Sheffield Hallam University

A Sheffield Hallam University thesis

Communication Strategies in Libyan EFL Classrooms: Materials, Perceptions and Practices

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of Sheffield Hallam University for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

February 2019

Candidate Declaration

I hereby declare that:

1. I have not been enrolled for another award of the University, or other academic or professional organisation, whilst undertaking my research degree.

2. None of the material contained in the thesis has been used in any other submission for an academic award.

3. I am aware of and understand the University's policy on plagiarism and certify that this thesis is my own work. The use of all published or other sources of material consulted have been properly and fully acknowledged.

4. The work undertaken towards the thesis has been conducted in accordance with the SHU Principles of Integrity in Research and the SHU Research Ethics Policy.

5. The word count of the thesis is 84.600

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To the memory of my beloved Father

To my Family

To the city of Jasmin, Derna

To those making peace in the World

Acknowledgement

I would like to express my gratitude to Allah, the Almighty, who blessed me to complete this long journey with all of its challenges and sorrows I have been through. My gratitude goes to all who made this work complete. First, I am fully appreciative of my director of studies, Dr Diana Ridely, for her continuous guidance, insights and emotional support and encouragement during my times of frustration and breakdown. I would like to thank my supervisor, Dr. Nicholas Moore, for his advice and guidance.

I am deeply indebted to my husband, Boubaker Ghade, our lovely children, Zainab, Aiham, and Eyad, and my beloved mother and sisters. Your love, encouragement and prayers brightened my way to this achievement.

Special thanks to all of the participants of this research, to those who directly or indirectly inspired or helped me during my studies.

Last but not the least, I will always be grateful to my adored country, Libya, for funding and supporting this research.

Glossary of terms and abbreviations

RQ   Research Question

CC   Communicative Competence

CSs   Communication Strategies

MES   Meaning Expression Strategies

MNS   Meaning Negotiation Strategies

CST   Communication Strategies Teaching

SLLs   Second Language Learners Strategies

EFL   English as foreign language

ELT   English Language Teaching

L1   First Language

L2   Second Language

SCT   Socio-Cultural Theory

ZPD   Zone of Proximal Development

MESA   Meaning Expression Strategies Analysis

MNSA   Meaning Negotiation Strategies Analysis

TSAA   Tasks and Activities Analysis

TB   Teachers Book

CB   Course Book

WB   Workbook

IMP   Implicit

EXP   Explicit

SLA   Second Language Acquisition

MMR   Mixed Methods Research

ABSTRACT

Libyan EFL classrooms represent the main exposure to English (L2) for secondary school students in Libya. Classroom interaction using the L2 is essential for Communicative Language Teaching, which has been adopted by the Libyan authorities for developing the communicative competence (CC) of learners, albeit with limited success. Communication strategies (CSs), required for strategic competence, a component of CC, can potentially enhance L2 communication, interaction and learning in the Libyan secondary school classroom. The use and teaching of CSs, adopted in many educational contexts have not been investigated in the Libyan classroom. Hence, this research examined the role of CSs in the Libyan EFL classroom in developing CC. This research investigated the content of the teaching materials (instances of CSs and types of tasks available), the teachers and students' perceptions about CSs (use, awareness, and teaching), the implementation of tasks and activities in their classrooms, and the Libyan teachers' understanding of CSs. A pragmatic paradigm guided MMR approach. It produced three data sets: a quantitative content analysis of the classroom materials (English for Libya), a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the 55 teachers and 52 student questionnaires, and a qualitative content analysis of the ten teacher interviews.

The findings suggested that there exist difficulties in the Libyan classroom with regard to developing a declarative knowledge of CSs and encouraging the use of CSs in natural situations due to mismatches between the curriculum's aims and the teachers' perceptions and practices. The different course book materials lack explicit content for teaching and learning CSs, focus on linguistic knowledge and lack interesting communicative tasks and listening content. Also, there are difficulties related to implementing interactive communicative tasks due to contextual factors, the students' levels and abilities, and the over reliance on the L1. Libyan students and teachers seem to lack interest in the materials due to their inauthenticity and focus on form. The knowledge of CSs is limited or unavailable from the teachers' education. The use and teaching of CSs appear to be limited and unconscious. This research offers a pedagogical CSs framework that could help to link CSs theory to CST in practice, which may have implications for materials designers, and may help to identify recommendations to the Libyan educational authorities.

Chapter One Introduction

1.1 Introduction to the study

This mixed methods research involves an exploration of communication strategies (CSs) in EFL classrooms in Libyan secondary schools. Generally, CSs are the means used to fill the gaps in communication. The study aims to review CSs in this classroom by exploring the teaching materials' content and the teachers and students' perceptions of the current usage and instruction regarding CSs in their classroom. It also explores the teachers' understanding of CSs and their relevance to the Libyan classroom. The research data comprise an analysis of the content of the current classroom materials, the teachers and students' questionnaires, and the teachers' interviews. The triangulation of the different findings raises original methodological and pedagogical considerations regarding CSs research in EFL classrooms by offering a context-based understanding of CSs, which is lacking in much of the previous research. The pragmatism paradigm represents the philosophical basis for this study, grounded on combining the quantitative and qualitative approaches in this current sequential design.

This chapter defines the background and context of the current study, describes the motivation for the current study, reflects on my personal experiences and discusses the research problem. It sets the research's aims and objectives, as reflected in the research questions. It concludes by presenting an outline of the thesis' organisation and summarises the content of the seven chapters.

1.2 Background and rationale for the study

Developing CC is a major target when teaching foreign languages in general (Richards, 2006; McCrohan & Batten, 2010; Zhan, 2010; Majd, 2014) and communicative language teaching (CLT) in particular (Gómez-Rodríguez, 2010). Communicative competence is a combination of the underlying system of knowledge and skills necessary for communication (Canale, 1983b), including strategic competence (Tarone, 1981). Therefore, CLT focuses on developing informal and formal spoken language (Richards & Rodgers, 2014) and emphasises language fluency rather than accuracy and forms (Yule, 2006). To achieve this, the classroom activities should motivate the students to "negotiate meaning, use communication strategies, correct misunderstandings, and work to avoid communication breakdowns" (Richards, 2006, p.14). This refers to strategic competence, which entails "the mastery of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies in L2 used when attempting to compensate for

deficiencies in the grammatical and sociolinguistic competence or to enhance the effectiveness of communication" (Canale, 1983b, P.23).

It is common for foreign language learners to face difficulties in speaking due to a lack of use of English and absence of contact with native speakers (Shumin, 2002).Thus, CSs help them to continue the conversation and provide them with opportunities to hear more TL input and produce new utterances, which has a noteworthy learning effect (Mariani, 2010; Nakatani, 2010; Rabab'ah, 2015). Learners can develop communicative proficiency by developing the ability to use CSs which enable them to compensate for deficiencies in their knowledge of the target language (Bialystok, 1990, p.5). These can prompt self-confidence in learners, help learners to avoid discontinuing a conversation, or give "the native speakers (or the speaker with high language proficiency) the opportunity to help the L2 learner (or the speaker with low language proficiency) to use the right form to say what he wants" (Tarone, 1980).

CSs are significant for language learning and in second language acquisition (SLA) (Wei, 2011), which enable languages to be learnt better and faster (Celce-Murcia, 2008). A holistic approach to teaching speaking implies that it is not about practising language "doing" but that it "need[s] to be conceptualised as structured and supported learning opportunities for developing these various components of speaking competences" and to raise students' awareness about them (Goh & Burns, 2012:53).
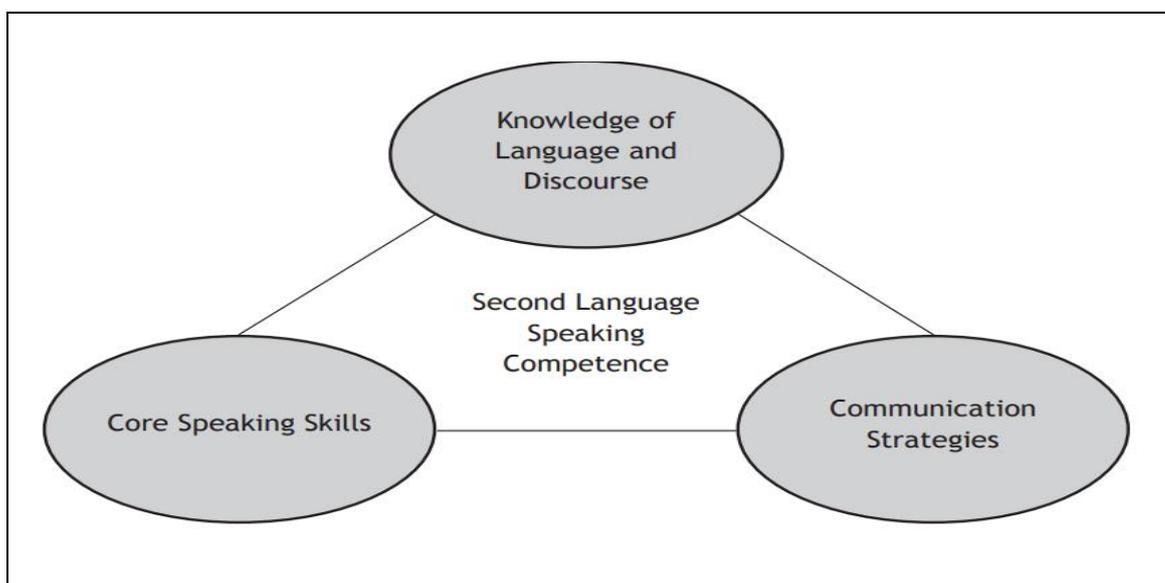
Figure 1. 1 Components of second language speaking competence (Goh & Burns, 2012:53)

Increasing CC required teachers to introduce CSs to their students (Sukirlan, 2013); therefore, teachers and syllabus designers should not avoid engaging students in problematic situations that require the use of CSs (Lewis, 2011; Benali 2013). This is because, teaching CSs can be a substitute for the absence of natural settings of language use in the EFL context (Scattergood, 2003) and can also aid teaching in a classroom affected by the psycholinguistic problems of the students like anxiety (Jones, 2004). Thus, it is important to introduce CSs from the early stages of L2 learning (Lewis, 2011). Nonetheless, CSs used within language classroom interaction can contribute to the learning process (Ogane, 1998; Mariani, 2010; Rohani, 2013).

Students in the CLT classroom learn a language through communicative activities, games, problem-solving tasks, such as picture stories, and role play activities (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). These classroom tasks must therefore equip the learners with the essential productive and receptive skills for communication by encouraging them to construct meaning through engaging in genuine linguistic interactions with others (Brown, 2006). Thus, activities in the ELT syllabus offering problematic situations and providing procedural vocabulary to encourage the effective use of CSs are recommended (Rababah & Seedhouse, 2004). Task-based learning could include tasks that encourage the use of CSs to express meaning, when there is a gap in the L2 knowledge, and also to negotiate meaning when there is a difficulty in establishing a mutual understanding between the learner and the listener, which could develop both strategies use and learners' interlanguage (Mariani, 2013).

Accordingly, exploring learners' use of CSs for the negotiation of meaning and maintaining interaction is vital for deducing the pedagogical implications of classrooms (Nakatani, 2010). Learners who successfully achieve their communication goals through the use of CSs are said to be strategically competent (Yule & Tarone, 1990; Mariani, 2010; Barkaoui, Brooks, Swain, & Lapkin, 2012). A vast amount of evidence about learners' CSs is available in the literature, with the similar and contradictory findings reflecting the complexity and sensitivity of CSs with regard to the classroom contexts, which suggests a need for more in-depth, context-based research that can employ different data collection methods to identify useful pedagogical implications. Little research has investigated the role of teachers' use of CSs in the classroom or the role of teaching materials in developing CSs.

With respect to the teachability of CSs, many empirical studies in ELT classrooms, conducted in a variety of contexts including a few recent studies in the Arab world, show that various benefits can be gained from communication strategies teaching (CST). Unfortunately, to my knowledge, only Hmaid (2014) and Tarhuni (2014) have investigated the impact of teaching CSs and LLSs, respectively, as part of language learning in post-secondary schools. However, they used self-designed teaching content and the teachers who conducted the experiments received related training and instructions, which raises the problem that these results were not obtained from actual Libyan classrooms, and so may or may not identify useful findings, which also applies to the teachers, who would require sufficient knowledge of CSs in order to engage in CST. These considerations suggest that CSs may still require more attention in the Libyan EFL classroom research.

Additionally, teachers of CLT are expected to act as facilitators of the communicative situation by observing their students' efforts to communicate and use CSs (Larenas, 2011). This, in my view, would require the teachers' awareness of CSs, their roles and possible ways to develop them in the classroom, which can possibly be obtained via teacher training, which requires further investigation. That is, it is widely acknowledged that teachers have their own theoretical beliefs and perceptions about language learning and teaching, and that these tend to shape their teaching practices (Woods, 1996).

Nonetheless, CSs' use may also need to be assessed if communicative competence is the main target of the CLT curriculum. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages declares that communication strategies should not be viewed simply as a disability model – as a way of making up for a language deficit or a miscommunication (Council of Europe, 2001, p.57). Several speaking tests, such as IELTS, depend on learners' use of these strategies (Rossiter, 2005). The effective use of CSs "distinguishes highly effective communicators from those who are less so" (Savignon, 2002, P.10). As declared by Dörnyei (1995, P.56), "some people can communicate effectively in an L2 with only 100 words" by means of verbal and nonverbal CSs. Hence, it can be suggested that fluency should be encouraged and that its assessment may require considering the use of CSs.

Given that Libyan teachers' awareness and use of CSs and their perceptions of the values of these strategies are not yet established, any recommendation of CST may not

prove useful. Hence, this research investigates the EFL classroom of Libyan secondary schools to provide useful findings regarding CSs.

