at least one recording except for the first year students where he attended twice and made two recordings. This was because they have a session on spoken English and phonetics as an extra course in their syllabus. In all, five lessons were videotaped.

Classroom observations allowed me to gain further information regarding classroom practice and the teaching methods that lecturers use in teaching English. This technique helped me to investigate English teaching approaches and see how they impact on the students' language learning.

3.3.2 Document Analysis

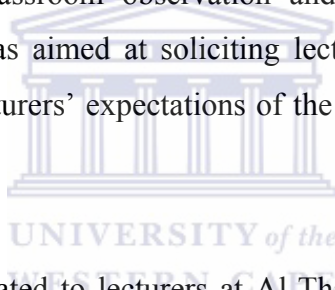


Document Analysis involved students' written texts. Students' written texts were collected from the second and third year English students. These students learn writing skills as part of the English course. Lecturers always give the students writing activities in order to help them to improve their English writing. I decided to collect and analyze their English written texts because these students have much time learning the four language skills during their English learning which are writing, reading, listening and finally speaking. So it was good for this study to see how the students benefit from these skills in their writing. Thus, the study's focus was on identifying and describing the dominant linguistic features in students' English written texts with regard to cohesion (referencing, conjunctions, verb forms and spelling) and thematic structure (theme and rheme, contextualization topic) with the aim of seeing how EFL students construct their English clauses and how they keep the cohesion and the thematic progression in their writing going (cf. Halliday 1994).

Another type of data from this category involved the university English syllabus. The information here was important in assessing issues on syllabus design in terms of how it addresses students' language learning requirements and its intertextual impact on the learners' spoken and written discourse. Only the English syllabus was chosen as this related to the class sessions observed in the classroom interaction. Thus, the spoken and phonetics syllabuses for the first year English and the writing syllabuses for both second and third year were collected.

3.3.3 Questionnaire

The lecturers' questionnaire was used as a way of triangulation to see whether the information gathered from classroom observation and document analysis would be reflected. Further, this tool was aimed at soliciting lecturers' views on students' EFL literacy practices and what lecturers' expectations of the EFL students English language competence were.

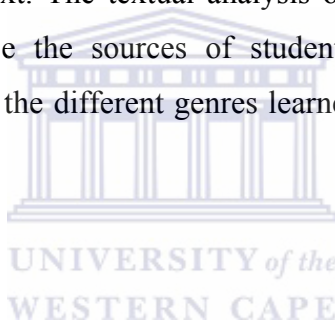


Questionnaires were administered to lecturers at Al-Thadi University to obtain further information on the issues covered under document analysis and classroom observation (see sections 3.3.1 and 3.3.2 above). Questionnaires were useful for verification and triangulation of information.

These questionnaires were submitted to the lecturers through the Internet and each lecturer received a copy of these questions in his/her e-mail. The questionnaire had 12 questions, each covering one aspect of the teaching and learning of English. This tool was used to obtain information on issues such as lecturers' assessment of students' motivation for learning English, students' EFL learning abilities, to the EFL teaching and learning environment (teaching materials, the syllabus, lecturer strategies) in the Libya's social contexts. This was intended to find out how the teaching and learning environment, including lecturers practices, and the university social contexts, support or inhibit the students' learning of/or meaning making in EFL. Therefore, the questions in this tool

covered six thematic areas: students' motivation for learning; opportunities - academically, socially, economically, among others, for EFL students in Libya; problems that Libyan learners have in learning English and lecturers' efforts in addressing students' learning difficulties; linking classroom lessons with students' real learning (of other subjects) or with real life experience; difficulties in adopting communication activities in teaching English in Libya's social contexts; and materials and techniques used in teaching English in Libya's social contexts.

In short, it was envisaged that these tools would enable this study to do a comprehensive linguistic and textual analysis of the spoken and written discourse of learners. The linguistic analysis would help this study to see the kind of dominant linguistic features that students practice in the text. The textual analysis of spoken and written discourse would help this study analyse the sources of students' performance from a genre perspective, that is, the role of the different genres learners are exposed to in promoting or demoting English learning.



3.3.4 Ethical Procedures

In any qualitative research, the inquirer has to get access to the school and the classroom as well. Access to school and classroom is not something that one can take for granted (Eisner 1991:171). Therefore, in order to get access to the field, I talked to both the dean of the Faculty of Arts and the head of the English Department at Al-Thadi University, who helped me to access the data I wanted. I explained to both of them the purpose of the study and the way it was going to be achieved. Because I am one of the staff members in this faculty, the dean and the head of English department welcomed me and provided me with the facilities I needed during my work. Therefore, I got the consent from these and other relevant university authority.

3.4 Conclusion

The chapter explained the methodology followed in this study. It began by explaining the research design, giving reasons for its relevance to the study. Then, the tools and instruments used for data collection and analysis were described. Finally, the chapter explained how the study addressed the ethical issues.

The study made use of a qualitative research design using the data collected from English Department at Al-Thadi University. The study used judgmental sampling to select a total of 60 EFL students who are native speakers of Arabic from first year, second year, third year and fourth year of study. The study also involved ten English lecturers from the English department and from different nationalities – that is, non-Arabic.

The study used four data collection techniques including classroom observation, documents analysis, and questionnaires. Classroom observation was used to gain further information regarding classroom practice and teaching methods. Document Analysis involved analysis of students' written texts and the university English syllabus with the aim of investigating word order and the goal is to see how students constructed their English clauses. The English syllabus was analyzed as an important document in assessing issues of design in terms of how it addresses students' language learning requirements and its intertextual impact on the learners' spoken and written discourse. Questionnaires were administered to the EFL lecturers for purposes of verification and triangulation of information.

Chapter Four

Data presentation and Analysis: Classroom Observation and Document Analysis

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents data from classroom observations and documents analysis. As mentioned earlier, this study employed an interdisciplinary approach in the conceptual and analytical framework. The framework was constructed from the key notions of Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL), Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), and the applications of SFL in Classroom Discourse Analysis (for details, see Chapter Two). Following this approach, discourse, whether spoken or written is viewed as an aspect of social practice, whereby language forms an integral part of the material social process. A focus on social practice enables the researcher do linguistic and textual analyses of lecturers' and students' discursive practices within the contexts of social practices of the Libyan society, and also to determine how these practices impact on the Libyan students' English language competence.

This chapter, begins by presenting classroom observation, in order to see lecturers' and EFL students' discursive practices in the classroom pedagogy, and then presents the textual analysis which combines two parts: students' written text and institutional material (syllabus), to see how supportive they are to the curriculum of English teaching and learning. In the following section, the types of data gathered from these two tools are presented.

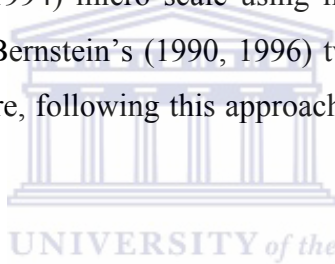
4.1 Classroom Observation

As noted earlier, data collection on classroom observation was done in February 2005. The classroom observation comprised five sessions, two were with the first year students and the subjects included were spoken English and phonetics. One session each was

observed for the second and third year students on writing, and one for the fourth year students in English class discussion (see Chapter Three for more details).

In using the classroom observation, this study observed two lecturers as well as EFL students' discursive practices. This study aimed at not only exploring how such discourses are constitutive of social cultural practices of a university as a community of discourse (Fairclough 2001; Mohamed 2006), but also how or what practices work for or against facilitating students' acquisition of communicative competence practices.

The discussion below presents an account of the sequence of lessons based on Christie's (1997, 2001, 2002, 2005) macro scale, using the concept of curriculum macrogenre, supplemented by Halliday's (1994) micro scale using linguistic analysis from SFL. In between these two scales are Bernstein's (1990, 1996) two sub-scales of regulative and instructional registers. Therefore, following this approach, classroom data collection was analysed as follows:



- Present any background information (learning context) about the students, lecturers and classroom.
- Identify stages in classroom interaction.
- Describe how the regulative and instructional registers proceed in the EFL classroom.
- Describe the contexts in terms of ideational metafunction (field), interpersonal metafunction (tenor), and textual metafunction (mode).
- Identify dynamic aspects of interaction: topic control and turn talking mechanisms.
- Comment on patterns and their interpretation, noting any skewing of roles and distribution of power and control, among others.
- Show whether or not there is use of Arabic in the classroom by either the lecturer or the students, or both, and whether it hinders or facilitates the learning of a foreign language (in this case English).

4.1.1 Contextual Information and Overview of the Curriculum Macrogenres

4.1.1.1 The Learning Context

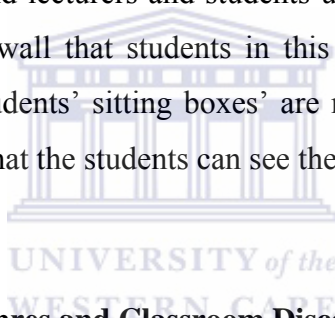
Following Christie (1997, 2001, 2002, 2005) and Halliday (1976, 1985, 1994), the context of this study relates to EFL students at Al-Thadi University-Libya. The classes contained between 12 and 15 students and all of them have non English speaking background and Arabic is their cultural and mother tongue. As the Libyan students live together in one society, they spend a lot of time interacting and speaking Arabic, and have no exposure to English outside the classroom. Thus, the commonsense knowledge as social semiotic resource those students have in their own social contexts, is Arabic.

However, the students had spent six years learning English as a subject when they were in preparatory and secondary schools (see Chapter One for details). Therefore, they are expected to have some knowledge of English structures but, as will be shown in this study, they are still incompetent in spoken and written English language. Thus, most students are at a beginning level in conversational English. As mentioned earlier, linguists such as Brumfit & Johnson (1979), Brumfit (1984, 1986), Hymes (1972, 1974), and Widdowson (1972, 1973, 1978) assert that the students might have learned a great deal about the rules and the system of English. However, this study found that the scarce application of these rules in genuine interaction situation results in failure to use the language communicatively. Before they were admitted to the English department at the university level, the students were required to sit and pass a written English evaluation test. This test works more with structure than with meaning. The classes were composed of both boys and girls whose ages ranged between 18 and 22 years. The students were in different levels of the English department and have certain tasks to fulfill during their English study, including the improvement of English language's four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Most of English lecturers in English department at AL-Thadi University are non-Arabic speakers and are considered by Libyan people as native speakers of English even though

they are nationals of India and Ghana. Both Ghana and India are commonwealth countries with a long tradition of ESL teaching. They are qualified lecturers and had obtained either masters or doctorate degrees in teaching English from main institutions in their countries. Some had taught English in this department for five years, while a few had joined recently. The head of English Department at Al-Thadi University appointed them as lecturers to teach English to Libyan students. The idea was to expose Libyan EFL students to professional lecturers who are fluent speakers of English.

The site of the observation was the English Laboratories (Lab) in the English Department at Al-Thadi University. The observed sessions were on phonetics, speaking, writing, and classroom discussion courses (see Chapter Three for details). The Lab has a big blackboard at the front wall and lecturers and students use it for writing. There are also some posters hanging on the wall that students in this department have designed and written over the years. The students' sitting boxes' are made of wood on the sides and glass in the front. This means that the students can see the lecturer but not each other.



4.1.1.2 Curriculum Macrogenres and Classroom Discourse

It should be noted from the discussion in chapter two that curriculum macrogenre in classroom is planned but not scripted. It is planned in the sense that the teachers have in mind intended learning outcomes and appropriate means of achieving those outcomes. This planning is reflected in the overall staging pattern of the curriculum macrogenre: the sifting from stage to stage and from task to task. What is more negotiable is the realization of the curriculum macrogenre: how the planning is actually put into operation in particular unique circumstances (cf. Christie 2001, 2002, 2005).

In a sense, the overall particulate structure of the curriculum macrogenre is a reflection of the teacher's planning. The teacher has either one or a number of learning outcomes in mind and the overall macrogenre structure realizes the stages gone through in achieving those outcomes (cf. Christie 1997, 2002).

As has been mentioned earlier, according to Christie (2002:14), classroom texts comprise two registers or set of language choices. These are the ‘first order’ known as the regulative register, which is to do with types of behaviours in the classroom. The second order is the instructional register and refers to the content of the classroom. Christie (2002:162) argues that the regulative register is an important aspect of English classroom discourse in the realization of content objectives as it “brings the classroom text into being...and determines the directions, sequencing, pacing and evaluation of an activity.” Therefore, the regulative register is not only appropriate but it also speaks through the instructional register, indicating the importance of studying the discourse of teachers in giving explicit instructions. Thus, regulative register projects the instructional register in such away that the amount of talk in the regulative register decreases over the genre, as the amount of talk in the instructional register increases (cf. Christie 2001, 2002).

As was mentioned earlier, Christie (2002:15) notes that “it is of the nature of all pedagogic activity that some language choices are to do with the behaviours of the participants in the activity, while others are to do with the content or instructional field or information which is at issue.” Christie named the initiated genre in the curriculum macrogenre “curriculum initiation”. It is this genre which sets the overall curriculum activity moving. This genre itself as, Christie showed, has three elements of schematic structure: task orientation, task specification, and task conference (see figure: **2.3**).

As has been documented earlier, Christie’s observations were based on early childhood education (1989), the upper primary years (1994, 1995) and the secondary years (1995, 1998) where English, as a language resource, is widely used for communication inside and outside the classroom. Following the findings of this study, it will be argued that in a foreign language situation where English language is not having enough exposure and is not used for broad communication outside the classroom, the curriculum macrogenre and the procedures of the two registers differ from Christie’s observations. In the foreign language situation, real and authentic communication between the EFL lecturers and students in Libya’s social contexts seems not to exist as the former do not speak the

students language (in my case Arabic) and the latter are lacking ability in English communication. In such a situation, we find that the 'instructional register' is always foregrounded and dominant in the curriculum initiation; whereas Christie's studies suggested dominance of the regulative register. Therefore, this study argues that using L1 alternatively as a social semiotic resource on the structure of the EFL macrogenres curriculum might help to facilitate the learning of L2 (in this case English), at least in this particular situation, regulative register. Therefore, this study argues that lecturers in EFL classes need to use the L1 of students as a resource in the structure of the two registers mentioned above.

From the foregoing, the instructional register in the EFL classes has an impact on the language choices lecturers' use in the pedagogic activity. As will be shown later in the classroom discourse analyses, lecturers' language choices in EFL situations work more with 'content' than with the 'pedagogic subjects behaviours' in the activity. This makes it difficult for the EFL students to determine and understand the directions, sequencing, pacing, and evaluation of an activity. Thus, in terms of the relationship between the two registers, it is clear in the analysis of classroom discourse that in EFL classes, the two registers rarely work in a patterned way, as Christie (2002) suggests, to the effect that the amount of talk in the regulative register decreases over the genre, as the amount of talk in the instructional register increases. It is also evident that in the EFL situation observed, it is hard to find strong relations or links between the two registers, as was evidenced in Christie's studies, which were based on English first language classroom observation.

Since EFL lecturers in this study are preoccupied with 'content', we argue that EFL lecturers' view of what constitutes knowledge of a language is essentially the same as Chomsky's (1965) knowledge of the syntactic structure of sentences, and of the transformational relations which hold between them. In these classes, the English sentence is seen as self contained. Therefore, our argument is that the teaching and learning of English in the EFL context does not necessarily link English form with social meaning in predictable and orderly manner to improve the learners' ability to use the

target language appropriately. As will be demonstrated below, teachers' focusing on linguistic knowledge (competence in Chomsky's terms) restricts EFL learners from developing communicative competence ('performance').

In addition to that, working in a language form in EFL classes has a negative impact on the language choices teachers used. We found that in EFL classes observed, the activities structure gave the lecturers almost total control of the classroom dialogue and social interaction. This shows the power and status of the lecturer in EFL classrooms. For instance, the lecturers' domination in turn taking is obvious in all the EFL classrooms discourse observed. This is because most interactions were initiated by the lecturer, either through extraction, instruction, or information, by way of questions, statements, or requests. This reflects the existence of control or domination in turn-taking, whereby the EFL students seldom have or even have no chance at all of getting a turn to speak unless given by the lecturer through questions or request.

As mentioned earlier, Christie (2002:15) notes that language is used as part of a two-way process of exchanging meaning: "we may use language to change the way people feel, to give them information they may not have, to express our own attitudes and feeling, to get them to provide us with something or some information and so on". But as will be shown in this study, this does not happen in the classes observed. We found that lecturers in all EFL classes use language only to demand information from the students but not to provide them with information they may not have. This means that rather teaching EFL conversation, lecturers effectively end up having classes which challenge the English ability of the students by requesting them to provide information in order to see how they are competent in English. Furthermore, we also found that lecturers in EFL classes rarely used any high modality to indicate the importance of the courses or to build any solidarity with the students in order to marshal and direct them towards work. The lecturer's authority in the EFL classes was apparent in the realizations of theme in both the experiential and interpersonal senses. We shall elaborate on these findings in due course.

4.1.1.3 Curriculum Genres in the English First Year Classes

Following from the above observations in considering the texts below, we make selective use of Halliday's functional grammar and Christie's suggestions regarding the classroom discourse in order to determine how the elements of structure are constructed and how the two registers are realized in terms of power and dominance relations in an EFL classroom.

4.1.1.3.1 Phonetic Class

The first observation was with the EFL first year Libyan students and the subject was phonetics. The text involves a lecturer and his students learning the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). As mentioned earlier, the majority of lecturers in English department are foreigners and non-Arabic speakers. This is one of the lecturers, who is non-Arabic speaking and is considered by Libyan people as a native speaker of English. His nationality is Indian. He is a qualified lecturer and has obtained a doctorate degree in teaching English as a second language from one of the famous institutions in India. He has been teaching English in this department for three years. As mentioned earlier, the site of the observation was the Laboratory in the English Department at Al-Thadi University.

• Curriculum Initiation

The curriculum initiation outlined below represents a departure from that outlined by Christie (1994, 1997, 2002). Christie (2002) proposes that curriculum initiation genres tend to begin in the regulative register in which the teacher initiates the activity, establishes goals, crucially predisposes the students to work and think in particular ways, defines the ultimate task or tasks normally in general terms, and indicates the evaluation principles that will apply. Christie further states that the success in which the students engage with instructional field is directly dependent upon the extent to which the pedagogic goals have been structured and understood as an aspect of the foregrounding

of the first order field. Thus from Christie's analysis, we could understand the value of the regulative register in teaching and learning in any curriculum macrogenre.

Following the Prototypical Model of a curriculum macrogenre designed by Christie, the opening of the Task Orientation in this EFL lesson went as follows:

Text one:

T: now listen to the words pronounced by the teacher, and try to transcribe them phonemically, okay, all of you please try to listen carefully, don't look into your friend's note books okay. I am going to pronounce let's say ten words, and each word will be pronounced thrice, okay. So listen carefully, and in between don't ask me what is that what's that, listen carefully because you are given three chances to listen to each word okay. (Appendix 1: Extract 1.)

In the EFL opening clauses presented above (text: one), we note that the lecturer in this class privileges an instructional register 'content' more than a regulative register - pacing, sequences and direction - as a departure point of the classroom discussion. Even though there is some expression related to the regulative register, that is, the text starts in a lecturer's monologue in the opening clauses (Christie 2002), but still the dominance of the discourse is with the instructional register. We want to argue that this is because the lecturer in this class does not speak the students' L1, in this case Arabic, and doubts the competence of the students in handling content in English as a foreign language (see also, analysis of lecturers' questionnaire in Chapter Five). Moreover, the lecturer in this class made the content as a departure point in the presentation instead of foregrounding or presenting the manner of engagement as departure point in order to fulfil the class work tasks. This kind of foregrounding makes it difficult for the EFL pedagogic subjects in this class to understand their ultimate tasks. Therefore, once students were not clear about what they were going to do and how to do it, they went about doing it unsuccessfully. As argued earlier, the role of the regulative register as a means of enablement for the instructional register needs to be stressed and further to help the pedagogic subjects successfully understand the pacing and directions (cf. Christie 1997, 2002). However, we

note from the opening clauses presented above that the lecturer in this class seems not to give any consideration or attention to this point, but he obviously insisted to work more with content and ignored the other aspects of regulative register, namely, sequences, pacing, and directions.

As pointed out earlier, Libya's students have a lack of ability in English communication. In this case, this study sees that using the first language (in this case Arabic) alternatively in the instruction of the macrogenres might facilitate and build a bridge towards access to the English knowledge as Arabic in Libya's social contexts is the commonsense knowledge, while English is the uncommonsense knowledge (cf. Christie2002) that Libya's students have in their social contexts. Thus, EFL students' understanding of the current English learning context is influenced by their previous knowledge, which is Arabic in this case. The students see the unfamiliar current learning context through the window of their prior background knowledge experiences. This relationship between present and past knowledge experience determines the students' attitude towards the new learning context. Therefore, it would be easy and helpful for the EFL students to understand the content of the lesson if the lecturer allows using the two languages (English & Arabic) alternatively in the structure of the macrogenres. Thus, the lecturer could show that a relationship exists between understanding their prior knowledge and the purpose of learning the new knowledge, which aims at developing them academically by improving their English language skills and abilities. The lecturer in this class needs to link the background knowledge that the EFL students have in Arabic to the English text in the structure of regulative register. Hence, the lecturer could take advantage of the familiar knowledge students already have in their social contexts in order to help them get access to the new knowledge (in this case in English).

Similarly, foregrounding the second order (instructional register) in the opening clauses presented above makes the lecturer, at this stage, not to cover or present all the sequences, directions, and pacing, which would enable those EFL pedagogic subjects to understand and get access to the content and completely establish their ultimate task. This

is unlike what Christie (2005) suggests that in the opening clauses, teachers must present the whole macrogenre which could help learners to accomplish their tasks effectively.

Through the structure of the opening clauses presented above, we note that a lot of work from the lecturer's side goes into building the instructional field 'content' and the technical language associated with it. Thus, an identifying process such as "listen, transcribe" are used here to construct the content of learning the IPA. Therefore, the lecturer seems not to follow obligatory steps in order to accomplish his task. We note from the task orientation above that the lecturer wanted the students to do two things only: first to listen to the words as pronounced by the lecturer and second to try to transcribe these words phonemically. These two processes obviously show us that the lecturer in this class mostly concentrates on the content of the lesson but not on the physical and verbal behaviours of the students, which may give those EFL students a chance to link language form to the social meaning in order to improve their English communicative ability. This means that the lecturer in this class also does not give any further consideration to the context in order to link the language form to the social meaning where this language can be used. However, as will be evident later, the lecturer, after completing pronunciation of the words, takes the students into two other different tasks, which had not been mentioned before, and which are mostly concentrated on content.

Text two:

Work one: Okay now, one by one to the blackboard and try to write these words on the blackboard (extract 1, Appendix 1)

Work two: Now I will show the word number like this (non-verbal action) and like this (non verbal action). You have to pronounce, pay attention, look at the word and say okay (Appendix 1: Extract 1)

Clearly, the lecturer in this class gives more attention to the content information as the main and departure point rather than working with the manner and how the pedagogic subjects establish their tasks. Therefore, contrary to Christie's postulations, the lecturer in these opening clauses does not pay much attention to the 'regulative register', which is principally involved in establishing goals for teaching-learning activities, and with fostering and maintaining the direction of the activities until the achievement of the goals.

In relation to Christie's (2002) view, there are two important responsibilities that any conscientious teacher should make: first to clarify goals for teaching and second to ensure the goals are met. A good deal of careful thought must go into establishing what the actual purposes are for teaching the 'content'. We note from text one, presented above, that in this EFL opening clauses, the lecturer has not outlined to the students the actual purpose for teaching this content and neither explains the full pacing and sequences of the lesson. Furthermore, at the end, he does not confirm that the goals are met or not. Therefore, the lecturer in this class goes straight to present the content of the lesson instead of giving students an introduction about the lesson and what the actual purposes are for teaching that content.



Thus, it could be argued that the EFL lecturer in this class has only followed the traditional procedures of teaching and learning a foreign language (in this case English), which has tended to focus on the process of learning rather than intended products of learning (cf. Richards & Rodgers 2001). Learning language in this EFL class is seen as the result of purely cognitive processing. This kind of procedures have an impact on the students' communicative language ability, as it enables the lecturer to focus on the form (linguistic competence) but ignores the other three competencies such as sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competences. Therefore, the lecturer in this class failed to link the language form to the social meaning, where language can be used.

Much of the work in this class was directed towards identifying linguistic experiences and discourse specific lexicogrammatical features and rarely relating them to the

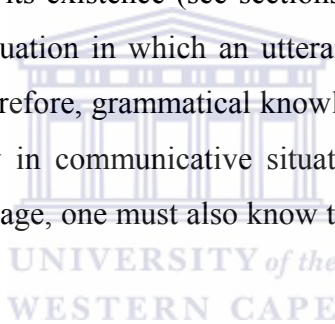
underlying social or cultural assumptions that constitute the worldview of the participants (students) in the discourse. Fairclough (2001) insists that linguistic analysis should scrutinize text out of context of use. Thus, in the lesson presented as content, words are presented out of context. Students are given isolated words, which they are expected to internalize through exercises involving repetition and imitations following the lecturer's model. These exercises are designed to provide students with mastery of formal structure but not in developing English language communication ability. Therefore, the lecturer in this class denied the students the opportunity of seeing the systemic relationships that exist between form, meaning, and use.

In essence, the lecturer in this class, by presenting the content of the lesson as a main resource, believes that linguistic competence can be separated from the rest of communicative competence and should be studied in isolation in order to help the EFL students acquire a foreign language (in this case English). As mentioned in the literature review, the notion of linguistic competence is unreal and that no significant progress in linguistics is possible without studying forms along with the ways in which they are used for meaning making (cf. Widdowson 1972). In addition to that, the linguistic competence falls under the domains of communicative competence because communicative competence is made up of four competence areas including linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence (cf. Canale 1983, Bachman 1990).

Thus, the lecturer in this initiation genre wants the EFL students to accomplish a linguistic work (phonemics) only. He wants them to listen to the words pronounced and try to transcribe them phonemically. This means that the process of learning language in this EFL class is a 'conscious process'. Krashen (1981 in Richards and Rodgers 2001) conveys that second language acquisition is unconscious process of using language, not directly obtained by conscious learning. Thus, the major task for the lecturer in this class might be to create an environment or setting for those students to acquire English by using it through activities in class rather than presenting discreet words. It means connecting the language form to the social meaning, where the language can be used.

In relation to communicative language competence and as has been pointed out earlier, Widdowson (1972) states and proves that overemphasis on linguistic structure would prevent the learners from developing their language competence. Furthermore, Hymes (1972) found that rules of use are as important; without which the rules of grammar would be useless. He demonstrates a shift of emphasis away from a narrow focus on language as a formal system to a language as a meaning system in social contexts. Therefore, the instruction of the discourse in this class restricted language learning to a very narrow, non communicative range that does not prepare students to use the language in every day social life.

Linguists are aware of the inter-relationship between language and the society, because it is in society that language has its existence (see sections 2.3.2 and 2.3.3 for details). In other words, the context of situation in which an utterance is said, who said it, and to whom, are very important. Therefore, grammatical knowledge is not enough to help EFL students participate effectively in communicative situation. In addition to acquainting oneself with the forms of language, one must also know the context of use of language in society.



The lecturer in the opening clauses (text one) commenced with an imperative mood which seemed to signal that he is the one who is pointing directions and pushing the discourse forward: *“listen to the words pronounced by the teacher, and try to transcribe them phonemically”*. This imperative mood shows us that in this class, only the lecturer has the power in directing and organizing the students in their work and also has the ability to decide when the lesson would start and come to an end. Therefore, the text starts with the lecturer’s monologue and students’ interruption or comment would not be welcomed at this point (Christie 2002).

As has been mentioned earlier, foregrounding instructional register in the EFL classes has a negative impact on the language choices lecturers’ use. This study realized that the lecturer in these opening clauses privileges language choices, which work more with the

content being used than with the behaviours of the pedagogic subjects. Thus, in a manner characteristic of opening elements in this curriculum genre, the lesson initiation foregrounds the second order or instructional register, and this is apparent in the language choices made with respect to all three metafunctions and the context in terms of field, tenor, and mode (cf. Christie 1997, 2001, 2002, 2005).

Thus, from the point of view of the experiential metafunction (field), we could note lexis such as “*words, transcribe, pronounce, phonemically, and listen carefully*” building aspects of the field, which is mostly concentrated on the instructional field (the IPA) and a number of process types (transitivity) that realize aspects of desired process e.g. *listen to the words pronounced by the teacher* (cognition process), *try to transcribe them phonemically* (cognition process). Other process types which realize lecturer behavior to direct students learning include: *I am going to pronounce let's say ten words* (material process). We can observe from the process involved in these opening clauses that the lecturer privileges process types, which are to do with establishing students' cognition process. Furthermore, most of the process types are constructed on 'instructional register'. As pointed out earlier, Christie (2002) notes that in classroom discourse a significant proportion of the process types have to do with realizing aspects of students' behavior. This means that the lecturer in this EFL class denied the field, tenor, and mode (cf. Halliday 1994) knowledge that the EFL students already have in their mother tongue (in this case Arabic) but insisted on working only with the English form as field, tenor, and mode. Therefore, the lecturer did not give much chance to the EFL students in this class to use their L1 in order to improve their English communicative ability and further to get access to English knowledge.

This study argues that treating the students' L1 as a resource instead of an obstacle to L2 learning would help to favor more authentic uses of the target language. Therefore, rather than viewing L1 use by EFL students as totally counter-productive or unacceptable, lecturers should consider that the use of L1 may be beneficial for certain communicative functions. It could also enable less proficient students to sustain interactions with, or even

to access, the higher level knowledge. Therefore, it could be helpful for the lecturer's pedagogical purposes in this class to allow EFL students to use their L1 alternatively instead of forbidding them to use this semiotic social resource available in their social contexts.

From the lexis and the processes that the participants were involved in, we can understand that the action was in an institution and there were two participants: lecturer because of his institutional privileges represents the powerful or dominant group, while the students represent the non-dominant group in this relationship. We note from the structure of the opening clauses (text: 1) that the role of the lecturer is a traditionally authoritarian one – that of regulating and controlling all classroom discourse practices, which effectively translates into the control of what the student should or should not say or do (e.g. *don't look into your friend's note books, in between don't ask me what is that what's that*). The role of the student, on the other hand, is that of an obedient recipient of the lecturers' instructions. We have noted, for example, that the lecturer views language teaching as the provision of grammatical items. Such teaching, therefore, can only be applicable in the traditional methods, where lecturers dominate classroom interactions.

As mentioned earlier, the Interpersonal metafunction (tenor) of the discourse manifests the relationships of the participants that are displayed through the grammar forms that are used. The tenor of the discourse is that of a lecturer to students. This is typically reflected in the sequence of the interaction, where the lecturer is determining the course of the discussion by initiating questions. This is grammatically expressed through the choice of the interrogative mood or wh-questions. In the opening the lecturer talks above (text one), we see that the text is for the most part in the imperative mood, where the lecturer's role is primarily to impart command and students have to listen and follow (Christie: 2002). There is no a dynamic process in this stage between the lecturer and students and between students themselves. Such relations can be difficult to achieve in a situation where students, as participants, always play a prescribed role of being recipients in a classroom communicative event (cf. Savignon 1983, 1985). Thus, the lecturer in this

class determined the beginning and the end of the teaching session and regulated the amount of discussion on each stage. This is realized in the discussion by the use of adverbs like “okay” and “right” to mark the beginning of the session, and at certain intervals to indicate a shift in topic (cf. Christie 1997).

In text one above, the lecturer starts with setting up status roles. He does this by describing the self as if it was somebody else by using the 3rd person. Thus, with respect to interpersonal metafunction (tenor), we could note that the lecturer made use of the third person singular as if to determine authority of the lecturer and further to build a distance between the lecturer and the students in this lesson. Thereafter, the lecturer used the first person singular pronoun when indicating clearly what it is he wants to do (e.g. *I am going to pronounce let's say ten words*).