1.3 A brief description of Libya's current educational system

Libya's educational system comprises three main stages that the majority of students should follow: basic, intermediate, and higher (Mohamad, Idrus, & Ibrahim, 2018) which can optionally be preceded by kindergarten and followed by advanced studies, (see Figure 1.2). Students in all of the three main stages can receive free education in the public sector which will be the focus of the current research or can choose to pay education fees to attend private institutions, which were introduced in 1990 (ibid).
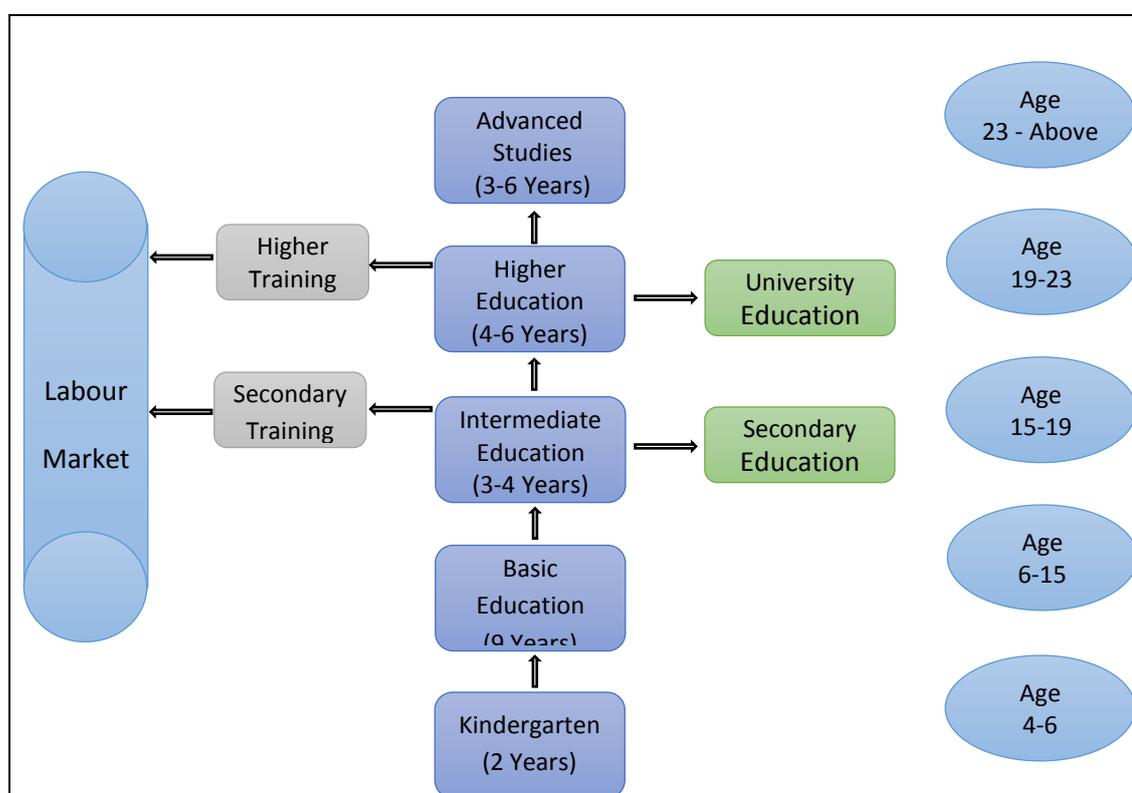
Figure 1. 2 Structure of the Education System in Libya
Source (Tamtam, Gallagher, Naher, & Olabi, 2011)

Basic education consists of nine years of compulsory schooling for children in Libya, starting from the age of six. Students spend six years at primary school and three years at lower secondary school (previously known as preparatory school). Students' success in the final exams in year 9 entails obtaining the Basic Education Certificate. They can then access the intermediate stage and study for three years at secondary school or a vocational training centre. All of the students in secondary school study the same curriculum in addition to English in their first year. Based on the marks and grades that they obtain in the final exams in the different subjects, they can then be allocated to one of two different pathways

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(Scientific or Literary). Related subjects will be taught accordingly in the second and third years of secondary school in addition to joint ones. English is taught to all students in their second and third years. However, the course book materials are slightly different because they offer subject knowledge related to the each of the two pathways.

In the third year of secondary school, all students should sit final exams set and monitored by the Ministry of Education. Secondary School Certificates are awarded for the successful completion of this stage, which is achieved by passing the final exams. In higher education, students can be selected based on their area of specialisation (scientific/literary); the former stage focuses on scientific subjects while the second is concerned with social subjects. The overall scores obtained in these in the third year's final exams is another criterion for progressing to university or higher education institutions. This research focuses on the secondary school stage, including the three grades.

1.4 An overview of EFL education in Libya

Libya is one of the largest Arab countries, located in North Africa. Arabic is the official language of Libya that is used for all types of communication and spoken by most of the population. English is the language of instruction and communication in certain scientific and medical departments at the university level (Alsout, 2013; Khalid, 2017) where Arabic is narrowly used. In Libya, English is still not considered the lingua franca (Elsherif, 2017; Al-Fourganee, 2018) but it is an obligatory subject in most educational stages (Khalid, 2017).

English was introduced into the Libyan educational system in the 1950s, at a time when grammar, vocabulary, and "reading books employing the same vocabulary": formulated the curriculum and the content concerned Arabic culture (Elhensheri, 2004, p.41). From the 1960s to 2011, the Audiolingual Method dominated ELT in Libyan for nearly three decades, in which linguistic knowledge was emphasised (Tantani, 2012). During Gadhafi's regime, from 1969 to 2011, English status and its education were in an unstable condition. From the 1970s to the mid-1980s, only preparatory schools (for students aged 7-9 years old) could teach English as a compulsory subject (Sawani, 2009). The common teaching practices incorporated the widespread use of Arabic language and the focus was on correct grammar and pronunciation, vocabulary memorization, and reading aloud (Orafi & Borg, 2009).

From 1986 to 1993, English was banned from all of the educational stages in both the private and public sectors for political reasons relating to Libya's relationship with the

western countries (Dunford, 1986; Elhensheri, 2004; Orafi & Borg, 2009). This had many negative consequences on Libyan EFL in many ways (Alhmali, 2007; Orafi & Borg, 2009; Mohamed, 2014; Jha, 2015) and barred Libyan graduates from having a tool of communication with the external world (Bertelsmann, 2018). This caused "a noted shortage of qualified and knowledgeable English teachers in the system capable of critically examining and evaluating the content of the English language textbooks" (Abushafa, 2014, p.14). This inadequate exposure to on-going worldwide advancements in ELT contributed to a dearth of awareness of the fundamentals among Libyan ELT practitioners (Jha, 2015) and a lack of professionalism within ELT (Alkhboli, 2014; Jha, 2015), which affected the teachers' practices and their ability to adapt to the latest interventions in English that have been introduced into Libya since 1990.

From 1990, the enhancements in the relationship with the Western countries were also reflected by the prominence of English in Libya and a new English syllabus was presented based on communicative language teaching methodologies (Sawani, 2009; Orafi & Borg, 2009) for secondary schools, leading to considerable growth in interest in English learning which was supported by establishing English educational bodies (Jha, 2015). Since 2003/4, English has become one of the main subjects for students from year 5 of basic education (El-Abbar, 2016) with four sessions taught for 45 minutes weekly (Altaieb & Omar, 2015; Jahbel, 2017).

In 2004, the Commission for Education Culture and Science stated that one of the main objectives of teaching English in secondary schools was "to enable students to learn foreign languages to communicate with the world in all areas of interest" (Al-Fourganee, 2018, p.19). A new curriculum, prepared by the Garnet Research Centre for Culture and Education and based on CLT (English for Libya), was adopted. Later, different versions of these materials were used in secondary schools, but all series, including the version under research, contain a teacher's book, course book and workbook in addition to listening materials (CDs). The course books offer content concerning the four language skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing) for use in the classroom by teachers, who benefit from the teacher's book that offers thorough lesson plans with additional teaching ideas and provides the answers to the exercises, while the workbooks enable the students to practise the text book's content (Al-Fourganee, 2018).

English teaching in Libyan public schools seem to be controlled in many ways. The goals, objectives and decision-making are determined by the Department of Curricula

and Instruction at the Ministry of Education (Altaieb, 2013). The classroom materials are regarded as a principal and influential foundation of knowledge, so the educational policies require inspectors to examine schools regularly in order to verify that the teaching of the textbooks' content is congruent with the timelines and the annual plans determined by the Ministry of Education (Mohamed, 2014). Thus, teachers' roles are predetermined.

Currently, most of the English teachers in Libyan schools are national citizens, holding a bachelor's degree in English, who can join this profession without any special training/diploma related to teaching (Pathan & Marayi, 2016). Generally, Libyan teachers do not receive any teacher training, lack professional development, and their education can be irrelevant or inadequate in terms of offering theoretical and practical foundations for successful teaching (Mansor, 2017). Consequently, a gap between the materials objectives for improving the learners' CC and the teaching practices lead to the failure of the new ELT curriculum intervention (Orafi & Borg, 2009; Altaieb, 2013; Omar, 2013; Orafi, 2015), as will be discussed in the next section.

1.5 The Libyan revolution 2011: implications and new demands

Research examining the consequences of the recent Libyan revolution for the educational settings is limited, but this occurrence seems to affect the Libyan classroom and the status of EFL in Libya. During 2011, destruction and long-term closure affected many schools (Friedman, 2011) and many others were used as active social centres to support revolutionists and contact with local and international media and services. After 2014, since I started this PhD, other schools, located in new conflict zones, were closed, reallocated to other schools, turned into camps or destroyed. These issues affected the data collection procedures of many Libyan researchers (Elabbar, 2014; Grada, 2014).

Apart from these issues, there have been positive changes including an increased demand for English (Aldoukalee, 2014). From the early phase of the revolution, English aided the spreading of news and communicated the public attitudes to the world through the media. "Private print publications, websites, television and radio stations began to emerge rapidly in this new era of media openness" (Fanack, 2018), when Libyans were able to express their attitudes towards the media for the first time (Reporters without borders, 2016) after 42 years of dictatorial regime. This was accompanied by the presence of foreigners, including journalists and Red Cross teams. Just after the end of

the revolution, an international school was established in Benghazi, the Canadian Institution of English in Derna, and many other private English schools followed.

The revolution's aims denoted the reorganisation of the educational system to encourage foreign language learning (Kreiba, 2012). School officers and job-seekers must attend English language programmes as part of the new reform policies and there is a large number of courses available. Moreover, there has been a willingness among the different subsequent governments to make radical changes to English education; however, political instability has hindered their plans (Aloreibi & Carey, 2017).

Importantly, the number of scholarship programmes vastly increased and new reforms and technical facilities were introduced within the educational institutions' infrastructure (ICEF Monitor, 2012). During 2013, over 14,000 Libyans joined different educational programmes in more than 30 countries, with about 2,761 attending UK universities (Law, 2014) and similar plans have been in process since 2017, offering more scholarship programmes to the public in 300 of the most academically recognised international institutions.

Positive attitudes towards English are also evident. Leading a four-week teacher training project in 26 preparatory and secondary schools, Aylett and Halliday (2013) affirmed the teachers' readiness to follow the approaches of CLT as they also reduced the use of L1. Also, they declared that some teachers have not been offered similar training before. Additionly, there are individual efforts by young teachers to improve the communicative skills in English using social media, incluidng the non-profit, non-government organisation "English Speakers Club", established in 2016, which offers casual meetings and workshops to develop their proficiency, language teaching skills in English, and leadership.

The high motivation among Libyan undergraduate students to learn English was linked to the changes that occurred after 2011 (Zanghar, 2012) which necessitated the fundamental renovation of the language curriculum to develop English language skills (Aldradi, 2015). Similarly, the high motivation of 160 Libyan business leaders and 600 prospective students to learn English with a preference for British teachers was reported (English UK, 2013). It seems that the public and learners are realising that the new demand for English in their life increased their motivation for language learning after 2011.

1.6 Statement of the problem and the Libyan context of the research

Learners of EFL often encounter difficulties in learning and especially in communicating within their available linguistic resources. Lacking CC in EFL is very common in the Arab world (Rababah, 2002; Al Hosni, 2014). Libya is no exception, as seen in Figure 1.3, as English proficiency in Libya was the "worst of 54 Countries", according to the EF proficiency index 2012 (PR Newswire), and very low in Africa in 2018 (*EF Proficiency Index.*2018).
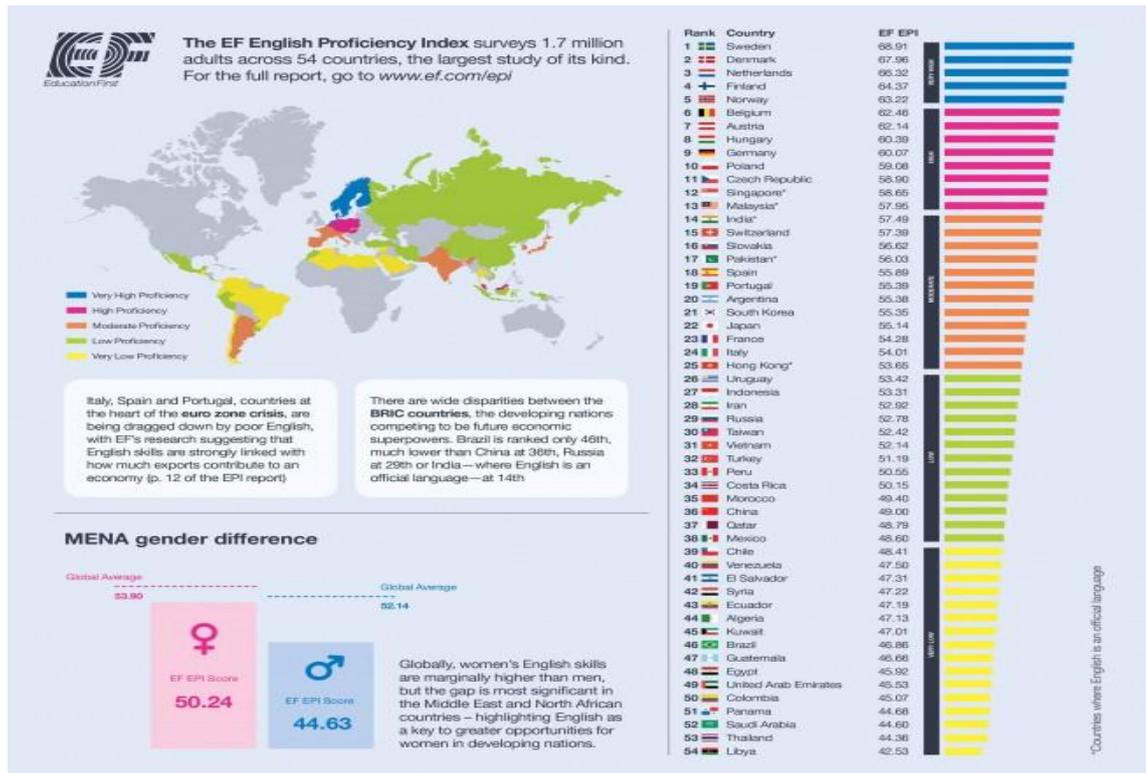
Figure 1.3 EF English Proficiency Index
(PR Newswire, 2012)

These difficulties also apply broadly to Libyan students (Al Moghani, 2003; Mohamed, 2014; George, 2016). Most Libyan teachers, including myself, commonly hear their students declaring how difficult it is to learn English (Omar, 2013). Introducing English as a compulsory subject in Libyan schools and universities has not solved these communication difficulties, as many Libyan students are unable to communicate in English when they finish secondary school (Al Moghani, 2003; Altaieb, 2013; Diaab, 2016) or even when they graduate from university (Altaieb & Omar, 2015).

The low CC of Libyan EFL learners has been associated with a "lack of vocabulary, fear of making mistakes /embarrassment while communicating, lack of interest and motivation, lack of practice/lack of environment for practice, and misconceptions about

the target language" (Pathan & Marayi, 2016, p.101). However, lacking self-confidence (Alhmali, 2007) and communicative competence of Libyan learners (Omar, 2013; Shihiba, 2011;Abushafa, 2014) cause demotivation and resistance against participating in classroom activities. Students' negative attitudes are very common among Libyan secondary school students (Abidin Dr, Pour-Mohammadi, & Alzwari, 2012).

Arguably, difficulties in communication can be associated with the learners themselves, the teaching approaches, the curriculum, and the background to which they belong (Al Hosni, 2014). The major problem for Arabic L1 English speakers and learners results from the inappropriate teaching content and failure to teach the language communicatively, even at the higher education levels (Rababah, 2002; George, 2016). The Libyan English school curriculum, designed to develop students' oral communication skills, has been unsuccessful because it follows the traditional methodology (Shihiba, 2011) due to the instability of English in previous decades, which has affected the English teaching profession (Mohamed, 2014).

It is generally argued that teachers misuse the CLT curriculum due to their insufficient knowledge (Tantani, 2012) and qualifications (Ali, 2008; Orafi & Borg, 2009; Alkhboli, 2014; Elabbar, 2014; Orafi, 2015; Diaab, 2016;). Libyan students emphasise that teachers should be trained to motivate their students to learn English (Al Moghani, 2003).

Consequently, teachers use Arabic when teaching in Libyan schools (Alhmali, 2007; Shihiba, 2011; Omar, 2013; Jha, 2014a; Alsied & Ibrahim, 2017), follow the Grammar Translation Method, avoid listening and speaking activities to save classroom time (Orafi, 2008), overuse error correction and dominate the classroom talk (Aldabbus, 2008), and overemphasise accuracy at the expense of fluency (Diaab, 2016). These are also considered to be reflections of the teachers' own beliefs (Orafi, 2008). In other words, some teachers consider that vocabulary and grammar are the most important aspects of language learning (Aldabbus, 2008).

The majority of Libyan ELT classrooms, especially in secondary schools, remain teacher-centred, which means that CLT may not be followed (Alhmali, 2007; Orafi & Borg, 2009; Shihiba, 2011; Tantani, 2012; Dalala, 2014). This contradicts the overall goals of education in Libya, which basically aim to provide and support innovative varieties of education and help students to realise their capabilities and attain knowledge through self-learning, (UNESCO, 2008).

Textbooks and teachers are critised in that the former are "prescribed" and complicated for teachers while the latter need to improve their "linguistic and pedagogical competencies" (Bouzaine 2003, p.20). Many Libyan teachers consider that the materials need to encourage the students' involvement in the classroom by creating a compassionate setting and providing manageable tasks (Altaieb, 2013). This is important since the materials used in the classroom guide the teaching approaches, and the learners' position in the classroom (Zohrabi, 2011).

The lack of new school construction during Gadhafi's regime caused schools to become overcrowded (Friedman, 2011). Classrooms of 35 to 45 students that last 45 minutes clash with the density of the materials (Omar, 2013). Classroom usually lack audio and visual facilities (Al Moghani, 2003).

Also, the misuse of the materials and the lack of useful practices have directly affected the development of speaking and listening skills (Abushafa, 2014). This embraces the ignorance of speaking and listening skills, reinforced by a lack of assessment of these two skills, which are not targeted in the official exams (Pathan & Marayi, 2016) which are written exams and the main means of assessment. The sociocultural and contextual factors in Libyan secondary schools also have an impact (Hussein, 2018).

Accordingly, the emphasis in classrooms is placed on reading, grammar rules, vocabulary memorisation and writing, creating an uninteresting learning atmosphere in which English is seen as a school subject rather than a language for communicating (Omar, 2013), which all affects the learning outcomes and communicative abilities of the students (Orafi & Borg, 2009; Shihiba, 2011; Asker, 2012; Tantani, 2012; Pathan & Marayi, 2016). All of this leads to undesired effects (Al Moghani, 2003; Altaieb, 2013; Omar, 2013), including a lack of students' involvement in oral activities and the possibility of limiting teachers' initiative in using materials or activities requiring pair/group work (Orafi & Borg, 2009; Shihiba, 2011). This shows a clear gap between, the educational expectations, CLT curriculum and the classrooms reality (Altaieb, 2013, pp.ii-iii).

Research in the Libyan classroom does not focus on the materials' effect on the classroom interaction and teachers' practices. The study of Salah (2013, p.27) seems to be the only one available that considers the materials' content. He stated that "evaluating the Libyan materials and the teachers' response to the questionnaire showed

that there is a gap between what Libyan EFL learners' need and what they are exposed to in their course book" (ibid, p.27).

The findings discussed earlier show that there is an emphasis on teachers improving their teaching practices by benefiting from the available resources in the classroom (Burton, 2000) through making use of the materials in a way that can improve the teaching and learning experiences to bridge the gap between the materials' targets and instructions and the classroom reality. Previous findings seem to be holistic, as not demonstrating the extent to which the communicative competence of the learners is developed or the actual impact of the materials, thus offering general and rigid to follow recommendations. For instance, Al Moghani (2003) reflected the need to increase students' motivation by tracking the approaches of CLT, using fresh materials, enhancing the importance of English, and making modifications that suit the learners' needs to make learning more attention-grabbing, which seem to be logical in theory. However, it cannot be argued that materials are not useful before examining their content, as additional guidance to the teachers might prove more helpful and practical.

Thus, this research investigates the role of the Libyan classroom in developing strategic competence, considering the materials content together with the teachers and students' perceptions of CSs in their classrooms.

1.7 Personal motivation behind the research

My personal motivations and experiences are important to consider as they could replicate my positionality and biases, as discussed in Chapter Three. My interest in CSs has been inspired by my unpleasant personal experiences as a foreign language learner, as a language teacher in secondary schools, as a lecturer assistant for ESP modules in university media and engineering departments, as a language learner and MA TESOL candidate in the UK, and as an assistant lecturer in an undergraduate English and Literature Department of a university in Libya. The common difficulty faced during my language learning and teaching career has been dealing with English as a language for communication in a way that can satisfy my passion to become a proficient language speaker and a successful language teacher who can avoid using the traditional teaching approaches. The two main challenges for me were encouraging L2 use alongside persistence in using L1 in the Libyan English classroom by both teachers and students and participating in communicative activities. Also, the first year undergraduate

students' anxiety about speaking and making mistakes in front of the class and working in groups were affected by gender mixing in classes.

On the other hand, some of my undergraduate students, with a high motivation for developing their communicative skills, still find it difficult to participate due to their awareness of their inadequate linguistic competence and inability to use English vocabulary accurately. This is something that I faced during my first visit to the UK. Mastering vocabulary and grammar rules and memorising some of the fixed phrases offered in the conversation modules of the English department were not helpful for a foreigner who was coming into contact with native speakers for the first time, where misunderstandings arose due to pronunciation mistakes resulting from an unawareness of the local language and accent used.

Thus, I developed an interest in finding more practical and motivational aspects of communication in L2, as reflected in my MA TESOL research project, which investigated Libyan students' use of CSs in the UK. Through attending English for academic purposes and IELTS preparation courses in the UK, I have been trained to use various techniques in order to express myself through writing and speaking. Later, being highly interested in ways of building learners' confidence and motivation when choosing topics for my MA coursework assessments, I developed an awareness of communication strategies. The literature on CSs, especially that of (Dörnyei, 1995), was inspiring, as it indicated CSs' usefulness in EFL contexts where students lack motivation and competence. Also, the recommendations of Rababah & Seedhouse (2004) about raising an awareness of CSs among Arab learners appeared promising.

The findings of my MA project partly reflected the need for strategic awareness especially for intermediate level Libyan students because using CSs enabled students with the different proficiency levels to convey their communicative messages successfully. What was inspiring to me was that one participant was a beginner learner but was able to make use of the strategies more successfully than the higher-level participants. She was the mother of a preschool child, who emphasised that she had improved her use of the strategies because they were outlined in her son's school reading books.

After I obtained my MA in 2009, I returned to the English Department as an assistant lecturer on the speaking and writing modules for the first and third year students. My

new teaching experience showed that the problems faced previously were still present in the English Department classroom. Although the students' motivation to lean a language was higher in this new context, there were individuals who could not accept the shift away from the language teaching methods used in schools, which emphasise the use of L2 because they believe that limiting the use of Arabic causes difficulties in both understanding and interacting. Additionally, the traditional methods used to teach English in Libyan schools proved unable to develop the linguistic competence of many undergraduate students. This was clearly reflected in the range of vocabulary that they used during writing and speaking activities and tasks, and also by their difficulty in understanding my instruction and the lessons' content.

Given those circumstances, it can be speculated that the development of strategic competence can be a possible key to improving language teaching by offering an accessible tool that can help learners to make use of these limited competences and be able to communicate with greater confidence. It can also help to reduce the amount of L1 spoken and offer a suitable environment for the CLT classroom.

Accordingly, I decided to focus my PhD on investigating CSs in schools as a vital stage in Libyan education that affects higher education, including English teacher education. Therefore, exploring the ELT curriculum and how it is implemented in terms of its relevance to the development of CSs is of vital significance.

1.8 The research aims

This research is intended to review the potential value and relevance of CSs in the Libyan CLT classroom as a distinctive situation from the perspectives of both the teachers and students.

Data from materials analysis, questionnaires, and interviews could provide insights and an understanding of CSs' relevance to the Libyan school context and offer useful suggestions that can tackle the difficulties described earlier. The significance of this research is not about providing ultimate answers to "What is the best way to learn a language? "or "Which is the most effective method of L2 teaching?", but about offering more understanding of many related complicated features in learning to realise how these can encourage or prevent progression (Johnson, 1992, p.5). Therefore, the teachers and students' views of CSs, the possible role of Libyan classroom materials and the implementation of tasks and activities are considered in this research. As presented

below, RQ1/1A provides a framework for the development of the research, while RQ1/B and RQ2 offer more understanding of the classroom from various angles, and thus explore whether the Libyan classroom can possibly develop CSs.

1.9 Research Questions

1. Are there any explicit or implicit examples of Communication Strategies or tasks in the Libyan ELT materials that could have the potential for introducing, enhancing or encouraging the use of communication strategies? If so…

a) How are the potential examples of CSs and the related communicative tasks presented in the materials?

b) Are those related tasks and activities implemented in the classroom and in what ways?

2. What are the teachers and students' perceptions of their knowledge, use and teaching of CSs in the classroom?

1.10 Significance of the Study

Many research studies in EFL contexts, including Libya, primarily focused on exploring problems related to the CLT syllabus, and teachers and learners' perceptions and motivation factors, and offered general assumptions and suggestions. Little research has been devoted to outlining tangible, practical resolutions. This study seems to be the first attempt to explore communication strategies in the Libyan classroom rather than evaluating potential CSs instruction that can be undertaken in non-realistic conditions. To my knowledge, this research is not similar to any other research, considering its focus, methodology, and the fact that it investigates the materials, teachers, and learners in a single study. It seems to be one of the very few studies to investigate CSs in an ordinary classroom context.

Additionally, exploring the Libyan classroom from a wider perspective, through the choice of my research samples, may promote better understanding of the research problem and enhance the literature on Libyan EFL teaching. Most of the research on Libya is based on PhD and MA theses and tends to be conducted in a geographical location that is accessible to the researchers, such as their home cities, so their findings seem to be limited and classroom-specific.

These considerations influenced my research approaches and design which are anticipated to give a better understanding of the Libyan ELT classroom and lead to valuable and helpful recommendations to teachers to tackle the communication dilemma experienced by Libyan students. My findings might be useful for raising awareness among curriculum designers in the future of the need to consider strategic competence when designing or revising the CLT syllabus books.

Moreover, the fact that teachers will participate in and have access to the findings of the research may help to introduce and raise awareness of these significant aspects of language learning and might help them to keep these in mind or even deliberately implement them during teaching. Therefore, incorporating up-to-date academic and methodological developments in the field with teaching practice is essential for the future development of the English teaching profession in Libya (Mohamed, 2014).

It is, therefore, hoped that providing an interpretation of the current situation could provide an initial background and framework to stimulate future empirical research in Libyan language teaching settings. It could also possibly offer suggestions for constructing a framework for the analysis of the materials for those interested in communication strategies teaching and instruction. Lastly, this research will doubtless be of additional value to my own career and to the development of my research skills.

1.11 Structure and organisation of the thesis

This thesis consists of seven chapters. Following this introductory chapter, chapter two reviews the existing literature that underpins the research questions of this study. It sets the scene for the design of the data collection instruments and will feed the data analysis and interpretation. It reviews the different perspectives and contributing theories to the evolution of CLT, the development of strategic competence and theoretically identifies the concept of CSs and its foundations. It defines the rationale for the adoption of a certain taxonomy in relation to the research context. The current well-established researched areas of CSs and key empirical research of CSs that are most closely allied to my study are discussed. Gaps in the literature will be highlighted and linked to the current study. This includes discussing and evaluating the relevant issues, theories and concepts leading to a summary presenting the purpose of this research.

- **Chapter 3: Methodology**

This chapter deals with the research's philosophical underpinnings and sets out its paradigmatic position. It introduces the mixed methods and discusses the choice of research approach and design. This is followed by a discussion of the potential constraints, benefits and ethical considerations together with reflections on the choices and decisions made by the researchers to overcome obstacles to the data collection and analysis. This chapter presents a detailed account of the data collection instruments: questionnaires and interviews, including the rationality of the instruments' choice, their design, ethical considerations, and the recruitment of the participants, the sample, and the data collection procedures.