As already mentioned earlier, Christie suggests that whenever teachers use the first singular pronoun (*I*), they intend to indicate their authority to direct, while their use of the plural pronoun (*we*) is intended to build solidarity with the students in the common enterprise of working on whatever task is at hand and also to indicate the importance of a course of action to be pursued. This means that the lecturer's authority in this EFL class is apparent too, in the realizations of theme in both the experiential and interpersonal senses. Experientially, the lecturer's authority is apparent in the frequent uses of the first person singular. Interpersonally, the lecturer seldom uses the first person plural in order to build solidarity with the students.

Thus, in this class, there is only one basic pedagogical model. In this model, the lecturer is talking and demonstrating in front of the blackboard, and students sit by the tables and are listening and writing down something. The lecturer gives some work to the students and the students have to accomplish this task. This means that the lecturer, at this stage did not make or create any solidarity with the students and, further, did not establish any real life situation in order to help the students. The result was that instead of the students

acquiring the language as a form, they acquired it as a meaning. Therefore, the lecturer in this class failed to link the form with meaning.

The lecturer in this class seems to still follow the traditional pedagogical model. The mode in this model is that the teacher is the center of the discursive practice activity. The teacher and the students are two poles of power. The one pole, the teacher, possesses absolute power, while the other pole, the student, is powerless. The power model can simply be expressed as teacher has and the students haven't. In these opening clauses (text: 1), we could note that the lecturer controls the flow of discourse (cf. Christie 1997). Therefore, the lecturer has prepared the discursive practice activity. The lecturer decides the start, the orientation, and the end; he absolutely controls the flow, and does not allow the students to share his power. In order to keep the power, he often reminds the students through some discourses, including language, that they are powerless. We could find through the texts words said by lecturer to this effect: don't do that, listen carefully, among others. At the same time, the students, who are powerless, are passive and are biddable in discursive practice in the classroom. They can not be demurring to what the lecturer is saying or doing and cannot bring forward new suggestions. They can only listen passively to the lecturer's speech, look at the lecturer's illustrations, and do the English exercises procedurally.

With respect to the textual metafunction (mode), it is notable, first of all, that the lecturer in the opening clauses presented above (text one) takes up a monologic mode (Christie 1997, 2002). Before pronouncing the words, the lecturer in this class cautioned students against interrupting him, which means that students' involvement in the lecturer's oral performance at this stage was not welcome, as it was considered as an interruption. He clearly tells the students:

... Listen carefully, and in between don't ask me what is that, what is that?

Therefore, the lecturer in this class deprived the students of the opportunity to intervene in the teaching-learning activity, leaving responsibility for field selection and its organization to him alone.

The textual theme choice that the lecturer uses in the opening clauses is mostly dominated by the instructional register. He uses some textual theme choices in order to signal that he is the one who has the power in pointing directions and pushing the discourse forward (Christie 2002).

Now listen to the words pronounced by the teacher, and try to transcribe them phonemically, I am going to pronounce let's say ten words, and each word will be pronounced thrice.

The lecturer also makes use of some textual themes, which help to point directions: “*okay, now*”. The text starts with a textual theme choice ‘*now*’, one of a number of available continuatives that feature in teacher discourse at points, where an element is being either initiated or sometimes closed (Christie 1997).

The lecturer in the opening of the task orientation used ‘*okay*’, pronounced with falling intonation. Here, the word, principally, has a textual role of signaling that a new phase is about to start (Christie 2002). Interpersonally this feature is a kind of demand for acknowledgment that the students are up with the lecturer so that he can proceed. The textual theme ‘*okay*’ was used here to signal that the lecturer was about to address the whole class.

This study argues that language choices in pedagogic activity in the EFL classes are mostly to do with the content or instructional field than to do with the behaviours of the participants in the activity. This argument does not match Christie’s (2002:15) suggestion that “it is the nature of all pedagogic activity that some language choices are to do with

the behaviours of the participants in the activity, while others are to do with the ‘content’ or instructional field of information, which is at issue.” Therefore, this study assumed that it is because the lecturers emphasize more on linguistic structures, rather than the meanings in a teaching cycle, that this study argues that it is educationally insufficient and it has to be foregrounded appropriately over the full teaching program (Christie 2005).

The discourse continued for another twenty minutes, as the lecturer and the students engaged in the instructional register. In total, the lecturer pronounced a total of ten words: *lecturer, repeat, respond, conduct, examination, leader, porter, report, impact, packing*. The pronunciation part of the words took much of the class time. This was because each word had to be pronounced thrice and with pauses in between to allow students time to transcribe the words (see appendix 1: extract number: 1).

When the lecturer had finished pronouncing the ten words, he took the students into another stage, which involved students working in small groups of four, where they corrected each other’s work. At this stage, the lecturer gave the students the first chance to interact with each other by correcting their phonemic transcriptions of the words. Going back to the curriculum initiation structure designed by Christie, we could see that this stage is the ‘task specification’.

- **Task Specification:**

As mentioned earlier, Christie proposes that the Curriculum Initiation is revealed to consist of one genre only having within it three elements of schematic structure. The first of these is a task orientation, in which the lecturer points directions and sets purposes for the whole macrogenre. The second element of the schematic structure is the task specification, in which the nature of the tasks the students are to undertake is established (Christie 2002:103). The task specification element of this lesson starts as follows:

Text three:

T: right, let's see how you have transcribed, let's see the notebooks okay, let's see your answers, how you have transcribed, how you have perceived the words and transcribed okay, so now we have, how many groups? we have four groups, five groups okay, and from each group, you first of all before coming to me you check with your answers and try to correct yourself, among yourself okay, and try to check among yourself and discussed among yourself okay, why it's wrong and why it's correct try too, I will go through you to see if you have any question. As group, if you have any doubt about any word you can ask me, in the end I will call one of you to transcribe it on the blackboard (Appendix 1: Extract 1)

Christie (2002) can identify the above clauses as task specification, in which the nature of the tasks the students are to undertake is established. According to Christie, this stage also gives an indication about changing power relations and how the dominance went - that is from teacher dominant to students' dominant, and vice versa. In this stage, through the structure of the clauses and how the lecturer makes use of the language choices, we note that the ultimate power still remains with the lecturer, as the only knowledgeable and authorized person to direct classroom discourse. In the language choice with respect to interpersonal metafunctions (tenor), the lecturer frequently uses the second person singular 'you' in directing the students' behavior.

In the task specification represented above, we see that the lecturer uses both registers in order to accomplish his task. In Christie's (2002) view, we understand that in this stage, the regulative register continues to operate tacitly and it operates overtly only when the teacher corrects unacceptable behaviour. Furthermore, the amount of talk in the regulative register decreases over the genre as the amount of talk in the instructional register increases (Christie 2002). This means that all the procedures that the students follow would be clear from the previous stage (task orientation). Here we could note the lecturer using both registers in order to keep the flow of the lesson going forward. Here the lecturer specifies future action, both with regard to working arrangements (*I will go through you to see if you have any question...I will call one of you to transcribe it on the*

blackboard) and with regard to content (*let's see how you have transcribed, let's see the notebooks okay, let's see your answers, how you have transcribed, how you have perceived the words and transcribed*). Therefore, the regulative register is realized in this stage also: textually, in lecturer textual themes to point directions - *right, let's see how you have transcribed, let's see the notebooks okay*; interpersonally in an interpersonal metaphor of command to direct behavioral - *you first of all before coming to me you check with your answers and try to correct yourself*.

Before the end of the class time, the lecturer took the students into two activities which, as we mentioned earlier, were neither mentioned nor existed in the former stage (task orientation). The lecturer in this stage made a competition between the students themselves. He assigned each word pronounced to a number and the students were required to pronounce the word represented by each number he showed them. This they had to do together. The lecturer here wanted the students to practice the pronunciation of the words. I could realize that this activity did not give a chance for all the students to participate in the action because some of them raised their voices higher than the others. This means that it was hard for the lecturer to distinguish between the voices in order to see who did not pronounce the words correctly. This means the less assertive and less proficient learners received minimal output opportunities, as Ellis (1990) discussed. In the second activity, the lecturer also worked with the students in groups instead of working with them individually. He lecturer called for some students to come to the blackboard and write down the pronunciation of these words. The lecturer, in this activity, picked the 'brilliant' students - the ones who have raised their hands.

In respect of the above explanation and the extracts above (text: 1- 3), the lecturer assumes all the roles, that is, monitoring, directing, and the regulating, in the classroom discourse. Therefore, what we see here is that the lecturer ignored the students and kept himself as a perfect resource in order to clarify these tasks. The lecturer in this class put himself as a knowledgeable person and the students had only one option; to learn English pronunciation, which comes from the side of the lecturer. Furthermore, in relation to the

structure of the registers (regulative and instructional), we could note also here that the lecturer in these clauses privileges the second order (instructional) as the main resource in establishing his tasks. There is some regulation in these clauses, but still the concentration of the class discussion is with the content. Finally, we also found that the lecturer in this class privileges the use of English only as a resource in teaching, ignoring the L1's social contexts, which, as we saw earlier, might be very helpful in getting access to English contexts of use.

4.1.1.3.2 Spoken English Class

This observation was with the first year EFL Libyan students in English Department at AL-Thadi University and the subject was spoken English. The text involved a lecturer and his class of first year students who were learning the use of English in a real communication context. The lecturer in this class was also non-Arabic speaking and is considered by Libyan people as a native speaker of English. He is a qualified lecturer and has obtained a Master's degree in teaching English as a second language. He has been teaching English in this department for five years. The site of the observation was at the Laboratory in the English Department at Al-Thadi University.

- **Curriculum Initiation**

The topic of this lesson was: *A good habit, new routines*. The lecturer started his lesson by using the blackboard. On the board, the lecturer wrote the topic followed by some phrases, which he had envisaged might help EFL students to access the topic. Littlewood (2000:34) named this process as “spoon feeding” and argued against it pointing out that this process does not improve the learners' proficiency in any field and that it cannot give learners the chance to explore knowledge by themselves. By using this method, the lecturer in this class does not give a chance to those EFL students to use their background knowledge or their culture in order to help them link the lesson content to the social meaning, where this language can be used. Therefore, the lecturer in this class privileges to use only his knowledge as a resource in teaching English. Thus, and as we mentioned

earlier, despite the students having their own Arabic language and culture, the lecturer failed to utilise it in the classroom discussion as a resource.

The lecturer made two columns on the board. The first column contained the “good habits” and the second “bad habits”. The table below shows a summary of the lecturer presentation on the board:

A summary presentation of the spoken English lesson

A good habits, new routines	
Good habits	Bad habits
1- Helping mother with the house work	Shouting to a mother
Reading newspaper and magazines	Smoking
Be at work on time	Speaking on phone for a long time

Source: Classroom data AL Thadi University, February 2005

Following the Prototypical model again of a curriculum macrogenre designed by Christie (1994), the opening of the Task Orientation in this EFL lesson went as follows:

Text: four

Now we have spoken English, and we talk about good habits, new routines, what is a good habit? What is an example of good habits? (Appendix 1: Extract 2)

Following the structure of these opening clauses presented in text four, we realize also that the lecturer in this class foregrounded the instructional register ‘content’ as a departure point in the structure of the initiation genre instead of regulative register as Christie suggested. The lecturer presented the topic of the lesson and straight forward requested from one of the students to get involved in the discussion. There is no sign in these opening clauses that shows us how the pedagogic subjects will establish their tasks. Meanwhile, there is no clause that shows us what was the actual purpose for teaching this

content. In these opening clauses, the lecturer also did not provide EFL students with the pacing, directions, and the purpose of teaching this content. Thus, it seems that the situation of this class is like the previous one - where the lecturer uses his power and knowledge to monitor and direct the class lesson.

After the lecturer presented the topic and pointed to one of the students to take the floor, the verbal action moved from lecturer dominated to lecturer - students dominated. During this time, the students' voices had become too loud and this annoyed the lecturer, who then started using his power as a monitor and asked students to work individually. The lecturer then started calling students by names in order to get them to participate in the discussion. The students in this activity had to wait for the lecturer to identify them to speak. Therefore, we note here that there is no dynamic exchange existing between the two interlocutors (lecturer- students and students themselves) that could give a chance for the EFL students to freely practice using the target language. The students read out the examples and the lecturer repeated the examples whenever he approved of their responses. The lecturer elaborated the examples especially whenever he noticed that the examples were not clear enough. In this activity, the lecturer did not give chance to the students to extend their answers by asking them other questions related to their answers, which may build a strong dynamic interaction and solidarity between the lecturer and the students. Therefore, there is no place for EFL students in this class to use their L1 experiential, interpersonal, and textual knowledge as a resource in teaching and learning a foreign language as suggested by Halliday (1994).

The lecturer obviously aimed at teaching communication in English through conversation on every day topics. The term, language classroom, is used here, to refer to the classroom in which the primary concern (from the lecturer's point of view) is the development of a language that is not the first language of the students. This discourse in the language classroom refers to the oral use of language in classrooms devoted to the development of any language other than the learner's first language (Allwright 1984). As can be seen from the opening clauses presented above (text: 1), the lecturer used "structuring" to

begin the instructional plan and “soliciting” to propose a question. The students then provided the requested information (response) followed by the lecturer’ evaluative comments or feedback. The vast majority of the exchanges that took place in this class were initiated by the lecturer who also provided the feedback. The learners were mostly passive receivers, only respondents. This means that the interaction in this class would be restricted only between the lecturer and the students in form of demanding information but not in creating interaction between the students themselves by using the target language. Therefore, in this class, it is hardly expected to find any true communication between the students using English as a target language in order to improve their communicative ability. Furthermore, and as we mentioned earlier, the lecturer narrowed the learning context to include only his knowledge as a mentor, but not the students’ background and experiences.

Text five

T: what is an example of a good habit?

S: reading

T: Reading magazines, newspapers, yes what is an example of a good habit?

S: Visiting relatives.

T: Visiting relatives, yes, what is an example of a good habit?

S: Doing homework by or on time

T: yes doing homework on time is a good habit, another

S: Be at work on time.

T: Yes be on time is a good habit because respecting a time is a good habit,

(Appendix 2: Extract 2)

We mentioned earlier that Morrow (1977) describes seven features which characterize communication. One of these features is “unpredictable” in both form and message. We can realize in the above opening clauses that the lecturer has chosen the topic and the mood of the conversation and students have only to follow and obey this instruction. The lecturer in this lesson monopolizes the discourse in which the information predominantly flows in one direction from lecturer to students. Therefore, EFL Libyan students in this

class are restricted to a responding role with only one chance of speaking. This may be one of the reasons why many foreign language students reliant on the classroom fail to develop much strategic competence (Ellis 1994). We can also notice from the structure of the discourse of this lesson that the less assertive and less proficient learners receive minimal output opportunities. Such lecturers' practice is reflected in the following textual features: topic domination, domination in turn taking, and closed questions usage.

Domination in turn taking is also obvious in this classroom discourse. It happened when most interactions were initiated by the lecturer, either through instruction or information by way of questions. The lecturer initiated utterances, received response from the students and was followed by an acceptance or acknowledgement by the lecturer. In other words, the lecturer-student interaction was organised according to the lecturer-initiated 'move' (using Sinclair & Coulthard 1975, Mehan 1979) followed by student response/reaction and lecturer's acceptance. Thus, the interaction movement of this classroom discourse can be structured into three parts: lecturer's initial move; student's response; and lecturer's acceptance and evaluation (IRE).



Such an interaction structure leads to the lecturer's control of the basic organisation of interaction by opening as well as closing every move, and accepting student response or answer. This reflects the existence of control or domination in turn taking, whereby the student seldom has or even has no chance at all of getting a turn to speak unless given by the lecturer through the given questions. Here, we can make an observation about the patterns of language and about the probable pedagogic goals of the lecturer. In relation to the interpersonal metafunction (tenor) of the discourse, we find the unequal status of the participants: it is the lecturer who asks all the questions, thus guiding the directions taken in the talk. In order to guide the talk in this lesson, the lecturer uses a number of wh-questions.

In the pedagogic discourse used in this class, we note that the wh-questions shape the essential teaching exchange between the lecturer and students. As the lecturer initiates the

first move, a student responds, and then the lecturer again takes up a turn and evaluates. The lecturer poses the wh-questions and invites responses from the class, which he evaluates. The direction of the discussion is negotiated by the lecturer selecting and developing students' responses, which seem to fit with his overall plan. Therefore, the lecturer in the opening clauses (text: 2) shows his power as the regulator in this context.

A prominent textual feature identified in this pedagogic discourse is the frequent use of closed question, such as *what is an example of good habit*, by the lecturer. This kind of question merely requires a straight answer from the students. It does not require answers that provide opinions or the type of answers that require using the background knowledge which could help the students to improve their communicative language. By asking closed questions, the lecturer does not provide opportunity for students to speak more or express their opinions. This is because the lecturer has limited the expected students' response/answer to just one or two words. Such situations means the lecturer takes the floor or controls the discourse. It was found that the nature of the learning process in this classroom hardly focused on students' thinking skills. As we mentioned earlier, considering that Libyan students do not have enough exposure to English in their social contexts, the lecturer in this class should have provided them with opportunity to use the target language instead of restricting them only to teacher-initiated responses.

Thus, the limited involvement of students was triggered by the way the lecturer conducted the discourse in the classroom, namely, by giving little or no chance at all for the students to be active by offering opinions, asking questions, or discussing in groups. Instead, students' participation was only limited to answering the lecturer questions. As a result of this control, the role of the student as the main target of the education process seems to be relegated and, instead, it is the lecturer who plays the central role.

Thus, there were some features observed in this class lesson, which agreed with Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) finding on discourse structure. Most lecturer-students interactions are controlled, typically following a pattern often defined as an initiation-response-

evaluation (IRE) or initiation-response- feedback (IRF) (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975, Mehan 1979). The IRF pattern has been often criticised on the grounds that it locks students into one-word response, leaving them little freedom to talk at a more sustained length (Christie 2005).

The utterances of the lecturer and the students showed a one-to-one correspondence, and the students only spoke when they were asked to in most of the cases. We realised that the lecturer nominates a student to speak by identifying them by their names. It is regarded as an offer or invitation to speak. Typically, the lecturer's offer is made in response to a non-verbal offer from the student (or a number of students) realised by the raising of hands.

Therefore, the students are making offers to speak and the lecturer selecting, which student gets the opportunity by making an offer to one student. It seems to be a traditional class like the previous one when the lecturer is in front of the class 'teaching' and lecturer and students speak according to very fixed perceptions of their roles, which have been considered an old fashioned method (cf. Richards and Rodgers 2001). Thus, we can realize in this EFL class that there is no dynamic interaction between the lecturer and the students and between the students themselves. Further, the students cannot bring any topic from their experience or background and get involved in the discussion but they have to restrict themselves in the topics presented by the lecturer. Students have only one road of speaking, which is designed by the lecturer.

As we mentioned earlier, the lecturer presented the topic and posed a question to students on what good habits and new routines were and asked students to provide examples. The students participated in the class discussion through raising their hands and were given the opportunity to speak, one by one. The lecturer's main role here is of questioner and evaluator.

In the conclusion of this lesson, we realized that the most typical form of classroom interaction is recitation, which has two predominant characteristics. First, the lecturer is the predominant speaker. Although students were permitted to interact with the lecturer, the lecturer still guided and controlled the class by means of asking questions, giving instructions, and giving information (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975). Kasper (2001:518) considers the widely held view that “the IRF routine is an unproductive interactional format for the learning of pragmatics and discourse.” This method fails to give opportunities for tackling the complex demands of every day conversation, especially since instructions usually exercise the follow-up role, while students often remain as passive respondents.

Typically, the IRF pattern is realized in fairly predictable ways, frequently involving an instructor known-answer question, followed by students (often brief) answer, and then followed by an instructor evaluation comment relating to the correctness or otherwise of the answer. Lemke (1990) argues that this pattern, which he terms ‘triadic dialogue’ functions not only to allow the instructor to control the thematic development of the topic, but also to maintain the unequal nature of instructor/student power relations.

In the structure of clauses, we realized that its only one participant who typically initiates the exchange - the lecturer. The lecturer always has the right to provide the third move, often by evaluating the student’s contribution for its conformity to what he considers to be a correct or acceptable response. Therefore, the lecturer in this class is responsible for opening and closing interaction exchanges, determining who talks, on what topic, and for how long, while the students are responsible for replying only.

Text Six

T: Okay, now I need examples of a bad habit, one by one.

S: Shout of your mother.

T: Shouting on your mother is not good, another example of a bad habit.

S: Smoking cigarettes.

T: Yes it is a bad habit another.
(Appendix 2: Extract 2)

Under such restricted pedagogical circumstances, some problems about learning foreign languages are likely to emerge. First, students take a small share of the percentage of talking moves. There are not sufficient chances for them to use what they have previously learned in performing successive communication. According to Nunan (1987) the repetition of the IRF cycle is a major reason for the absence of genuine communication in classroom language lessons.

In the summary of the stages in this class, we observed that the lecturer presented instructional register as a departure point in his discussion and there is no space in the initiation genre for regulative register which could give the EFL students clear view about the pacing that would follow. Thus, the lecturer in this class controlled the behaviours of the students and there was no space for them to move or formulate any activities before the lecturer told them to do so. Furthermore, the lecturer did not give the students opportunities to use their own experience but, instead, wrote all the examples on the blackboard and the students were expected to follow the instructions. The lecturer in this class also used his power as a guidance for the students to accomplish their tasks.

4.1.1.4 Curriculum Genres in the English Second Year Classes

4.1.1.4.1 Writing Class

This observation is of second year Libyan students in English department at AL-Thadi University. The text involves the lecturer and her second year Libyan students. The lecturer is a native speaker of Arabic. She is the only lecturer who spoke Arabic as a mother tongue in the English Department during the observation time. In spite of shared linguistic and cultural heritage with the students, even she did not allow Arabic in her class. She holds a Masters degree and so she is academically qualified. She also has a five year's experience in teaching English at Al-Thadi University.

- **Curriculum Initiation:**

This writing class session was also held like the previous two classes in one of the laboratories available in the English Department. The topic of this lesson was: *Time clause in English*. Following the Prototypical model of a curriculum macrogenre designed by Christie (1994), the opening of the Task Orientation in this EFL lesson went as follows:

Text Seven

T: Yes, can you give me a sentence, using a time clause? Time clause introduced by using: when, while or after, before, so think of a sentence with a time clause, it contains two parts time clause and main clause, M (student name) can you give an example of time clause? (Appendix 1: Extract 3)

From the structure of the opening clauses presented above in text six, we note that the lecturer in this class treated the topic - *time clause* - as unfamiliar knowledge for the EFL Libyan students. However, it needs to be noted that Libyan students, as Arabic speakers, are familiar with the concept of time in Arabic, though perhaps realized differently in English structure. Our argument is that this aspect can be related to the concept of ‘commonsense knowledge’ versus ‘uncommonsense knowledge’ discussed by Christie (2002). Thus the lecturer, as an Arabic speaker, should have taken advantage of the shared and familiar knowledge available in the class (in this case Arabic) in order to help EFL students in this class to get access to the new knowledge, in this case English time clauses. However, the lecturer adopted an English-only approach to language teaching and learning. This study argues that using the L1 in the structure of the initiation curriculum could make L2 input more comprehensible. Therefore, it would have been useful for the lecturer in this class to make a link between the present knowledge and the previous knowledge that students already have in their mother language. In doing that, the students would understand the differences that exist between the two languages especially in structure.

We also noted that the lecturer in this class did not follow the schematic structure order (see Christie 2002) in order to fulfil the ultimate tasks for teaching this genre. The lecturer here did not start with a 'regulative register', which, as mentioned earlier, could give an opportunity for the students to understand what they were going to do or what their ultimate tasks might be (Christie 2002). The lecturer in this writing class privileged instructional register 'content' as a departure point instead of regulative register (pedagogic subjects' behaviours). Therefore, the dominant register in the opening clauses in this lesson appears to be like the previous two classes controlled by the instructional register. Foregrounding the instructional register in this class makes it difficult for the EFL students to understand the pacing and directions that should follow and further what was the actual purpose for teaching and learning this particular content. Therefore, students in this class were not clearly exposed to the ultimate tasks and goals of learning this content which is, in this case, time clause structure.

Thus, by foregrounding the instructional register in this lesson, this lecturer did not give any specific attention to the pacing, directions, and how the pedagogic subjects would establish their ultimate tasks. Furthermore, she did not give attention and thought for establishing what the actual purpose for teaching this content was and what kinds of knowledge students would acquire in following the order of this context.

Foregrounding the instructional register in this class has also an impact on the language choices the lecturer used. In relation to the experiential metafunction (field), we found that most of the lexis used in the opening clauses were also building and constructing the content "time clause" such as sentence, using time clause, while, when, after, and two parts and this means that there is no regulative lexis in the opening clauses means that the lesson does not show us how the pedagogic subjects would establish their tasks or what the actual purpose of teaching and learning this content is. In relation to the interpersonal metafunction (tenor), we found an unequal status in this class among the participants. It was the lecturer who requested and demanded information, thus guiding the directions taken in the talk. In order to guide the talk in this lesson, the lecturer used

questions. This meant that the lecturer's authority in this EFL class was apparent in the realizations of theme in both the experiential and interpersonal senses. Experientially, the lecturer's authority is apparent in the frequent uses of wh- questions. Interpersonally, the lecturer seldom used the first person plural in order to build solidarity with the students in the enterprise taken but she mostly used second person pronoun "you" in order to make the directions to behaviour more oblique such as in *can you give example?*.

In relation to the turn taking, we can realize from the structure of the opening clauses presented above (text: 1) that the lecturer in this class seems also not to be confident in the English ability of the students to handle any communication activity with the lecturer or between themselves. Therefore, the control of the turn taking in this class is also dominated by the lecturer. It is the lecturer who initiated utterances, received responses from the students, and sometimes was followed by an acceptance or acknowledgement by the lecturer.

Thus, the issue of English literacy in this class also revolves around unequal access to dominance and orders of discourse. It is this unequal access to institutional resources of power between the lecturers who have a privileged access and students who have a less privileged access that "facilitate the enactment of dominance and hence contributing to its reproduction" (Van Dijk 1993:255). Therefore, if students cannot access language, it means that they cannot access knowledge itself. And access to (or lack of) social resources, such as education and knowledge, is what produces social relations of inequality. As a result of this social inequality, the status quo, that is, the production and reproduction of the dominant and the dominated groups, is sustained (cf. Fairclough 1995; Van Dijk 1993). Thus, again, the lecturer in this class is an Arabic speaker, hence she could use Arabic as a resource in order to minimize the unequal dominant power that existed in the classroom and, further, to give a chance for students to get involved in the discussion. Using the L1 would enable the lecturer in this class to share knowledge and power with those EFL students and could further help students to get easy access to the

new knowledge (in this case English). As pointed out earlier, even though this lecturer speaks Arabic, she insists on using only English as a resource in teaching and learning.

As a consequence, the lecturer, after writing the topic of the lesson on the board, turned to the students and asked them to provide examples using the time clause. This means that the interaction in this class would be restricted only between the lecturer and the students in a form of demanding information, but not in creating interaction between the students themselves by using the target language. Therefore, in this class, it was difficult to find any true communication between the students using English as a target language in order to improve their English communicative ability.

In addition to that, we can also realize that the lecturer in this class privileges structural forms of the target language as a main resource in the EFL pedagogy. According to Christie's view (2005:7), "it would be educationally insufficient and inadequate to become preoccupied either with structure or with meanings, for the understanding of both is essential to effective learning." Moreover, Krashen (1981 in Richards & Rodgers 2001, an eminent second language acquisition theorist, who distinguished between acquisition and learning, advocates that language learning comes about using language communicatively, rather than through practicing language form. Therefore, in this class, we realized that lecturer insisted on working with language as form but not as a function. The language teaching emphasizes the semantic and communicative dimension, which privileges meaning rather than merely the grammatical characteristics, which privileges elements of structure and grammar (Richards & Rodgers 2001).

Thus, the structure of the discourse in this class was like the previous classes discussed above. The lecturer used structuring to begin the instructional plan and soliciting to propose a question. The students then provided the requested information (response) followed by the lecturer's evaluative comments or feedback (IRF) (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975, Mehan 1979). Students in this class were often restricted to a responding

role with only one chance of speaking. Text eight (below) clearly shows that the lecturer only allows the students to respond without giving them much room for discussion.

Text eight

T: M (student name) can you give an example of time clause? ==would you please stand up.

S: I first went to the school when I was five - when I was six years old.

T: Now using while, yes N (student name).

S: while Tom was waiting to go to university, he found, his friends

(Appendix 1: Extract 3)

This process of learning that does not allow adequate students' participation conflicts with Savignon's (1983, 1985) view of communicative competence. Savignon views communicative competence as the ability to function in truly communicative setting - that is a "dynamic exchange rather than static". Thus, in only demanding information from the students, we can realize that there is no true interaction or a dynamic exchange between the lecturer and students and between the students themselves in the target language. Furthermore, as mentioned earlier, using only static process of language learning in the EFL classes does not provide learners with the opportunities and encouraging them to participate actively in the language learning (cf. Widdowson 1972). Moreover, this process also prohibited students from interacting with each other in order to maximize the time allotted to each student for learning to negotiate meaning. Therefore, making full use of classroom interaction managed by a co-production of all the participants tends to be more effective and beneficial to learners' competence development in the EFL context (Ellis 1994).

Through the structure of the context of this lesson, we can also realize that there is an obvious gap between the classroom drill learning used and the genuine communication outside the classroom. The process of communication and overcoming real-life communication problems are the language development processes, which requires not

merely the learners' command of linguistic knowledge, but also the practical use of the means or strategies of communication (cf. Canale 1983, Canale & Swain 1980, Bachman 1990). Therefore, learning, especially foreign language learning, may be enhanced by the improvement of communicative competence which include, not only linguistic knowledge, but also sociolinguistic competence.

In the beginning of the lesson, we noted that none of the students volunteered to respond to the lecturer's question, and this is possibly because of their incompetent English level and that they did not understand what was requested of them. The lecturer asked the question again but this time she paraphrased the question and mentioned such words as when and while, which the lecturer thought might help those students in constructing time clauses. Here, the lecturer started feeding students with some structural knowledge in order to help them get access to the knowledge. Yet again, no students volunteered to answer this question. The lecturer then, decided to call out students by names in order to get them to participate in the discussion. The argument here is that if the lecturer in the opening clauses used Arabic, it might have been helpful to the students to get access to the unfamiliar knowledge. As soon as lecturer called out the students' names, they started trying to get involved in the discussion in order to satisfy their lecturer's desire by providing some examples. The students went back to their note books and started copying some examples and reproduced them. This means that the students did not use their own knowledge and experience in order to show that they understood the English knowledge. It is noticeable here that the lecturer in this class uses the invested power as lecturer to call for the students to participate and get involved in the discussion. This means that the students' participation in the classroom interaction would be restricted and guided by the lecturer and the students have to wait until the lecturer called them. Therefore, in this class too, we found that there was no real interaction between the lecturer and students and among the students themselves. Furthermore, the position of the students in this activity would be only as respondents to the lecturer's enquiries.

The English literacy structure in this lesson can be understood in the context of what Christie (2005) termed as 'autonomous'. This model sees English literacy teaching and learning as a matter of mastering certain important but essentially basic technical skills in control of such things as the spelling and writing systems and, perhaps, how to shape simple written sentences. A priority is attached to accuracy in control of the basic resources of literacy, and beyond that persons are assumed to be free to use literacy in ways that fit their purposes. Writers such as Street have challenged what they hold to be such autonomous models, arguing that far from literacy being a neutral thing; it is profoundly implicated in social experience and behaviour (cited in Christie 2005).

Thus, the English language lecturer in this class seems to make an assumption that once grammatical or linguistic competency is provided (then) the learners will have no difficulty in dealing with the actual use of language, that is to say, that once the competence is acquired, performance will take care of itself. This assumption, according to Widdowson (1973), is questionable because students, who spend six or more years of instruction in English at school, have considerable difficulty coping with language in its normal communicative use. Further, Widdowson (1972) points out that the root of the problem, the learners' deficiency in the ability to actually use the language lies in the approach itself. Many aspects of language learning can take place only through natural processes, which operate when a person is involved in using the language for communication and the learners' ultimate goal is to communicate with others (Littlewood 1981).