- **Chapter 4: Materials Analysis**

This chapter introduces the quantitative content analysis used to explore the Libyan materials' content, comprising the rationale for this methodology, the limitations and the researcher's ability to make use of a similar research context in dealing with limited literature on similar research in the field. It then presents the design and the framework of the study and covers all of the procedures implied in the analysis. This chapter reports and discusses the findings obtained to answer RQ1/ and 1/A. It concludes with useful reflections regarding the development of the data collection.

- **Chapter 5: Questionnaires**

Chapter five outlines the data analysis procedures and presents and individually discusses the quantitative findings of the teachers and students' questionnaires. The findings relate to the knowledge, awareness and teaching of CSs, and to the use of tasks and activities in the classroom. The chapter ends with a conclusion and reflections regarding the development of the teachers' interviews are presented.

- **Chapter 6: Oral interviews**

This chapter provides a detailed account of the procedures of transcribing and thematically analysing the content of the data obtained. The findings from the teachers' interviews are then discussed in the different sections, according to the different themes. The chapter ends with an overview of the findings, leading to a final discussion and conclusion.

- **Chapter 7: Discussion of the findings and conclusion**

This final chapter integrates and synthesises the findings from the materials' analysis, the two questionnaires, and the interviews leading, to an understanding of the potential role of the Libyan classroom in developing CSs and reflecting the research aims. It also

discusses the possible contribution to the current knowledge, possible limitations and reflections by the researcher, as well as providing some pedagogical recommendations and recommendations for further research. It then provides a conclusion.

1.12 Summary of the chapter

This chapter established the background for the research by clarifying its context, rationale, and the motivation behind the choice of CSs as the focus and justified the choice of this area in terms of the challenges and problems associated with the Libyan classroom and considering demands of current literature. It also provided an overview of the thesis' content and structure. This will prepare the reader to understand the research.

Chapter Two Literature review

2.1 Introduction

The Libyan EFL classroom, as a learning context, is distinguished in this research by various constructs including teachers and students perceptions of their educational context, the learning and teaching activities and CSs used in their classrooms. CSs represent a co-construct of the communicative competence that symbolises the basic objective of the communicative language teaching (CLT) adopted in the Libyan classroom. CSs can also aid the learning and teaching of CLT during classroom interaction explicitly or implicitly. Thus, this research incorporates the sociocultural learning theories of activities, mediation and scaffolding to offer an understanding of the potential of activities, interactions, instructions available in this classroom and investigated in this research.

This chapter discusses the conceptual framework of the current study. It outlines the aspects of communicative competence (CC) and reviews its models and sub-competences which denote a vital aspect regarding L2 use and communication. Then, it discusses strategic competence, as the current research explores 'communication strategies' (CSs). Various definitions and classifications, taxonomies, and the defining criteria for CSs are discussed according to the different main theoretical approaches.

This chapter also discusses the socio-cultural theory (SCT) of language learning with respect to its main concepts in relation to CC and the development of CLT which underlines interaction, communication and fluency. As discussed in Chapter One, CLT has been adopted in the Libyan educational context to develop the CC of the learners and its objectives are reflected in the teaching materials, so the associated issues and concepts for teaching and learning are also discussed.

Afterwards, I examine second language learners' CSs from the perspectives of previous research and also with regard to their teachability. I present the key empirical research concerned with strategies teaching and some possible relevant guidelines which are followed by a review of some considerations of CSs within language learning, plus research concerned with learners' strategies use and some associated factors.

 Also, I shed light on the CSs research in the actual language classroom, examining previous studies related to teaching materials' contents and teachers' use of the strategies. Finally, I conclude this chapter by discussing the implications from the

literature, reflecting potential gaps in relation to the context of the study and my aim to fill them by investigating the Libyan classroom. Consequently, CSs will be explored in relation to CLT classroom contexts from a sociocultural perspective (cognitive and social aspects) to describe the role of CSs during classroom interaction, teachers' scaffolding and materials' content.

2.2 Theoretical overview of communicative competence

Developing communicative competence has become a major target for teaching foreign languages in general (Richards, 2006; Zhan, 2010) and for communicative language teaching (CLT) more specifically (Gómez-Rodríguez, 2010). It represents an essential theoretical framework for language classroom research and its development has passed through different levels. The term "competence" is derived from the concept of "performance" that was first proposed by Chomsky in the 1960s (Rickheit, Strohner, & Vorwerg, 2008). From the early 1970s, communicative competence was introduced in relation to second/foreign language proficiency and was established on the fact that "if the purpose of language study is language use, then the development of language proficiency should be guided and evaluated by the learner's ability to communicate" (Savignon, 2018, p.1).

Hymes (1972) criticised Chomsky's theory of competence, which is limited to linguistic knowledge regarding production and understanding while neglecting the role of sociocultural influence and individual variables in the use of language, which interfere with external performance and inner competence. This stresses the adequacy of grammatical rules for speaking a language and for communicating (Rickheit et al., 2008).

According to Hymes (1972), CC embraces linguistic and sociocultural knowledge, that are interdependent and essential if language users are to form or exchange meaning. He considered that communicative competence allows the sending and understanding of communications and negotiating meanings interpersonally within specific circumstances (Brown, 2006), as summarised in the definition of Spitzberg (1988, p.68): "the ability to interact well with others". "Communicative competence is relative, not absolute, and depends on the cooperation of all the participants involved" (Savignon, 1983, p.9), and it entails the knowledge (competence) and skills (performance) essential for communication (Hymes 1972, Canale and Swain 1980, Canale 1983). These underlying competences were then classified differently, as

presented in Figure 2.1. Canale and Swain (1980) added the concept of strategic competence to the communicative competence framework, together with grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence (see Figure 2.2). This framework constitutes a valuable contribution to language teaching theory and, for this reason it "dominated the field for a decade" (McNamara, 1996, p.61).

Communicative Competence
= Degree of ability to communicate in foreign language

Grammatical competence
= ability with grammar rules, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, etc.

Sociolinguistic competence
= ability with language in social situations: style, register, politeness, etc. and ability with language in different modes, e.g. a speech, an academic paper, an e-mail, etc.

Strategic competence
= ability to overcome breakdowns in communication due to linguistic deficiency, and to negotiate meaning with an interlocutor, using communication strategies.

Figure 2. 1 Canale & Swain's (1980) components of communicative competence

Chomsky (1957, 1965)	Hymes (1967, 1972)	Canale and Swain (1980)	Canale (1983)	Celce-Murcia et al. (1995)
Linguistic Competenc	Linguistic Competence	Grammatical Competence	Grammatical Competence	Linguistic Competence
	Sociolinguistic Competence	Strategic Competence	Strategic Competence	Strategic Competence
		Sociolinguistic Competence	Sociolinguistic Competence	Sociolinguistic Competence
				Actional Competence
		Discourse Competence		Discourse Competence

Figure 2. 2 Chronological evolution of 'communicative competence'

(Adapted and modified from (Celce-Murcia, 2008, p.43)

Canale (1983a) divided the previous model into four components (see Figure 2.2), but both models serve instructional purposes (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, & Thurrell, 1995) and constitute the fundamental "sources for discussions of communicative competence and related applications in applied linguistics and language pedagogy" (Celce-Murcia, 2008, p.41).

Other models were developed by Bachman (1990), Celce-Murcia et al (1995), Bachman & Palmer (1996), and Celce-Murcia (2008). The models of Canale (1983a) and Celce-Murcia (2008), presented in Figure 2.2, considered language teaching while other models were developed with language assessment in mind (Celce-Murcia, 2008). These different models share the concept of strategic competence, leading this research, as one of the main components in the various communicative competence models available. This model posited four components of communicative competence:

1- **Grammatical competence** - a knowledge of the language code (grammatical rules, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, etc.).

2- **Sociolinguistic competence** - a mastery of the sociocultural code of language use (appropriate application of vocabulary, register, politeness and style in a given situation).

3- **Discourse competence** - the ability to combine language structures into different types of cohesive texts (e.g., political speech, poetry).

4- **Strategic competence** - a knowledge of the verbal and non-verbal communication strategies which enhance the efficiency of communication and, where necessary, enable the learner to overcome difficulties when communication breakdowns occur (Celce-Murcia et al., 1995, p.7)

Accordingly, language teaching has seen a development that considers language use as a functional context entrenched with meaning rather than a structure (Bachman, 1990). Each of the models discussed earlier can be reflected in learning and teaching to develop different abilities, as discussed. Hedge (2000) discussed the communicative abilities and their inclusion within the ELT curriculum, which offers possible implications for learners. Considering strategic competence, she argues that, if communicative language ability consists of strategic competence, which seems to imply attitudes, behaviour, and linguistic knowledge, and learners must be able to:

1-take risks in using both spoken and written language, 2-use a range of communication strategies, 3- and to learn the language needed to engage in some of these strategies, e.g. 'What do you call a thing that/person who..?' (Hedge, 2000, p.56).

2.3 Communication Strategies

Strategic competence has occupied a distinctive place in the understanding of communication (Brown, 2006). Generally, it denotes the use of communication strategies (Bulut & Rababah, 2007, p.84). The literature reflects controversy over the definitions and classifications of these strategies (Benali, 2013). This variation is discussed in the coming sections.

2.3.1 Defining approaches of communication strategies

A universal definition of CSs in the literature is unavailable (Ghout-Khenoune, 2012). Various definitions of strategic competence concern its purpose and scope in terms of language acquisition and use (Byram & Hu, 2013). For example, CSs are "potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal" (Faerch & Kasper, 1983, p.36). The defintion in (Canale & Swain, 1981), which focused on problem-orientedness, disregarded interaction communication problems (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). It was improved to refer to "verbal and non-verbal communication strategies in L2 used when attempting to compensate for deficiencies in the grammatical and sociolinguistic competence or to enhance the effectiveness of communication" (Canale, 1983a, P.23), including problem-solving and message enhancement (Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1991; Kasper & Kellerman, 1997).

Overall, CSs relate to two main perspectives: the intra-individual/psycholinguistic approach and the inter-individual/ interactional approach. However, recently, researchers such as Benali (year) have considered an integrated approach that includes both approaches. The psychological view (Bialystok, 1990; Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Poulisse, 1990) underscores individuals' communication behaviour by paying attention to their mental processes. The interactional approach (e.g., Tarone, 1980) denotes the interactive aspect of CSs by underlining the role of the 'negotiation of meaning' in communication (Nakatani, 2010). These two classifications are known as the product-based and process-based classifications, respectively (Sukirlan, 2014).

The psycholinguistic view emphasises "learners' problem-solving behaviour arising from gaps in their lexical knowledge" (Nakatani & Goh, 2007, p.208) so, accordingly,

CSs are observed as evidence of underlying mental processes (Bialystok, 1990; Kellerman, 1991; Poulisse, 1990). The interactional perspective considers CSs as "tools used in negotiation of meaning where both interlocutors are attempting to agree as to a communicative goal and a shared enterprise in which both the speaker and the hearer are involved rather than being only the responsibility of the speaker" (Tarone, 1980, p.424). In addition, the third approach claims that "CSs are regarded not only as problem-solving phenomena to compensate for communication disruptions, but also as devices with pragmatic discourse functions for message enhancement" (Nakatani & Goh, 2007, p.208).

These approaches lead to various CSs taxonomies. Thus, previous studies, based on diverse analytical perspectives, have generated results that are often controversial and at times conflicting, so a more comprehensive approach is urgently needed in order to investigate the complexity of CSs (Sin-Yi, 2015). Therefore, the two approaches can be combined since "during communication, both interlocutor and speaker experience cognitive processes and these are mainly modified through interaction" (Uztosun & Erten, 2014, p.170). Confined by these two approaches, the research became an endless circle of repetitive findings, which now require investigating in regular L2 teaching contexts instead of arranged settings that differ from real communicative situations (Doqaruni, 2013; Nakatani & Goh, 2007). Recent publications call for the addition of more perspectives in order to understand learner strategies (Rose, 2015; Oxford, 2017).

2.3.2 Defining the criteria of communication strategies

Distinguishing strategies from other behaviour, such as processes and skills, implies two main features, problematicity and consciousness, that are available in most of the definitions of CSs (Frewan, 2015).

2.3.2.1 Problematicity

Problematicity, also known as a problem-orientedness approach, involves the speaker's use of strategies as a reaction to the occurrence of a problem during communication and features in many of the definitions and investigations of CSs (Yang, 2006; Mariani, 2010).

The types of problem differ because some researchers focus on specific problems (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). The traditional view of CSs as problem-solving behaviour suggests that a deficiency or limitation in the linguistic system (phonological, lexical, syntactic, sociolinguistic/sociocultural or pragmatic) makes communication difficult or

even impossible to accomplish (Mariani, 2010). Dörnyei & Scott (1995, 141) categorised difficulties into three types:

a. Own-performance problems which result from "(a) the realization that one has said something incorrect, (b) the realization that what one has said was less than perfect, and (c) uncertainty about whether what one has said was correct or conveyed the intended message".

b. Other performance problems which can be caused by the interlocutor's speech when "(a) something perceived to be incorrect, (b) lack or uncertainty of understanding something fully, or (c) a lack of some expected message/response".

c. Processing time pressure which refers to the time needed by learners to think and plan their communication, which is usually longer than the time available during natural communication.

From this, it can be assumed that problems are essential for the use of strategies which can differ in nature according to other factors that will be considerd in this resaerch.

2.3.2.2 Consciousness

Consciousness is linked to many definitions of CSs, indicating that employing CSs implies an awareness of a problem as a reason for resorting to alternative ways of communicating (Bialystok, 1990). Learners' strategies employ the learners' metacognition which is the higher level of awareness that regulates mental, social, and effective strategies and an important process if learners are to be able to use CSs by planning, monitoring, and evaluating CS use (Goh, 2012). Dörnyei & Scott (1995) subdivided consciousness into consciousness as awareness of the problem, consciousness as intentionality, and consciousness as awareness of strategic language use. Other researchers have argued that the total existence or nonexistence of consciousness is not an accurate measurement (Tarone, 1984; Mariani, 2010; Benali, 2013).