As mentioned earlier, teaching and learning language needs not only a linguistic structure, but it also another competency such as sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competences. Learning only an English form might not help the EFL students to understand and communicate using English effectively. Widdowson (1978) emphasizes the importance of language use by differentiating 'usage' of language from the 'use' of it. He notes that knowledge of usage is significant, but not adequate in achieving communication. Further, Christie (2005:7) found that it would be educationally

insufficient and inadequate to become preoccupied either with structure or with meanings, for understanding of both is essential to effective learning. Therefore, the lecturer also ignored to link English form to English meaning and social contexts where language can be used.

The lecturer and the students spent most of the class time in building “time clause” sentences. During this activity, the lecturer used interrogative questions in order to examine the students’ ability in constructing time clause sentences. She presented different words such as before, while, and when, among others, as feed words to the students in order to help them construct sentences in time clause. At this stage, the lecturer decided to use her authority as a lecturer to pick students to respond to her questions. As students gave their examples, the lecturer wrote them on the blackboard, only stopping to write whenever she disapproved of the examples provided by the students. When the lecturer was satisfied with the examples provided by the students, she would go back to the students and asked them another question. Each time the question would require students to perform a slightly different activity from the pervious one. Yet, again, each time the students would refrain from participating in these tasks, a situation which compelled the lecturer to respond to her own questions. Most of the times, there were times when the focus was on a particular aspect, let us say, in this case, ‘time clause’ the lecturer would sometimes ask students to do the ‘aside’ tasks which might not be related to the topic. For example when students were giving examples on ‘time clause’, the lecturer would, at the same time, ask students to identify, say, tense of given verbs. So, the lecturer on this stage did not work only with time clause examples, but also with other parts of English structures.

Text nine

T: Using before

S: before I put it on the envelope, I had read my answers again and again

T: So what is the past tense of (read)? And what is the past perfect?

(Appendix 1: Extract 3)

After the lecturer and the students had gone through the construction of time clause, the lecturer took the students to another work which was not mentioned in the task orientation clauses mentioned above. On this stage, the lecturer presented a new topic, which was not related to time clause structure. The new topic was: *Unexpected money*. The lecturer gave a brief introduction about this topic and how people could get money unexpectedly. Then she allocated tasks to the students on the topic. Here, the lecturer chose only three students to participate; two students had to read from the text and one had to use the blackboard to write what the other two were saying. The lecturer at this stage asked the students to stand up while reading. Each student completed the task. This stage was the last stage of the class session. Later, the lecturer worked with the students about the homework for the next class. The Lecturer presented the topic as follows:

Text ten

T: Thank you now. Let's see the topic of this unit, which is "unexpected money". It means you either inherited this money or winning it on a competition or what ever or maybe you got it by working on holiday or you found this money somewhere. Oki, now in this case we have let me say we have oral practice first following what we did in the other unit on the procedure follow on this book that we have to do oral practice and than we read the sample paragraph later on we practice writing. So let's have a look at the oral practice and than I want students to ask and the other answers. I want A (student name) and M (student name), okay. Both of you stand up.

T: Okay now. Ask her and I want E (student name) to come to the board and write the answer to the sentence. (Appendix 1: Extract 3)

To conclude the observation, we want to note that in this class, the lecturer foregrounded and privileged instructional register instead of regulative register as a departure point in her discussion. This foregrounding also has an impact on the language choices she used in constructing the genre. We noted that almost all the lexis used was in constructing the content. There was no single clause in the opening clauses showing how the students would accomplish their ultimate tasks, nor showed what the goal of teaching this content was (cf. Christie 2002). Additionally, we found that the lecturer was the dominant person

during all the stages. She controlled the topic chosen and turn taking, and dominated the classroom discussion. She was the one who could give the students a chance to be involved in the discussion and she was also the one who could choose what the students must answer during the class time. There was no sharing of dominance between the lecturer and the students which might give a chance to the students to use their own thinking and experience. The students in this class had to wait until the lecturer asked them to do any action; otherwise they had to be silent all the time. Furthermore, the unequal power relationship between the lecturer and the students during the class lesson made the former control the knowledge and empower herself as a knowledgeable person. Finally, being Arabic herself, the lecturer in this class did not make use of the advantages from the shared linguistic and cultural knowledge she has with the students in order to help them to get access to English knowledge.

4.1.1.5 Curriculum Genres in the English Third Year Classes

4.1.1.5.1 Writing Class

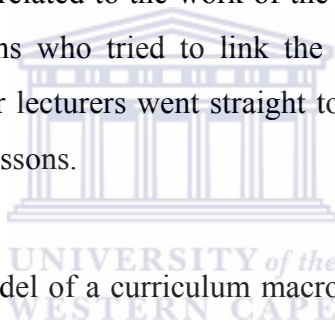
This observation was conducted with the third year Libyan students in the English Department at AL-Thadi University. The text involved a lecturer and his third year Libyan students. He is also a qualified lecturer having obtained a Master's and a Doctorate degree in Education (ESL teaching). He had been teaching English in this Department for two years. He did not speak the student's L1 and was also not familiar with the Arabic culture. Thus, communication in this class also excluded the mother tongue of the students and English was the main resource used to get access to the knowledge.

- **Curriculum Initiation**

The topic of this lesson was: *Direct and indirect speech*. The class action took place, like the previous classes, in the English lab. The lecturer in this class followed the traditional process in achieving the pedagogical goal of teaching this lesson. The lecturer wrote the

topic on the blackboard and, below the topic, he wrote some direct English sentences. These sentences were written on the left hand side of the board leaving the other part blank. This means that the lecturer's authority in this class is apparent from the beginning. We note that the lecturer was the one who had chosen the topic and further controlled the direction and pacing of learning and monitored and corrected the students' performance. Therefore, we could argue from the beginning that there was no participation from the student's side in choosing or directing the discourse in this class. This means that an imbalance of power existed from the beginning.

After the lecturer finished his writing, he greeted the students with a "good morning" and went on presenting the topic of the day by reminding the students of what they did in the previous session and how it is related to the work of the day. This is the only lecturer in classroom observations sessions who tried to link the previous lessons with the new lesson. We noted that the other lecturers went straight to the topic of the day and never tried to link it to the previous lessons.



Following the Prototypical Model of a curriculum macrogenre designed by Christie, the opening of the Task Orientation in this EFL lesson went as follows:

Text eleven

T: Good morning, I would like you to try to understand how to change direct speech to indirect speech, we have already done some working in writing dialogue and writing conversation, you still remember that, also as far as the concerned is the first part, which is direct speech last time we do it very shortly, but now we will do it in other way, the direct speech will be given in a long dialogue, do you still remember that last time we worked with such short lines and patterns and we did change to indirect and direct speech, now we will work in such a long dialogue, so I need you to change it to indirect speech...(Appendix 1: Extract 4)

Following the structure of the opening clauses in this lesson, we realize that the lecturer, like the previous lecturers, privileges instructional register as a departure point of the class discussion instead of a regulative register. Even though there were some regulative register's signs such as the lecturer initiating and monitoring the discourse (Christie 2002), still the dominance of the discourse was controlled by instructional register. Therefore, the lecturer in this class presented the topic of the lesson - *Direct and indirect speech* - as a departure point of his discussion. We find that there were no clauses in the task orientation presented above (text: 1) showing us how the students would establish their tasks, nor the actual purpose of teaching and learning this content. Thus, the dominance of the instructional register in the opening clauses is apparent and also has an impact on the language choices the lecturer used.

In relation to the experiential metafunction (field), we note that most of the lexis the lecturer used in the opening clauses was in constructing the lesson content, but not in constructing the pedagogic subjects' behaviours as Christie's suggested. The lecturer in the opening clauses used lexis, which were mostly related to the content "direct and indirect speech" such as *direct and indirect speech*, *writing dialogue*, and *writing conversation*. Furthermore, in terms of the process and participants involved in building the opening clauses, we also note that most of the process types such as *try*, *change*, and *do* were on constructing the content, but not in establishing directions and pacing students on what they should follow in order to accomplish their ultimate tasks. However, in relation to the participants involved in the text, we note that the lecturer used names based on the commonsense and natural knowledge of English such as "Tom". The name of the participant is natural for the western culture, but they cause problems to Libyan students. He is culture-bound and has no counterpart in students' commonsense knowledge and, in this case, Arabic language. Therefore, the lecturer in this class uses English culture as a resource, which does not help the students.

In relation to the interpersonal metafunction (tenor), we observe that the lecturer in this class used his power as a knowledgeable person to maintain and direct the context of the

lesson. In this regard, it is the lecturer who commenced the activity and students' interruption was not welcome, especially in the opening clauses (Christie: 2002). The lecturer's authority was apparent also in the use of "I" and "you", such as in: *I need you to change it to indirect speech* and *I would like you to try to understand...* Even though the lecturer in this class frequently used high modality, that is, the pronoun "we" in constructing the opening clauses, his power is noticeable as a knowledgeable person in establishing the students' tasks. We noted that this lecturer was not like the previous lecturers, he used "we" constantly as high modality in order to build solidarity with his students. It has been argued in the literature that the instructors' use 'I' is intended to indicate their authority to direct, while their use of 'we' is intended to build solidarity with the students (cf. Christie 1997, 2002, 2005).

After the lecturer presented the brief introduction, which was mostly concentrated on the content, he turned to the students and asked them to change the sentences written on the board from direct to indirect speech. Before that, the lecturer read the direct sentences on the blackboard and explained to students that it was a conversation between Tom and Ali (the imaginary characters used for the purposes of class discussion). The lecturer also seemed not confident in the English ability of the students. It was noted that the lecturer, in this activity, wanted the students to accomplish linguistic work only. This means that the classroom interaction in this class was dominated by presenting and correcting the form of English structure. It was also noted that the lecturer did not ask the students to perform any other task, such as analysing the conversation and finding out the social meaning and how the conversation is structured socially in order to improve the sociolinguistic ability of those students. Therefore, in this activity, it was also noted that there was no link between the form used in the conversation and the language meaning. As we mentioned earlier, teaching and learning language need not only be linguistic performance, but also needs the actual use of language in concrete situations (cf. Chomsky 1965). This is how the lecturer asked the students to change these clauses from direct to indirect speech.

Text twelve

...now look at the patterns on the board. It's already before you, what I write on the blackboard is just reported, now obviously this is a piece of conversation between two people Tom and Ali, Tom begins the conversation by greeting the other man 'hallo', 'good morning' and naturally there is a reply in the same manner, so how will you change this to reported? (Appendix 1: Extract 4)

In the beginning the students hesitated to volunteer to answer the lecturer's question, but they responded when the lecturer called out their names. Therefore, students' participation in this classroom activity was regulated in such a way that the lecturer decided on who amongst the students should speak. Therefore, the control of the turn taking in this class was also dominated by the lecturer. It is the lecturer who initiated the utterances and received responses from the students. Sometimes, the response the students made was followed by an acceptance or acknowledgement by the lecturer.

The interaction between the lecturer and the students was very restricted in this lesson, and this caused problems for the students as they did not go beyond the topic. Therefore, in this activity the lecturer followed each student's response and evaluated and criticized it in order to write down the answers on the blackboard. It seems here that the lecturer used his power as a knowledgeable person to decide whether the response is correct or not. The students here have only the lecturer's response as resource in order to learn the English language. This activity took most of the class time, during which time the lecturer was busy writing all the correct responses involving the direct and indirect sentences. It is worth looking at some of the lecturer-students interaction as presented in the following extract:

Text thirteen

T: Any one, Mabroka how will you change that?

S: Tom said to Ali Hallo and Good morning.

T: Is it right to say Tom said to Ali Good morning?

S: Hallo good morning Tom said to Ali.

T: if you say hallo good morning Tom said to Ali, still be direct speech, it will not be indirect speech, another one.

S: Tom told to Ali good morning and hallo.

T: Again you cannot say Tom told to Ali because it is not a good grammatical structure. (Appendix 1: Extract 4)

Towards the end of the discussion, the lecturer pointed out the general techniques for changing dialogues from direct speech to indirect speech:

Text fourteen

T: I will give you suggestions when you have such words: hallo, Hi, good morning etc.... You just say (Tom greeted Ali), you don't need to give the exact word, so the better should be [teacher use the board] (Tom greeted Ali and wished him good morning). This is would be better than say Tom said to Ali hallo and good morning. These things are not very good in writing. So this is the proper form. Now can you give the reply? (Ali: Good morning. How are you today?) (Appendix 1: Extract 4)

And this is how the lecturer concluded his lesson:

Text fifteen

T: Okay, so we have understood general techniques for changing dialogues from direct speech to indirect speech. As an example in greeting and how you ignore the specific words like good morning, good afternoon etc....so instead of repeating these words just use the word greeting. (Appendix 1: Extract 4)

There are two issues worth commenting in this particular classroom discourse. The first issue relates to the students' interaction with the subject content through tasks given by the lecturer. Right from the introduction of the lesson, students were expected to work out the tasks the lecturer gave them. During the observation of this session, it was never made clear to the students as to how they were expected to perform those tasks, apart from just being told to perform them. This means that the lecturer in this class did not clearly clarify in the beginning the tasks and the pacing students should follow in order to

accomplish the tasks. Therefore, the lecturer did not start his discourse by presenting the pacing, sequences, and directions as a departure point in his discussion as Christie suggested.

The second issue relates to the linguistic input the lecturer provides to the students. We have seen that in the classroom activity observed, the lecturer would usually present his own knowledge as a model of excellence. Such a presentation presupposes that the lecturer's discourse is infallibly perfect. But evidence from lecturer-students classroom exchanges proves otherwise. We see that the quality of lecturers' verbal feedback in classroom demands that students be made aware that the lecturers' language cannot be taken as a model as this extract shows:

Text sixteen:

T: You just say (Tom greeted Ali), you don't need to give the exact word, so the better should be [writes on the board] (Tom greeted Ali and wished him good morning). This is would be better than said Tom said to Ali hallo and good morning. These things are not very good in writing. So this is the proper form. Now can you give the reply? (Ali: Good morning. How are you today?)

S: Ali replied the same greeted.

T: [writes on the board], so you can say, Instead of reply, it is not reply, okay when greeting is given, you can returned the greeting, so you can say: Ali returned the greeting).

S: Excuse me doctor can we say: Tom meet Ali and wished him good morning.

T: It is a wrong tense meet and you can use met. Yes you can no problem. I am not saying this is the only answer. So you can write it in many forms acceptable grammatically. So this is only one model and you can follow some other models, so you can say (Ali returned the greeting andpause. Can you complete?

S: and asked him about the return.

T: no, no, not return just look at the board? How are you today? Just put it in indirect speech. (Appendix 1: Extract 4)

4.1.1.6 Curriculum Genres in the English Fourth Year Classes

4.1.1.6.1 Advanced Conversation

This observation was conducted in the fourth year class in the English Department at Al-Thadi University. The context involved the lecturer and his fourth year students. The lecturer is qualified as he has Masters degree in teaching English. By the time of the data collection, he was busy working on his PhD thesis. Although he has a different mother tongue, Libyans consider him, just as the previously discussed foreign lecturers, an English first language speaker. Again, just like the other foreign English teachers, this lecturer does not speak the students' L1. This means that only English is available as a resource in teaching lessons in his classes.

- **Curriculum Initiation**

This class session was held in a normal classroom, unlike the previous observed sessions, all of which were held in the language laboratory. The students could see each other in this class. The total number of students in this class was ten. There were eight females and only two male students. The lecturer followed the same procedures as the previously observed lecturers in order to achieve his lesson tasks in this class. Before presenting the topic, the lecturer used the board to write the title of the lesson: *The common virus among the youngsters*. Then he turned to the students and explained to them the meaning of the word “virus” and how it can be identified. After he explained the topic he chose one male student to start the discussion. Here, again, just like the other observed lecturers, the lecturer in this class also presented the content of the lesson as a departure point in his discussion. He never made any presentation with regards to how the students would accomplish the tasks nor did he mention the actual purpose of teaching this topic.

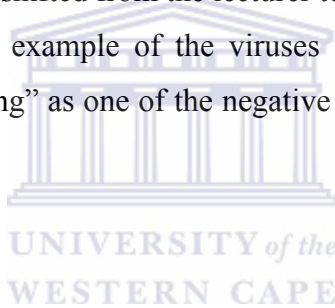
Following the prototypical model of a curriculum macrogenre designed by Christie, the opening of the Task Orientation in this EFL lesson went as follows:

Text seventeen

T: We are going to have advanced conversation class and also we are going to make a group discussion. What I mean by group discussion is that every student can talk and participate in this discussion and it is not limited to only one time. You can participate more than one time if you feel like. Our topic today is (the common virus among the youngsters). What I mean by virus is a bad habit among the students in this college. These bad habits our students follow can be justified if you feel like and give some advice and tell us how it affects. Also you can be against or support after you proved. Let us start one by one and let us start with **Z**.

(Appendix 1: Extract 5).

After the lecturer presented the topic and chose one of the students to start the discussion, the dominance of the class talk shifted from the lecturer to one of the male students called **Z**. This student gave the first example of the viruses ‘contracted’ by students in the university. **Z** presented “smoking” as one of the negative influences spreading among the students.



Text eighteen

Z: some students in the university, especially in our university in the faculty of Arts and science, there is some negative things or negative sign in the university especially as (pause), as a big university let’s talk about smoking, you know smoking? (Appendix 1: Extract 5)

After **Z** presented smoking as a negative influence among the students, the lecturer tried to involve other students in the discussion. He did this by asking them about their opinions and their suggestions regarding smoking.

***T:** What about other students? There are some people who support smoking...*

The other students gave only a short response, which was mostly composed of the statement *I do not think so* - and once again the dominant male student (**Z**) took the floor and dominated the discussion. This happened because the majority of the students in this

class were females and none of them have had any experience about smoking and how the smokers feel when they smoke. It could also be because female smoking is not acceptable in the Libyan social and cultural contexts. This gave chance for the male student to dominate. We find that most of the discussion during the class time was between the student who presented smoking as a negative sign and the lecturer. There was no other student involved in this discussion. The lecturer did not try to change the topic to one that was more accommodating to the female students, which would encourage them to participate in the discussion. The topic for this session made participation by all students in a group discussion difficult. For this reason, the quality of the lecturer-student/class interaction, as well as the language, suffered, as can be seen from the following extract:

Text nineteen

T: I understand you, but smoking not only bad for college students, its bad for all people, so you mean that most of male student in this university are smoking, therefore, this bad habit spread between the college students, do you support this habit?

S 1: No of course not.

S 1: Few good points smoking this tobacco, smoke it kills the bacteria you know, I have friend and he was a science and he said before I go to the science department to check the patients he said I have to smoke because you know this tobacco or smoking kills the bacteria in the nasal. So he can just check the patients comfortable.
(Appendix 1: Extract 5).

Clearly, the conversation above is forced and unnatural with some students only attempting short responses, while others uttered poorly structured English sentences. Thus, power imbalance in the students' relationship is most clearly expressed in this classroom. Some students' position of power – in this case the male students - results from their access to the knowledge of English including familiarity of the topic. These are the resources, which posit students in the privileged and dominant position in the socio-discursive event of a classroom discourse.

In conclusion, of all the classrooms observations presented above, we noted that all the lecturers in the EFL classes had problems in constructing their classroom discourse. One of the problems lecturers had in presenting their lessons was that they did not present the eventual tasks and the actual purpose for teaching the content as departure points in their presentation. They advantaged content as a departure point instead of the pedagogic subjects' behaviours. This means that they always foregrounded the instructional register as a departure point instead of the regulative register in the first language classes as suggested by Christie. Furthermore, the teachers did take advantage of the students' background knowledge and culture. As demonstrated, since the students have Arabic as a resource in their social contexts, foregrounding the instructional register had an impact on the language choices the lecturers used in the classrooms, and hence a negative impact on classroom interaction, with the teacher dominating the classroom discourse and the students having little or no input (unless forced out of them).

In relation to the experiential metafunction (field), we noted that in all the EFL classrooms, most of the lexis that the lecturers used was on constructing the contents and seldom in constructing the pedagogic subjects' behaviour. This means that lecturers in the EFL classes did not give their students a chance to interact with the language. In addition, they failed to link the form to meaning. With relation to the interpersonal metafunction (tenor), we find that in all the classes observed, the lecturers' power appears from the beginning. The power imbalance appears in the lecturers' choosing the topic and controlling and dominating the turn taking. This dominance gave power to the lecturers to use low modality when they interacted with the EFL students. We seldom find any high modality used by the lecturers in order to build solidarity with students.

With regard to the textual metafunction (mode), we found that in all the classes observed, the texts were created by the lecturers' monologues and students had only to listen to their lecturers. Moreover, we find that the lecturers treated the first language of the students as an obstacle in learning the second language. We noted that none of lecturers,

including the one who spoke Arabic as a first language, took advantage of the students' L1 as a main resource in order to help them access the new knowledge in English.

Furthermore, as we saw in the classroom observation presented above, lecturers gave priority to grammatical competence as the basis of language proficiency. They seem to believe that grammar could be learned through direct instruction and through a methodology that made much use of repetition, practice, and drilling. As argued, rules should not be learned in isolation but should be linked to the functional uses of language. The specific functional needs of the learner have to be ascertained by a needs analysis. Use, not merely usage, should be the objective of EFL teaching. Thus, this study argues that it is because lecturers in the English teaching cycle emphasized and privileged decontextualised grammar teaching, instead of equipping the students with ability to use the language for communication using authentic materials, and because they did not link English form to the social meaning where language is used, that the lessons can be described as largely unsuccessful. All this has a negative impact on the English students' writing in the EFL Libyan social contexts.



2.4 Document Analysis

2.4.1 Written Texts

As mentioned earlier, the written texts were collected from the second and third EFL Libyan students at AL-Thadi University, English Department. Following one of the objectives of this study, the purpose of collecting these written texts was to explore and show the dominant linguistic features that EFL Libyan English students make in their English writing, with the aim of showing how teaching and learning English structure in the Libyan social context have a negative impact on cohesive devices of the students' English writing. The document analysis would also enable intertextual analyses and triangulation with classroom observation and interview data.

The English written texts presented for analysis had three topics, and EFL students had to write at least a paragraph about each topic. In the first topic, EFL students had to write a paragraph about the saddest time in their lives. The instructions were: *Write a paragraph (80-100 words) about the saddest time in your life.* In the second topic, they had to write a paragraph comparing the place they are now living in with a place they lived before: *Write a paragraph (80-100 words) comparing the place you are now living in with a place you lived before.* In the third topic, they had to write to their neighbours apologizing letter about breaking one of their house windows: *While your neighbour is on holiday you accidentally break one of his windows. Write to him explaining how it happened and telling him what you have done to make the damage good.*

As we noted in the classroom observation analyzed above, the lecturers in the EFL classes privilege form more than meaning in their English teaching, and also do not link the English form to the social meaning, where language is used. This was reflected in the students' written exercises. As demonstrated in this section, one of the consequences of over-emphasis on decontextualized form is that students lack cohesion in their writing. They also have poor and limited control in the use of theme and rheme as grammatical resources and overall thematic progression (Martin & Rose 2004). Ultimately they fail to contextualize the topic. Furthermore, they do not use abstract participants and, in some cases, use of participants is unclear and disorderly. Therefore, students pay no attention to the thematic progression of the clauses in their writing. In the table presented below (Table 4.1), a summary of the difficulties that the EFL Libyan students have in their English writing is presented in order to show the dominant features that EFL students have in their English writing. The ties and connections indicated relate to grammatical devices, which affect cohesion in students' writing. The grammatical devices are: referencing and conjunctions, verb forms and spelling, theme and rheme structure, and contextualization of the topic.

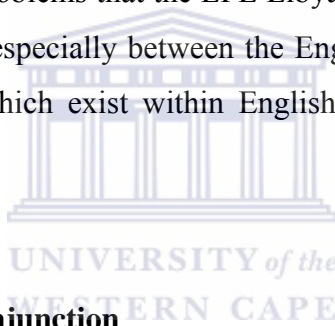
Therefore, in the following section, this study demonstrates some examples on how the EFL Libyan students in English writing lack in cohesion skills resulting from poor referencing and conjunctions, using incorrect verb forms, and incorrect spelling.

Table: 4. 1: A summary of the dominant features that EFL Libyan students have in the English writing.

Cohesion			Theme and textual meaning	
Referencing & Conjunction (participants)	verb forms	spelling	Theme & rheme structure	Contextualization the topic

4.2.1.1 Cohesion

As argued above, one of the problems that the EFL Libyan students have in their English writing is a lack of cohesion, especially between the English sentences. Cohesion refers to the ties and connections which exist within English texts (cf. Halliday and Hasan 1976).



4.2.1.1.1 Referencing and Conjunction

According to Eggins (1994), one of the cohesive resources of references refers to how the writer introduces participants and then keeps tracking them once they are in the text. Furthermore, Martin and Rose (2003) state that one identifies the presuming referent the text and then seeks to link all mentions of that participant. Therefore, the reference devices focused on this study is on the participants and how the EFL Libyan students failed to keep tracking them in their English writing when they appear in the text.

EFL Libyan students sometimes have difficulties in tracking participants while they are writing in English. They do not use these references (participants) correctly and properly, leading to lack of cohesion in their English writing. In the following examples show the EFL Libyan English students do not structure these features correctly:

I was seventeen years old. I and my family decided that to went to the beach in the last summer. While I, my father and my sister were playing apasket ball, they saw a little boy drowning in the sea. (Appendix 2: student 1)

How are you? I hope your health is good and your family are very well. I am writing to you this letter to apologize about what happened to your window, which my children had broken while my children were playing football in the street. We broken your windows, but we did not mean that. I know that was a bad behaviour. I promise you they will not play in the street again and we will play in the playground. I hope you forgive me about what happened and promise you I will change your broken windows. (Appendix 2: Student 3).

In the two examples presented above, the participants appear bolded in every clause. In the first example, the participants were the student and his family. In English clause order structure, writers normally present the other participants names before the writer's name as a kind of politeness. In this example, the student foregrounded himself as a writer before the other participant's names. The student may have been influenced by the first language structure. In Arabic language clause structure, the writer can put his name before the other participants' names. Furthermore, the student towards the end of the text uses the personal pronoun "*they*", which is difficult to retrieve. Thus, the identity of the people that saw the boy drown remains obscure. According to Eggins (1994), whenever a participant is mentioned in a text, the writer/speaker must signal to the reader/listener whether the identity of the participant is already known or not. Therefore, the student, in using "*they*", did not help us as readers to presume the reference of this participant. Thus, the interaction will run into problems between the writer and the reader.

The interaction problem is also evident in the second example. There is unnecessary repetition of some of the participants involved in the text. As an example, the student used the participant "*my children*" in different places instead of using one of the personal pronouns "*they*" and then keep tracking them as soon as they appear in the text. Therefore, the participant "*my children*" is written as if it is introducing new participants

when this is not the case. Furthermore, the use of the pronoun “*we*” does not make sense as he had earlier identified himself as a parent and not as one of the children. Students also used a personal pronoun “*they*” in the middle of the text with no previous reference in order to help the reader follow the text. We decode the identity of the pronouns by making the link back to the previous point in the text. Here, the student erred in using the personal pronoun “*they*”, which makes us, as readers, to have difficulty to link it to the previous points already mentioned in the text.

The participant tracking problem appears in most of the students written texts. In another example presented in the extract below (S1: Appendix: 2), we note the student had problems in introducing the participants and then fails to keep tracking them once they appear in the text. The student in this text puts himself and family as the first participants in the text. Here, the students did not highlight the relationship between him and the family in order to help the reader to later keep tracking them when they appear in the text. Here, again, the family seems not to be the student’s family because in the end of the text, we find that the student used “*they*” which could exclude him from the participant’s context. In addition to that, at the end, we also note that the student used the two pronouns “*they*” and “*we*” and this makes it difficult for us readers to link it back to the previous contexts. Furthermore, we also note that the student has been influenced by his first language, especially in using “*me*” instead of the pronoun “*I*”. In Arabic, the two pronouns have the same meaning, which is not the case in English. Had the teachers been using English and Arabic alternatively in classroom practice, which, as we saw in classroom observations, does not occur, this would have been highlighted, making students avoid such constructions in English.

When I was seventeen years old I and family spend our summer holiday on the beach, when me and my father were playing basketball we saw a little boy was drowning in the sea. I quickly ran to the rescuers who quickly came to the help. After a big struggle of the rescuers to save that boy. The boy died. So they decided that we wouldn’t spend our holiday on the sea, and I’ll never forget this bad moment.
(Appendix 2: Student 1)

Thus, this study reveals that the EFL Libyan students showed serious problem with participants' referencing. They sometimes did not use these references correctly, leading to lack of cohesion in their English writing. It was observed that this problem appeared in all of the written text analyzed (e.g. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6).

Another problem relates to textual cohesion as students do not use conjunctions to join clauses and to show the relationship between the clauses (Halliday and Hassen 1976). Martin and Rose (2003) stated that conjunctions look at inter-connections between the processes of adding, comparing, sequencing or explaining. Conjunctions help to create semantic unity and are also cohesive devices. The majority of the texts sampled in this study suggest that Libyan EFL students do not use semantic unity and conjunctions in their written English texts. In other words, Libyan students fail to take their readers through the logical steps in which they sequence or chain their events. This is what internal conjunctions help writers to do (cf. Martin and Rose, 2003).

For example, in the second topic presented earlier, the lecturer wanted the students to write a paragraph comparing the old and the new places that students live in. Here, students should have used some lexical items such as “on the other hand, in addition, however” among others, to compare and explain the old and the new places, and to help readers link the clauses to each other. In all the written English texts, this study noted that the EFL students do not benefit from using these conjunctions in order to make a systematic semantic meaning. The extract below presents some examples showing how the sampled texts lacked conjunctions:

Three years ago, I lived in a village in our house which was small with my family and I used to take along time from university which is in the town to go there and there are no shops there, so we decided to live in the town in the new big house which is very big. There are five room, big hall, wide kitchen, and the garden is the bottom of the house. The house is near of the park and behind the supermarket. And now I go to university by bus. There are many places to go to such as shops,

restaurant, and park. I like to live in the town, because it better than the village which I used to live in. (Appendix 2: Student 15).

Analyzing the structure of the text above, it could be understood that the student wanted to compare the old house with the new house. The student started presenting the old place and explained that it was small, far from the university, and there were no shops close to the house. Therefore, they decided to move to the town. Here, the student did not link the old place with the new place properly in his comparison in order to make the flow of the information move forward together. He instead explained each house separately, making inference on a comparison difficult. This could affect the semantic meaning and the coherence of the whole text. In the presentation of the new house, we note that the student started with the size of the house and then explained how many rooms were inside the new house, which was not the case in the previous part (old house). Therefore, the student in this text fails to tie the two parts together, which, in this case, is the old and new house. This can be done by using conjunctions such as “whereas” and “while”. When the student presented the old house, he should have linked it to the new house, especially as far as the number of rooms each had, which could help the reader to make semantic meaning as to why he moved to the new house. As an example, when he mentioned the size and rooms in the new house, he should also have included the number of rooms that were in the old house. Therefore, instead of explaining each house separately, he could have combined them in one clause as follows: “There are five rooms in the new house whereas the old house has only two or three rooms.” The student could also get benefit from using other conjunctions in the structure of the whole text. As an example, when he explained the new house, we note that he did not link the clauses with each other appropriately. For example, he wrote:

There are five room, big hall, wide kitchen, and the garden is the bottom of the house. The house is near of the park and behind the supermarket.

Here, the student could have used the conjunction “in addition” in order to link the two clauses together to form:

There are five rooms, [a] big hall, [a] wide kitchen, and the garden is [at] the bottom of the house. In addition to that, the house is near of the park and behind the supermarket.

Another example on the semantic and cohesive device problems comes from another student who, in his English writing, did not use conjunctions in order to keep the semantic unity flow of text moving forward as it should be, as presented in the following extract:

Three years ago I was lived in small village I use to take a long time when I go to the university. But I take a short time after living the country by buses. And in the village there is not any shops but in the country there is many places such as restaurants, shops, and parks. The country is very beautiful places than the village who will back living in after my finished of university. As in the country I take two minutes to arrived the city centre but in the village took a long time (Appendix 2: Student 8).

Here, the student also wanted to compare the old place with the new place. Following the structure of each single clause which appears in the text, we note that the student started with the old place and explained why this place was not suitable for him to live in. Then, he moved to explain the advantages of the new place. We note that there is no strong consistency between the clauses, which could make the semantic meaning very clear for the reader. In relation to the distance between the two houses and the university, the student wrote:

I use to take a long time when I go to the university. But I take a short time after living the country by buses.

Here, the student describes each house separately and does not join the comparative notion together in one clause using one of the conjunctions such as “while” and “however”. The student could have written:

I used to take a long time to go to the university while now it is very short by using the buses.

With regard to the amenities, the student wrote:

And in the village there is not any shops but in the country there is many places such as restaurants, shops, and parks.

Here we note that the student has moved to another argument which was not linked to the previous one. The student should have linked it with the previous argument using one of the conjunctions. It should have been:

In addition to that, there was no shop close [near] my old house while now there are many places such as restaurants, shops, and parks around my new house.

Thus, the findings showed that Libyan students have difficulties in English writing, especially in the conjunctions between the clauses, which affect coherence and cohesion in students' texts. In addition to this problem, the students also have problems in using the correct verbs in their English writing.

4.2.1.1.2 Verb Forms

Once verbs are used incorrectly, the text becomes meaningless as language and text are interrelated (Kembo-Sure 2004 cited in Tshotsho 2007)). Libyan students use incorrect tense and sometimes they also use different tenses within a sentence, which could violate cohesion in the students' texts, as can be observed in the following sentences:

- When I was seventeen years old I and family spend our summer holiday on the beach (Appendix 2: Student 2)

- I and my family decided that to went to the beach in the last summer (Appendix 2: Student 1)
- This accident made me to missed the examination (Appendix 2: Student 6)
- When I was seventeen years old I and my family decided to went in the holiday summer to the beach forget interesting and enjoyed ourselves (Appendix 2: Student 8)
- They will playing in the playground and again I am sorry (Appendix 2: Student 5)

In the clauses presented above, we see that the Libyan students use incorrect infinitives and tenses. Further, sometimes they combine two different tenses in the same clause incorrectly. This makes readers get confused. In the first clause above, the student started the clause with a past tense "*When I was seventeen years old*" and then later in the same clause used present tense "*I and family spend our summer holiday on the beach*". This is a contradiction in the English clauses structure. Even though this student had spent years learning English structure, he still lacks competence in communicative ability. We, therefore, want to argue here that if EFL lecturers explained to the students the English content by using the mother tongue, alternatively, some of the problems would not be very bad. This problem appears in most of the texts (e.g. 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 9).

In the second example, the student has a problem in the infinitive, which also leads to violation of cohesion in the English writing. The student puts the verb that comes after "to" in a past tense. The third example above showed how the student erred in putting the verb with "ing" after the modal verb which is not allowed in the English clauses structure. Therefore, the EFL Libyan students lack cohesion in their English writing. Incorrect use of verbs is also one of the problems the students have in English writing with reference to cohesion.

4.2.1.1.3 Incorrect Spelling

Incorrect spelling is a very serious problem with equally serious implications for writing. Incorrect spelling can be attributed to the fact that EFL students have insufficient mastery of the L2 and are not exposed to English reading and writing (Kembo-Sure 2004 cited in Tshotsho 2007). The written texts sampled in this study have many spelling mistakes, which could also affect the cohesion and the meaning of the texts. Some spelling mistakes that were observed in the samples analyzed are presented below:

- I am writing apolozig about break on of his window. The children play in street broken the window and not play again in the street becauss bahiver bad (Appendix 2: Student 10)
- The happened very trigic for me the people gethered around him caffin (Appendix 2: Student 11)
- My uncle died, this was first day went to a funarl (Appendix 2: Student 13)
- I am writing for you to apologaize for the happend and I'll explain how it happened. My children were playing in the street. Suddenly the football broke your wendow but they didn't main. I bromise you they don't... (Appendix 2: Student 13)
- I immedatily called the rescuers was stranger strong and a large (Appendix 2: Student 8)

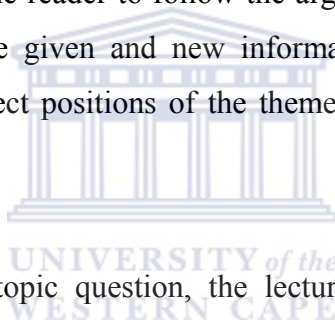
4.3.1.2 Theme and Textual Meaning

4.3.1.2.1 Theme and Rheme Structure

As we mentioned earlier, theme and rheme are two terms which represent the way in which information is distributed in a sentence. The definition of theme as given by Halliday (1985:39) is that it is the element which serves as “the starting-point for the message: it is what the clause is going to be about”. Theme, typically, contains familiar or ‘given’ information, which has already been mentioned somewhere in the text, or is familiar from the context (Eggins 1994:275). In other words, theme provides the settings for the remainder of the sentence – rheme. Rheme is the remainder of the message in a clause in which theme is developed. That is to say, rheme typically contains unfamiliar or new information. New information is knowledge that a writer assumes the reader does

not know, but needs to have in order to follow the progression of the argument (cf. Halliday 1994, Eggins 1994). Therefore, in a sentence, once the theme is identified, it becomes easy to identify the rheme, since it is everything else in a sentence which does not form part of the theme (Martin and Rose 2003).

Accordingly, in cohesive writing, ‘given’ information in a clause needs to be presented in theme position, which acts like a signpost signaling a reader where the meanings have come from and where they are going to. The new information needs to be located in rheme position. The balance and movement of a clause between theme and rheme is an essential component in composing a cohesive text. In the English written texts analysis, we noted that the EFL Libyan students fail to control the flow of information from theme to rheme, making it hard for the reader to follow the argument because there is no clear signpost directing between the given and new information. Below, we provide some examples regarding the incorrect positions of the theme and rheme in the EFL Libyan English written texts.



As an example, in the first topic question, the lecturer wanted students to write a paragraph about the saddest time in their lives. Here, as readers, we expect to find in the first sentence something relevant to the question in order to help us follow the information. Following the structure of all the texts written by the students, we noted that it is hard to find out the arguments students want to present. As an example, student 1, (text 1) started with the clause:

I was seventeen years old. I and my family decided that to went to the beach in the last summer.

We noted here that there is an incoherent relation between the topic that the lecturer presented and the information supplied by the student. There is no relevant information existing between the given topic lecturer and the information student is gives. This makes the interaction between the reader and the writer (student in this case) problematic

because there is no link between the topic and the information that the student supplies. Therefore, as readers, we might get lost, while following the argument in this text.

This problem appears in most of the EFL students' writing. Student 6 (text 2) wrote a paragraph comparing the place he lived in with the place he lived before, as required in the assignment. The student started his text with the following statement:

Two years ago, I was living in the village. The village was a beautiful place. My family were living there.

In this sentence, it is difficult to link what the student said to what the topic is. The student did not provide us with information we can use to link to his content the topic. It is difficult to link the new information, which appears in the text with the topic.

A part of the structure of the theme and rheme in the EFL writing, we noted also that some of the EFL students when writing in English always hold and hide the theme of their writing at the end of the text. For example, student number 14 (text 1) ended his paragraph with: ...boy died is the saddest time in my life. This sentence should be come earlier or relevant information given so that the reader can be prepared for what comes next. Therefore, the EFL Libyan students also have difficulties in structuring theme and rheme in their writing.

4.3.1.2.2 Contextualization of the Topic

Contextualization of the topic is another problem that the EFL Libyan students have in their English writing. This study noted that most of the EFL Libyan students failed to contextualize the topic, giving the impression that they did not understand what the question required from them. As Eggins (2004) notes, without contextual information, it is not possible to determine which meaning is being made. The problem of contextualization can be attributed to the students' lack of such knowledge and the

linguistic structures to express it. The following examples show how the EFL Libyan students in the Libyan social contexts performed in relation to contextualization.

I was seventeen years old. I and my family decided that to went to the beach in the last summer. While my father, my sister and I were playing apasket ball, they saw a little boy drowning in the sea. Immediatily my father trying to hilp him. But, he couldn't. After a big starggle of sercuers to save him the boy dead. Every one on the beach was very sad about what happened to that poor boy. His mother was cried very much and I was frightened (Appendix 2: Student 31 text 1).

Three years ago I lived in a village. I used to take a long time every day from university which is the town to go there and there are no shops there. Now I am living in a beautiful and big town. I go to the university in a short time by a bus. In the town there are many places to go there like shops, restaurants and parks. I love my new town I am living now, because it's better than a village I used to live in (Appendix 2: Student 2 text 2).

The first visit school when I was five years old. I and my grand father went to school. I felt very afraid. I and my grand father went to the gate felt fraghted from the strange faces and a large building. Then I took another gate and ran home. When I back home, I was crying and afraid. Later my grand father back home little later. He was surprise in t home. He found me stay near my mother very quite happy (Appendix 2: Student 5) (text 1).

In the first example presented above, we noted that there was nothing said about the topic given by the lecturer. We mentioned earlier that the lecturer wanted the students to write a paragraph about the saddest time in the students' lives. Through the structure of the text, it is hard to find any link between the text and the topic the lecturer gave. This shows that this student did not contextualize the topic due to the lack of this knowledge. Therefore, the student in this text failed to make logical relation between the topic and the meaning.

This problem was also observed in the second text presented above where the student failed to link what the lecturer wanted him to write about with the text he wrote. The lecturer wanted the student to compare the place he lived in with the place he is living in right now. Following the context of the text, we noted that there is nothing said about the differences existing between the two places.

Furthermore, in the third text presented above, we also noted that the student failed to link the topic with the meaning. The lecturer wanted the student to write about the saddest time in his life. Following the structure of the text, we noted that there is nothing mentioned in relation to the topic. This means that the student has a lack of cohesion in his writing, like the two previous students mentioned earlier.

Thus, following Christie (2002, 2005) and Eggins (1994), language is considered to be an instrument of communication discourse. Language and context, then, are interrelated and, hence, we are able to deduce context from text. In most of the written texts made by the students, we noted that it was hard for any reader to deduce meaning from the texts due to the low level of English competence of the students.

4.3.1.2.3 Mother Tongue Interference

In the analysis of the EFL Libyan students written English texts, we note another problem which may also have a negative impact in their English coherent writing. Sometimes, Libyan students use incorrect translation from their mother tongue (in this case Arabic) to English in order to sustain the process and prevent a complete breakdown. Direct translation is not necessarily a bad thing if properly used as a literacy mediation strategy (Banda 2003). Therefore, and, as mentioned earlier, in order to get access to the uncommonsense knowledge (in this case English), students need to understand the relations that exist between the two languages, especially in the lexical words meaning. In the following examples, we show how the Libyan students translate from their mother tongue in order to write in English.

Three years ago, I happened to me accident. It make me in risk mood. The accident happened in the street when I went to the school. While I cut the street there was a car. It come very fast, when saw the car from far I could not move of the car. The driver tried far away the car at me, but he couldn't do that because he was surprising from me in the road. He beat me on my leg, when he beat me, he didn't ran away. He take me to hospital. This accident made me to missed the examination. The accident broke my legs. When I was hearing about the examination, I was very sad because it happened two accident that year first the accident, second missed my examination (Appendix 2: Student 6 text: 1).

How are you? I hope you is good health and your family is very well. I am writing to you this letter to apologize. While my children were played football in the street, they broken your window. I don't know when they played in street but they didn't mean broken. You promise not played it he street again and they will played in the lay garden and I promise you for buy (Appendix 2: Student 8 text 3).

In the examples presented above, we note that the students follow the style of “thinking” in Arabic as L1 and writing in English as L2. This appears in many sentences. For example, in the text 1: sentence 1, the student puts “*accident*” as the main theme at the end of the sentence. This is contrary to the structure of the English clause in which theme should be the departure point of the sentence (cf. Halliday 1994, Eggins 1994). But the Arabic sentence structure accepts the theme to be at the end. Thus, we could argue that the student, in this sentence, follows the Arabic structure and keeps the theme at the end of the sentence.

4.2.2 Syllabus Design

In analyzing the English syllabus used in teaching English at AL-Thadi University, this study noted that this syllabus is very structural oriented. It lists items in terms of form structure and vocabulary, which are then set in situations and which usually integrate a variety of skills (e.g. writing and speaking). This type of syllabus represents the model of foreign language teaching at its beginning. It is selected and graded according to grammatical notions of simplicity and complexity, focusing only on one aspect of

language - formal language and grammar. There is no place for function, which would incorporate a broader view of language communication. This traditional approach has been characterized as product-oriented because it focuses on what is to be learnt or on products (see White 1988). In this approach, students are to do things which are unlikely to occur outside the classroom.

As we noted earlier (see Chapter Two) the approach to grammar is influenced by the systemic functional linguistic theory. Essentially, the theory sees language as a system of resources for making meaning in contexts. Thus, the grammar of a language, or what SFL calls the 'lexico-grammar', is seen not merely as a set of rules or patterns of syntax, but a set of agreed-on conventions intimately related to possible meanings, determined by contexts of situation embedded in contexts of culture in which language is used. To know a language, then, is to know the set of grammatical resources, such as the range of sentence patterns or word-level grammatical features, that one may choose from in a particular situation to achieve a particular purpose. Thus, what is most important to know and teach about grammatical patterns or features are their functions and use in discourse - their meaning potential, what each can achieve in communication, in what contexts, both situational and cultural, and for what purposes, and, conversely, when and where each might be used.

Thus, the teaching English syllabus should include grammatical form with the functions of using 'meaning'. Rules should not be learned in isolation but should be linked with the functional uses of language. Use, not merely usage, should be the objective of the English lecturers in the Libyan social contexts.

Following the context of the English syllabus used in teaching English in Libya, this study noted that at all levels, starting from first year to the fourth year, the syllabus concentrated on form, rather than on meaning, which could give a chance to the EFL Libyan students to improve their communication on the target language. As an example in teaching grammar to the first year English students, we found that the students have to

master the basic structure of the English language. Students are to be acquainted with the following points:

1. Kinds of nouns, number, gender and case.
2. Kinds of pronouns, number, gender and case.
3. The articles: definite, indefinite and zero article.
4. Adjectives: forms, position, order, comparative and superlative.
5. Adverbs: forms, position, order, meaning, comparative and superlative.
6. Verbs: main verbs, auxiliary verbs and modal auxiliaries.
7. Active and passive voice.
8. Conditionals.

Another example comes from the teaching of phonetics to the second year English students. We noted that the objective of the course is to encourage students to learn more advanced phonetics in their bid to acquire the native accent. Thus, the students must be acquainted with the following topics:

1. Articulation phonetics
 - Vocal Organs
 - Phonetic alphabets and transcription
 - Articulation of sounds
2. Consonants of English
3. English vowels
4. Suprasegmental features

In conclusion, the observation is that the syllabus used in teaching English is mostly concentrated on teaching language forms and practically ignores the application and

functional qualities that could give a chance for the EFL students to interact with the target language freely.



Chapter Five

Data Presentation and Analysis: Lecturers Questionnaires

5.0 Introduction

As mentioned earlier, questionnaires were submitted to the lecturers through the Internet and each EFL lecturer in English Department at AL-Thadi University received a copy in the e-mail. The questionnaire had 12 questions, each covering one aspect of the teaching and learning of English (see Appendix: 3). These questionnaires were used as a way of triangulation - to see whether the information gathered from classroom observation and document analysis would be reflected. Further, it was aimed at soliciting lecturers' view on students' EFL literacy practices and their expectations of the students' English language competence were. Thus, from this category of data source, we present the findings in five thematic areas in the following sections.



5.1 Students' Motivation for Learning English

The first question to lecturers focused on the Libyan students' motivation of learning English. It was envisioned that students' motivation for learning EFL would account for students' attitudes and efforts to learning. This is particularly so because literature (e.g. Cope & Kalantzis 2000:33) reports of there being enough evidence that "people do not learn anything well unless they are both motivated to learn and believe that they will be able to use and function with what they are learning in some way that is in their interest."

On the aspect of motivation, all the respondents agreed that learning EFL in Libya had some social benefits; chief of which were employment and the need to study abroad. The following extracts point to this observation:

To get a job as a teacher in a school, to work as a translator or secretary, to go abroad on a scholarship (Appendix 3: Lecturer 3).

The first and foremost motivation is an attractive job with private companies or foreign organizations. Second, using English to communicate with foreigners on phone, Internet, etc and enjoy films, music, TV programmes, etc. Third, become an English teacher. Fourth, (being able to use the international link language) to be highly fashionable elite in the society and be in the higher strata of the society (Appendix 3 Lecturer 2).

In this question, it would seem that the lecturers speak on behalf of students, instead of students speaking for themselves. Again, it would seem that lecturers make many assumptions about students' motivation for learning English. For example, the lecturer in the first extract would seem to assume that all students might need to work outside Libya. Again, the issue of using English to communicate with foreigners or even look like a 'fashionable elite' would seem to make assumptions that all foreigners are fashionably secure, they can speak English, and that speakers of all other languages are 'unfashionable' hence not elite enough. There are other issues raised such as enjoying films or music, which would also seem quite out of place given the Libya's social contexts, in terms of what is appropriate and what is inappropriate in this predominantly Islamic culture.

The expression 'would seem' in this context is not used accidentally but on purpose. First, if students were asked the same question, the answers would not have been much different from the responses the lecturers have provided. For example, at the time of this study, one of the lecturers had already done a survey at Al Thadi University on why students wanted to learn English. This lecturer included the findings of his study as a response to the question on students' motivation in the lecturers' questionnaire. Here the lecturer reports on two aspects, namely, why students like to learn English and why students need to learn English. On why students like to learn English, the lecturer reports that 90% of the Libyan students like to learn English because it is an international

language, and the remaining 10% account for other minor reasons such as English being an active foreign language in Libya and being a well taught foreign language, to mention but two.

On the students' need for learning English, the lecturer reports that 36% of the Libyan students need to learn English because of its symbolic social capital - "it will make them better persons in their career", 36% because it is the language of information, 30% because they need it for their work; 30% need English for their business; 30% for their study in a foreign country; and 10% need English "to travel in the world" (Appendix 3 Lecturer 4).

From the data, it is apparent that students' motivation for learning EFL revolves around the increasing local literacy demands towards English in Libya, and the global connectedness phenomenon discussed by Cope and Kalantzis (2000), which considers literacy in particular social contexts as enveloped in a constant tension between local diversity and global connectedness. The fact that "the languages needed to make meaning are radically changing in three realms of our existence: our working lives, our public lives (citizenship), and our personal lives (life worlds)" (Cope & Kalantzis 2000:10). It is within this framework that both students and lecturers consider English not only as a viable common language among the members of the global community, but also as a language of empowerment for the effective participation in the three realms of our existence cited above.

In the Libya's social contexts, these changes have happened in a manner, which is unprecedented given the recent shift of Libya's foreign policy towards the west. We have seen from Chapter One that following the lifting of the 15 years of the economic and political sanctions, Libya has created an opportunity for the country to play a significant role in the world socio-economic stage. Because English has increasingly become the language of the market and globalization as well as the language of the new world order (Banda 2003; Fairclough 1995, 2001), it is becoming increasingly important for Libya to

consider English as one of the essential languages for the country's participation in this new world economic order. This realization has not only translated into the design of English curriculum in schools, but it has also created an increased local demand of English language literacy among the Libyan people.

5.2 Opportunities Provided Academically, Socially, or Economically for EFL Learning in Libya

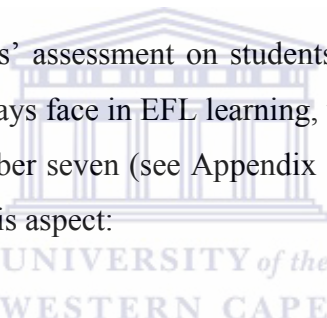
The issue of opportunities was intended to focus on how the teaching and learning environment, including lecturers' practices and the university's social context, support or inhibit the students' learning of or meaning making in EFL. In this case, the lecturers acknowledged the availability of the institutional structures, which support the teaching and learning of EFL, as the following extracts reveal:

- i. *There are many opportunities for learning English in Libya. All the colleges are moderately equipped with modern equipment to teach English. Language labs with TV, tape-recorder, OHP, computers, etc. are widely available in Libya these days. In addition to these formal conveniences, there are satellite TV channels everywhere with different programmes in English for entertainment and education. For those who want to go for higher studies, there are so many chances provided by the Libyan universities to go abroad at the expense of the state (Appendix 3 Lecturer 2).*
- ii. *In Libya, as far as my knowledge goes, the government has been spending a considerable amount of money to provide quality English language education. Recruiting foreign teachers evinces that the government pays attention to pay and get quality English language education (Appendix 3 Lecturer 4).*

These available learning resources have been acknowledged as invaluable for students' learning of English, but the paradox here is that this confirmation is done against the shrill claim from the lecturers that students' English language performance is unimpressive in Libya (see Section 4.4.3 below). What can be deduced here is that this learning resources, though are necessary, are not sufficient for successful language learning in Libya's social contexts. This phenomenon is discussed in Chapter Six within the context of the textual relationship (interconnectedness of historical, social, and cultural aspects, to mention a few) required in addressing students' literacy in a particular social cultural context (cf. Fairclough 2001).

5.3 Problems of Learning English among Libyan EFL Learners

This aspect focuses on lecturers' assessment on students' learning practices and on the kind of difficulties students always face in EFL learning, which, in the questionnaire, was also addressed in question number seven (see Appendix 3). The following is a summary of the lecturers' responses on this aspect:

- 
- i. English has still only EFL status. Save in the classroom, the student has very little opportunity for interaction in English because Libya has very traditional societal norms, requiring use of the mother tongue at all levels.
 - ii. Late introduction of English at school.
 - iii. Poor or insufficient teaching at school level coupled with lack of competent teachers in early classes.
 - iv. Inappropriate or dysfunctional syllabi.
 - v. Absence of the right atmosphere at home or in the country to speak *Arabic* (the respondent meant English).

Going through these responses, there are a number of issues worth highlighting. Firstly, syllabi structures undermine students' acquisition of academic literacy in English. This is why one lecturer commented that students just want to pass examinations.

Most of the syllabi offered encourage memorisation, not cognition. 95% of the students just want to 'pass' and get a certificate (Appendix 3: Lecturer 3).

Students' wanting to just pass examination - "diploma syndrome" - has a negative effect on students' approach to academic literacy learning in English. Students' 'diploma syndrome' may have something to do with lack of clear educational goals of the English syllabi design in Libyan schools as implied in statement (iv) above.

Secondly, lecturers traditionally seem to consider the use of mother tongue (i.e. Arabic) as a hindrance, instead of a mediation strategy to EFL learning. This argument is taken up in Chapter Six and considered in line with the multilingual approach to EFL learning.

Thirdly, there is the issue of access to English literacy resources. One thing which is not directly pointed out but implied in the lecturers' responses on this question is that access to these literacy resources is unlikely to be the same for every student in the university. Thus, availability of learning opportunities is not enough, there is need to know how such resources are made accessible by all students. For example, the issue of late introduction (see statement (ii) above) seems to make a strong point, but the questions still remains; would earlier students' introduction to English solve the problem? Do all the schools have the same English language-learning environment? Do all schools have equal teacher-student ratio? The last two aspects are implied in statement (v) above (Absence of the right atmosphere at home or in the country to speak *Arabic* (the respondent meant English)).

These arguments can be summed up in one sentence: social inequality has a major role to play in students' difficulties to learning English. It may well be incorrect to assume that all students have or are being exposed to the same learning environment and that they are equally disadvantaged, even if such students study at the same university. The role of home or family background should not be underrated. The parallel argument is that

students' motivation towards English language learning may not be the same to all the students. Some students, because of their family backgrounds, may have higher expectation towards English than others. This will also translate into the amount of effort individual students put in the learning of the language.

There is also the question of students' individual experiences, "the different subjectivities, interests, intentions, commitments, and purposes that students bring to learning" (Cope & Kalantzis 2000:18). All these have a space in the students' learning process and, therefore, cannot be ignored (this aspect is discussed further in Chapter Six).

5.4 Difficulties in Adopting Communication Activities in Teaching and Learning English in Libya's Social Context

On difficulties in adopting communication activities in teaching and learning English in Libya's social contexts, lecturers seem to reiterate the issues raised in Section 5.4 above on Libyan learners' problems in learning English. However, there are other dimensions, which seem to emerge in the responses to this question, hence, the need to present and analyze these responses, which are summarized below.

- i. Arabic is still the norm in Libya, unlike countries like India where English is the official language of communication. Also Libyan society is still highly monolithic, making it very resistant to innovations.
- ii. All the official communications are in Arabic, people speak to each other in Arabic, and even foreigners learn Arabic for their survival.
- iii. The feeling that English is a European language and it is against Arabic come in the way on many occasions. For some, English is a social taboo.

The implication of these views are discussed in Chapter Five, suffice to say here that what lecturers seem to suggest is that Libya's students have EFL learning difficulties because they do not consider English a dominant literacy. In other words, students do not

give English its acclaimed international status as a language of empowerment and global literacy. To these lecturers any meaningful learning of English cannot take place if students do not want to forget their own cultural background and knowledge, which revolves around the use of Arabic language. In other words, if students want to learn English then they should throw their Arabic through the window!

It is also worth noting here that success or failure of English programmes in Libya is judged in comparison, and in the contexts of other countries in the world (statement [i]). Lecturers seem oblivious of the reality that Libya has its own cultural values, whereby certain things are more highly valued than others. One may ask and rightly so, is English a highly valued or dominant literacy in Libya? What should not be forgotten here is that in Libya, as in many other Arab states, it is Arabic which is the dominant literacy and, thus, highly valued. If people cannot speak English in the streets, it does not mean that they are unintelligent. It simply means that they have their own valued literacy practices, which matter most to them. If something needs to be done to help Libyan people acquire literacy practices in English, then from the starting point should be what they already know, and Arabic is what they know.

However, prohibition in using the first language as a resource in the EFL Libyan classes was noticed in most of the classroom observations. Lecturers wanted the Libyan students to use only English as a resource in order to get access to literacy. For example, in the first year phonetics class, we noted that the lecturer from time to time asked the students to use only English when they interact and communicate with each other. This means that the lecturer believed that using the L1 in the classroom would hinder foreign language learning, in this case English. In addition to that, we also noted that some lecturers in the EFL classes forbade students to use their background knowledge and experiences as resources in order to get involved in interaction and to get access to new knowledge. This was evident in the second year writing class when one of the students wanted to use his background knowledge but the lecturer stopped him from doing that (see Appendix 3).

5.5 Lecturers' Efforts in addressing Students' Learning Difficulties

On lecturers' efforts to address students' learning difficulties, this aspect also links to issues raised in question 10 relating to lecturers' strategies in ensuring successful implementation of the English language learning (see appendix:3). Lecturers' responses to this question seem to reflect two main arguments: first, lecturers seem to do their best to address students' learning difficulties and, secondly, those students' persistent problems must be a product of a mythical source. This is certainly not from what the lecturers might or might not be doing as these responses imply:

- i. *Encourage them to use English as much as possible during university hours.*
- ii. *Give them extra work, inviting their attention to TV and Internet programmes in English (Appendix 3 Lecturer 3).*
- iii. *I try to make the classes interesting to enable the students to enjoy the materials they learn so that they will be tempted to use the language. Discussions and debates on current affairs and interesting topics, and literary competitions are conducted frequently to make them have interest in English as a live language. Interactive programmes are introduced to make the students express themselves in English (Appendix 3 Lecturer 2).*
- iv. *Targeting the skills, giving them practical insights into language, using TfU framework of teaching, using tailor-made material, needs analysis and restructuring the courses etc... are some of the efforts that I have been putting in (Appendix 3 Lecturer 4).*
- v. *As a teacher I give them confidence and make them aware of immense opportunities they would get after learning English (Appendix 3 Lecturer 6).*

vi. *I encourage the students to actively participate in the lecture by asking questions, giving examples etc (Appendix 3 Lecturer 3).*

vii. *Giving topics to discuss and debate, encouraging the students to participate in the dialogues by means of making provoking suggestions or negative comments on the topic. For example, arguing that smoking is a good habit will make even the weaker students to say something about it. Giving erroneous remarks and statements for their correction to inspire them to use their knowledge about the language. For example, wrong expressions like "No smoke", "Excusing me", etc that require the error analysis techniques (Appendix 3 Lecturer 2).*

It would be interesting to know how the lecturers manage to do all these things with students who are largely described as linguistically challenged. How do students participate in these discourses given their level of English? What seems to be happening here is that while the lecturers acknowledge students' deficiencies in English (by the reasons they give) the lecturers want to create an impression that there is nothing wrong with their approaches. When the researcher's questions probe lecturers' own discursive practices, lecturers strive to construct different discourses (implying that it is the students' faults).

The above responses also emphasized the idea of students' participation in classroom discourse. The idea of participation is a novel one, but how actively students participate in these discussions is not clear, going by the lecturers' own responses. For example, it is not clear which roles students and lecturers play in a classroom discourse. There is a danger here that students could become participants in unequal relations of power and dominance. This is especially the case where it is the lecturers who claim to be in good control of the code used in the classroom.

In fact, this was evident in the EFL classroom observations presented earlier (see 4.2). The activity structure gives lecturers almost total control of the classroom dialogue and social interaction. This shows the power status of the lecturer in the classroom. Thus, the control of the turn taking in the classroom is dominated by the lecturer. It is the lecturer who initiated the utterance, received responses from the student, and, sometimes, followed by giving an acceptance or acknowledgement.

There are other contentious issues, for example, the idea of “*giving erroneous remarks and statements for their correction to inspire them to use their knowledge about the language ...wrong expressions like "No smoke", "Excusing me', etc that require the error analysis techniques*” (see statement vii above). This sounds interesting, although the lecturer seems to make an assumption that the students know what is a correct or an incorrect expression in a given particular context. Also, it can be noted that there is more focus on grammatical accuracy than to the social aspect of language use - context of use of such expressions, who makes these expressions, in which mode (spoken or written) etc. The contradictions which seem to be implied in the lecturers’ responses in this question become apparent from the extracts below where the lecturers explain how they perceive the link between classroom lessons with students’ real learning experiences.

5.6 Linking Classroom Lessons with Students’ Real Learning (of other subjects) or with Real Life Experience

As previously mentioned, the contradiction between what the lecturers claim to be doing, and what seem to be happening, or at least reported to be happening, becomes glaringly obvious in the lecturers’ own admissions of the realities of students’ learning experiences presented below. In this case, the lecturers were responding to the question on how they would link classroom lessons with students’ real learning (of other subjects) or with real life experience.

- i. Apparently there is no link at all. In the university where I teach each teacher has his or her own syllabus which may or may not relate to what*

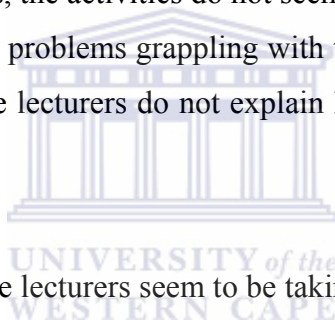
else is being taught to them, or to the outside world in general. Each teacher has his or her 'own' syllabi and methods that stand in isolation with respect to the rest of the curriculum (Appendix 3 Lecturer 3).

- ii. They are provided with the assignments that enable them to use English in their real life. For example, they will be asked to write invitation letters for the various social occasions like birthday party, house-warming, New Year celebrations, wedding party, etc; thanks-giving notes, congratulatory notes, condolence notes, etc; leave letters, applications, replies to the letters and notes they receive, etc on a regular basis whenever any such occasions come up (Appendix 3 Lecturer 2).*
- iii. They will be asked to use English in their conversations with their classmates, and they will be given assignments to go to the net cafes and check the websites to collect information on the topics they learn. Extra-curricular activities like publishing little magazines with students' articles and write-ups will be encouraged to make them use their own proficiency to express their creative ideas in English (Appendix 3 Lecturer 2).*
- iv. For instance, after teaching the 'Distribution Theory' in Phonology, I have asked the students to reflect on the Libyan Arabic in the light of the theory. This encouragement has enabled them to feel the theory very closely. Later, I asked to look into some other languages accessing some websites. That has boosted their understanding of the theory and their working knowledge of the theory (Appendix 3 Lecturer 4).*

The first extract gives an impression that there is no link between what students learn and their real life experiences. One explanation for this impression could be that other subjects use Arabic as a medium of instruction (MoI). Thus, English is not at all required for a student's academic survival. Thus, increased literacy levels in English may not be a priority to students.