Awareness has essentially been a feature that has distinguished LLS strategies from other processes/skills (Cohen, 1995; 2012) and is a common feature in the majority of the definitions analysed by Oxford (2017). Behaviour may not be a strategy when a learner "cannot recognise or remember the problem and/or cannot recall or describe what she/he did to overcome it intentionally" (Mariani, 2010, p.17). Thus, automaticity in strategy use happens when leaners are no longer aware of their behaviour (Ellis, 1994). Advanced learners can use strategies effortlessly and automatically and may not

be able to describe this behaviour whereas less proficient learners require additional cognitive effort to be able to define exactly when they use strategies (Burrows 2015b). Mariani (2010) suggests that consciousness of the problem and the strategies' use may be determined by:

a. The type of problem: which may appear when planning what to say, after this stage, or when receiving feedback from an interlocutor.

b. The context and situation of interaction: including features causing stress, such as the presence of unfamiliar interlocutors or a challenging subject matter to discuss, that can generate anxiety together with mindfulness of one's own deficiencies.

c. The personality of the speakers themselves: a person who is markedly prone to observe the correctness of their performance had a greater awareness of the problems they are facing.

Thus, consciousness is better considered flexibly from various cultural, contextual and individual perspectives in order to solve the contentious debate surrounding this phenomenon (Burrows, 2015b). Pedagogically, education can motivate processes and develop strategies (Rickheit et al., 2008, p.26).

Since CSs are examined in the EFL Libyan classroom here for the first time, flexibility is needed in order to understand CSs. Therefore, CSs in this research are considered:

> complex, dynamic thoughts and actions, selected and used by learners with some degree of consciousness in specific contexts to regulate multiple aspects of themselves (such as cognitive, emotional, and social) for the purpose of (a) accomplishing language tasks; (b) improving language performance or use; and/or (c) enhancing long-term proficiency (Oxford, 2017, p.48).

2.3.2.3 Communication strategies vs learning strategies

It is vital to acknowledge an additional controversy related to defining CSs; as 'communication strategies' or 'learning strategies'. Pawlak (2011, P.19) states that SLA reserachers are divided about "whether learning and communication should be perceived as two sides of the same coin or rather two different processes", as some researchers include them under the same term (e.g., Cohen & Dörnyei, 2002; Cohen & Macaro, 2007) while others separate them (e.g., Griffiths, 2008; Ellis, 2015).

CSs have been integrated into the wide-ranging learning strategies explicitly and implicitly (Konchiab, 2015) (see Table 2.1). However, it can be difficult to distinguish clearly occasions when learners use the strategies to resolve a problem and those when they use them to support their learning (Lee & Oxford, 2008; Mariani, 2010). CSs denote "applying the inner system for language production and comprehension" while learning strategies contribute to developing "he interlanguage system, or to add new knowledge of language". However, learning new linguistic knowledge can result from strategy use unconsciously which is known as "incidental learning" (Iwai, 2006, pp.32-33). Thus, when strategies are used for learning purposes, they are described as 'learning strategies' (LLSs), which are a conscious mental activity that contains a goal or intention, an action to reach this goal, and a learning activity (Cohen 2007).

On the contrary, CSs are consciously used for communication, subsequently after learning and when the resources are accessible for communicative practice (Cohen, 1995). LLSs were classified in various ways, but that of Oxford (1990) is one of the most popular taxonomies that is used to develop strategy questionnaires in major studies, which also include communication strategies, named 'compensation strategies' (see Table 2.1). CSs are implied in compensation strategies and social strategies, serving communication purposes. The first helps learners to communicate regardless of their lack of vocabulary while the second helps learners to be exposed to language use by engaging in activities with others (Hardan, 2013).

2.4.3 Taxonomies of communication strategies

As discussed earlier, a range of varying CSs taxonomies were adopted (Somsai & Intaraprasert, 2011; Pawlak, 2015). The most common classifications are presented in Appendix A.1. CSs taxonomies mostly differ in terminology and overall labelling principles rather than the nature of the strategies (Bialystok, 1990), as recognised in their defining criteria. Most typologies share key labels: (1) achievement/compensatory strategies and reduction/abandonment strategies, (2) oral/verbal and nonverbal strategies, and (3) L1 and L2-based strategies. The different taxonomies are widely discussed by Dörnyei & Scott (1997), Iwai (2006), and many others. The choices available to learners when they face problems are using achievement or reduction strategies (see Figure 2.3). In other words, they can try to use their available resources (risk-taking) or avoiding the problem (risk avoidance) (Mariani, 2010).

Achievement strategies include circumlocution, word coinage, foreignisation, approximation, literal translation, appealing for help and code-switching strategies (Dörnyei, 1995). Other terms used to represent achievement strategies include Váradi's (1980) 'replacement' and Oxford's (1990), 'compensation'.

Table 2. 1 Taxonomies of language learners' strategies (Khan, 2011, p.390)

Rubin (1981: 124-126)	O'Malley & Chamot (1990: 198-199)	Oxford (1990: 18-21)	Stern (1992: 263)	Chamot et al., (1999: 15-17)
Direct Strategies clarification/ verification monitoring memorization guessing inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning practice	**Metacognitive Strategies** advance organisation advance preparation organizational planning selective attention self-monitoring self-evaluation self-management	**Direct Strategies** 1. *Memory strategies* creating mental linkages applying images and sounds reviewing well employing action. 2. *Cognitive strategies* practicing receiving and sending messages analysing and reasoning creating structure for input / output.	**1.Management and Planning Strategies** 1. decide what commitment to make to language learning 2. set himself reasonable goals 3. decide on an appropriate methodology, select appropriate resources, and monitor progress 4. evaluate his achievement in the light of previously determined goals and expectation	1. Planning 2. Monitoring 3.Problem-Solving 4. Evaluating 5. Remembering
Indirect Strategies create opportunities for practice production tricks	**Cognitive Strategies** resourcing grouping note taking summarizing deduction imagery auditory representation elaboration transfer inferencing	3. *Compensation strategies* guessing intelligently overcoming limitations in speaking and writing **Indirect Strategies** 4. *Metacognitive strategies* centering your learning arranging and planning your learning evaluating your learning	**2. Cognitive Strategies** 1. Clarification / Verification 2. Guessing / Inductive Inferencing 3. Deductive Reasoning 4. Practice 5. Memorization 6. Monitoring	
	Social and Affective Strategies questioning for clarification cooperation self-talk	5. *Affective strategies* lowering your anxiety encouraging yourself taking your emotional temperature 6. *Social strategies* asking questions cooperating with others empathizing with others	**3. Communicative-Experiential Strategies** circumlocution gesturing paraphrase asking for repetition and explanation. **4. Interpersonal Strategies** **5. Affective Strategies**	

Figure 2.3 Strategies as problem-solving behaviour (Faerch & Kasper, 1983, p.38)

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Table 2. 2 Typology of CSs Adapted from (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997)

Strategy	Description
Message abandonment	Leaving a message unfinished because of some language difficulty
Message replacement	Substituting the original message with a new one because of not feeling capable of executing it
Circumlocution (paraphrase)	Exemplifying, illustrating or describing the properties of the target object or action
Approximation	Using a single alternative lexical item, such as a superordinate or a related term, which shares semantic features with the target word or structure
Use of all-purpose words	Extending a general, 'empty' lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking 'he gets something
Restructuring	Abandoning the execution of a verbal plan because of language difficulties, leaving the utterance unfinished, and communicating the intended message according to an alternative plan
Literal translation (transfer)	Translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1 to L2
Foreignising	Using a L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (i.e. with L2 pronunciation) and/or morphology
Code switching (language switch)	Including L1 words or chunks with L1 pronunciation in L2 speech
Use of similar sounding words	Compensating for a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of with a word (either existing or nonexisting) which sounds more or less like the target item
Mumbling	Swallowing or muttering inaudibly a word (or part of a word) whose correct form the speaker is uncertain about
Omission	Leaving a gap when not knowing a word and carrying on as if it had been said
Self-repair	Making self-initiated corrections in one's own speech
Over explicitness (waffling)	Using more words to achieve a certain communicative goal than what is considered normal in similar L1 situations
Mime	Describing whole concepts nonverbally, or accompanying a verbal strategy with a visual illustration
Verbal strategy markers	Using verbal marking phrases before or after a strategy to signal that the word or structure does not carry the intended meaning perfectly in the L2 code
Direct appeal for help	Turning to the interlocutor for assistance by asking an explicit question concerning a gap in one's L2 knowledge
Indirect appeal for help	Trying to elicit help from the interlocutor indirectly by expressing lack of an L2 item either verbally or nonverbally

Definitions of many of these strategies are presented in Table 2.2; these are also available in many other typologies. Additionally, achievement strategies can be used at the word/sentence level (speakers can borrow from their L1, generalise, approximate or paraphrase) and also at the discourse level (e.g., speakers can ask for help from their interlocutor) (Mariani, 2010). Reduction/abandonment strategies are more common in L2 because of the low-proficiency as conveying the intended message would be

impossible with the linguistic resources at hand; thus, learners can use message abandonment and topic avoidance (Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Bialystok, 1990).

These strategies are difficult to spot in real spoken performance but are a noticeable and crucial part of a language learner/user's innate repertoire (Mariani, 2010). Also, based on their choice, learners can switch to L1 or use strategies in L2 to solve a problem during communication, but L2 development can be affected differently when, for example, L1 strategies become a preference. Learners can borrow some words from their first language or use foreignising words when L1 is shared (Mariani, 2010).

Various taxonomies create difficulties for researchers, as leading to conflicting findings across the different studies. However, variations can help focusing on specific aspects of strategic behaviour in relation to research interests. This could provide findings with greater depth and resolve some of the vagueness within certain findings caused by investigating a wide scope of strategies in individual studies. This research is mainly concerned with L2 achievement CSs that are used for solving communication problems and for meaning negotiation inside EFL classroom. This is considered useful for the process of language learning and teaching, as I will discuss further, alongside the available approaches to the teachability of CSs and with consideration of the role of the sociocultural perspective that guides my research. A pedagogical-based taxonomy of Mariani (2010) was chosen (see Section 3.7).

2.5 Socio-cultural theories of language learning

As this research explores CSs, which are part of communicative competence and the target competence for the CLT classroom, which are grounded in the roles of communication and interaction during language learning, it is important to discuss the sociocultural theory underpinning these concepts and its implications for the current research. The value of theory in research is that it can provide 'a set of interrelated constructs (variables), definitions, and propositions that present a systematic view of the phenomena by specifying relations among variables with the purpose of explaining the natural phenomenon' (Creswell, 2009, p.51).

After cognitive theory ignored the role of social processes, Vygotsky (1978) created Sociocultural theory (SCT). He claimed that social interaction assists individuals to create their own language and underlines the significance of social-cultural elements in L2 learning, so communication, thinking and learning are associated with and shaped by

culture (Yang, 2016). Knowledge and learning in SCT are formed during interactions between people or between humans and artefacts, mediated through cultural artefacts and language (Vygotsky, 1978; Selin, 2014), which essentially informs the CLT principles (Thoms, 2012) including the position of language input, language output, corrective feedback, and shared learning activities (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). In Figure 2.4, the theories and concepts underlying SCT in the language classroom are interrelated in order to construct language learning. For instance, when learners interact to complete an actual objective, such as understanding what the other person said, learning occurs incidentally (Lantolf, Thorne, & Poehner, 2015).
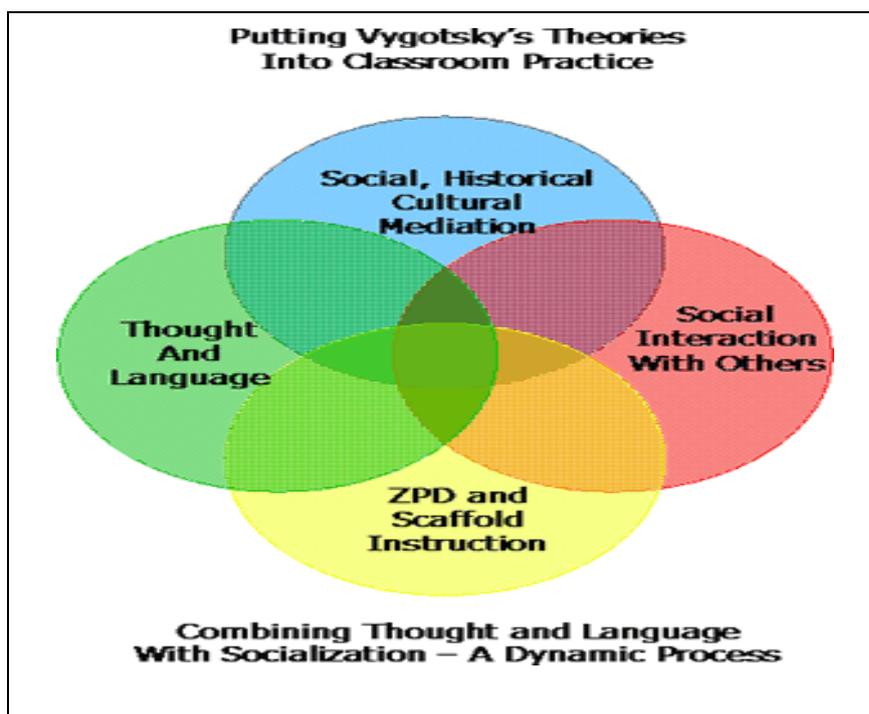
Figure 2. 4 Sociocultural theory,

Adopted from (Google cites)

Based on the activity theory of Vygotsky, an interaction within a certain contextualisation constructs a new system of reality that is driven by sociocultural and physical requirements, which in practice can be inferred through pedagogical classroom activities that are employed for certain purposes, according to the available physical contexts, roles of the participants, and the sociocultural accepted values of interaction (Panhwar, Ansari, & Ansari, 2016). Hence, learning can be influenced by culturally constructed materials and symbols which demand guidance from all learning resources, including textbooks, colleagues, and teachers (Swain, Kinnear, & Steinman, 2010). Classroom interaction (see Figure 2.5) results from various interrelated entities within the broader prospect of the educational context and from the perspectives of the

individual classroom. Hence, learning that results from classroom interaction should not be explored from a narrow angle.
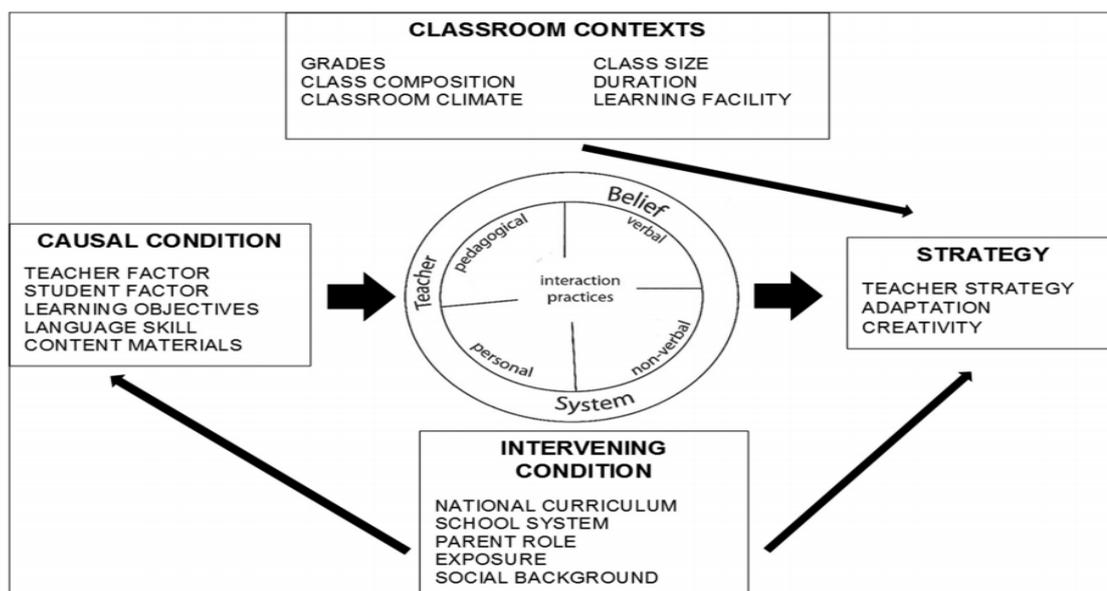
Figure 2. 5 Model of Classroom Interaction in EFL Classes

(Sundari, 2017 p.152)

Additionally, to explain the association between instruction and development, Vygotsky introduced the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Chaiklin, 2003) which implies two developmental levels in the learner. The actual (individual) refers to the ability to learn without help from others, while the potential refers to the ability to learn when helped by others (Dongyu, Fanyu, & Wanyi, 2013). Learners are in the zone of proximal development when provisionally requiring assistance to do something (Vygotsky, 1978). Accordingly, learning is reliant on "face-to-face interaction and shared processes such as joint problem-solving and discussion, with experts and also with peers" (Mitchell, 2013, p.222) and also on how students partake in meaning-making activities depends principally on how their teachers socially and culturally constructs those activities.

Also, mediation, represented by scaffolding in language learning within ZPD, enables a student or inexperienced person to solve problems, perform activities or accomplish targets which he/she could not achieve without help (Blake & Pope, 2008). In this case, the knowledge is transferred from the knowledgeable to the less knowledgeable, whereby the former elicits a present state of knowledge in regard to the task and offers novel knowledge to the latter, initiating actual change in developmental level towards the potential developmental level (Khaliliaqdam, 2014, P.891). When provided efficiently, assistance can nurture the development of language learning so that it can

help the learners with what they are not already able to do, or by giving them meaningful tasks to facilitate improved performance (Ohta, 2000). Thus, SCT has the potential for establishing innovative "context-oriented language teaching-learning pedagogies" that help teachers to take advantage of their teaching and their students' learning, which can improve their students' language skills and cognition by means of promoting their students' communication through scaffolding, leading to student-centredness (ZPD) (Panhwar et al., 2016, p.183).

Research on learners' interaction with L2 speakers suggests that involvement in interaction aid learning. Learners require input and feedback that offer linguistic data in order to modify and adjust their output in ways that will expand their current interlanguage capacity; however, this might not be available for all EFL learners if non-native speaking teachers and other learners regularly dominate the interactions (Pica, Lincoln-Porter, Paninos, & Linnell, 1996, p.60). 'Input' refers to the process of realising language (listening and reading), whereas 'output' indicates language production (speaking and writing) (Brown, 2007). Thus, the classroom that uses SCT for learning could provide a similar context using interaction and feedback in conjunction with the teachers and other students.

2.6 Sociocultural theory in language learning research

This theory reformed the previous approaches to the research on language learning and teaching. In the earlier cognitive approaches, second language acquisition is principally the mental process of acquiring systems of knowledge, such as phonological and lexical; therefore, relevant investigations were concerned with the functioning of the brain and the features of memory, attention, automatization, and fossilization, where increased fluency and accuracy can reflect the progress of language acquisition (Foster & Ohta, 2005). Cognitive and sociocultural theories diverge methodologically and philosophically. Cognitive approaches can use quantitative findings to compare two groups of learners to reach confirmative findings that can be generalised.

SCT implies "understanding mental development and learning by considering not only the contextual specifics but also the process over time, rather than focusing only on a particular moment of spoken or written production", which entail "breadth and depth that encourages much of the story as possible" which students and teachers can provide through descriptions (Swain et al., 2010, p.xiii). From this developed the notion of "situated learning," which is positioned in a specific "social and cultural setting, at a

particular time, and with specific individuals interacting as participants" which provides a "close-up picture of the people and processes involved in L2 learning and teaching" (Oxford, 2003, p.276).

Thus, SCT require qualitative research approaches that concentrates on the surroundings and participants in interactions and can also integrate some quantification to gain a partial understanding of a dataset where "descriptive work is valued, and researchers work to preserve the human experience and to avoid reductionism" (Foster & Ohta, 2005, p.403). Studies based on sociocultural perspectives have stimulated two different types of classroom interaction; language learning and language communication (Ellis, 2013).

Realising the sociocultural influence on the psycholinguistic processing of the learners strategies is needed (Kasper & Kellerman, 1997) to exceed the traditional criterion of understanding CSs as more flexible aspects and so widen the focus from individuals to groups (Rampton, 1997). Examining the characteristics of individuals and discounting the highly dynamic and socially interactive associations that exist can assist people in learning and teaching L2 which is lacked to the traditional learning strategies' inventories (Oxford, 2003). Strategies' research and any suggested instruction to teach strategies should be based on a sociocultural framework that suits specific classrooms (Oxford, 2017) because some strategies might not be suitable for all classrooms (Chamot, 2018). Given these considerations, SCT provide a useful framework for understanding the development of CSs in the Libyan EFL through exploring potential interactional aspects that mediate communication and learning in CLT classroom. Thus, strategies use, materials 'content and implementation and teacher feedback are essential in this inquiry.

2.7 Overview of communicative language teaching (CLT)

2.7.1 Background of CLT

Prior to the 1970s, language teaching followed various methods (traditional methods). The most dominant methods, the Grammar-translation Method and the Audio-Lingual Method, were used in Europe and other EFL contexts (Richards, 2014), including Libya, as discussed in chapter one. Communicative language teaching emerged in the late 1970s as a departure from the traditional language teaching methods and was developed by the late 1990s (see Figure 2.6). It is aimed to create a shift in language learning and teaching as well as in classroom relations and interactions, compared with

the previous traditional methods. Communicative competence theory informs CLT principally (Hymes, 1974).

CLT has been adopted in second language (ESL) and Foreign language (EFL) classrooms worldwide to foster effective English communicators (Littlewood, 2007), as is the case in Libya. The earlier methods were teacher-centred and lacked the aspects of cooperation and interaction, as language learning was seen as remembering rules and facts and any interactions could generally be teacher-to-student/ (Zhang, 2010).
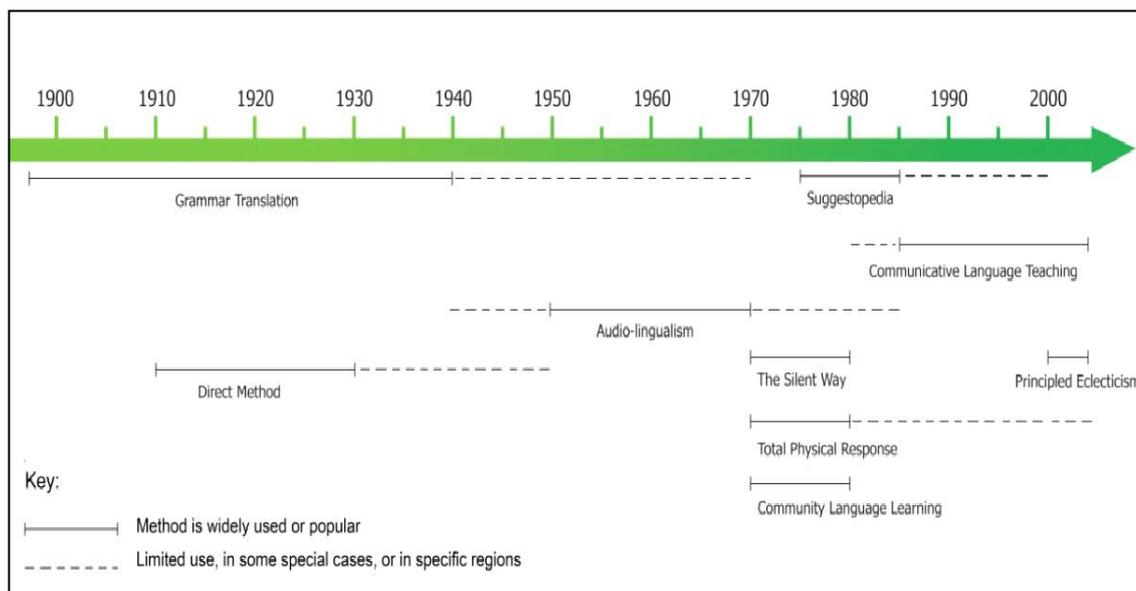
Figure 2. 6 Timeline for teaching methods (Tylor, 2010)

2.7.2 Features and Implications of CLT

CLT focuses on interaction and communication between students and teachers, regards the teacher's role as guider, facilitator, and negotiator, and stresses the autonomy and centricity of the students in the classroom (Zhang, 2010). It undermines form-focused instruction that encourages accuracy, error correction, and the explicit teaching of grammar (Baleghizadeh, 2010).

Language in CLT classrooms is a means of conveying meaning from one party to another using group work, pair work, questions and answers and evaluation. Hence, interaction between the teachers and students is the resource and the central classroom goal of language teaching, (Yang, 2016). Interaction and the shared construction of meaning are highly stressed for creating meaningful and purposeful interactions through language and the negotiation of the meaning to reach a common understanding (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Classroom interaction can be affected by: (a) the types of language tasks, (b) the learners 'willingness to communicate with each other, (c) the

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learning style dimensions affecting the interactions, and (d) group dynamics (Oxford, 1997, p.449).

CLT aims to give learners a chance to improve their social skills regarding what to say, how to say it, when to say it and where, to accomplish their everyday needs (Patel & Jain, 2008), and how to sustain communication even with limited language knowledge through using different kinds of communication strategy (Brown, 2006; Richards, 2006). Hence, teachers in the CLT classroom are required to train their students mainly to communicate in L2, not necessarily perfectly (Willems, 1987).

CLT defined teachers and learners' roles in the classroom. Teachers are not the knowledge holder and the classroom controller, but they mainly facilitate communication in the classroom and offer help and guidance to learners during interactions related to the different tasks (Richards, 2006). They should also be able to: define and react to learners' language needs); act as a tangible communicator; and prepare the classroom for communication and communicative activities (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

Learners in CLT classroom are expected to be active participants who are responsible for their own learning development, with opportunities to build and validate their own language hypotheses, creating a truly learner-centred classroom (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Importantly, researchers' interest in L2 learners' strategy use that emerged during their attempts to enrich CLT reflects the interrelationship between CSs and CLT (Iwai, 2006). Overall, CLT is a flexible approach that does not imply constraints on the teaching content and practices but, rather, encourages consideration of the context in which it is adopted (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Therefore, exploring CSs, as interactional aspects of communicative competence, might help to identify the associations between the CLT aims and its implementation.

2.7.3 CLT Materials and Communicative Activities

Here, it is vital to mention that the materials used in the classroom can define the zone in which the classroom practices and discourse take place (Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013). In reference to CLT, materials have been used to support this approach in various ways in different contexts because they are considered as a way of controlling the quality of classroom interaction and language use (Qinghong, 2009). Teaching materials can be designed by the teachers, institution or higher authorities, such as the education ministry. Materials improvement needs be informed by an awareness of teachers' use of

them; therefore, teachers and learners must be involved in generating second language learning materials, not only materials designers (Tomlinson, 2012). Basically, materials' design should consider four main skills: listening, speaking, writing and reading, that include authentic and real-world resources to increase learners' motivation to learn a language (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

Recently, due to the different educational paradigms and traditions, variations in practice seem to symbolise CLT (Richards, 2006). In response to this variation, teaching materials take many different forms. Generally, communicative materials were found to belong to three main types: task-based, content-based, and text-based materials (Nunan, 2010; Richards & Rodgers, 2014). These are all analytical as they provide learners "with holistic chunks of language and are required to break these down, or to analyse them, into their component parts" (Nunan, 2010, p.137). A description of the three types is presented in (Richards & Rodgers, 2014):

1- Text-based: functional and structural content containing real-world or adapted texts with questions for comprehension, communicative activities for pair work or group work and grammar explanations with grammar exercises (e.g. fill in the gaps).

2- Task-based: based on games, role-play, activity cards, or pair-communication practice materials. They come in the form of "activity packs", "workbooks", or simply appear as an appendix at the end of the textbook.

3-Realia: real-world material such as magazines, newspapers, and visual sources (maps, pictures, symbols, graphs, and charts) used to practice communicative activities.

2.7.4 Tasks and activities

Tasks and activities are essential concepts in CLT and are investigated in this research. Games such as card games, scrambled sentences, problem-solving tasks, such as picture strip stories, and role-play activities that match the principles of the communicative approach are integrated (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Task-based materials provide tasks symbolising behavioural blueprints or sets of instructions concerning what students are expected to do whereas an activity which (to certain sociocultural theorists) refers to what students really do in response to a task (Oxford, 2003, p.273). Tasks must equip learners with the essential skills for communicating productively and receptively and encourage them to construct meaning through engaging in genuine linguistic interaction with others (Brown, 2007). A communicative task "involves learners in comprehending,

manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language that whole their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form" (Nunan, 1993, p.10).

Tasks and activities should inspire learners to choose linguistic forms that are essential for achieving the task and do not oblige them to perform fixed forms by negotiating for meaning and communicating with each other, asking for explaining, or checking comprehension to achieve communicative effectiveness (Ellis, 2003). Activities positioned at the communicative end of the communication must embrace:

1. Students must feel "a desire to communicate" and develop a "communicative purpose" which means that they have an aim which they wish to achieve. The emphasis has to be on content rather than form.
2. The student should have the possibility to use a variety of language items (e.g. different grammar items) so the exercise should not focus on one language item only.
3. During the activity, the teacher should not intervene, which means that s/he should not correct mistakes because a mistake is not always a mistake, should not put the emphasis on accuracy, and should s/he ask for repetition.
4. Finally, there should not be any materials' control, which means that the material should not force the learners to use any specific language (Harmer, 1983, p.48).