The issue of different components in the English curriculum to support or complement each other is also crucial. “[E]ach teacher has his or her ‘own’ syllabi and methods that stand in isolation with respect to the rest of the curriculum” (see statement (1) above). This argument can be looked at in the context of the tension between skills versus practice approach to literacy (see Lillis 2001, Street 2001). The lecturers perceive literacy in EFL as isolated skills decontextualised from the social context in which literacy takes place (see 4.2).

Arguments provided in statements (ii) to (iv) above seem to present a different picture from the one presented in statement (i). The range of activities described here requires not only adequate control of language, but also good insight of the culture of the language in which one is writing in. Thus, the activities do not seem to be realistically happening in a situation where students have problems grappling with the language of communication. Also, it is worth noting that the lecturers do not explain how students are able or unable to perform these activities.



In summary one can say that the lecturers seem to be taking a defensive approach in what is happening rather than reflecting a real situation. Such an approach makes the lecturers to participate unknowingly in the enactment and perpetuation of the unequal relations in the classroom discourse (Van Dijk 1993, 2001).

Chapter Six

Findings and Discussion

6.0 Introduction

As mentioned in Chapter One, this study carried out a linguistic and textual analysis of English classroom interaction at AL-Thadi University in Libya. The objectives of this study included to explore Christie's curriculum macrogenres - the dominant classroom discursive practices - and to identify and describe the dominant linguistic features in students' written texts. Furthermore, this study aimed at finding out how the available genres and discourses are made use of during these interactions, and to see how supportive the curriculum and the English syllabi are to the teaching and learning process. A further objective was to establish the textual and interdiscursive relationship of the dominant styles, genres, and discourses of students' in spoken and written texts. Finally, the study aimed at developing a critique to the concept of (English) "appropriateness" (see Fairclough 1995) with a view to suggesting appropriate ways of improving the teaching and learning of the English language in the Libyan social context.

In achieving these objectives therefore, this study sought to address all the research questions, which aimed at finding out and exploring: i) whether Christie's curriculum macrogenres are applicable in EFL classrooms; ii) whether the theories, methods and approaches currently in use address the needs of the Libyan lecturers and students; iii) what are the dominant, appropriate, and inappropriate language features in students' spoken and written discourse; iv) how the design of the syllabus and of the Libyan English textbooks address the students' language learning requirements; and v) how the Libyan social cultural context influences the students' learning of spoken and written discourse (i.e. linguistic, textual, and interdiscursive relationships).

As presented in Chapter Two, this study used an interdisciplinary conceptual framework composed of critical linguistic theories namely: Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) (Halliday 1985, 1994; Eggins 2004) and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) (Fairclough 1995, 2001; Wodak and Meyer 2001). Furthermore, this study used some aspects of Christie (1997, 2001, 2002, 2005) and Bernstein's (1990, 1996, 2000) Classroom Discourse Analysis as an extension work of SFL. These linguistic theories emphasize the social aspect of language, in that, language plays a central role within social phenomena and is considered as a part of material social process. In addition to that, these theories also involve looking at both language form and language function.

From the data presented in Chapter Four and Chapter Five, and, in view of the framework used in this study, the discussion in this chapter is also constructed around eight thematic areas: dynamics of classroom discourse interaction in Libya; the applicability of Christie's curriculum macrogenres in EFL classroom; lecturers' discursive practices (i.e. lecturers' discursive practices, which privilege English as form only approach to literacy learning of EFL); appropriacy of English syllabus and lecturers' perception of EFL literacy; lecturers' contradictory claim between their perception of students' discourse performance and the real classroom situation; hegemonic influence of English among the lecturers; and lecturers' approach to EFL literacy in Libya. The discussion below ties up the various arguments obtaining in the previous two chapters.

6.1 Dynamics of Classroom Discourse Interaction in Libya

As mentioned in Chapter Two, the fundamental assumption behind this study is that language is considered to be a social semiotic. Christie (2002) found out that while learning happens in different semiotic systems, the principal resource available to teachers and students with which to achieve educational goals is language. It is in the language of the classroom that a great deal of work will go on towards negotiating, understanding, clarifying tasks, exploring sources of difficulty, and assessing students' progress.

Further, in terms of using semiosis system, Christie argues that the uses of language need to be understood along with uses of the other semiotic systems. In this study, we argue and demonstrate that in most of the classrooms analyses, lecturers in EFL classes rarely use (if at all) or take advantage of the available semiotic sources such as English classroom equipments (Labs) or any authentic material (real context). Moreover, since it is discouraged, lecturers do not get any benefit from the L1 - Arabic in Libya's context. Such available resources, we argue, might extend the EFL students' understanding of the English content or help lecturers in clarifying their educational goals or assessing students' progress. In the EFL classroom discourse practice, we note that lecturers use only English language structure (form) as a resource to explore sources of difficulty and to achieve educational goals. Therefore, EFL lecturers in the Libyan social context fail to link language with social meaning.

Furthermore, as we mentioned earlier, Christie (2002) showed that there are two important responsibilities for any conscientious teacher: to clarify goals for teaching and to ensure the goals are met. Also, the author notes that a good deal of careful thought must go into establishing what the actual purpose is for teaching the content. According to Christie, teachers, generally, are responsible for the directions taken in the teaching-learning activity. They are also responsible for the pedagogical goals, and they largely shape the pacing of activity as well as the assessment of students' performance (cf. Christie, 2005). As demonstrated in the classroom observations, EFL lecturers did not give attention and thought for establishing what the actual purposes for teaching English are, and what kinds of knowledge EFL Libyan students may need in order to improve their English communication ability. The lecturers seem to only follow the instructions of their curriculum syllabus, which mostly concentrate on English as a form.

6.2 Applicability of Christie's Curriculum Macrogenres in EFL Classroom

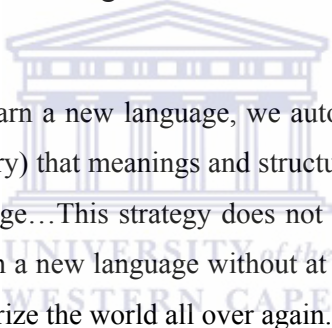
As mentioned earlier, this study draws on systemic SFL and, in particular, Christie's work, which in turn builds on Bernstein's model of pedagogic practice. Christie extends Bernstein's model to differentiate registers in classroom talk. She suggests two registers

(regulative & instructional). The function of the regulative register is to guide and direct the behaviour of the pedagogic subjects; its functions will have been achieved when at the end of a curriculum macrogenre, the subjects are enabled to do certain new things, where these are realized in instructional register choices. Christie tracks the development of these two registers in different contexts, showing how the lessons start essentially in the regulative register with the teacher telling the learners what they will do, and then moves into the instructional register as they engage with the content. As mentioned earlier, this study used these two macrogenres in order to analyze and demonstrate how lecturers in EFL classes construct their stages to accomplish their tasks. This study notes that in a foreign language situation where English isn't having enough exposure and is neither used widely communication, the curriculum macrogenre and the procedures of the two registers differ from Christie's observations. We realized in the EFL situations observed, the 'instructional register' is always foregrounded and made dominant in the curriculum initiation whereas Christie's studies suggest dominance of the regulative register. We argue that in EFL macrogenres, unlike what Christie envisaged, the two registers are working with two languages and two cultures, which are not always compatible. Of more critical note is that EFL lecturers in Libya's social contexts ignored Arabic language and culture in dealing with the two registers. For instance, the first order or regulative register could have been done in Arabic to enable students to understand the goals for teaching-learning activities, and also a way to enhance and maintain the direction of the activities. The second order or instructional register could have also benefited if translation of texts in Arabic in which cohesive devices are in use as a way to introduce English.

In addition to the regulative and instructional registers structure, Christie argues that a successful teaching-learning activity occurs when there is a very intimate association of the two registers at significant development stages across the genre, or across the macrogenre. She further suggested that these two registers work in patterned and predictable ways to bring the pedagogic activity into being, to establish goals, to introduce and sequence the teaching and learning of the field of knowledge at issue, and to evaluate the success with which the knowledge is learned. In this way, each of the

regulative and instructional registers have their own field, tenor, and mode realizations in the language choices made in classroom interaction. In Libya, these are available in two languages, but lecturers do not use Arabic as a resource to access English tenor, field, and mode. In other words, students do not benefit from the knowledge they already have in Arabic language and culture with regard to field, tenor, and mode.

It is much easier for an EFL student to start learning a second language if the student's past experiences and knowledge of the world are brought aboard. Several researchers have come to the same conclusion in this area. Even though English should be the main language in the classroom, both as the language of instruction and communication, the researchers seem to agree that occasional use of L1 may be beneficial. Swan (1985:96) presented an argument in favour of using L1 in EFL teaching saying:



when we set out to learn a new language, we automatically assumed (until we have evidence to the contrary) that meanings and structures are going to be broadly similar to those in our language...This strategy does not always work, of course...it makes possible for us to learn a new language without at the same time returning to infancy and learning to categorize the world all over again.

Thus, this study sees that the teaching of English in EFL classes seems inadequate, and students do not seem to benefit from the English teaching curriculum since EFL lecturers treat the students' L1 as an obstacle to L2 learning. Therefore, rather than viewing L1 use by EFL learners as totally counter-productive or unacceptable. Lecturers should consider that the use of L1 may be beneficial for certain communicative functions.

6.3 Lecturers' Discursive Practices

From the data presentation and the ensuing discussion in Chapters Four and Chapter Five, English in Libya's EFL classrooms is the dominant literacy, and, in the views of the lecturers, the background experience that students bring to the university is not

considered as knowledge at all. This privileging of English, on the one hand, and the devaluing of students' background knowledge, (e.g. Arabic language and culture), on the other hand, work against the students' acquisition of EFL literacy. Relating to the concept of commonsense knowledge (i.e. knowledge that is familiar and readily available) and uncommonsense (i.e. unfamiliar, even esoteric) knowledge discussed earlier, EFL lecturers in the Libyan social context cannot ignore Arabic. This is because, as long as English is (and will still be) a foreign language to Libyan students, it will remain uncommonsense knowledge. There is the issue of relevance of such materials to the students' cultural background. For example, responding to the questionnaire, lecturers reported the availability of EFL teaching and learning resources.

In addition to these formal conveniences, there are satellite TV channels everywhere with different programmes in English for entertainment and education (Questionnaire. Appendix 3 Lecturer 2).

It can be noted that the question of cultural background seems to emerge here. Having English TV and radio programmes, whether for entertainment or educational purposes, is not a guarantee that students' other learning experiences are considered. For example, one fact is that students are familiar with Arabic more than they are with English. Thus, it is not known how such programmes introduce students into any education material from what they (students) know (i.e. Arabic) into what they need to know (i.e. English). This aspect again can be related to the concept of 'commonsense knowledge' versus 'uncommonsense knowledge' discussed by Christie (2002). The former refers to knowledge 'that is familiar and readily available' while the latter refers to unfamiliar, even esoteric, and it involves use of specialised or technical language'. In the case of students in Libya's social contexts, Arabic is their commonsense knowledge, while English is uncommonsense knowledge. The transformation from the uncommon to commonsense knowledge is not always a clear-cut matter; it involves intertextual relationship - interconnectedness of historical, social, cultural aspects, among others - in addressing students' literacy in particular social cultural contexts (cf. Fairclough 2001).

Therefore the role of home or family background including students' commonsense knowledge, in this case Arabic, is part and parcel of the students' individual experiences - "the different subjectivities, interests, intentions, commitments, and purposes that students bring to learning" (Kalantzis 2000:18) - and, hence, it cannot be ignored.

To sum up this argument, we need to appeal to the question of social inequality, which is also implied in students' access to school literacy in the home or community environment. The caveat that has been made earlier is that it cannot be assumed that students come from exactly similar home backgrounds. Therefore, the manner in which they might have been exposed to school literacy in EFL may not exactly be the same. Thus, this unequal access to school literacy at home is bound to impact on students' literacy performance at the university. Lecturers observed in this study do not seem sensitive to students' individual differences that they bring to the university. This is because the nature of tasks they set in the classroom usually involves group responses. Such tasks may not be appropriate in all situations, especially in situations where determining differences of students' individual background knowledge is crucial in knowing the kind of assistance individual students require in EFL learning.

The aspect of students' background knowledge has also a strong connection to students' motivation towards English language learning. As pointed out earlier, some students, because of their family backgrounds may have higher expectation towards English than others. This will also translate into the amount of effort individual students put in the learning of the language. If lecturers do not have a mechanism of identifying and being sensitive to students' different learning experiences, then their (lecturers') action may simply amount to the perpetuation of the existing inequality in EFL learning experiences. In turn, and in the long run, this may translate into the production and reproduction of social inequality, which is bound to structure the Libya social cultural set up (cf. Van Dijk 1993, Fairclough 1995, 2001).

From the data in Chapter Five, we have noted that lecturers' understanding of EFL literacy is what influences their discursive practices. We have noted in classroom observations, for example, that lecturers view English language teaching as the provision of grammatical items, such teaching, and, therefore, could only be applicable in the traditional methods, where lecturers dominate classroom interactions as in the case of Libya's social context. In this method, the lecturer initiates the interaction and seldom are there any exchanges, not only between lecturers-students-lecturers, but also between students. The role of the lecturer is a traditionally authoritarian one of regulating and controlling all classroom discourse practices, which effectively translates into the control of what the student should or should not do. The role of the students, on the other hand, is that of an obedient recipient of the lecturers' instructions. This method of teaching is not favoured in the interdisciplinary approach followed in this study.

Thus, according to Savignon (1983:8-9) communication is "dynamic rather than... static... this also refers to communication which should take place in the classroom." In other words, such communication has to involve what Savignon further refers to as "the negotiation of meaning between two or more persons. It is context specific. Communication takes place in an infinite variety of situations, and success in a particular role depends on one's understanding of the context and on prior experience of a similar kind". Such understanding can be difficult to achieve in a situation where students, as participants, always play a prescribed role of being recipients in classroom communicative events.

The central characteristics of competence in communication in Savignon's view are associated with the dynamic interpersonal nature of communicative competence and its dependence on the negotiation of meaning between two or more persons who share, to some degree, the same symbolic system. The negotiation of meaning in the basis of equal sharing of meaning between students and the lecturer in Libya's social context does not seem to happen because of two reasons: firstly, the relations between students, as learners, and lecturer, as mentors, is that of power and dominance, with the latter as a

powerful participant in the classroom discourse; and secondly, the fact that the lecturer seems to be oblivious of the negative effects his powerful role (in the classroom interaction) has in the students' learning makes him (the lecturer) become an agent of the enactment and perpetuation of this power imbalance discussed earlier (cf. Van Dijk 1993).

Lecturers' instruction privileges some students more than others, particularly in the choice of topics. As an example, in the fourth year English classroom, we noted that the interaction between the lecturer and the students happened only between one student and the lecturer, since the topic under discussion was around 'smoking', and only one male student seemed to be conversant with it. Furthermore, the lecturer organized all the activities in these lessons and students had nothing to do, except to follow the lecturers' instructions.

Another example on lecturer dominance was the phonetics class. In this class, the lecturer was the one who presented the words and pronounced them. There was no space for the students to be involved in choosing of any of the words that might have posed problems in pronunciation. Also, this happened in the writing classes, we noted that the lecturers decided on most of the activities presented. This means that it is the lecturer who initiates and controls the regulative and the instructional register, directing the course of events and the students' behaviour. It is the lecturer who determines when the activity has lasted long enough (cf. Christie 2002).

In the third year writing class, for example, the lecturer decided on the kinds of sentences to be written on the blackboard and the students had to change them to indirect speech. In this case, the students did not work freely in the writing, but the lecturer authorized the activities and the procedures that students should follow. This worked in this pattern,

Lecturer direction -----→ students' activity-----→ Lecturer direction

Another feature of the lecturers' classroom practices relates to issues of how they use language to realise their relationship with students. This aspect is discussed in Chapter Two under "interpersonal metafunction" including mood, modality, and person. In Chapter Two, we saw that there are grammatical resources, particularly pronouns, which can be employed to realise the relationship of interlocutors. In the context of this study, modality provides further evidence of general lecturers' classroom control and dominance. This is also in line with the CDA notion of socio-discursive relationship between the lecturer and the student, which is structured around power and dominance (cf. Van Dijk 1993; Fairclough 1995, 2001).

In the observed classrooms, lecturers often used low modality, that is, 'I', to indicate not only the importance of a course of action to be pursued, but also their authority to direct as revealed in the following extracts:

...we have already done some working in writing dialogue and writing conversation, you still remember that, also as far as the concerned is the first part which is direct speech last time we do it very shortly, but now we will do it in other way (Appendix 1 Extract 4)

...I am going to pronounce let's say ten words, and each word will be pronounced thrice (Extract 1).

...I want students to ask and the other answers (Extract 2).

Though, sometimes lecturers use median and high modality, that is, pronouns "we" and "you", to build solidarity with students, as in the case with "we", and to make the directions to behaviour more oblique as in the case with "you", most of the times they used the first person singular "I" as a part of indicating their expectations of the students. According to Christie (2002:187), "the first person singular pronoun identifies the lecturer and is used when she wants to indicate clearly what it is she wants to do." In other words, the English lecturers in these classes did not use much high modality to

indicate the importance of the courses and, furthermore, did not build high solidarity with the students in order to marshal and direct them towards work. The lecturer's authority is apparent in the realizations of theme in both the experiential and interpersonal senses. As mentioned above, experientially, lecturers' authority was apparent in the frequent uses of 'I'.

Lastly in this aspect is the issue of the nature of pedagogic activity pertaining to language choice. That is to say, some language choices are to do with the behaviours of the participants in the activity while others are to do with the 'content' or instructional field of information which is at issue (Christie 2002).

In the observation data presented above, we noted that the lecturers used language, mostly for constructing the content of the lessons and rarely for participant behaviours. This means that the lecturers in these classes concentrated on the form of the language and not focus on the meaning. This approach may not give students in these classes the chance to participate freely in the discussions. Even though the structures of the texts showed that there was interaction between the lecturer and the students, still the discussion was restricted by the content.

6.4 Appropriacy of English Syllabus in Libya's Social Context

We have seen that language syllabi used in Libya are heavily influenced by the audio-lingual traditions, and, thus, place strong emphasis on the mastery of language structure. In this kind of language structure, the predominant emphasis is on teaching the students how to manipulate the structures of the language easily and without errors. The result of this emphasis has been, in the best cases, students who know grammar but lack communicative ability, because the syllabi have never considered communicative tasks as a part of teaching content. The problem is that when students receive only formal English teaching, they frequently remain deficient in the ability to actually use the language and

to understand its use in normal communication in both spoken and written mode (cf. Widdowson 1972).

Further, communication only takes place when students make use of sentences to perform a variety of acts of an essentially social nature. The fact that the syllabi of teaching English in Libya is focused on grammar makes such syllabi present language as isolated skills, and divorced from the social contexts in which that language is used. However, in the CDA's perspective (see Fairclough 1995, 2001), language has to be considered as social practice. What this means is that the students' teaching and learning of EFL should involve apprenticing students into becoming literate users of the language. The apprenticing process itself is socially constituted, in other words, students need to be engaged in the learning process, whereby the language is used in meaningfully social contexts. Therefore, in order to reflect the social aspect of language, the teaching and learning process in Libya need to consider language as socially constituted semiotic system (see Chapter Two for details).

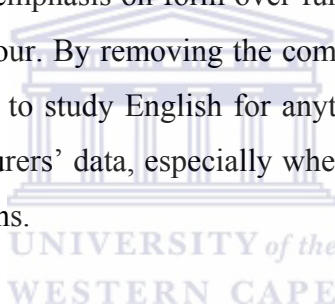
Furthermore, in the views of Hymes' (1972), communicative competence means, an ability to use the target language without giving linguistic forms and rules any specific thought. Therefore, communicative competence in the English syllabi should include not only grammatical competence (sentence level grammar), but also socio-linguistic competence (an understanding of the social contexts in which language is used), discourse competence (an understanding of how utterances are strung together to form a meaningful whole), and strategic competence (a language user's employment of strategies to make the best use of what s/he knows about how a language works, in order to interpret, express, and negotiate meaning in a given context).

As Richards and Rodgers (2001:155) assert, "communicativeness involves acknowledging the interdependence of language and communication". However, English syllabus in Libya focuses on the first concept that linguistic knowledge is central to communication. Widdowson's (1978:67) assertion that acquisition of communicative

competence is “the ultimate aim in language learning” necessitates reconciling these distinctions for practical classroom purposes. Widdowson (1979: 248) usefully and pertinently recognizes that communicative competence is “not a list of learnt items, but a set of strategies or procedures for realizing the value of linguistic elements in contexts of use.”

English syllabi in Libya need to provide the contexts in which knowledge and use or learning and acquisition can be tested, applied and evaluated and as Ellis (1982: 75) admits “Communicative opportunity is both necessary and sufficient for acquisition to take place: the contribution of language teaching materials must be to provide this.”

The English syllabus with the emphasis on form over function, turn the study of English into a purely academic endeavour. By removing the communicative function of English, they strip away the motivation to study English for anything but an intellectual pursuit. This view is supported by lecturers’ data, especially when they argue that students study English just to pass examinations.



Students need to learn how to “do” English. Accepting that “the cardinal tenet of learning theory is that you learn to do by doing” (Johnson and Morrow, 1981: 64), lecturers need to have students actively communicating to develop skills and strategies which go beyond lexico-grammatical competence. Furthermore, these students need syllabus which could give them chance to learn rules of social appropriacy. This requires awareness on the part of the student on how language use varies depending on the social situation, as well as the relationship which exists between culture and language.

One good example of the existing gap between learners’ language needs and what the syllabus offers is on the course description and contents of phonetics lesson presented below:

In the acquisition of any language, observation of the cognitive ability plays an important role. And the sense of hearing is an important means of observation. This sense makes the learner able to perceive the speech by listening. When one starts listening to a particular speech, one's observation begins at sound level, which is very crucial in the anatomy of speech. Hence, the sound level observation, which leads to an effective perception and initiation of speech, is a top-prioritized issue in speech comprehension and production. Therefore, the present course is designed for the first year under-graduate students of Al-Thadi University, Sirte, in helping the students perceive and speak better English.

Unit 1: The Speech Organs.

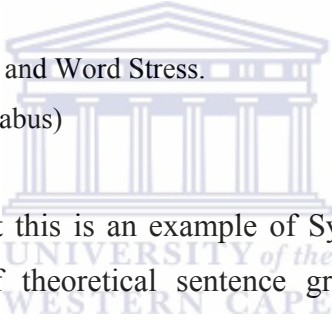
Unit 2: The Consonants of English.

Unit 3: The Vowels of English.

Unit 4: Minimal Pairs.

Unit 5: Syllabification and Word Stress.

(English Phonetic Syllabus)



What can be noted here is that this is an example of Syllabi, which have been largely derived from the products of theoretical sentence grammar. These sequenced and integrated lists are presented to the lecturers, whose tasks are to develop learning activities to facilitate the learning of the pre-specified content. There is a gap between what the objective says and what the students need in order to improve their English communication and literacy. In Libyan situation, as we have mentioned in Chapter One, Arabic is the dominant language and English is treated as a foreign language. Furthermore, students have no much opportunity to use language out of the classroom. Therefore, the syllabus in this objective gives more attention to the structural phonics such as stresses and intonation and less attention to the language in use. Students need a syllabus, which derives from a description of discourse - materials, which will have an effect on the transfer from grammatical competence to what has been called communicative competence (Widdowson 1979:50).

6.5 Lecturers' Perception of EFL Literacy

As mentioned earlier in Chapter One, the teaching of English in Libya by both Libyan and foreign teachers is premised on the skills provision as is espoused in the traditional grammar-translation method. In this method, we have seen that careful explanation of word meaning and usage followed by drilling and mechanical exercises takes precedence over the negotiation of meaning between teachers and students as participants in the EFL learning process. In this method, the teacher initiates the interaction and seldom are there any exchanges, not only between teachers and students, but also between students and students. The role of the teacher is a traditionally authoritarian one of regulating and controlling all classroom discourse practices, which effectively translates into the control of what the student should or should not say or do. The role of the student, on the other hand, is that of an obedient recipient of the lecturers' instructions.

During the classroom observations in this study, we noted that in most of the lessons, the lecturers assumed all the rights to regulate classroom discourses from the beginning to the end. Therefore, students had little chance to participate in classroom literacy practices. In this regard, it is the lecturer who commences the activity, normally with a statement such as in this phonetics class:

T: now listen to the words pronounced by the lecturer, and try to transcribe them phonemically, okay, all of you, please try to listen carefully, don't look in to your friend's note books okay. I am going to pronounce let's say ten words, and each word will be pronounced thrice, okay, so listen carefully, and in between don't ask me what is that what's that, listen carefully because you are given three chances to listen to each word okay (Extract 1, Appendix 1).

Moreover, it is the lecturer who initiates and controls the registers, directing the course of events and the students' behaviour. It is the lecturer who determines how long the activity has to last, as in this writing class in second year:

T: we have oral practice first following what we did in the other unit on the procedure follow on this book that we have to do oral practice and then we read the sample paragraph later on we practice writing. So let's have a look at the oral practice and then I want students to ask and the other answers (Extract number 2, Appendix 2).

6.6 Lecturers' Contradictory Claim between Their Perceptions of Students' Discourse Performance and the Real Classroom Situation

From the data in Chapter Four, we have noted a glaring contradiction between what the lecturers claim to be doing and what seem to be happening, or at least reported to be happening, in the classroom discourse. In this aspect, the lecturers contradicted themselves and each other. For example, while commenting on the link between classroom lessons and students' real learning (of other subjects) or with real life experience, lecturers' contradictory claims became apparent in their own admissions. While some lecturers admitted of lack of link between the two (i.e. students lessons and real life experience), others reported that there is such a link. They claim that students are *'provided with the assignments that enable them to use English in their real life'*. Examples given here of the link referred above involve students being asked to write invitation letters for the various social occasions like birthday parties, house-warming ceremonies, New Year celebrations, wedding parties, thanks-giving notes, congratulatory notes, and condolence notes (see data in Chapter Five).

From the discussion above, it can be deduced that lecturers who report of the existence of the link seem to be taking a defensive approach in what is happening rather than reflecting the real situation. For example, as noted in Chapter Four, the range of activities described above requires not only adequate control of language, but also good insight of the cultural aspects associated with the language in which one is writing. Furthermore, participation in these kinds of writing activities cannot possibly be happening against the backdrop of students' linguistic deficiency, widely reported by the lecturers themselves,

and as demonstrated by the students' texts analysis regarding organization of theme and rheme. The sentence analysis below demonstrates the students' weaknesses in this respect:

Text: Before three years ago, (rheme) I was living in an old house (theme).

One aspect that can be said of the above sentence relates to the theme and rheme organization. The organisation of theme and rheme is such that it violates the theme-rheme organizational structure of the English text. Following the SFL theory (Halliday 1994, Christie 2002), the theme of a clause functions as its point of departure. And it is positioned where the clause starts, thus the message is developed in the order of "theme" followed by "rheme". However, in this particular clause, the student has inverted the order of theme and rheme, in that, she foregrounded the rheme and backgrounded the theme. This makes the clause to sound incoherent.

As noted in Chapter Five, what seems to be happening here is that while the lecturers acknowledge students' deficiencies in English (for the reasons they give), they (lecturers) want to create an impression that there is nothing wrong with their approaches. When the researcher's questions probe lecturers' own discursive practices, they strive to construct different discourses implying that it is the students who ought to be blamed for everything that happens regarding their EFL learning.

The lecturers' contradiction claims on students' participation in classroom discourse not only works against students' access to literacy practices, but also makes the lecturers to participate, unknowingly, in the enactment and perpetuation of the unequal relations in the classroom discourse (Van Dijk 1993).

6.7 Hegemonic Influence of English among the Lecturers

We have noted that Libya, being in the Arab world, Arabic is the official language used in the country. Unlike other Arab countries, such as Algeria, Tunisia, and Morocco, which were occupied by the French military regimes, Libya is the only country in North Africa which was occupied by the Italian military regime. One of the legacies of this occupation is the use of colonial languages as second languages in communication in these countries. In the context of Libya, this was not the case as Italian, the language of the colonizer, ceased to be used as the language of communication. This was mainly because of three main reasons, which included the short period of colonization, the resistance of Libyan's people against colonial forces invasion, and because the Italian language was not a global language that could attract people from different nations. This is unlike English, which is considered to be a worldwide language, which is also seen as the language of global commerce, science, and technology (see also Chapter One).

Following the above discussion and the data presented in Chapter Five, what emerges is that lecturers seem to be influenced by these global linguistic dynamics, which suggests that Libyan students' learning difficulties have to do with the students' failure to consider English as dominant literacy. From the lecturers' perspectives, students do not give English its "acclaimed international status as a language of empowerment and global literacy".

Arabic is still the norm in Libya, unlike countries like India where English is the official language of communication. Also, Libyan society is still highly monolithic, making it very resistant to innovations (Appendix 3 Lecturer 3).

The lecturers seem to advance the argument that any meaningful learning of English cannot take place if students do not want to forget their own cultural background and knowledge, which revolves around the use of Arabic language. In other words, if students want to learn English, then they should ignore Arabic. The parallel argument here is that

lecturers do not consider students' knowledge of Arabic as literacy at all, but, rather, as a hindrance for students' successful learning of EFL.

It is also worth noting here that success or failure of English programmes in Libya is judged in comparison and in the contexts of other countries in the world. At this juncture, it is worth reiterating points made in Chapter Five that lecturers seem oblivious of the reality that Libya has its own cultural values, whereby certain things are highly valued than others. In Libya, as in many other Arab states, it is Arabic, which is dominant literacy and thus highly valued. If people cannot speak English in the street, it does not mean that they cannot think properly. It simply means that they have their own valued literacy practices, which matter most to them. If we have to do something, and succeed, in helping Libyan people acquire literacy practices in English, then we have to begin from what they already know - and Arabic is what they know. And this aspect brings back the issue of “commonsense knowledge” versus “uncommonsense knowledge”. According to Bernstein (cited in Christie 2002:96) “unless there is evidence of significant change and development in understanding in learning of a kind that marks entry to new forms of ‘uncommonsense knowledge’ then it is difficult to justify seeing the series of teaching episodes (including exposure to learning resources) that emerge as a more collection of discreet often of an effective kind.


Thus it is essential that lecturers are sensitive and respond positively to “the ways of literacy knowing that *students* bring with them into the classroom”. These ways will be used as scaffolds, on which “lecturers will build new literacy learning and understanding” (see Kucer 2005: 216).

6.8 Lecturers' Approach to EFL Literacy in Libya

We have seen above that the lecturers' discursive practices privilege English only approach in literacy learning of EFL. The background knowledge students bring to the university is not considered as knowledge at all. The implication of these views is

discussed in Chapter five, suffice to say that what lecturers seem to suggest is that Libya's students have EFL learning difficulties because they do not consider English as a dominant literacy. In other words, students do not give English its acclaimed international status as a language of empowerment and global literacy. To these instructors, any meaningful learning of English cannot take place if students do not want to forget their own cultural background and knowledge, which revolves around the use of Arabic language. In other words, if students want to learn English then they should divest themselves from Arabic language and culture.

It is also worth noting here that success or failure of English programs in Libya is judged in comparison and in the contexts of other countries in the world, as this instructor's comments implies.



Arabic is still the norm in Libya, unlike countries like India where English is the official language of communication. Also Libyan society is still highly monolithic, making it very resistant to innovations.(Appendix 3 Lecturer 3).

Thus, instructors seem oblivious of the reality that Libya has its own cultural values, whereby certain things are highly valued than others. One may ask, and rightly so, is English a highly valued or dominant literacy in Libya? What should not be forgotten here is that in Libya, as in many other Arab states, it is Arabic which is the dominant literacy and thus highly valued, or at least equally valued. If people cannot speak English in the streets, it does not mean that they are stupid; it simply means that they have their own valued literacy practices, and which matter most to them. If we have to do something and succeed in helping Libyan people acquire literacy practices in English, then we have to begin from what they already know, and Arabic is what they know.

6.9 Conclusion

Using the interdisciplinary conceptual framework, the study made a linguistic and textual analysis of the student - lecturer classroom English interaction at AL-Thadi University in Libya. The discussion in this chapter was structured around six themes. On students' motivation for learning English, the study noted that there is an increase in local demand towards English in Libya, which considers English as one of the essential languages for the country's participation in this new world economic order. In relation to the dynamics of classroom interaction, the study noted that students had little chance to participate in classroom literacy practices. Furthermore, it was noted that the Lecturers' approach to EFL literacy privileges English only approach to literacy learning of EFL, and the Arabic experiential, interpersonal, and textual (cf. Halliday, 1994) knowledge that students bring to the university is not considered as useful information at all. This study also has seen that language syllabi used in Libya are heavily influenced by the audio-lingual traditions, and, thus, place strong emphasis on the mastery of the formal structure of language. Therefore, the English syllabi in Libya have never considered communicative tasks as a part of teaching content. In the access to literacy, some students, because of their family backgrounds, may have higher expectation towards English than others. This, as argued, will translate into the amount of effort individual students put in the erudition of the language. The lecturers' contradictory claims on students' participation in classroom discourse not only works against the students' access to literacy practices, but also makes the lecturers to participate unknowingly in the enactment and perpetuation of the unequal relations in the classroom discourse. Furthermore, the lecturers seem to advance the argument that any meaningful learning of English cannot take place if students do not want to forget their own cultural background and knowledge, which revolves around the use of Arabic.

Chapter Seven

General Conclusions

7.0 Introduction

In Chapter One, we saw that Libya has invested heavily in its education system in recent years. The learning of English as a foreign language EFL has continued to gain popularity and importance from the time the economic embargo was lifted against Libya. The lifting of economic sanctions has seen the country opening her doors to Libyans in order to empower them to participate economically and politically in the world stage. The implication of this new situation is the increasing demand for English language literacy levels. For this reason, Libya has been investing heavily in an education system geared towards improving the teaching and learning of the EFL in schools and universities. However, despite the government's effort towards improving the English language learning, there have been claims from various quarters in the education field that students at all levels are not performing successfully in the English language literacy in all the four language skills.

This study, therefore, intended to do a linguistic and textual analysis of English classroom interaction at AL-Thadi University in Libya. Reiterating the statements in Chapter One, the study embarked on a linguistic and textual analysis of the students and lecturers in English classroom interaction to find out how the available genres and discourses are made use of during these interactions. Also, to see how supportive the curriculum and the English language course materials are to the teaching and learning process, and to critique the concept of (English) "appropriateness" in the EFL learning (see Fairclough 1995). From the aims and study objectives reiterated above, the conclusions for this study revolve around students literacy performance in EFL as follows.

7.1 Christie's Macrogenres: Regulative and Instructional Registers

It can be concluded that the instructional register in the EFL classes has an impact on the language choices that lecturers' use in the pedagogic activity and classroom practice. The study shows that lecturers' language choices in this study work more with 'content' than with the 'pedagogic subjects' behaviours in the activity. This makes it difficult for the EFL students to determine and understand the directions, sequencing, pacing, and evaluation of an activity. In this regard, it can be concluded, in terms of the relationship between the two registers in EFL classes that the two registers rarely work in a patterned way. As Christie (2002) suggests the amount of talk in the regulative register decreases over the genre, as the amount of talk in the instructional register increases. It can also be concluded that there was not a strong relationship between the two registers in the EFL classes. This could be because Christie's studies were based on English first language classroom observation, while this study is based on EFL learning contexts. It could also be that Christie's observations were based on early childhood education (1989), the upper primary years (1994, 1995), and the secondary years (1995, 1998) where English is used as a medium of instruction. The conclusion we can make here is that in a foreign language situation, where English is not having enough exposure, the curriculum macrogenres and the procedure of the two registers (regulative and instructional) must operate in an alternative way by using Arabic and English as part of curriculum to help students' English literacy development. As it is, EFL lecturers are not taking advantage of other available semiosis, albeit in Arabic, as they insist on utilizing only language form as a resource in teaching English.

Christie (2002) suggests that, where the language of the regulative register is focused, the directions towards the tasks the students are to achieve will be correspondingly clear. The very clarity of the directions at those critical points in lessons, where pedagogic goals are being established, will ensure that students receive unambiguous information about the steps to take to achieve those goals. Clearly, in an EFL situation this is not always possible, as we saw in this study. Students struggle to understand instruction in a foreign language. In this regard, we can conclude that in EFL situations, where English is not the

medium of instruction or a language of wider communication, appropriate and alternate use of L1 and EFL as part of curriculum genres would be useful for English literacy development.

Moreover, the lecturers mostly made the content as a departure point in the presentation instead of foregrounding the manner of engagement as the departure point to enable students fulfil the class work tasks. It can be concluded that this made it difficult for the EFL pedagogic subjects in this class to understand their ultimate tasks. Therefore, once students were not clear about what they were going to do and how to do it, they went about doing it unsuccessfully. Thus, the role of the regulative register, albeit in Arabic, as a means of enablement for the instructional register, needs to be stressed as a way to help the pedagogic subjects successfully understand the pacing and directions.

7.2 Thematic Development and Halliday's three Metafunctions in Classroom Practice

In the Libyan social context, the metafunctions are available in two languages, but we can conclude that EFL lecturers in this study do not use Arabic as a resource to access English field, tenor, and mode. In other words, we can conclude that students do not benefit from the knowledge they already have in Arabic language and culture with regard to field, tenor, and mode.

In relation to the textual metafunction, this study looked at how EFL students construct their English written texts in order to make English meaning. However, we can conclude that the focus on English as set of rules means that classroom practice is not educationally sufficient and adequate as it is preoccupied either with structure, or with meaning, and not with both, and thus leads to misunderstanding and ineffective learning.

From the above conclusions, it is not surprising that in the written tasks, the students had difficulties to contextualize the topic. It can be concluded that this, in part, explains why

students had difficulties in the construction of the clauses in relation to the topical themes, hyperthemes, and hypernew.

7.3 Students' Literacy Performance in EFL

We can conclude from the data and the subsequent discussion in Chapter Four, Chapter Five, and Chapter Six that students are unsuccessful in performance in the EFL literacy in all the four language skills. Through questionnaires, lecturers admitted of there being weaknesses in students' performance in EFL literacy in spoken and written texts. Specific examples on this aspect came from the data on students' written texts. The analysis of such texts, which focused on theme and rheme, showed how students fail to construct meaning in written discourse as demanded by the English text. We have seen, for example, that students organize theme and rheme in an order that is incompatible with the flow order that is normally found in the English text. We have seen in Halliday (1994) that the departure point of the clause is the theme and what comes after that is the definition of the theme - the rheme (see also Christie 2002).

We can also conclude that the reasons for students' failed attempts in their EFL literacy performance in the Libya's social contexts are not only multifaceted, but also interlinked with lecturers' discursive practice, classroom discourse practices (including teaching methods), the English university syllabus, and teaching and learning material. This interconnection is what amounts to the textual and interdiscursive relationship in the students' spoken and written texts. In other words, students' unsuccessful EFL literacy performance is directly linked with what happen in these other aspects. The sections that follow summarize reasons for students' problems in EFL literacy performance, and attempt to establish the textual and interdiscursive relationship between students' spoken and written texts and the available dominant styles, genres, and discourses mentioned above. The reasons and the textual and interdiscursive interconnection impacting students' literacy performance are around lecturers' perception of EFL literacy, lecturers' discursive practices, lecturer-students' relationship in classroom discourse, students' background knowledge vis-à-vis their knowledge of English as a foreign language, and

Lecturers' contradictory claim between perception on students' performance and the real classroom situation. Details of these aspects are discussed in the section that follows.

7.4 Lecturers' Perception of EFL Literacy

From the data obtained in classroom observation, we can conclude that the English lecturers, perception of EFL literacy in Libya tend to view 'grammar form' as an exclusive departure point of learning English. They (lecturers) have tended to take their cue from the grammarians and have concentrated on the teaching of sentences as self-contained units. This perception can not be beneficial to students in using language in communication in the way viewed by Savignon's (1997: 225) communicative competence theory, also considered in this study, that "communication is the expression, interpretation and negotiation of meaning; and communicative competence is always context specific, requiring the simultaneous, integrated use of all competences" (see also Savignon 1983).

We have seen in Chapter One that the teaching of English in Libya by both Libyan and foreign teachers is premised on the skills provision as in the traditional grammar-translation method. In this method, most of the activities are directed to careful explanation of word meaning and usage, followed by drilling and mechanical exercises, which take precedence over the negotiation of meaning between teachers and students as participants in the EFL learning process.

Basically, the language-teaching unit is the sentence as a formal linguistic object. This perspective is outmoded and has negative consequences in the way in which grammar is described and taught. Furthermore, sentence-based view of grammar is also inconsistent with the notion of communicative competence, which includes at least four interacting competences: linguistic/grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence (Canale & Swain 1980, Canale 1983, Bachman 1990). This view is also incompatible with the interdisciplinary approach followed in this

study, that is, Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough 1995, 2001), Systemic Functional Linguistic (Halliday 1989, 1994) and Classroom Discourse Analysis (Christie 2002, 2003, 2005), which looks at language as social practice versus language as discreet grammatical items.

We conclude that English lecturers in Libya's social contexts pay little attention to the way sentences are used in combination to form stretches of connected discourse. The language lecturer's view of what constitutes knowledge of a language is essentially the same as Chomsky's knowledge of the syntactic structure of sentences and of the transformational relations which hold between them (Chomsky 1965). This assumption is of a very doubtful validity (Widdowson 1973) and students entering higher education with the experience of six or more years of instruction in English have considerable difficulty coping with language in its normal communicative use. The knowledge of how the language is used in communication does not automatically follow from the knowledge of the structure of sentences only. Thus, as communicative competence is the foundation of communicative language teaching, it is clearly important that lecturers in Libya's social context move beyond the sentence level in their conceptions of grammar and understand the relationship between the syntactic aspects of linguistic competence, and the various sociolinguistic and pragmatic aspects of discourse competence.

7.5 English Syllabus in Libya's Social Context

We noted in Chapter Four that the kind of language syllabi used in Libya is influenced heavily by the audio-lingual traditions, whose emphasis is on the mastery of language structure. This type of syllabus focuses on how students should be drilled to manipulate the structures of the language correctly. This tendency usually leads to having students who know their grammar but lack communicative ability, as the syllabi never consider communicative tasks as a part of the teaching content. The problem is that when students receive only formal English teaching, they frequently remain deficient in the ability to actually use the language, and to understand its use, in normal communication in both spoken and written mode.

From the CDA's perspective (Fairclough 1995, 2001) language has to be considered as social practice. This means that the students' teaching and learning of EFL should involve apprenticing students' into becoming literate users of the language. Furthermore, the apprenticing process itself is socially constituted, in that students need to be engaged in the learning process, whereby the language is used in meaningful social contexts.

This argument also parallels the argument on Hyme's (1972) communicative competence. English syllabi should include not only grammatical competence (sentence level grammar), but also socio-linguistic competence (an understanding of the social contexts in which language is used), discourse competence (an understanding of how utterances are strung together to form a meaningful whole), and strategic competence (a language user's employment of strategies to make the best use of what s/he knows about how a language works, in order to interpret, express, and negotiate meaning in a given context) (see also Widdowson's 1978, Richards and Rodgers 2001, Bachman 1990).

In the case of Libya, whether or not language teaching is considered as social practice or communicative competence is one side of the story. It is evident that syllabus design is not the only aspect which inhibits students' EFL learning. In other words, there are intertextual and interdiscursive issues, as presented later in this Chapter, which come into play in the students' learning process. Therefore, we conclude that even that knowledge of grammar, which Libyan students should perhaps have acquired through these kinds of English language syllabi is not evidently convincing, much as such syllabi are being criticised as being focused on provision of grammatical structure in approach.

7.6 Lecturers' Discursive Practices

From the discussion in Chapter Five, we have noted that lecturers' understanding of EFL literacy is what influences their discursive practices. We have noted, for example, that lecturers view language teaching as the provision of grammatical items. Such teaching, therefore, could only be applicable in the traditional methods where lecturers dominate

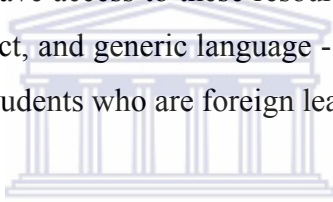
classroom interactions as in the case of Libya's social contexts. In this method, the lecturer initiates the interaction and seldom are there any exchanges, not only between lecturers and students, but also between students. The role of the lecturer is a traditionally authoritarian one of regulating and controlling all classroom discourse practices, which effectively translates into the control of what the student should or should not do. The role of the students, on the other hand, is that of an obedient recipient of the lecturers' instructions. This method of teaching is not favoured in the interdisciplinary approach followed in this study.

According to the approach of this study, when people engage in meaningful behaviours of various kinds, they are said to engage in acts of semiosis, including language use. Language primarily enables humans to construct meaning and negotiate their world. To reiterate the earlier argument by Christie (2002: 184), "the principal resource available to lecturers and students with which to achieve educational goals is language." Language is significant and useful as social semiotics in at least three senses: in the negotiation of relationship and meanings; in the nature of the language structures in which meaning are expressed; and that learning language is not primarily a matter of learning rules but learning how to employ a resource or tool to construct meanings of many kinds (Halliday 1978). According to Christie (2002: 184) "It is in the language of the classroom that a great deal of work will go on towards negotiating understandings, clarifying tasks, exploring sources of difficulty and assessing students' progress."

Christie might be discussing teaching in the first language situation. However, if this study is anything to go by, we can conclude that the choices of language and forms of language to use in a foreign language classroom situation are fraught with problems, and are not as clear cut. Nor are the rewards as clearly guaranteed as is implied by Christie.

7.7 Lecturer-Students Relationship in EFL Classroom Discourse

The objective of looking at lecturer-student relationship in EFL classroom was to find out the issue of power relationship and the manner in which such relations impact on EFL students' literacy performance. On this aspect, we have seen that there is power imbalance in the lecturer- students' relationship in the socio-discursive space of EFL classroom. From CDA (Van Dijk 1993: 254) "power involves control by (members of) one group over (those of) another groups". This social power is usually based on "privileged access to socially valued resources, *such as* wealth, income, position, status, education or knowledge. In the contexts of Libya's situation, we conclude that the lecturers have this privileged access because of their knowledge of the subject matter, the command of the English language, and their position as lecturers. Students in Libya's social context do not seem to have access to these resources, especially the first two (i.e. generic knowledge of the subject, and generic language - English) since both of them are opaque orders of discourse to students who are foreign learners of English.



As pointed earlier, the privileged access to these institutional power resources available to lectures lead to not only power imbalance in the lecturer-students relationship, but also to social inequality between the two groups. Lecturers, because of their institutional privileges, represent the powerful or dominant group while students represent the nondominant group in this relationship. This relationship profile cannot work effectively in the students EFL learning in accordance to the principles espoused in the critical linguistics theories (i.e. CDA, SFL, and Classroom Discourse Analysis) followed in this study, for the simple fact that these theories view literacy, not only as practice, but also as socially constituted. A socially constituted literacy, in this case school literacy, requires participation of the learners as equal members of that literacy event, in this case, classroom interaction. In the English classrooms in Libya's social context, we noted that the relationship between the lecturer and the students is very passive, which could not help the students to learn and speak English communicatively. English students in Libya view lecturers as authority figures in class. A lecturer is a person who leads the class and speaks most. During the class time, students have only to listen and take notes.

What we see is that on the one hand, lecturers **have access** to these institutional resources, and on the other hand, lecturers would tend to continue denying access of these resources to others, in this case, the students. Therefore, we conclude that the imbalance of power relationship, and the social inequality this relationship brings with between lecturers and students, would continue to be produced and reproduced (cf. Van Dijk 1993, Fairclough 1995) in the Libya's social contexts.

7.8 Students' Commonsense Knowledge vis-à-vis their Uncommonsense Knowledge

From the data presentation in Chapter Four and Chapter Five, and the ensuing discussion in Chapter Six, we can conclude that English in Libya's EFL classrooms is the dominant literacy, and, in the views of the lecturers, the background knowledge that students bring to university is not considered as knowledge at all. This privileging of English, on the one hand, and the devaluing of students' background knowledge, (e.g. Arabic language) on the other hand, work against students' acquisition of EFL literacy. Relating to the concept of commonsense knowledge (i.e. knowledge 'that is familiar and readily available') and uncommonsense (i.e. unfamiliar, even esoteric) knowledge that was discussed in Chapter Five, EFL lecturers in Libya's social contexts cannot ignore Arabic. This is because, as long as English is (and will still be) a foreign language to Libyan students, it will remain uncommonsense knowledge.

Therefore, we can conclude that the role of home or family background including students' commonsense knowledge, that is Arabic, is part and parcel of students' individual experiences - the different subjectivities, interests, intentions, commitments, and purposes that students bring to learning (see Cope & Kalantzis 2001) and thus it cannot be ignored. Furthermore, we can conclude that the transformation from the uncommon to commonsense knowledge is not always a clear-cut matter, it involves intertextual relationship (interconnectedness of historical, social, cultural aspects, to mention a few) in addressing students' literacy in particular social cultural contexts (cf. Fairclough 2001).

To sum up this argument, we need to appeal to the question of social inequality which is also implied in students' access to school literacy in the home or community environment. The caveat that has been made earlier is that it cannot be assumed that students come from exactly similar home backgrounds. Therefore, the manner in which they might have been exposed to school literacy in EFL may not be exactly the same. Thus, we can conclude that the unequal access to school literacy at home is bound to impact on students' literacy performance at the university. Lecturers observed in this study do not seem sensitive to the individual differences that students bring to the university. This is because the nature of tasks they set in the classroom usually involves group responses. Such tasks may not be appropriate in all situations, especially in situations where determining differences of students' individual background knowledge is crucial in knowing the kind of assistance individual students require in the EFL learning.

The aspect of students' background knowledge has also a strong connection to students' motivation towards English language learning. As pointed out earlier, some students, because of their family backgrounds, may have higher expectation towards English than others. This will also translate into the amount of efforts individual students put in the learning of the language. If lecturers do not have a mechanism of identifying and being sensitive to students' different learning experiences, then their (lecturers') action may simply amount to the perpetuation of the existing inequality in EFL learning experiences, which students bring into the university. In turn, and in the long run, this may translate into the production and reproduction of the social inequality, which is bound to structure the Libya's social cultural set up (cf. Van Dijk 1993; Fairclough 1995, 2001).

7.9 Lecturers' Contradictory Claim between Perceptions on Students' Performance and the Real Classroom Situation

Lecturers' contradictory claim between perception on students' performance and the real classroom situation relates to the link between classroom lessons and students' real learning (of other subjects) or with real life experience. While some lecturers admitted of

lack of link between the two (i.e. students lessons and real life experience), others reported of there being such a link. They claim that students are “*provided with the assignments that enable them to use English in their real life*”. From the discussion above, it can be deduced that lecturers who reported of the existence of the link seem to be taking a defensive approach in what is happening rather than reflecting a real situation.

Reiterating the argument made in Chapter Five, what seems to be happening here is that while the lecturers acknowledge students’ unsuccessful literacy performance in English, (for the reasons they give) they (lecturers) want to create an impression that there is nothing wrong with their approaches. When the researcher’s questions probed lecturers’ own discursive practices, they (lecturers) strived to construct different discourses implying that it is students who are supposed to be blamed for the unsuccessful literacy performance at university. This tendency is also a reflection of “capricious” social relations, which are structured around power and dominance existing between lecturers and students. Lecturers can blame students, not so much because students are at fault, but rather because lecturers have the authority to do so, the authority, which students do not have. For that matter, lecturers have this opportunity to demonstrate that the burden of responsibility in students’ failure lay with the students and not the lecturers.

In summary, we can conclude that the lecturers’ contradictory claim on students’ (lack of) participation in classroom discourse not only works against students’ access to literacy practices, but also makes the lecturers to unknowing participate in the enactment and perpetuation of the unequal relations in the classroom discourse (Van Dijk 1993, see also Chapter Five).

7.10 Implications of the Study to the Teaching and Learning of English in Libya’s Social Context

The problem of communication competence in English has not been able to excite research interest in the Libyan social contexts. But, some research (e.g. Kambal 1980,

Abdulhag 1982, Wahba 1998) has been done in this field in other Arab speaking countries such as Jordan, Sudan, and Egypt. The researchers concluded that the 'sociolinguistic environment' of these countries is not conducive for English language learning, as Arabic is used for communication in all domains of social life. The problem, however, is not only that these studies cannot be replicated in Libya for the reasons mentioned above, but also that Libya had undergone an unusual experience following the political isolation. Therefore, with the sociolinguistic environment, which caused much problem to Arab students' to communicate in English, Libyans had also been cut-off from international interaction during the time of the sanctions, which stopped them accessing the global development.

Furthermore, these studies mostly performed error analysis investigation and focused on discrete linguistic items, without linking them to the social-cultural contexts of the countries in which English was taught and learned as a foreign language. This study, therefore, aimed at analysing students' communication problems within the contexts of social practices of Libyan society. It is for this reason that this study used CDF, supplemented by SFL and Classroom Discourse Analysis, as the working analytical framework. These three theories emphasize on the social aspect of language, in that, language plays a central role within social phenomena and is considered as a part of material social process. The theories involve looking at both language form and language-function.

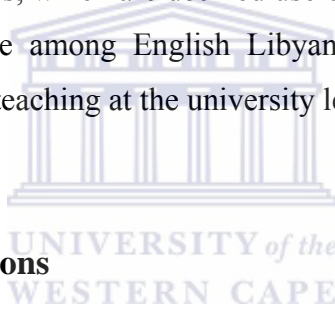
With regard to syllabus design in higher education in Libya, we shall conclude that the syllabus for teaching English should include both grammatical form and the functions to which they can be applied. The syllabus should focus on use and not just usage.

Chapter Eight

Recommendations

8.0 Introduction

In order for Libya to catch up with the development in its economy, and to promote international exchange, schools and universities need to effectively address issues on literacy in English as a foreign language by a way of raising students' literacy levels to meet their communicative needs in the Libyan social cultural-context. This section focuses on the recommendations, which are deemed useful in enabling Libya to break the vicious circle of incompetence among English Libyan students in order to improve English language learning and teaching at the university level.



8.1 General Recommendations

The following recommendations, if implemented, should help in improving students' competence and the general English language teaching and learning in the Libyan social context.

The first recommendation centers on encouraging EFL lecturers in Libyan universities to focus more on the Libyan social context while teaching language, and not just on the form and structure of English. In some ways, systemic functional grammar seems to be ideally suited to language teaching and learning, particularly in EFL social contexts. It is communicative grammar that learners can take out of the classroom and use in the ordinary situations of their daily lives. It is not an 'unapplied system'. Moreover, it is semantic grammar, a grammar of meanings, in which grammar is viewed, not as a set of rules, but as a communicative resource. In this formulation, there is no clear separation

between grammar and discourse; they melt into each other in the process of generating texts.

Thus, lecturers in EFL situation should focus on meaning and not only on form, because, as has been shown earlier, foreign languages are not learnt as discrete grammatical items presented out of context, but are acquired through meaningful interaction. Therefore, EFL lecturers should present language in contexts and encourage students to hypothesize what they think the rule might be. From the data, we have seen that the teaching of various language skills is not only compartmentalized (i.e. grammar, writing, speaking, and phonetics, taught independently from each other), but they (the skills) are also divorced from the students' meaningful cultural contexts. The Lecturers in EFL classes should present the language in meaningful contexts so that the learners can use it for the purpose of communication. Furthermore, the teaching content is no longer arranged merely according to the system of grammatical structures. Lecturers have to change the focus from the sentence as the basic unit in language teaching to the use of sentences in combination, and to what has been called "communicative competence" knowledge of how sentences are used in the performance of communicative acts of different kinds. The target language is acquired through interactive communicative use that encourages the negotiation of meaning. Genuinely meaningful language use should be emphasized, along with unpredictability, risk-taking, and choice making

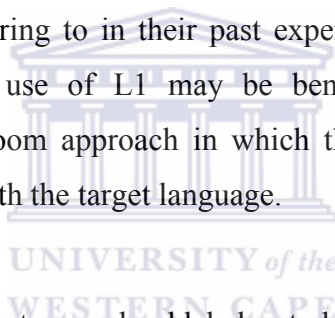
The development of pragmatic and sociolinguistic rules of language use is important for language learners. It is necessary to understand and create language that is appropriate to the situations in which one is functioning, because failure to do so may cause users to miss out the key points that are being communicated or to have their messages misunderstood. We have seen that grammatical development does not guarantee a corresponding level of pragmatic and sociolinguistic development (cf. Hymes 1972; Widdowson 1972; Savignon 1983, 1985).

The second recommendation revolves around how lecturers balance between the regulative and instructional registers. Lecturers should use the two frequently. It is the nature of all pedagogic activity that some language choices are to do with the behaviours of the participants (students) in the activity, while others are to do with the content (lesson) or instructional field or information which is at issue. By using the teaching approach suggested in the SFL theoretical framework, lecturers will be able to see how students exploit and deploy the language choices to make meaning, for the focus is on language as resource, never as set of rules. Therefore, besides the comprehensible input, learners must have opportunities to produce the language if they are to become fluent speakers. For learners to really use the language, they must attend to both the meaning of what they say and the form of how they say it. This study believes in a strong form communicative approach to language teaching, using the learners as the main focus of the class. Lecturers' should create conditions that give learners the opportunity to use the language to learn it.

A third recommendation is that English should be the main language to be used in an EFL class. As English is not the dominant language of communication in the Libyan EFL social contexts, this study particularly supports the idea that it should be the main language used in the EFL class. Students should be exposed as much as possible to the target language to permit its acquisition. EFL lecturers' have to create an English language learning environment, where students can have many opportunities to try out their speaking skills. Many of the speaking activities that EFL lecturers do should be based on the students' personal experiences, opinions, and ideas, in order to give a chance to EFL students to interact and use the target language.

A fourth recommendation is that Libyan teachers should get involved in designing teaching and learning materials, so that they can design materials that suit the local context.

Despite the recommendations above, this study takes cognizance of the fact that most of the EFL social experiences and knowledge are achieved through their L1, in this case, Arabic. Therefore, the fourth recommendation is that Arabic should be used to play a facilitative role in EFL classes in Libyan universities. The first language and background knowledge EFL students already had should not necessarily hinder foreign language learning. It could play a facilitating role in the EFL classroom and can actually help English language learning. From this study it became apparent that students' background knowledge (including knowledge of Arabic) constitutes commonsense knowledge, and English as uncommonsense knowledge. Thus, if we need to help EFL students to learn what they do not know (in this case English), we need to begin from what they already know, and Arabic (including other community literacy practices they bring at the university) is what they know. It is much easier for EFL students to start learning a second language if they can bring to in their past experiences, their knowledge of the world. Therefore, occasional use of L1 may be beneficial in this situation. We recommend a bilingual classroom approach in which the mother tongue (in this case Arabic) is used alternatively with the target language.



As a fifth recommendation, lecturers should help students to develop some language learning strategies and capacity to learn automatically and independently. In other words, lecturers should encourage students to participate in communicative practices of classroom discourse events. Lecturers can do this through building high solidarity with the students in order to encourage them to participate in the activities. Such solidarity should be constructed by using a language with high modality features to involve students in the discussion (cf. Christie 2005). In this way, lecturers will not have created a relationship of subordination with students, as is currently the case. In view of the findings from this study, lecturer-student relationship is constructed around power and dominance (cf. Fairclough 2001). As we noted in Chapter Four and Chapter Five, such a relationship works against the students' acquisition of knowledge in EFL. Thus, the lecturer-powerful mentor and the student-obedient learner relationship in the teaching and learning process in Libya's universities needs to be restructured to enable both groups participate effectively in a classroom discourse space. Lecturers should help the students

in order to get access to the knowledge. This is possible through giving them a chance to get involved in the organization of the activities. Therefore, the authority in the class should be divided between the lecturer and the students.

We noted that the English syllabus used in teaching English at AL-Thadi University, is very structural oriented. It lists items in terms of formal structure and vocabulary. It is selected and graded according to grammatical notions of simplicity and complexity, focusing mainly on one aspect of language - formal language and grammar. Therefore, as a sixth recommendation, this study recommends that in all levels of university education, where EFL is taught, starting from first year to the fourth year, the syllabus should concentrate on both form and meaning, with particular emphasis on the latter, to enable students to improve their communication in the target language.

Given that competence of the lecturer in both L1 (in this case, Arabic) and the target language (here, English) is vital in including both contextual and formal aspects of language teaching, this study recommends that Libya may need to educate and train its own people in English language teaching. This would help them get personally involved in the English language teaching as both the lecturer and the students would be using the same L1, in this case Arabic. Furthermore, it may also need to open up a centre of English language development in the universities in order to help students get maximum exposure and access to the international resources available around the world such as journals, books, and magazines, among others.

Finally, Libya's EFL students may also need to be given an opportunity for apprenticeship in countries, where English is a dominant language. This would enable them to practice what they have already learned in their schools and universities. The EFL programme should include such a provision, which is not currently there in Libyan universities.

8.2 General Conclusion

This chapter presents the conclusion and the contribution of the study. In the conclusion, we have seen that students' unsuccessful literacy performance in EFL in the Libya's social context is not only multifaceted, but also interlinked with lecturers didactic approaches, the English syllabus, and lecture-student relationship in a classroom discourse practice. The interdiscursivity is structured around eight thematic areas: Christie's macrogenres, thematic development and Halliday's three metafunctions, EFL students' literacy performance, lecturers' perception of EFL literacy, English syllabus in Libya's social contexts, lecturers' discursive practices and lecturer-students relationship in classroom discourse. Other themes include students' commonsense knowledge vis-à-vis their uncommonsense knowledge of English as a foreign language, and lecturers' contradictory claims between perceptions on students' performance and the real classroom situation.

The recommendations section focused on some suggestions which might be very useful in enabling Libya to break the vicious circle of incompetence among English Libyan students in order to improve English language learning and teaching at the university level in Libya.