Task design should firstly define the aims and intentions set in the syllabus or curriculum guidelines for the educational program, then choose or construct input for learners to use which needs to be authentic and preferably contain "Text, audio or video recording can be classified and filed under topics and themes (e.g. work/jobs; holidays; future plans; etc.), and provide a ready-made resource to be drawn on when designing tasks" (Qinghong, 2009, p.51). Thus, the aims in introducing CLT into Libya's educational system were introduced in Chapter One.

Considering that CSs are mainly implied in the speaking skills, it is important to review a possible framework for CSs in a speaking syllabus. That of Bao's (2013, pp.413-16) denotes conceptualising learner needs, identifying the subject matter and communication situations, identifying verbal communication strategies, utilising verbal sources from real life, and designing skill-acquiring activities. All of the issues are related to materials and communicative tasks and their implication for L2 communication and development reflects the importance of the characteristics of CSs in materials content, in task design and in performing activities which require attention to

be paid to students' attitudes and needs. Richards (2008, p.29) offers detailed implications for planning speaking activities which also consider the students' needs regarding the major types of speaking and teaching aspects:

1- Decide the nature of the speaking skills that the lesson will focus on, which can denote one of three types: talk as interaction (which reflects the real situation of formal and informal conversations), talk as transaction (exchange of information with consideration of accuracy and understanding), and talk as performance (talking to an audience). 2- Informal analysis of learners needs using "observation of learners carrying out different kinds of communicative tasks, questionnaires, interviews, and diagnostic testing". 3- Then, finding teaching strategies to teach (i.e., offering chances for students to obtain) each kind of talk.

Additionally, as implied in the definitions of CLT, the fluency of learners' oral production is vital. Thus, the actual purpose of tasks is that learners learn how to use the language, rather than achieve specified outcomes (Ellis, 2003). However, tasks can imply a focus on fluency or accuracy, or a combination of both (Oxford, 2003) according to some features as discussed by Richards (2006) (see Table 2.3). Recognisably, the right column of the table suggests that communication strategies relate to fluency activities.

Table 2.3 Fluency vs accuracy, developed from Richards (2006, p.14)

Activities focusing on fluency	Activities focusing on accuracy
-Reflect natural use of language -Focus on achieving communication -Require meaningful use of language -Require the use of communication strategies -Produce language that may not be predictable	-Reflect classroom use of language -Focus on the formation of correct examples of language -Practice language out of context -Practice small samples of language -Do not require meaningful communication

In the literature, focus has been placed on developing the area of materials' design and evaluation and offering instructions to teachers, but these issues are not generally based on researching real materials or their actual use; thus, researchers should pay more attention to materials' functions affecting affordance and interaction (Garton & Graves, 2014). Given this, materials' role in reaching the educational targets needs to be integrated with the teacher's role in mediating the classroom interaction, which could be

investigated by outlining the individual classroom communication in relation to the overall pedagogical aims (Garton & Graves, 2014).

CLT syllabus should contain activities related to CSs and offer problematic situations and procedural vocabulary to encourage the effective use of CSs (Rabab'ah, 2004). Since L2 competence develops from its performance, tasks requiring meaning expression, and negotiation can be used to develop learners' CSs and interlanguage (Mariani, 2013), thus students should be engaged in problematic situations requiring CSs use (Benali, 2013).

To conclude, CLT classroom has some implications, as suggested by Brown (2007). First, it should focus on all components of CC and engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes, focusing on language that enables the learner to accomplish those purposes. Second, fluency and accuracy should be complimentary principles underlying communicative techniques. At times, fluency may be more important than accuracy to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use; third, students must ultimately use the language, productively and receptively, in unplanned settings. These different implications should be reflected in the content of the teaching materials and can be affected by the tasks and activities available in classrooms; however, the implementation of the materials could clarify the potential role of the classroom in developing the different competences. Thus, materials content and implementations could/could not develop CSs.

2.7.5 Challenges of CLT implementation

Regardless of the promises made by CLT theorists and researchers, implementing CLT has failed to achieve its main objectives in many EFL contexts (Hussein, 2018). In the literature, CLT is sometimes described as 'strong' (task-based teaching) or 'weak' (task-supported teaching), but even 'task-based' can be weak, depending on the teachers' practices (Ellis, 2003, p.28). In the strong version, teacher holds the information and do not offer it to learners unless learners request it during the activities (Lee and VanPatten, 2003) so learners have to discover it during the interactions (Ellis, 2003). Conversely, the weak version denotes a communicative syllabus that is taught using traditional methods so that communicative activities are used to practise previously-taught language structures and grammar (Ellis, 2003; Butler, 2011). According to the characteristics and problems associated with the Libyan classroom, explained in

Chapter One, it is difficult to consider its relationship to the strong version since the traditional teaching methods are still used.

Researchers of the EFL classroom have indicated that some teachers may consider following communicative approaches, but their classroom practices are incompatible with CLT (Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 2005); others modify task-based materials into a grammar translation (Nunan, 2010); others think that grammar should not be taught in the CLT classroom (Wu, 2008); and a few teachers recognise that communication denotes the four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing (Wong, 2012).

Teachers' misconception or lack of understanding of CLT has affected its implementation (Littlewood, 2007; Orafi, 2008; Shihiba, 2011), as there exists vagueness among learners and teachers regarding the nature of CLT (Savignon, 2002, 2007). Accordingly, an awareness of teacher's cognition of CLT in certain classrooms, including their beliefs that underlie their "unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching - what teachers know, believe, and think" (Borg, 2003) and perceptions is important for understanding their practices' pedagogical implications (Wong, 2012).

Ineffectiveness of CLT can result from gaps between polices and teaching practices which lead to a continuation of the traditional teaching methods reflected by the lack of communicative competence among learners, specifically in EFL countries (Littlewood, 2007). The practical challenges raised in various contexts when teachers have been asked to implement CLT in schools with large classrooms and limited resources (Littlewood, 2013). In other words, factors affecting second language learning can be controlled (classrooms' settings, method, and materials), not controlled (personality), or partially controlled (motivation of the learner) (Skehan, 1991; Schmidt, 2012). Teachers' deficiencies in oral English and sociolinguistic and strategic competence conflict with CLT (Burnaby and Sun, 1989). As acknowledged in chapter One, the Libyan CLT classroom faces similar difficulties regarding developing learners' communicative competence; the characteristics of the teachers, materials and students were linked to this. Because the teaching materials' content has not yet been examined thoroughly, this research aims to explore its content in relation to CSs.

In sum, CLT, with its objectives, teachers and students' roles and its implications for materials' content and design, implies that interaction and the meaning negotiation can

enable learners to communicate their meaning with confidence, disregarding their linguistic limitations which highlight the values of using CSs. However, the development of CSs can be affected by CLT is implemented and by the nature and types of the tasks and activities and available teaching materials. Hence, tasks and activities and their implementation in Libyan classrooms are considered in this investigation.

2.8 CSs of second language learners: insights from theory and research

2.8.1 Previous CSs research: scope and findings

Communicative competence's appearance highlighted communication strategies (Chen, 1990) as the need for communication has become important in the language learning domain. This encouraged CSs investigations .CSs' research since 1970s, focused on four main areas (Jidong, 2011, pp 89-98): CSs classifications and research methods; the factors affecting the choices of CSs (target language proficiency and CSs; learning and communicating contexts and CSs, task types and CSs, gender differences and CSs, personality and CSs, first language and CSs); the teachability and teaching of CSs; and the effectiveness of CSs. This current study differs due to being concerned with strategy development for CSs in the Libyan EFL classroom. Therefore, only the most relevant literature will be discussed here.

2.8.2 Teachability of CSs

CSs' teachability, embracing arguments related to teach or not to teach, how and what to teach, and what benefits may be gained from strategy instruction/teaching or education are discussed.

2.8.2.1 To Teach or not to Teach

CSs teaching (CST) in L2 classroom imply two main views, known as 'the Pros' and 'the Cons' (Yule & Tarone, 1997). The former is represented by those adopting the interactional approach, discussed earlier (e.g., Willems, 1987; Dörnyei & Scott, 1995; Faucette, 2001; Nakatani, 2005; Alibakhshi & Padiz, 2011; Maldonado, 2012; Benali, 2013; Sukirlan, 2014). Their view denotes improvements in strategy use and benefits for L2 learning and competence. This implies that learners are involved in tasks for which CSs can provide a useful tool when promoting the necessity for using the strategies (Mariani 2010).

Conversely, Bialystok (1990) and Kellerman (1991) disregarded the teachability of CSs, considering strategies as cognitive fixed processes that can be developed in the speaker's L1 and can be converted into target language use. Kellerman (1991)

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determined that teaching more language can develop CSs' use. Deducing from this, learners decide their strategy use in real life rather than been informed about it formally in their classroom (Mariani, 2010). Similarly, overused strategies can hinder the development of L2 through learners using a limited range of language to solve difficulties instead of producing more refined language (Swan, 2008).

It is argued that learners can implicitly develop CSs from their L1 (Kellerman, 1991). However, knowing the degree of CSs' development, knowledge and ability to use strategies is important. Since using L1 strategies efficiently to solve certain problems can also be problematic and requires L2 strategy education (Mariani, 2010). Additionally, there exists uncertainty about which strategies to teach. For instance, using a strategy like 'gesture' during interaction for unknown objects may not benefit learning (Macaro, 2001; Nakatani, 2010). It is doubtful whether certain CSs, such as approximation and paraphrasing, can be transferred from L1, and thus may need to be taught (Dörnyei & Scott, 1995; Rossiter, 2003). However, opponents of CST were not research based (Yule & Tarone, 1997), while many researches positively demonstrate CST effectiveness. Consequently, the credibility of the more solid teaching-related issues related to communication strategies is not established (Doqaruni, 2013).

2.8.2.2 What and how to teach CSs

CSs teachability seem to be a matter of how rather than if (Mariani, 2010). Controversy of CST comes from having two dissimilar conceptualisations about 'teaching': one comprises encouraging strategy use by creating the conditions for its use while the one requires active CSs teaching in the classroom (Bialystok & Kellerman, 1987). The indirect approach can comprise involving learners in conversational interaction (Richards, 1990) which implies "providing the learners with specific language input" (Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1994, p.41). CST approaches are direct (explicit) or indirect (implicit). In (Iwai & Gobel, 2003), implicit training comprised listening to dialogues and learners identified when the speakers clarified certain points, whereas the explicit approach entailed offering written materials with instructions, instances and information about CSs' uses and benefits.

It can be argued that literature overlooked the teachers' knowledge and attitudes for achieving CST. Teachers' knowledge can be declarative (knowledge of facts and concepts) or procedural (knowledge of skills and procedures) in addition to other types; content knowledge (of the subject matter) and instructional knowledge (knowledge of

how to teach) (Woods, 1996). Furthermore, it has not yet been confirmed whether CSs instruction/teaching should be integrated into regular classrooms or taught separately (Chamot, 2005). Thus, the current research explores Libyan teachers' knowledge, understanding and attitudes regarding CSs and CST.

2.8.3 Explicitness and implicitness: implications in learning, knowledge and instructions

>…we know that implicit and explicit learning are distinct processes, that humans have separate implicit and explicit memory systems, that there are different types of knowledge of and about language, that these are stored in different areas of the brain, and that different educational experiences generate different type of knowledge (Ellis, 2009, p120).

Teaching and learning can be explicit and/or implicit, based on classrooms activities. Implicit language learning takes place without either intentionality or awareness, resulting in 'subsymbolic' knowledge which the learners are unable to recognise or express but can be reflected in their behaviour. On the contrary, explicit learning normally implicates remembering a sequence of consecutive particulars, thereby placing a substantial burden on the working memory; thus 'symbolic' knowledge is acquired, and learners recognise and can speak about it (Ellis, 2009). Whether these are equally important or not remains a matter for investigation in SLA, although explicit learning was found to lead to implicit learning while the converse relationship is not yet certain (Ellis, 2009, p.16). Schmidt (1995; 2012) suggested that both aspects imply at least some level of awareness and classified this into two types: noticing (comprising perception and representing conscious attention to 'surface elements') and metalinguistic (involving analysis and the underlying abstract rules with the presence of awareness).

Knowledge acquired and symbolised either implicitly or explicitly enhances language learning (Celce-Murcia, 2001). Using language for effective communicative requires implicit knowledge (Ellis, 2009). He distinguished explicit (declarative) from implicit (procedural) knowledge with regard to consciousness, accessibility, verbalisation, and orientation. Explicit knowledge implies consciousness about the specifics of language (e.g. words; meanings and rules), involves organised processing, can only be accessed gradually and applied with difficulty, and is often verbalisable so learners can describe

their knowledge using metalanguage. Implicit knowledge does not imply an awareness of what is known implicitly and is marked in communicative language behaviour, which can be accessed fluently and promptly. If not made explicit, learners are incapable of describing their implicit knowledge. Explicit teaching provides learners with clarification regarding how to form and transform language with rules, but implicit teaching encourages the incidental acquisition of the L2 through usage-based and meaning-oriented practice, together with input development strategies (Ellis, 2009).

Therefore, these aspects can provide a meaningful description of CSs and their potential role of Libyan classroom in development CSs and are important for describing CSs in terms of materials' content and teachers' level of CSs awareness. They can also provide a clearer understanding of the potential instruction regarding CSs in Libyan classrooms.

2.8.4 Empirical research on CST

Since 1990s, strategy training attracted considerable attention from the proponents of the explicit approach approving the prominence of explicitness in teaching (Burrows, 2015a). This means that learners are exposed to knowledge about CSs, their usefulness, how to transfer them to other tasks, and developmental aspects regarding learners' effective use of the strategies (Oxford, 1990). The explicit CST is encouraged by communicative language teaching because it is flexible regarding accuracy during the learning process since accuracy hinders the development of CSs (Lightbown & Spada, 2013).

Dörnyei (1995) investigated direct CST in the Hungarian context. It suggested the possibility of direct teaching (topic avoidance and replacement, circumlocution, and fillers and hesitation devices) and offered clearer CST guidelines to increase and improve strategy use and learners' attitudes towards the training. Rossiter (2003) examined the impact of CST on message abandonment, speech rate and task completion among intermediate level immigrants in Canada. Positive findings were related to task completion (narratives and describing objects). Nakatani (2005) explored the explicit teaching effect on improving the oral communication abilities of Japanese learners (related to both speaking and listening problems), showing that learners increased their proficiency scores, strategy awareness and strategy use to some extent.