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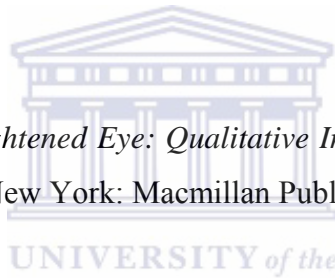
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Appendices

Appendix 1: Classroom observation

Summarized transcription key:

Symbol	Meaning
. no end of turn punctuation	Certainly, completion (typically falling tone) implies non-termination (no final intonation)
,	Parceling of talk; breathing time (silent beats in Halliday's 1985/94 system)
?	Uncertainty (rising tone, or wh-interrogative)
!	"surprised" intonation (rising-falling tone 5 in halliday's 1994 system)
WORDS IN CAPITALS	Emphatic stress and/or increased volume
“ “	Change in voice quality in reported speech
()	Untranscriber talk
(words within parentheses)	Transcriber's guess
[words in square brackets]	Non-verbal information
==	Overlap (contiguity, simultaneity)
...	Short hesitation within a turn (less than three seconds)
[pause-4secs]	Indication of inter-turn pause length
dash-then talk	False start/restart

Suzanne Eggins & Diana Slade (1997)

Extract 1: Phonetics class (first year)

Turn speaker

(1)	(T)	<p>now listen to the words pronounced by the teacher, and try to transcribe them phonemically, okay, all of you, please try to listen carefully, don't look in to your friend's note books okay, I am going to pronounce let's say [pause] ten words, and each word will be pronounced thrice, okay, so listen carefully, and in between don't ask me what is that what's that, listen carefully because you are given three chances to listen to each word okay. TRANSCRIBE THEM PHONEMICALLY OKAY. Word number one [pause: 5secs] (Teacher: ti:tj/) [pause: 7secs]. Word number one second time [pause: 3secs] (Teacher: ti:tj/) [pause: 6secs]. Word number one third time that's last time [pause: 2secs] (Teacher: ti:tj/) [pause: 4secs]. Word number two [pause: 10secs] (Repeat (ripi:t/) [pause: 8secs]. Word number two second time (Repeat (ripi:t/) [pause: 6secs]. Word number two [pause: 2secs] last time [pause: 2secs] (Repeat (ripi:t/) [pause: 4secs]. Word number three [pause: 5secs] word number three [pause: 4secs] (Respond: ri'spænd/) [pause: 9secs]. Word number three second time (Respond: ri'spænd/) [pause: 4secs]. Word number three last time [pause: 3secs] (Respond: ri'spænd/) [pause: 6secs]. Word number four [pause: 4secs] Word number four [pause: 3secs] first time [pause: 5secs] (Conduct: kən'dʌkt/) [pause: 6secs]. Word number four second time [pause: 1secs] (Conduct: kən'dʌkt/) [pause: 10secs]. Word number four last time (Conduct: kən'dʌkt/) [pause: 4secs]. Word number five [pause: 3secs] Word number five [pause: 4secs] (Examination\ : igzæmi'neifən/) [pause: 5secs]. Word number four ho five [pause: 4secs] first time is over second time (Examination\ : igzæmi'neifən/) [pause: 10secs]. Word number five last time (Examination\ : igzæmi'neifən/) [pause: 4secs]. Word number six [pause: 5secs] (Leader: /Li:dər/) [pause: 4secs] (Leader: /Li:dər/) [pause: 4secs]. Word number six third time [pause: 2secs] (Leader: /Li:dər/). Word number seven [pause: 8secs] word number seven [pause 3secs] (porter: pɔ:tə/) [pause: 5secs]. Word number seven (porter: pɔ:tə/). Word number seven second time (porter: pɔ:tə/) [pause: 5secs]. Word number seven last time</p>
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		(porter: pɔ:tə/) [pause: 4secs]. Word number eight [pause: 5secs] (report: rip:ɔt/) [pause: 3secs]. Word number eight second time (report: rip:ɔt/). Word number eight last time (report: rip:ɔt/). Word number nine [pause: 12secs] word number nine first time (impact: /impækt/) [pause: 4secs]. Word number nine [pause: 4secs] second time (impact: /impækt/) [pause: 5secs]. Word number nine last time (impact: /impækt/) [pause: 4secs]. Word number ten [pause: 10secs] Word number ten first time (paking: /pækiŋ/) [pause: 5secs]. Word number ten second time (paking: /pækiŋ/) [pause: 7secs]. Word number ten last time (paking: /pækiŋ/) [pause: 10secs].
(2)	(T)	Right so this is the end of (IPA) training okay, right, let's see how you have transcribed, let's see the notebooks okay, let's see your answers, how you have transcribed, how you have perceived the words and transcribed okay, so now we have, how many groups? we have four groups, five groups okay, and from each group, you first of all before coming to me you check with your answers and try to correct yourself, among yourself okay, and try to check among yourself and discussed among yourself okay, why it's wrong and why it's correct try too, I will go through you to see if you have any question. As group, if you have any doubt about any word you can ask me, in the end I will call one of you to transcribe it on the blackboard
(3)	(S 1)	Doctor, all the words?
(4)	(T)	Yes, all the words, you try to check.
(5)	(T)	As a group if you have some doubt on any words, you can ask okay.
(6)	(S 2)	Teacher please word number three?
(7)	(T)	number three would be (response).
(8)	(T)	If you have any doubt or you need any repetition of the words, do you want any help? TRY TO USE ENGLISH WHEN YOU SPEAK TO EACH OTHER.
(9)	(S)	Yes we use English.

(10)	(T)	USE ENGLISH AND TAKE MUCH TIME.
(11)	(S 3)	Word number 5 please teacher.
(12)	(T)	Examination.
(13)	(S4)	The last word please teacher.
(4)	(T)	(Packing)
(15)	(T)	IF YOU HAVE ANY DOUBT OR YOU WANT ME TO REPEAT ANY WORDS, JUST ASK ME, YOU HAVE ONLY TWO MINUTIES AND PLEASE TRY TO FINISH IT UP
(16)	(T)	OKAY NOW, ONE BY ONE TO THE BLACKBOARD AND TRY TO WRITE THESE WORDS IN THE BLACKBOARD
(17)	(T)	Let's see first word. How many syllables are there?
(18)	(S)	two
(19)	(T)	Yes it is two what is the first and second?
(20)	(S)	the first (Ti) and the second (tja)
(21)	(T)	that is fine, what about the second word, how many syllables?
(22)	(S)	two
(23)	(T)	the first syllable is
(24)	(S)	(rei) and (pet)
(25)	(T)	this one is correct too
(26)	(T)	Now you have two syllables right, but you know one syllable is pronounced very strong. It means it states stress, so you see in different words the stress is some time is on the beginning and some time is on the end like...(non verbal action. The teacher direct to the blackboard).
(27)	(T)	Now I will show the word number like this (non-verbal action) and like this (non verbal action). You have to pronounce, pay attention, look at the word and say okay
(28)	(T+S)	Teacher shows the number and students pronounce it together.

The third activity done by the teacher is written exercise. It is in the blackboard, which gives chance to some students to write the words and the phonic of these words.

The teacher and the students went through all the words and transcribed them and saw how many syllables each word did have. Then, the teacher pronounced all the words to the students and allowed them pronounced

after him.



Extract 2: Spoken class (first year)

Turn speaker

(1)	(T)	Now we have spoken English, and we talk about good habits, new routines, what is a good habit? What is an example of good habits? Yes (Warida).
(2)	(S 1)	Exercising always.
(3)	(T)	Exercising always, what is an example of a good habit?
(4)	(S 2)	reading
(5)	(T)	Reading magazines, newspapers, yes (Hanan) what is an example of a good habit?
(6)	(S 3)	Visiting relatives.
(7)	(T)	Visiting relatives, yes, what is an example of a good habit?
(8)	(S 4)	Doing homework by or on time.
(9)	(T)	yes doing homework on time is a good habit, another (Samira)
(10)	(S 5)	Be at work on time.
(11)	(T)	Yes be on time is a good habit because respecting a time is a good habit, Another.
(12)	(S6)	Helping mother to do house jobs.
(13)	(T)	Yes cooking, chopping, cleaning and washing with mother is good habit.
(14)	(T)	Okay, now I need examples of a bad habit, one by one.
(15)	(S7)	Shout of your mother.
(16)	(T)	Shouting on your mother is not good, Another example of a bad habit.
(17)	(S8)	Smoking cigarettes.
(18)	(T)	Yes it is a bad habit another (Amna).
(19)	(S 9)	Talking in the phone for a long time.
(20)	(T)	Yes speaking on the phone for a long time is a bad habit, another.

(21)	(S10)	Sleeping a long time.
(22)	(T)	Yes sleeping twelve hours, fourteen hours is a bad habit; he is going to be lazy. You know lazy?
(23)	(S11)	Yes.
(24)	(T)	What is an example of a bad habit?
(25)	(S 12)	eating between meals
(26)	(T)	Yes eating between meals is very bad habit, One by one.
(27)	(S 13)	Watch TV for a long time.
(28)	(T)	Yes watching TV for a long time is a bad habit, another one.
(29)	(S 14)	eating and talking
(30)	(T)	Yes talking while we eat is a bad habit, what is an example of a bad habit?
(31)	(S15)	Wasting money.
(32)	(T)	Yes spending money foolishly, Extravagance, what is the meaning of extravagance? (Samira)
(33)	(S 16)	[pause-4secs]
(34)	(T)	It means wasting money, (teacher use the blackboard) (Hanan) can you read it.
(35)	(S 17)	Yes: extravagance.
(36)	(T)	When you spend money without reasons, You don't think about spending, One can spend a thousand dinners in a day, It is a noun and the adjective is extravagant, Can you give me an example?
(37)	(S 18)	Noun or adjective.
(38)	(T)	Yes as an adjective.
(39)	(S 19)	Hanan is an extravagant girl.
(40)	(T)	Yes Hanan is extravagant girl.
(41)	(S 20)	Businessman is extravagant man.
(42)	(T)	Not always, Businessman is not extravagant; the opposite of extravagance is thrifty, spending with care and carefully, so Businessman is thrifty.

(43)	(S)	Not mean.
(44)	(T)	Yes another word “not means”, He doesn’t like to spend much money, he kept all his money in a box.
(45)	(S)	What is the different between thrifty and mean?
(46)	(T)	Mean doesn’t spend, and he prefers to be hungry, but thrifty means spending with care, He thinks before spending, so which one is better?
(47)	(S)	Thrifty
(48)	(T)	your mother must be thrifty, Not only with money with other resources, Especially when she cooks, she cooks too much and throws it away, So being thrifty is a good habit and being extravagant is a bad habit.
(49)	(T)	Another bad habit.
(50)	(S)	Talking in the class.
(51)	(T)	Yes talking to much in the class will disturb the lecturer, what about cheating in the exam?
(52)	(S)	Yes. It is a bad habit.
(53)	(T)	Yes when you cheat or steal you lose your reputation. As an example when you cheat in the exam you will find yourself out of the school and will expel you.
(54)	(S)	yes
(55)	(T)	Why lying, stealing and cheating are bad habits? Who is not speaking?
(56)	(S)	It makes a gap between people and makes the people do not believe each other.
(57)	(S)	when we steal or we kill some body so we will develop our bad habit
(58)	(S)	they will not trust you
(59)	(T)	Yes they will not respect you.
(60)	(T)	Why is cheating in the exam a bad habit?

(61)	(S)	That student not useful from learn and take information from other students.
(62)	(T)	Yes will take information from other and will be not a good student.
(63)	(T)	Okay, there is many a good and bad habits around us.



Extract 3: writing class (second year)

Turn speaker

(1)	(T)	Yes, can you give me a sentence, using a time clause?
(2)	(S)	[Pause-5secs]
(3)	(T)	TIME CLAUSE, INTRODUCED BY USING: WHEN, WHILE OR AFTER, BEFORE, SO THINK OF A SENTENCE WITH A TIME CLAUSE. IT CONTAINS TWO PARTS TIME CLAUSE AND MAIN CLAUSE. [Teacher gives a quick look to students]. Mona can you give an example of time clause?
(4)	(S)	[pause- 4secs], Ha...
(5)	(T)	==would you please stand up (Mona).
(6)	(S1)	I first went to the school when I was five - when I was six years old.
(7)	(T)	Good okay, [teacher write the sentence on the blackboard], I first went to school when I was [pause-2secs], six years old.
(8)	(T)	Okay, so in case we put when at the beginning, what about punctuation mark, in this case?
(9)	(S2)	= =Comma.
(10)	(T)	==When?
(11)	(S3)	==no, no comma
(12)	(T)	= = her no coma, if we infer this...
(13)	(S2)	= = when I was six years old (comma) I went to school.
(14)	(T)	Okay, thank you. NOW USING WHILE, Yes. (Najwa)
(15)	(S4)	Ha...[pause3secs] while- while- Tom... waiting to go to- Tom waiting-was waiting to go
(16)	(T)	== while Tom was waiting
(17)	(T)	(Teacher write on the blackboard) while Tom was waiting to go to

		university...
(18)	(S)	He found job.
(19)	(T)	Found job! While he was waiting he found a job, what do you mean by job!
(20)	(S4)	sorry while Tom was waiting to go to university, [pause2secs], he found, his friends
(21)	(T)	okay, while he was waiting to go to university, he found his friend
(22)	(T)	Okay, can you tell me what we call this, [teacher use her hand and gives permission to the student to sit], thank you, [pause2secs]; what kind of clause is this? [Pause2secs], what we call this clause? [Pause2secs], what do we call this clause? [Pause2secs], what is the name of this clause?
(23)	(S)	all Silence
(24)	(T)	[Teacher directed to the board] this should be divided into two parts.
(25)	(S)	all Silence
(26)	(T)	[Teacher write on the board], before comma is time clause and after comma is main clause. Okay now give me with before.
(27)	(S)	Time clause and main clause.
(28)	(T)	thank you, [pause3secs], give me with before, [pause5secs], yes, using before, [pause2secs], Hamira
(29)	(S5)	... before I put it in the (pause)
(30)	(T)	= = before
(31)	(S5)	before I put it on the envelop, I had read my answers again and again
(32)	(T)	== So what is the past tense of read? And what is the past perfect?
(33)	(S4)	[pause3secs]

(34)	(T)	== OKAY; give me the sentence than we will explain
(35)	(T+S4)	[Teacher writes on the board] and the student pronounce the sentence: before I put it in the envelop, I had read my answers again and again.
(36)	(T)	Okay, so can you tell me, just a minuet please, can you tell me what are the past tense and the past perfect of read?
(37)	(S5)	[pause2secs] past perfect had read (ri:d).
(38)	(T)	Had read (ri:d),who thinks that what she said is correct? Fajaria, Yosif. Is it had read (ri:d). Is it pronounced correctly?
(39)	(T)	It is read (red). OKAY NOW USING AFTER, [pause2secs], (Sahlah)
(40)	(S6)	After I had waited two weeks, I received a reply.
(41)	(T)	the word which you said, pronounced incorrectly, It is (ri'plai)
(42)	(T)	Thank you now. Let's see the topic of this unit, which is "unexpected money". It means you either inherited this money or wining it on a competition or what ever or maybe you got it by working on holiday or you found this money somewhere. Oki, Now this case we have let me say we have oral practice first following what we did in the other unit on the procedure follow on this book that we have to do oral practice and than we read the sample paragraph later on we practice writing. So let's have a look at the oral practice and than I want students to ask and the other answers. [pause4secs], I want.... (Aisha) oral practice page (42) and [pause3secs] Mabroka, Mabroka okay. Both of you stand up
(43)	(T)	Aish would you please stand up also Mabroka.
(44)	(T)	Okay now. Ask her and I want (Iman) to come to the board and write the answer to the sentence.
(45)	(T)	Yes, Aisha starts with the first question
(46)	(S6)	Ha... Ha...Ha

(47) (T)	First use the following substitution table to make up sentences just minute please. Recently, three months ago or last week choose one of them.
(48) (T)	I UNEXPECTEDLY LOOK HER, THE FIRST SENTENCE THAT YOU TO START WITH, EITHER RECENTLY OR THREE MONTHS AGO AND DO NOT FORGET, THAT YOU ARE NARRATING SO WHAT TENSE WE USE GAZALA WHEN YOU NARRATE OR TELL STORY? JUST LOOK AT ME, WHAT TENSE YOU USE?
(49) (S6)	Past
(50) (T)	Good either past simple, past perfect or past continues.
(51) (S6)	Recently I unexpectedly found 300 LD.
(52) (S7)	How did you find this money?
(53) (T)	Yes Mabroka answer
(54) (S6)	I inherited this money.

Extract 4: Writing class (third year)

Turn speaker

<p>(1)</p>	<p>(T)</p> <p>Good morning, I would like you to try to understand how to change direct speech to indirect speech, we have already done some working in writing dialogue and writing conversation, you still remember that, also as far as the concerned is the first part which is direct speech last time we do it very shortly, but now we will do it in other way, the direct speech will be given in a long dialogue, do you still remember that last time we worked with such short lines and patterns and we did changed to indirect and direct speech, now we will work in such a long dialogue, so I need you to change it to indirect speech, in the last class you might remember we talked about many things for example statements and how to deal with statements in writing to give some selection and I told you that you can choose between several words like acquires, instructed, want etc...,also we deal with question and some times with exclamation you still remember that, also told you actually this deserve specialist for example if you take statement itself it might need a long time but unfortunately we don't have much time to deal with grammatical aspect of it, because it suppose to be done in grammar class, so you can keep all of these things in your mind what we discussed in the last class and give me your suggestion, now look at the patterns in the board. It's already before you, what I write on the blackboard is a just reported, now obviously this is a piece of conversation between two people Tom and Ali, Tom begin the conversation by initiate the other man hallo, good morning and naturally that's reply in the same manner, so how will you change this to reported?</p>
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(2)	(S)	[pause5secs] [Students waiting for the teacher to direct the question].
(3)	(T)	Any one, Mabroka how will you changed that?
(4)	(S1)	Tom said to Ali Hallo and Good morning.
(5)	(T)	Is it right to say Tom said to Ali Good morning?
(6)	(S2)	Hallo good morning Tom said to Ali.
(7)	(T)	if you say hallo good morning Tom said to Ali, still be direct speech, it will not be indirect speech, another one
(8)	(S3)	Tom told to Ali good morning and hallo.
(9)	(T)	Again you can not say Tom told to Ali because it is not a good a grammatical structure
(10)	(S4)	What about Tom said good morning to Ali?
(11)	(T)	okay let us try writing that (Tom said good morning to Ali) [teacher use the board] , do not write this just look and we can include this, there is one problem in the greeting, It is not only good morning it's hallo and good morning, It is not simply good morning, so how can you include this in? so I will give you suggestion when you have such words: hallo, Hi, good morning etc.... You just say (Tom greeted Ali), you don't need to give the exact word, so the better should be [teacher use the board] (Tom greeted Ali and wished him good morning). This is would be better than said Tom said to Ali hallo and good morning. These things are not very good in writing. So this is the proper form. Now can you give the reply? (Ali: Good morning. How are you today?)
(12)	(S5)	Ali replied the same greeted.
(13)	(T)	[teacher use the board], so you can say, Instead of reply, it is not

		reply, okay when greeting is given, you can returned the greeting, so you can say: Ali returned the greeting).
(14)	(S)	Excuse me doctor can we say: Tom meet Ali and wished him good morning.
(15)	(T)	It is a wrong tense meet and you can use met. Yes you can no problem. I am not saying this is the only answer. So you can write it in many forms acceptable grammatically. So this is only one model and you can follow some other models, so you can say (Ali returned the greeting andpause. Can you complete?
(16)	(S)	and asked him about the return.
(17)	(T)	no no. not the return just look at board? How are you today? Just put it in indirect speech.
(18)	(S)	And asked him how are you today
(19)	(T)	no. and asked him... you have to change the pronoun and the tense too, so
(20)	(S)	And asked him how he was yesterday?
(21)	(T)	I need some one who has not talked. some one from that side. What about Tom's reply?
(22)	(S)	Tom replied that he was fine and asked him about the exam.
(23)	(T)	In the coming reply there is "Oh" in the beginning and you don't have to use it as soon as you keep yourself going in the meaning. The reply for Ali is (oh, the exam. It is for linguistics. Isn't it? It supposed to start at 10 o'clock). So how can you put it in indirect speech? I need one of you to give his suggestion.
(24)	(S)	Ali asked him if the exam wasn't for linguistics. He added that it was supposed to start at 10 o'clock.
(25)	(T)	Now we have covered the difficult part. Now I need one to give

		me the final answer for this part (I'm slightly nervous about it. Have you prepared well?
(26)	(S)	Students speak to each other
(27)	(T)	Speak up that's what I want. Don't forget to change the tense.
(28)	(S)	Tom said that he was slightly nervous about it and asked him if he had prepared well.
(29)	(T)	Very good. Now we come to the last part of the conversation, which is (well, not that much I remember something from the lectures).
(30)	(S)	Ali replied that he had not prepared that much.
(31)	(T)	One more sentence from Ali.
(32)	(S)	He added that he remembered something lectures).
(33)	(T)	Okay, So we have understood general techniques for changing dialogues from direct speech to indirect speech. As an example in greeting and how you ignore the specific words like good morning, good after noon etc....so instead of repeating these words just use the word greeting.

Extract 5: Conversation class (fourth year)

Turn speaker

(1)	(T)	Let us start one by one and let us start with Zaiad.
(2)	(S1)	Some students in the university, especially in our university in the faculty of Arts and science, there is some negative things or negative sign in the university especially as (pause), as a big university lets talk about smoking, you know smoking?
(3)	(T)	yes it is one of a bad habit
(4)	(T)	I understand you, but smoking not only bad for college students, its bad for all people, so you mean that most of male student in this university are smoking, therefore, this bad habit spread between the college students, do you support this habit?
(5)	(S1)	no of course not
(6)	(T)	What about other students?
(7)	(S2)	I do not thing so
(8)	(T)	There is some people support smoking
(9)	(S1)	few good points smoking this tobacco, smoke it kills the bacteria you know, I have friend and he was a science and he said before I go to the science department to check the patients he said I have to smoke because you know this tobacco or smoking kills the bacteria in the nasal. So he can just check the patients comfortable
(10)	(T)	Some people like the smell of smoke. Some cigarette has a good smell
(11)	(S1)	Yes its mantel. It is kind of cigarette.
(12)	(T)	There are some people like to smoke
(13)	(S1)	
(14)	(S1)	You know my friend said to me before I smoke I see the life only white and black and after I smoke I see colors. It is funny
(15)	(T)	It is funny still some people like to smoke
(16)	(S3)	For me no.
(17)	(T)	Is there any advantage of smoking? People said that smoking making me happy
(18)	(S3)	In my opinion I think that if you want to feel happy you do not have to smoke because smoking makes you happy and kill yourself.

(19)	(T)	Smoking kills the bacteria.
(20)	(S)	Okay, but causes problem too.



Appendix 2

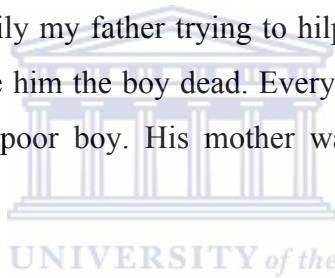
Written texts

Student 1

Text 1

Q 1: Write a paragraph (80-100) words about the saddest time in your life

I was seventeen years old. I and my family decided that to went to the beach in the last summer. While my father, my sister and I were playing apasket ball, they saw a little boy drowning in the sea. Immediatily my father trying to hilp him. But, he couldn't. After a big starggle of sercuers to save him the boy dead. Every one on the beach was very sad about what happened to that poor boy. His mother was cried very much and I was frightened.



Q2: Write a paragraph (80-100) words comparing the place you are now living in with a place you lived before.

Text (2)

My old place and my anew place are very different. Before three years my family were living in an old house which is asmall and in bad avillage. There are three small rooms in it with a small kitchen and it was a far from the university and the shopes. But, my new place is in the center of the city. Our house is a big and beautiful. There are five rooms in it with a big kitchen and a garden in the middle of it. It is near from the university and we can shopping every day in the short time. Because it is near from the shopes. There is a park behind it. So, I love my new place.

Q3: While your neighbour is on holiday you accidentally break one of his windows. Write to him explaining how it happened and telling him what you have done to make good the damage.

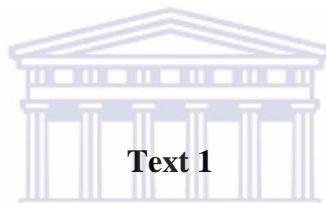
Text (3)

Dear my neighbour,

How are you? I hope you and the family are well. I am writing this letter to apologize about what happened to your window which I had broken. While I was playing football in the street, I broke it. But I didn't mean that. I hope you will forgive me about what happened and I promise you that I will change your broken window.

Send my regards to your husband. Yours sincerely,

Student 2:



Q1: Write a paragraph (80-100) words about the saddest time in your life

When I was seventeen years old I and family spend our summer holiday on the beach, when me and my father were playing basket ball we saw a little boy was drowning in the sea. I quickly ran to the rescuers who quickly came to the help. After a big struggle of the rescuers to save that boy. The boy died. So they decided that we wouldn't spend our holiday on the sea, and I'll never forget this bad moment.

Q2: Write a paragraph (80-100) words comparing the place you are now living with a place you lived before.

Text (2)

Three years ago I lived in a village. I used to take a long time every day from university which is the town to go there and there are no shops there. Now I am living in a beautiful and big town. I go to the university in a short time by a bus. In the town there are many places to go there like shops, restaurants and parks. I love my new town I am living now, because it's better than a village I used to live in.

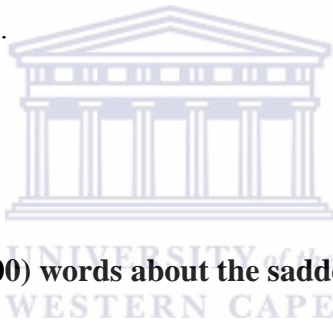
Q3: While your neighbour is on holiday you accidentally break one of his windows. Write to him explaining how it happened and telling him what you have done to make good the damage.

Text (3)

Dear my neighbour,

How are you? I hope you and family are well. I am writing this letter to apologize about what happened to your window which had broken. While I was playing football in the street, I broke your window, but we didn't mean that, I know that was a bad behaviour, and I promise you that we will not playing in the street again, and we will play in the playground. I hope you forgive me about what happened and I promise you that I will change your broken window.

Send my regards to your family.



Student 3:

Q1: Write a paragraph (80-100) words about the saddest time in your life

Text 1

When I was seventeen. I and the family spent our summer holiday on the beach. While I and my father were playing basket ball on the beach, I saw a little boy was drowning in the sea. I quickly to call the rescuers to help him. After abig struggle of the rescuers to save the boy, suddenly the boy died. We decided that we shouldn't to go to spent our summer holiday in the sea and I'll never forget that sad moment.

Q2: Write a paragraph (80-100) words comparing the place you are now living with a place you lived before.

Text 2

The house I am living in now is more comfortable than the flat I lived three years ago, regard with the size, the house is bigger than the flat. It is in 300 square meters,

concerning the rooms, the house has more rooms. It separate the kitchen and the dining room, whereas the kitchen and the dining room are not separate in the flat. Moreover there is three bedrooms and two bathrooms are one bathroom in the flat, Regarding location, the house is situated in a nice area and only two minutes walk from the city center, whereas the flat is in the country side.

Q3: While your neighbour is on holiday you accidentally break one of his windows. Write to him explaining how it happened and telling him what you have done to make good the damage.

Text 3

Dear my neighbour,

How are you? I hope your health is good and your family are very well. I am writing to you this letter to apologize about what happened to your window, which my children had broken while my children were playing football in the street. We broken your windows, but we did not mean that. I know that was a bad behaviour. I promise you they will not play in the street again and we will play in the playground. I hope you forgive me about what happened and promise you I will change your broken windows.

Send your regards to your wife and children.

Students 4

Q1: Write a paragraph (80-100) words about the saddest time in your life

Text 1

When I was seventeen years old, I went with my family to spend our summer holiday on the beach. While I and my father were playing basketball we saw a little boy drowning in the sea. I quickly ran to call the rescuers who quickly came to help, and they tried to much save him, but the boy died. I am very sad and we went back to our house in that day because we couldn't seeing the boy's mother when she was crying and all the people

wipy with her. We decided that we didn't come to the sea again and I never didn't forget this sad fact.

Q2: Write a paragraph (80-100) words comparing the place you are now living with a place you lived before.

Text 2

My old house and my new house are very different. Before three years ago my family was living in old house. It was small and situated in a bad area and has only three bedrooms and living room with small kitchen and one bathroom. Our family has become bigger and this house was small so my father decided that we must leave to a new house. My new house is large and comfortable and situated in a nice area. There are a large supermarket and the park beside us. Our new house has five bedrooms, two living rooms, three bathrooms and large kitchen with a nice garden which is full of trees and flowers. Furthermore my university not far about it, so I like my new house.

Q3: While your neighbour is on holiday you accidentally break one of his windows. Write to him explaining how it happened and telling him what you have done to make good the damage.

Text 3

Dear my neighbour,

How are you? I hope you and your family are well and your news are good. I am writing this letter to apologize about what happened to your window which my children broken. While my children were playing football in the street, they broke one of your windows. I know that was a bad behaviour, but they didn't mean that. I am really so sorry about this fact and I promise you they didn't play in the street again, they will play in playground. I hope that you accept my apology and I promise you I will change the broke window. Please send my apology and regards to your wife.

Student 5:

Q1: Write a paragraph (80-100) words about the saddest time in your life

Text 1

The first visit school when I was five years old. I and my grand father went to school. I felt very afraid. I and my grand father went to the gate felt fraghted from the strange faces and a large building. Then I took another gate and ran home. When I back home, I was crying and afraid. Later my grand father back home little later. He was surprise in t home. He found me stay near my mother very quite happy.

Q2: Write a paragraph (80-100) words comparing the place you are now living with a place you lived before.

Text 2

My old house and my a new house are very different. Before three years ago I lived in the small house with bad area. It location was very bad. It was on Amian road and very far from supermarket and university, but now I living in a big house and very beautiful. There are five rooms, large kitchen and two bathrooms, furthermore, there is a big garden surrounded it. It is a modern quite street and very near from my university and supermarket. I like living now because it's location very excellent.

Q3: While your neighbour is on holiday you accidentally break one of his windows. Write to him explaining how it happened and telling him what you have done to make good the damage.

Text 3

Dear my neighbour,

How are you? Wish you happy new year and I hope you and family are well. I am writing the latter apologize about to happened to the window. While my children were playing in the street, they were broken his window. You didn't mean that. I know it bad behaviour. But I promise you that, they did not again playing in the street. They will playing in the

playground and again I am sorry. I promise you that. I will change broken his window you don't worry.

Please send my regards to your husband and child

Student 6:

Q1: Write a paragraph (80-100) words about the saddest time in your life

Text 1

Three years ago, I happened to me accident. It make me in risk mood. The accident happened in the street when I went to the school. While I cut the street there was a car. It come very fast, when saw the car from far I could not move of the car. The driver tried far away the car at me, but he couldn't do that because he was surprising from me in the road. He beat me on my leg, when he beat me, he didn't ran away. He take me to hospital. This accident made me to missed the examination. The accident broke my legs. When I was hearing about the examination, I was very sad because it happened two accident that year first the accident, second missed my examination.

Q2: Write a paragraph (80-100) words comparing the place you are now living with a place you lived before.

Text 2

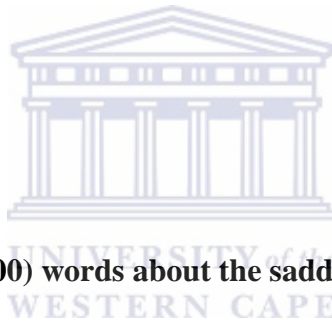
Two years ago, I was living in the village. The village was a beautiful place. My family were living there. I born and grow up in the village. When I finished secondary school I went to university. There wasn't a university in my village and I was tiring from walked every day to school. But, now I lived in a city. The city beautiful place and I can know many people, find friends and go to university. Every thing I want, I can find near from where I live.

Q3: While your neighbour is on holiday you accidentally break one of his windows. Write to him explaining how it happened and telling him what you have done to make good the damage.

Text 3

Dear neighbour,

How are you? I hope you happy new year. I am very sorry about your window. I am writing to you explaining how the accident happened. The accident happened by wrong. My children were playing football in the garden, they play football. My child shut to the ball to brother but the ball broke to the window but he don't seek that. So I am very sorry again. Please forgive me and my children this wrong and I apologize for that. I can do any thing for you, I can fix to the damage.



Student 7:

Q1: Write a paragraph (80-100) words about the saddest time in your life

Text 1

I was seventeen years old. I and my family spent our summer holiday on the beach. When me and my father were playing basketball. We saw a little boy drawing in the sea. I quickly ran to call rescuers who quickly to come help. After a big struggle to save to that boy. The boy dead. So she decided that we would not spend holiday

Q2: Write a paragraph (80-100) words comparing the place you are now living with a place you lived before.

Text 2

I living now is a new house is more comfortable than flat. I live three years ago. With regard to size. The house is bigger than flat. The area 300 square meters. Concerning the room, the house has more rooms than flat. There are three bedrooms and two bathrooms

in the house while there are two bedroom and one bathroom in the flat. The separate the kitchen and separate the dining room.

Q3: While your neighbour is on holiday you accidentally break one of his windows. Write to him explaining how it happened and telling him what you have done to make good the damage.

He did not write this paragraph

Student 8:

Q1: Write a paragraph (80-100) words about the saddest time in your life



Text 1

When I was seventeen years old I and my family decided to went in the holiday summer to the beach for get interesting and enjoyed ourselves. While I and my father played the basketball, we saw the boy comes in the sea. I immediatly called the rescuers was stranger strong and a large. After that came the rescuers and found the boy died. I was more weeping on the boy then we back to our house and I decided didn't go again to the beach in the summer holiday. I couldn't forget the sad moment. This action was very dangerous and still in the mind to today.

Q2: Write a paragraph (80-100) words comparing the place you are now living with a place you lived before.

Text 2

Three years ago I was lived in small village I use to take a long time when I go to the university. But I take a short time after living the country by buses. And in the village there is not any shops but in the country there is many places such as restaurants, shops, and parks. The country is very beautiful places than the village who will back living in

after my finished of university. As in the country I take two minutes to arrived the city centre but in the village took a long time.

Q3: While your neighbour is on holiday you accidentally break one of his windows. Write to him explaining how it happened and telling him what you have done to make good the damage.

Text 3

Dear my neighbour

How are you? I hope you is good health and your family is very well. I am writing to you this letter to apologize. While my children were played football in the street, they broken your window. I don't know when they played in street but they didn't mean broken. You promise not played it he street again and they will played in the lay garden and I promise you for buy



Student 9

Q1: Write a paragraph (80-100) words about the saddest time in your life

Text 1

When I was ten years old I and family spent on summer holiday on the beach. While made my father were playing football. We saw the boy was drawing in the sea. I quickly ran of the call rescuers who quickly come to help. After that the struggle of the rescures the save that boy. The boy died, so we decided that we would not go to spend in the summer holiday on the sea. I will never forget the sad moment.

Q2: Write a paragraph (80-100) words comparing the place you are now living with a place you lived before.

Text 2

Now living and old before lived are very different. Before there years my family was lived in on old house which was small and in it there are two rooms with small kitchen and it was near the main road. But the new house living is very beautiful and big and in it there are four rooms with garden in the middle if it and it is behind supermarket and near the park, so I love my new house living.

Q3: While your neighbour is on holiday you accidentally break one of his windows. Write to him explaining how it happened and telling him what you have done to make good the damage.

Text 3

Dear neighbour,

How are you? I hope you and the family are will. I am writing to apologize about what happened and telling him to your window while your is on holiday which my children had broken.

While my children were playing football in the street they broke your window, but they did not mean that. I know that was a bad behaviour. But I will change your broke window. I am sorry about that. I hope of you forgive us.

Please accept apologizes. Send my regards to your family.

Student 10:

Q1: Write a paragraph (80-100) words about the saddest time in your life

Text 1

When I was eight years ago I want with my familly the beach. My father is play football with my brother he see the children in the sea before I want to the hospital children still leave, after that he diet my father he is very sad I said I don't sea again because is very saddest time.

Q2: Write a paragraph (80-100) words comparing the place you are now living with a place you lived before.

Text 2

Old house and new house very different, before living three years ago my old house is very small area and three rooms only and small kitchen, too. Near the further road is very noise private cars but my new house is very big and good area in the house find five rooms and three bedrooms and very big kitchen behind the house near the supermarket and garden is very big in the house. It is very comfortable and good my new house.

Q3: While your neighbour is on holiday you accidentally break one of his windows. Write to him explaining how it happened and telling him what you have done to make good the damage.

Text (3)

Dear neighbour,

I hope you are well family, and what happened about break one of his window. I am writing apologize about break on of his window. The children play in street broken the window and not play again in the street because behavior bad.

I promise for you and I should repair the window. I invited to you lunch in last week please don't hesitate to come.

Send my regards husband and children.

Student 11

Q1: Write a paragraph (80-100) words about the saddest time in your life

Text 1

The saddest time in my life when my grand mother death. We still remember that happened in my life when I was fourteen years old my grand mother death she was all my life. When she died many people collected in her home. The happened very tragic for me

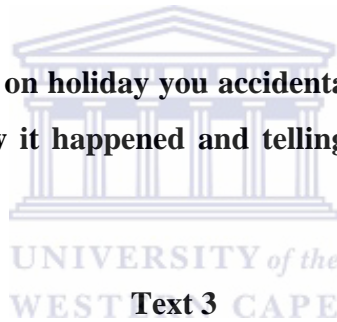
the people gathered around him coffin. She was weeping and I was stayed the people don't know story. I only know it because I am not see again.

Q2: Write a paragraph (80-100) words comparing the place you are now living with a place you lived before.

Text 2

My old house and my new house. Before three years ago I was living in old house my old house was very bad and small. My old house don't beside the park and very far of stop bus. My new house very big and more comfortable. My new house studied a big area and beautiful there are five rooms and a big kitchen with three bathrooms and a nice living room my new house is the city center and near of park.

Q3: While your neighbour is on holiday you accidentally break one of his windows. Write to him explaining how it happened and telling him what you have done to make good the damage.



Dear neighbour.

How are you? I hope you and your family are well. I am writing to inform you that about happened to his window broken of my children. My children did not mean that. They were playing in the street and a window broke. I very sorry on that. I promise it is will play in play ground again. I apologize on this bad inI am writing for changed his a window broke and bought another a new window.

Please sent my regard to his wife and children.

Student 12

Q1: Write a paragraph (80-100) words about the saddest time in your life

Text 1

When I was seventeen years old I and family spent our summer holiday on the beach. While me and my father were playing basketball. We saw a little boy was drowning in the sea. I quickly ran to call the rescuers who quickly come to help. After the struggle of the rescuers to save the boy. The boy died. So, we decided that we would not go to spent on the sea. I'll never forget this sad moment. From this events I does not like the sea, because it kill many people.

Q2: Write a paragraph (80-100) words comparing the place you are now living with a place you lived before.

Text 2

Three years ago. I was live in asmall village and our old house is not near from the university and supermarket and in our old house there are three rooms with a small kitchen and bathroom. But our new house is in the center of the town and it is very big and comfortable. Our new house there are five rooms with the garden in the middle of it and in it there three bathrooms with big kitchen. Our new house behind the supermarket near a park. So I like our new house.

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Q3: While your neighbour is on holiday you accidentally break one of his windows. Write to him explaining how it happened and telling him what you have done to make good the damage.

Text 3

Dear my neighbour,

Hi, How are you? I hope you and the family are well. I am writing to you this letter to apologize and explain what happened about broken your window which my children had broke it. While my children playing football in the street, we will broken your window but they didn't mean that. I know that you a bad behavior, but I promise that they will playing in the street and they will play in the playground.

I hope you give me what happened and I pramise that I will change to broken your window.

Send my regards to your husband and children.

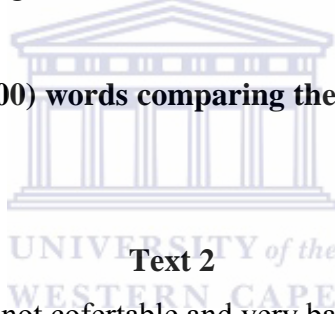
Student 13:

Q1: Write a paragraph (80-100) words about the saddest time in your life

Text 1

When I was ten years old. My uncle died, this was first day went to a funarl. My mother bought me my suit, and we went to my uncl's house, I saw my aunt and other woman were weeping, He was in the coffin I felt avery fried. Later the caffin, taken to the waiting car. When they taked the caffin in the ground, all we weept. After that we came bck to my house and I was very glad because the funar finished.

Q2: Write a paragraph (80-100) words comparing the place you are now living with a place you lived before.



Text 2

I was live in small hous, it was not cofertable and very bad but now I live in big house, it is very big and comfortable, in it three bedroom, siting rooms, kitchen and two bathroom. around my new house there is big garden in it many trees and playground, but in my old house there wasn't garden. In my old house there were only two bed room, and one bathroom, and in the wall there was very brok. The old street was very sall and dirty, but new street is cleaned very big. And my new neighbour are very humble, but my old neighbour were very bad.

Q3: While your neighbour is on holiday you accidentally break one of his windows. Write to him explaining how it happened and telling him what you have done to make good the damage.

Text 3

My neighbour,

I hope you and family are well, and happy new year. I am writing for you to apologize for the happen and I'll explain how it happened. My children were playing in the street. Suddenly the football broke your window but they didn't mean. I promise you they don't play in the street again, and I'll buy new window for you. I'll go to you next week, see you soon.

Student 14:

Q1: Write a paragraph (80-100) words about the saddest time in your life

Text 1

When I was seventeen. I with my family go to the beach in the summer. We stayed in the beach two weeks, and we had a good time in the beach, we are played, swam and walked in the beach. We are took a great week, but when I was played tennis with my brother, we saw many boys drowning in the sea. I and my brother went quickly to call scurres and ask him came to help. After one houer the scurres come and they tried to take the boys. But they couldn't to do anything because the boys died. I decided with my family, we didn't go to the beach again and I couldn't forget this bad moment. This is the saddest time in my life.

Q2: Write a paragraph (80-100) words comparing the place you are now living with a place you lived before.

Text 2

Before three years ago, I lived in flat, but now I living in a big house. The house I living it know is a nice sestuation and good area, but the old one is a bad sestuation and bad area. The new house is bigger than the flat. The new house have a big garden and swimming pool, but the flat haven't and the house I living now have a five bedrooms, three bathrooms and a big kitchen with dining room. But the flat I lived before have three

bed rooms, two bathrooms and small kitchen. The haven't dining room. So the new house better than the old one, I lived before and I love the new house.

Q3: While your neighbour is on holiday you accidentally break one of his windows. Write to him explaining how it happened and telling him what you have done to make good the damage.

Text 3

Dear: my neighbour,

Hi! How are you? I wish you had a good holiday and I hope you and your family are well. I and my family are very well. I am writing to you to apologize about a bad behavior my children do it. While my children played in the garden by football, they broken your window. I know this is bad behavior, but they didn't mean it and I promise them if you want I would like to arrange the window which my children had broken, or please tell me how much its cost.

Send my best wishes to your family. I'm looking forward to seeing you soon.

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Student 15:

Q1: Write a paragraph (80-100) words about the saddest time in your life

Text 1

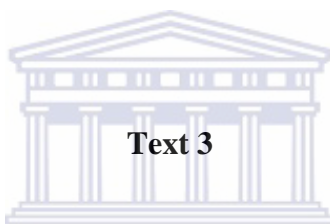
When I was ten years old, my uncle died. It is the saddest time in my life. My mother bought me a new suit and I walked to uncle's house. He was lying in a coffin and I felt a afraid and upset. My aunt and some other women were weeping. The coffin lifted and taken to a waiting car. When we arrived to the grave yard, the coffin was taken out of the car and carried to the grave. While it was lowered to the ground, we all wept. I was when the funeral finished.

Q2: Write a paragraph (80-100) words comparing the place you are now living with a place you lived before.

Text 2

Three years ago, I lived in a village in our house which was small with my family and I used to take along time from university which is in the town to go there and there are no shops there, so we decided to live in the town in the new big house which is very big. There are five room, big hall, wide kitchen, and the garden is the bottom of the house. The house is near of the park and behind the supermarket. And now I go to university by bus. There are many places to go to such as shops, restaurant, and park. I like to live in the town, because it better than the village which I used to live in.

Q3: While your neighbour is on holiday you accidentally break one of his windows. Write to him explaining how it happened and telling him what you have done to make good the damage.



Text 3

Dear my neighbour,

Hi! How are you? I hope you and your family are will. I am writing to you this a letter to apologize about what happened to your window which it had broken. While my children were playing football in the street, they broke your window, but they didn't mean that. I promise you they will not play the football again in the street, they will play in the playground.

Please to forgive me about what happened to your window which broken

Send my regards to your husband and children.

Appendix 3

Lecturers questionnaire

Q: 1- What are Libyan students' motivations for learning English?

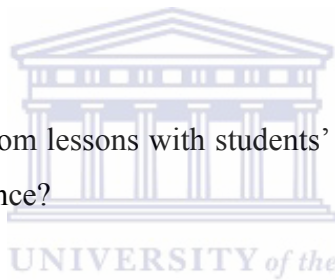
Q: 2- Do Libyan English students benefit academically?

Q: 3- What opportunities, academic, social, economic etc., are there for learning English in Libya?

Q: 4- In your experience, what problems do Libyan learners have in learning English?

Q: 5- What efforts do you make as a teacher in order to help students in addressing their learning difficulties?

Q: 6- How do you link classroom lessons with students' real learning (of other subjects) or with real life experience?



Q: 7- What is your opinion as a teacher on students' learning practices and on that kind of difficulties students always face in their English learning?

Q: 8- What are the difficulties in adopting communication activities in teaching English in Libyan social context?

Q: 9- What process do you follow in introducing the lessons? Is it deductive, inductive or traditional and which one do you find most helpful for you and the students? and why?

Q: 10- What effectiveness processes and strategies have you followed in your classroom to ensure the successful implementation of the language learning?

Q: 11- What kind of materials and techniques you use always in teaching English in Libyan social context?

Q: 12- Do you find the material used for teaching English useful and effective? If yes why and how? If not, how do you think they could be improved?

Lecturer 1

A: Q1: Libyan students are found very eager to learn English. They do understand the importance of English as a language of global communication. Internet has opened up a lot of opportunities to its users and its prime language being English it offers a great inspiration to its users to learn this language. Further this is the language of Science and Technology and government of Libya sends score of students abroad for higher studies. Presently most of the students want to go to English speaking countries or to countries where Higher Studies are done in English, therefore, the inspiration to facilitate their work by learning English in advance is there for Libyan students.

A: Q2: Yes they do. Especially the change of syllabi at schools has benefited the Libyan students a lot. Right from the initial stage the students are offered specialized streams they intend to go in their later life and then interest specific English is taught which ultimately comes out academically very helpful to them in the furtherance of their studies.

A: Q3: Libyan society does not offer great opportunities to its students to learn English outside the class. There is no social context for English in Libya. Pupils are shy to speak English outside their classes. Not many private institutions are available for eager learners of this language. Education is taken care of by the government; therefore, there is no economic strain on ordinary Libyan student, only that opportunities are very limited.

A: Q4: There are scores of problems the students face in Libya. There are not enough opportunities and openings for students to learn English. Outside the classroom the social atmosphere is not very conducive to use this language. In the absence of any opportunity

to speak English the students mainly depend on their memory and rely more on grammar rules to write correct English. Naturally they mostly speak wrong English as the state of automation is very difficult to achieve in Spoken English in Libya. There is also an acute shortage of reading material in English: very few newspapers, magazines and books enter Libya.

A: Q5: I provide reading material first that I need to discuss in the class. A great deal of stress is also laid on students' participation so that the near absence of language activity outside the class is compensated for. I quite agree with the view that in modern English teaching methods the teacher is placed at the receiving end of class activity and most of the work is to be done by the students. The teacher is there to regulate as well as encourage them in their language activities of the day.

A: Q6: The classroom lessons don't relate much to students' real life experiences. Libya is a country of English as a foreign language. However, the students benefit from their knowledge of English when they go abroad for visits or higher studies. As it has been mentioned earlier their exposure to Internet has largely prompted them to learn English.

A: Q7: They are very poor in vocabulary. They don't have ample opportunity to use English outside their classes. Grammar is poor because of disuse. They are not exposed to enough reading material therefore lack a great deal in comprehension.

A: Q8: They don't have very conducive social environment to speak English, although the society realizes the importance of English in present day life. Communicative activities must have already been started at schools where the dearth of qualified teachers in fact is causing the entire problem. At university level students should have already been able to speak to certain extent whereas the situation is not very encouraging.

A: Q9: I adopt a hybrid approach (mixing inductive, deductive and traditional methods) according to the need of the topic and I have found it very useful as it gives me the flexibility to adjust my lectures according to the requirement and the level of my classes.

A: Q10: Largely I have encouraged students' participation whenever it is possible. At times certain critical questions are asked in the class and all kinds of possible answers are prompted. Students are not allowed to make fun of each other even if the answer is the silliest of all. Before anything is read and discussed in the class it is orally introduced to the class with books closed providing the students some oral/auditory concepts on the topic before they have visual contact with the material to be exploited. The dictum that 'auditory symbols should precede visual symbols' is largely followed in all classes.

A: Q11: A great care is taken that class is self sufficient in all respects and should provide enough drills and activities suitable to the lecture plans providing the students ample opportunities to exploit their language because there is no such opportunity available outside the class to engage in such activities. Material is provided, as should have cultural relevance to an Arab-Islamic society so that there is no inhibition on the part of students to appreciate the context and engage fully in the learning process. Topics for discussion are also chosen carefully having direct link to Libyan ethnic, social and cultural realities so that the students feel at home while discussing those things. At the same time however, sometimes it becomes essential to provide English social and cultural background to students to fully understand the discourse.

A: Q12: Yes I find the material being used in the class very effective. It encourages the student participation in the class activities. There are class activities and drills on lessons that essentially speaking improves all four skills of inquisitive students. However, to augment students' interest and their potential in English it is suggested that extensive supplementary reading material should be provided on war footings.

Lecturer 2

A: Q1: The first and foremost motivation is an attractive job with private companies or foreign organizations. Second, using English to communicate with foreigners on phone,

internet, etc and enjoy films, music, TV programmes, etc. Third, become an English teacher. Fourth, (being able to use the international link language) to be highly fashionable elite in the society and be in the higher strata of the society.

A: Q2: A few of them, yes. Those who take education serious do benefit.

A: Q3: There are a lot of opportunities for learning English in Libya. All the colleges are moderately equipped with modern equipment to teach English. Language labs with TV, tape-recorder, OHP, computers, etc are widely available in Libya these days. In addition to these formal conveniences, there are satellite TV channels everywhere with different programmes in English for entertainment and education. For those who want to go for higher studies, there are so many chances provided by the Libyan universities to go abroad at the expense of the state.

A: Q4: Poor or insufficient teaching at school level. The school curriculum is not up to the mark, and probably most of the school teachers are not competent enough to teach English well. At the college level also the curriculum has to be revised and updated to make it equal to the standard level in any other part of the world.

A: Q5: I try to make the classes interesting to enable the students to enjoy the materials they learn so that they will be tempted to use the language. Discussions and debates on current affairs and interesting topics, and literary competitions are conducted frequently to make them have interest in English as a live language. Interactive programmes are introduced to make the students express themselves in English.

A: Q6: They are provided with the assignments that enable them to use English in their real life. For example, they will be asked to write invitation letters for the various social occasions like birthday party, house-warming, New Year celebrations, wedding party, etc; thanks-giving notes, congratulatory notes, condolence notes, etc; leave letters, applications, replies to the letters and notes they receive, etc on a regular basis whenever any such occasions come up. They will be asked to use English in their conversations

with their classmates, and they will be given assignments to go to the netcafes and check the websites to collect information on the topics they learn. Extra-curricular activities like publishing little magazines with students' articles and write-ups will be encouraged to make them use their own proficiency to express their creative ideas in English.

A: Q7: Unnecessary fear on the part of the students about English language hampers their progress. There is a kind of phobia in the case of some students when they are asked to do something in English.

A: Q8: The feeling that English is a European language and it's against Arabic come in the way on many occasions. For some, English is a social taboo.

A: Q9: Both deductive and inductive methods are more useful than the traditional ways. A learner-centred approach will give a chance to the students to participate in learning the topic, and it will give them confidence when the teacher asks for their ideas and opinions.

A: Q10: Giving topics to discuss and debate, encouraging the students to participate in the dialogues by means of making provoking suggestions or negative comments on the topic. For example, arguing that smoking is a good habit will make even the weaker students to say something about it. Giving erroneous remarks and statements for their correction to inspire them to use their knowledge about the language. For example, wrong expressions like "No smoke", "Excusing me", etc that require the error analysis techniques.

A: Q11: Only those that the students can understand. I always consider their cultural background to select the topics and material while teaching. Western cultural and social set up cannot be easily followed by all the students.

A: Q12: Some of them, yes. It depends on the teachers. In my case I never use any material that is not effective. Since we have freedom to choose the material, it's better to choose something the students like and understand. For example, in teaching literary

subjects, it's better to select some text that is modern and useful to the students rather than the dry dull ancient classics. For example, there are some teachers who stick to the Shakespearian sonnets and tragedies to teach the literature. It's time we changed such narrow-mindedness.

Lecturer 3

A: Q1: To get a job as a teacher in a school, to work as a translator or secretary, to go abroad on a scholarship.

A: Q2: Not much. Most of the syllabi offered encourage memorisation, not cognition. 95% of the students just want to 'pass' and get a certificate.

A: Q3: Social opportunities are close to nil. Academic opportunities exist within limits in some good schools/universities. Economic opportunities exist in foreign companies, media etc.

A: Q4: English has still only EFL status. Save in the classroom, the student has very little opportunity for interaction in English. Libya has very traditional societal norms, requiring use of the mother tongue at all levels.

A: Q5: Encourage them to use English as much as possible during university hours. Give them extra work, inviting their attention to TV and Internet programmes in English.

A: Q6: Apparently there is no link at all. In the university where I teach each teacher has his or her own syllabus which may or may not relate to what else is being taught to them, or to the outside world in general.

A: Q7: I think this has already been answered. I can add the following difficulties:

- Late introduction of English at school.
- Dearth of good teachers in early classes.

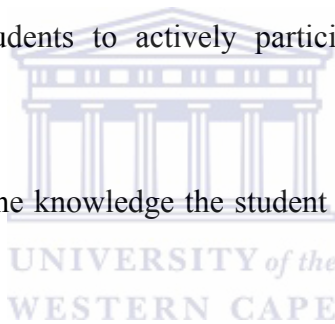
- Dearth of extra reading material for use outside class hours.
- Dearth of interactive contexts.
- Prevalence of outdated and dysfunctional syllabi.

A: Q8: This also has been partly answered before. Arabic is still the norm in Libya, unlike countries like India where English is the official language of communication. Also Libyan society is still highly monolithic, making it very resistant to innovations.

A: Q9: In my linguistics classes I prefer to use the inductive approach, since it makes the concepts clearer and the facts stick to their minds better. For other classes I use a combination of all three.

A: Q10: I encourage the students to actively participate in the lecture by asking questions, giving examples etc

A: Q11: Those that build on the knowledge the student already has, and relevant to the context.



A: Q12: In some limited contexts, yes, where the material builds upon what the student has actually learned, provides connectives to real life situations, is complementary to other subjects being taught. The syllabus covers such topics as history of the English language, the features of language, an account of the various schools of linguistics, in addition to some topics in general linguistics etc. While admitting that the above topics are justified when seen in relation to a course of English language spanning four years, care must be taken in presenting linguistic concepts, so that the student can gradually realise the linguistic facts behind listening, speaking, reading and writing. Instead of aiming at building up a theoretical foundation in linguistics at this level, students must be led towards a scientific comprehension of how people use English for communication in actual life. For example when dealing with morphology and syntax the teacher can discuss the linguistic reasons behind the unacceptability of a letter of application drafted by a student or why a certain passage is considered stylistically inappropriate for a certain

occasion. It would be beneficial if the linguistics classes could be structured in accordance with the (revised) course content of the other subjects mentioned before. Also it is necessary that instead of working within a self contained framework for one academic year only, such courses should follow a developmental trajectory, i.e. what has been accomplished in one year should be a logical progression of, or a systematic introduction to, the work of another year.

Lecturer 4

A: Q1: According to the research work entitled “Attitudes of Libyan Students towards English: A Survey”, carried out by Aisha G. Abushnaf et.al (2005), and supervised by me, 90% of the Libyan students under study like to learn English since it is an international language, 14% of them since it is an active foreign language in Libya, 14% of them since it was taught well in their school, 6% of them since one of each subject’s relatives knows English, and 16% of them since it is easy for them.

The study also reflects on their needs for learning English. 36% of the Libyan students under study are in need to learn English since it will make them better persons in their career, 36% of them need it since it is the language of information, 30% of them need it for their work, 30% of them need it for their business, 30% of them need it for their study in a foreign country, and 10% of them need it to travel in the world.

Hence, the study evinces that the Libyan students are motivated to learn English by their impressions and career needs as mentioned above.

A: Q2: Since the syllabi are not centralized and it is the teacher who has full control over the syllabus, the academic benefit to the students depends on the objectives and the language needs targeted by the teacher in the course he or she offers.

On the other hand, when the students are offered skill-based modules, they enjoy the course and they have the abilities to learn and use the language skills effectively.

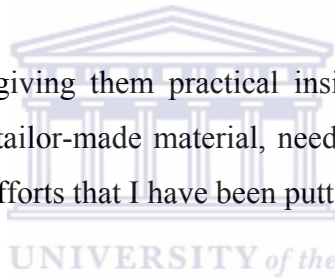
A: Q3: In Libya, as far as my knowledge goes, the government has been spending a considerable amount of money to provide quality English language education. Recruiting foreign teachers evinces that the government pays attention to pay and get quality English language education.

Since English has a foreign language status in Libya, social opportunities that aid the students' learning of the English language are not at all encouraging.

There are sufficient academic opportunities but often unexplored. For instance, every university student has to study English for the first two years of the programme. Unfortunately, it has been taken as an exam-oriented opportunity rather than a language-oriented.

A: Q4: With regard to English, the learners have accentual and functional problems.

A: Q5: Targeting the skills, giving them practical insights into language, using TfU framework of teaching, using tailor-made material, needs analysis and restructuring the courses etc... are some of the efforts that I have been putting in.



A: Q6: For instance, after teaching the 'Distribution Theory' in Phonology, I have asked the students to reflect on the Libyan Arabic in the light of the theory. This encouragement has enabled them to feel the theory very closely. Later, I asked to look into some other languages accessing some websites. That has boosted their understanding of the theory and their working knowledge of the theory.

A: Q7: L1 interference

A: Q8: Identifying Libyan cultural communicative activities and using them in appropriate contexts in relation with the English language items.

A: Q9: I often use inductive approach. Yet, some times, I use deductive approach. It depends on the topic, level of the students, etc... When we use inductive, there can be an opportunity for the learners to use their logic and to involve in the learning process.

A: Q10: Pair-work, peer-work, peer discussions, oral presentations, language games, etc..

A: Q11: Since I have been teaching Linguistics and phonetics at the department, materials are different. When I teach language, I use handouts, bilingual word-lists, audio-visual material, language exercises, dictionaries, etc...

A: Q12: I found that the material I used has its own effect in the learning and teaching. Because it improves the working knowledge of English among the students.

Lecturer 5

A: Q1: To keep abreast of the changing global linguistic scenario, the instrumental motive is also strategic.

A: Q2: Yes

A: Q3: Linguistic aspects of Libya hold great antiquity. Learning of English as an effective “Lingua Franca” is useful for the prosperity and allied opportunities.

A: Q4: Interference of the mother tongue and uneven consonant shifts.

A: Q5: The difficulties of the students are realistically comprehended and diagnosed. Steps are being followed to promote zestful learning.

A: Q6: Suitable lessons are selected and orientation and instruction in tune with day to day situations of life are imparted effectively.

A: Q7: since students enjoy much freedom, they get more awareness to scan their difficulties, which turn to higher spirits of learning “the language” not “about the language”.

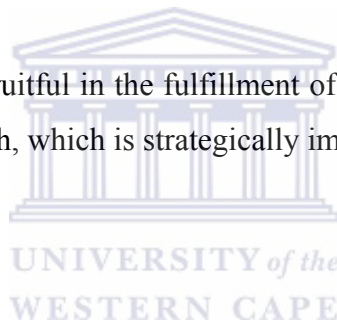
A: Q8: Difficulties associated to the lack of communicative activities in which the student has to supply sounds, words and structures needed to express his thought.

A: Q9: I adopt a method of manipulative language activities by providing suitable text deductive of the students' communicative skill.

A: Q10: Moving to 'manipulation' to 'communication' ----- in advanced level.

A: Q11: I move on through activities in which the proportion of communication increases, until the language is being used for the purpose for which it is intended, "communication"

A: Q12: Effective since it is fruitful in the fulfillment of the instrumental motive behind acquiring proficiency in English, which is strategically important in Libya.



Lecturer 6

A: Q1: To gain status in society, to go abroad, and to communicate with foreigners.

A: Q2: Yes, very much.

A: Q3: Classroom learning, and some journals, and newspapers in English.

A: Q4: Their system of writing and sounds, which are opposite to English.

A: Q5: As a teacher I give them confidence and make them aware of immense opportunities they would get after learning English.

A: Q6: Students should be more exposed to non-Arabic situations like youth exchange programmes to English speaking countries, areas etc...

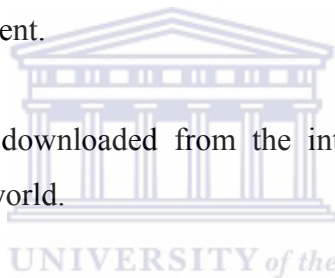
A: Q7: Students don't get right atmosphere at home or in the country to speak Arabic.

A: Q8: All the official communications are in Arabic, people speak to each other in Arabic, even foreigners learn Arabic for their survival.

A: Q9: I usually follow traditional method and I think it is most useful for students

A: Q10: Giving dictations (to improve spelling or to avoid spelling mistakes), making them read the lessons loudly, making them read out their own answers aloud have found to be making them more confident.

A: Q11: Textbook materials downloaded from the internet, extra information about things that happen around the world.



A: Q12: There should be unified syllabus taught through out Libya; there should be standard textbooks, examinations should be conducted in a centralized manner, exam papers should be re-checked by others; moderation should be taken away, education system on the whole should be more strict, selection for the posts should be only on the basis of merit after evaluating their proficiency in the language; teachers should be qualified, students also should be admitted after entrance exams.

Lecturer 7

A: Q1: Passing exam, getting job, going abroad.

A: Q2: Yes, they do.

A: Q3: There are academic, but social, economic etc... rare.

A: Q4: Lack of previous knowledge for university level study.

A: Q5: Expose them to the basic skills.

A: Q6: Plan the lessons to ESP.

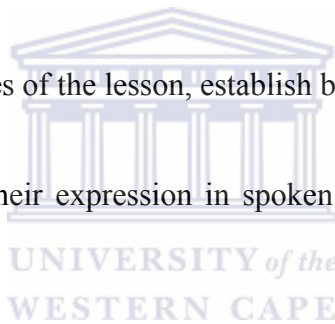
A: Q7: Giving essential stress on the productive skills.

A: Q8: Lack of vocabulary, lack of awareness of word order, conjugation etc and inference of mother tongue.

A: Q9: Oral communication Inductive; Grammar Deductive; Literature Traditional. Deductive most helpful as there is the pleasure of discovery.

A: Q10: Focus on the objectives of the lesson, establish by application by students.

A: Q11: Helpful to develop their expression in spoken and written related to real life situations.



A: Q12: Yes, I do. The material being own selection and gradation.

Lecturer 8

A: Q1: Libyan students are motivated to learn English because it is accepted as the main language of technology and globalization in the world. English is a compulsory subject for admission to universities in Libya. The faculties of Medicine and Engineering use English medium of instruction.

A: Q2: Yes, many do benefit academically.

A: Q3: The opportunities are ample. Economically English is the language of the Libyan petroleum industry and the life-line of the economy. Academically English is crucial for further studies. Libyans prefer to study for their M.A, M.Sc, PhD degrees in English-

speaking countries. Socially it helps them to interact with many people as English is the most popular world language.

A: Q4: There are many problems such as the alphabets, phonology, time-exposure, lack of qualified English teachers, and text-books.

A: Q5: I see interest as key to learn English. I try to arouse their interest, reminding the students the benefit of learning English. I provide activity, variety, and teaching aids to generate interest.

A: Q6: I encourage learning by association of ideas.

A: Q7: Students' learning practices are traditional and outmoded. They must reform.

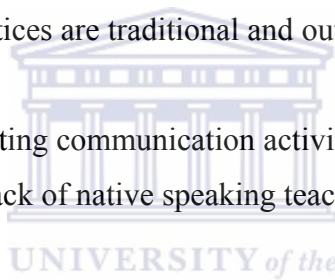
A: Q8: The difficulties in adopting communication activities include the unavailability of teaching aids, big classes and lack of native speaking teachers.

A: Q9: I use the inductive and traditional processes. They encourage creative learning and memorization respectively.

A: Q10: I have followed the direct and communicative processes.

A: Q11: I use the electronic language laboratory and the projector.

A: Q12: I find the materials effective because they encourage students' participation. They tackle all the four skills of language learning squarely.





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