Lam (2006) taught Chinese secondary school learners' different strategies, using various data collection techniques, and argued that self-efficacy was improved rather than proficiency. Maleki's (2007) study was significant as it explored the teachability of

CSs and the feasibility of integrating CST into school syllabi in Iran, which led to increased speaking scores tests and reflected the pedagogical effectiveness of CST. He suggested that meaning negotiation strategies enhanced the learners' comprehension and learning of new vocabulary when they asked for help. Kongsom (2009), like Nakatani, explored meaning negotiation strategies, such as appeals for help, clarification requests and checks. Following a direct teaching approach with Thai learners revealed an improvement in the learners' awareness of CSs and their usefulness. The training of Japanese university students at two proficiency levels in (Iwai & Gobel, 2003) reflected useful considerations concerning the relevance of cultural background and social constraints on the students' strategies preferences. The ineffectiveness of CSs was related to the passive learning style reflected by the learners' tendency to use low risk strategies, regardless of task type.

Comparing the direct and indirect approaches, Al-Ashrii and Ibrahim (2011) declare that CST (direct and indirect) enhanced different conversational skills, the use of strategies and the participation rate in the classroom. Alahmed (2017) explored the different influences of explicit and implicit instruction on the use of CSs among pre-intermediate Arabic learners of English as L2, showing that both approaches can be effective with regard to using the strategies and completing communicative tasks.

Two similar studies have been conducted in Libya. Tarhuni (2014) investigated the impact of LLSs instructions on adult Libyan learners of English, including compensation strategies, showing the value of raising awareness of LLSs among teachers and students which increased the students' overall strategy use, improved their learning efforts and skills, and developed learner autonomy. Yassin (2014) explored the effect of direct CST on undergraduate Libyan students. The teaching intervention demonstrated positive findings, including the benefits of awareness-raising and enhancement of an effective ability to communicate. The learners also showed positive attitudes towards the teaching of CSs for improving their oral performance. A vital contribution of this research is that it demonstrates the long-lasting impact of CST on the communication skills of the students. Since these two studies were not conducted in Libyan schools and to add to this body of research in the Libyan context, I have investigated CSs in secondary school classrooms.

This section shows how a few of the major investigations into CST reflected many differences (Mariani, 2010) and various findings but all suggested the benefits of CST (Caraker, 2012), which encouraged the current research (see Appendix A.4).

2.8.5 CST: perspectives and possible guidelines

This section provides relevant implications considering usefulness of CST. This requires a conclusive explanation of the nature of education needed to develop such competence. CEF (Common European Framework for language teaching) defines competence as "complex interaction of knowledge, skills/strategies and beliefs/ attitudes" also involves factors like "motivations, values, styles, personality" (Mariani, 2010, p.45). Competence implies *knowledge*: either *declarative* (facts, concepts, relationships) or *procedural* (information on how to put the facts and concept to actual use). For example, approximation and paraphrasing strategies involve using words and structures, and phrases. However, these are not enough to use CSs confidently because learners' beliefs and attitudes are important, as shown in Table 2.4.

Table 2. 4 Characteristics for the confident use of CSs
(Adapted from Mariani, 2010, p.46)

Beliefs	Positive attitudes
• you can keep a conversation going even if you do not understand every single word;	• be prepared to run reasonable risks both in comprehension and in production;
• interaction is based on the interlocutors' cooperation;	• tolerate ambiguity, at least to a certain extent, and the anxiety which often comes with it;
• you can at least partially control the communicative "flow" by using appropriate strategies.	• be flexible enough to change strategies if and when needed.

Since CST research could not establish conclusive teaching approaches that can be used to assess possible teaching approaches in the Libyan classroom, Burrows (2015a. P.160) described the common features of instructional approaches:

1. Awareness-raising: heighten awareness of the nature and potential of CSs.
2. Risk-taking: encourage risk-taking and CSs use, without apprehension of making errors (Faerch & Kasper, 1986).

3. Modelling: teacher demonstrations externalise the thinking process of CS use, in addition to highlighting cross-cultural differences.
4. Direct teaching: providing learners with linguistic devices to verbalize CSs.
5. Practice: adequate opportunities for practice "to help learners perform their competence rather than build it up" (Kellerman, 1991, P.160).

For enthusiasts of CSs training, teaching in a wider sense contains what Dörnyei labelled six connected strategy training techniques (Dörnyei, 1995), which was helpful in Faucette (2001), for CST research, and will also be considered in analysing and interpreting my findings. These seem to be comparable of those of Mariani (2010) and reflect the features presented in Burrows, as can be seen in Table 2.5.

Table 2. 5 Guidelines for teaching CSs (Mariani, 2010; Dörnyei, 1995: p62 64)

	Mariani (2010)	Dörnyei (1995)
1	Providing a problem-based activity.	Encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use CS
2	Giving the learners the opportunity to test (and thus become aware of) *their present resources*:	Highlighting cross-cultural differences in CS use.
3	Providing examples of strategy use by native and non- native speakers using (e.g. taped dialogues, videos, films, web-based resources, class discourse)	Providing L2 models of the use of certain CS
4	Involving learners in exploring the strategy examples in order to identify strategies and describe them.	Teaching directly by presenting linguistic devices to verbalize CS
5	Providing opportunities to put strategies to use in tasks which require and promote interaction and meaning negotiation.	Providing opportunities for practice in strategy use and feedback,
6	Raising learners' awareness of the rationale for strategy use. S	Raising learner awareness about the nature and communicative potential of C?
7	Inviting learners to reflect on their use of strategies.	……………………………………..

2.8.6 Implications of the empirical research on CST

CSs teaching/awareness-raising is related to major improvements in language learning and use. These are positively reflected by CSs use and oral proficiency (Al-Ashrii & Ibrahim, 2011; Nakatani, 2005; Sukirlan, 2014), communication skills, vocabulary reading and learning, and writing skills, increases in the motivation and decreases in the anxiety level of EFL learners (Majd, 2014), a greater willingness among learners to

communicate (Mesgarsharh & Abdollahzadeh, 2014), positive communication abilities and attitudes to CSs (Tian and Zhang 2005), increases in confidence and proficiency levels (Jin-an, 2008), fluency and self-confidence and CSs usage (Benali, 2013), motivation for learning (Willems, 1987), tackling a communication problem and learning the language at the same time by encouraging learners to take risks rather than leaving the topic or the situation, helping in the process of vocabulary learning and reducing the use of translation aids (Mariani, 2010; Mariani, 2013; Williams, 2006), and increases in the amount of talk (Saeidi & Farshchi, 2015).

These can suggest possible improvements in the Libyan EFL classroom, which is suffering from various difficulties However, it is difficult to determine the pros and cons of the CSs teachability issue without making adequate attempts to create a feasible strategy or strategies, including the production of teaching materials and an appropriate teaching methodology (Iwai & Gobel, 2003, P.162). Based in a sociocultural classroom environment, this research aims to understand the issue of teachability and considers the universal limitations of the CST research in designing the research tools and analysing and interpretation of the data, as discussed in Konishi and Iwai (2004):

1. Methodological: the findings resulting from CST have not shown a long-term effect, and the research lacks accounts of accuracy, complexity, fluency.
2. Theoretical: the findings have been unable to explain the link between instruction and L2 development of learners' language (including declarative and procedural knowledge) since the SLA theories were not clearly linked to the findings.
3. Practical: the theories and methodological aspects of CST are not reflected in the teaching materials.

2.8.7 Learners' Use of Communication Strategies

The use of communication strategies by language learners has been studied since 1980. Most of the previous research shares theoretical and methodological features, as the examination of 25 studies shows, from Varadi (1973) to Rinnert and Iwai (2002), which are mainly based on the psycholinguistic perspective, focusing on learners' use of CSs to solve their lexical difficulties (Iwai, 2006). The SLA research findings on the CSs taxonomies of learners' strategies were based on various data types (Benali, 2013); see Table 2.6.

Numerous studies describe learners' strategies from different contexts by collecting quantitative data. CSs were usually investigated in performed speaking in a prepared

experiment setting (Cohen, 1998; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) using oral eliciting tasks (Nakatani, 2006; Tajeddin & Alemi, 2010; Khan & Victori, 2011; Larenas, 2011; Nakatani, 2010). The questionnaires of Oxford (1990) and Nakatani (2010) were developed to describe learners' use of LLSs, CSs included. Lam's (2006) inventory, adopted by different researchers, examines the use of oral CSs for dealing with speaking and listening difficulties (Xhaferi, 2012).

Table 2. 6 Types of Data for Studying Communication Strategies in SLA Research
(developed from Benali, 2013, p.47,48)

A- Interactional data	☐ Classroom data: ordinary classroom interaction (teacher/students, andstudents/students). ☐ Interviews: face to face interviews. ☐ Phone or cyber conversations.
B- Textual data	☐ Written data, which is elicited through tasks where the subjects are required to write about a specific topic that will produce the required phenomenon.
C- Spoken data	☐ The data that the researcher elicits through interviews or conversational tasks. This type of data is normally an interactional one that includes introspection where subjects are required to explain why they used certain utterances or strategies, immediately after performing the tasks, to simplify the work of the analyst. However, according to some researchers, like Ellis (1994) introspection as a method of elicitation in IL research is difficult, and the difficulty is that of all observations of whatever kind. The only safeguard is in the final consensus of our farther knowledge about the topic in question, later views correcting earlier ones, until the harmony of consistent system is reached.

The learners' use of CSs has been linked to many factors: the learners themselves, the task they have to complete and the context in which the learning and use of the second language strategies take place (Goh, 2012, p.70). More specifically, these are: learners' proficiency, personality, communicative experience, attitude towards communicative strategies, the topic source, and the communication situation, all of which have an impact on the learner's choice of strategy (Wei, 2011), and gender (Lai, 2010).

Learners' proficiency, considered a main factor affecting CSs use, is one of the most researched areas (Iwai, 2006), but many findings show inconsistencies. For example, it was recognised that the learners' level affects the extent of use of CSs and the favoured CSs (Paribakht, 1985; Rababah & Seedhouse, 2004; Uztosun & Erten, 2014), a larger number of learning strategies is associated with more successful learners (Green &

Oxford, 1995) and those with higher proficiency (Wharton, 2000), and that strategy types are related to proficiency (fluency-oriented, negotiation of meaning, and social affective strategies for their effectiveness in preserving the oral communication) (Nakatani, 2006). Rodriguez and Roux (2012) reported that less proficiency is related to code switching.

In contrast, others discussed the negative association between proficiency and CSs use (Chen, 1990; Poulisse & Schils, 1989), as less proficient learners tend to make more use of CSs. This is not unusual, as such learners do not have enough resources to communicate and so have to rely on CSs (Iwai, 2006), particularly L1 strategies and compensation strategies (Yassin, 2014). Chen (1990) indicated that high proficiency was correlated to knowledge-based strategies, such as giving examples, while low level leaners tended to use code switching.

Criticism was made of previous research that suggests that "there remains much room for exploration and improvement" in CSs research (Jidong, 2011, P.101) by moving away from the descriptive psycholinguistic approaches (what strategy/ies learners use). Kellerman (1997, p.37) and Oxford (2017) discussed the need to examine the educational context. Accordingly, few studies analysed strategies in interactional contexts (Paribakht, 1985; Fernández Dobao & Palacios Martínez, 2007).

Limited investigations were concerned with the effects of the learning context (Lafford, 2004; Rubio, 2007), as pointed out in the current enquiry. Studies on the impacts of the research methodology (Cohen & Macaro, 2007) and speaking contexts (Hmaid, 2014) are criticised for ignoring the actual classroom culture (Simeon, 2014). Bialystok and Fröhlich (1980), Ellis (1982), and Lafford (2004) considered contextual issues when using CSs. They can be affected by cultural background and social constraints (Iwai & Gobel, 2003). Learners' approaches affected the meaning negotiation and noticing of the L2 in Tarone's study (2009; 2010). Thus, Iwai and Gobel (2003) argued that teaching CSs cannot be separated from the instructional and contextual conditions.

Ignoring the teachers' roles in many CSs research presumed that the teachers and materials already have/offer ready to use knowledge and frameworks to initiate CSs education either directly, or indirectly, as Frewan (2015) argued. Therefore, he was the first to explore teachers' perceptions of the teachability of CSs and his findings will be useful in the current study. In the current research, strategies "can be conceptualized as 'by-products' of mediation and social activity in a learning community" (Coyle, 2007,

p.65). Hence, the development of CSs in the Libyan classroom, with a consideration of the contextual aspects, is investigated in this study.

2.9 Implication for CSs in the language classroom

This section will provide an overview of some of the implications regarding the content of the teaching materials and the teachers' use of CSs as possible mediation aspects regarding the development of CSs.

2.9.1 The teaching materials

"The lack of fluency or conversational skills that students often complain about is, to a considerable extent, due to the underdevelopment of strategic competence" because it is neglected by classroom instructors and materials (Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1991, p16). Many materials do this, but these are not commonly available (Rossiter, 2005). Lately, some new course books contain related activities (Wood, 2010; Caraker, 2012) which would suggest that CSs has received more attention, especially as including CSs in teaching materials is recommended by researchers (Rabab'ah, 2004).

For this purpose, the descriptive study of Faucette (2001), which seems to be a major study (cited in 120 publications that investigate CSs in teaching materials) evaluated 40 popular language textbooks proposed to develop strategic competence and teachers' resource books. Of these, only 17 included activities for practising CSs, and many non-recommended strategies for CST as reduction strategies were included (see Appendix C1 and C2). The guidelines of Dörnyei (1995), used to assess the activities, were somewhat followed (Faucette, 2001). She provided a list of the most common communicative activities useful for practicing CSs, which will be adopted in order to analyse the Libyan materials (see Appendixes C5). However, she proposed that the teachers' efforts in the classroom can be equally useful regarding CSs developments and suggested that similar research should investigate materials' implementation.

Iwai (2001) is similar to Faucette in terms of research aim and findings. Using a computer programme based on his own developed CSs corpus, he analysed 21 English textbooks in use in Japanese junior high schools to identify the CSs in them, including the dialogues and reading passages. He examined the types of exercises for learning activities in terms of the intended skills, focus and types of interaction. This revealed that there is an inconsistency in CSs' appearance and a lack of exercises that encourage

the fluency needed for CSs. The process of identifying the CSs and the explicit link between the analysed exercises and development of CSs were not clarified.

Vettorel and Lopriore (2013) have partially examined the presence of CSs in Italian ELT course books. The available research studies concerning the evaluation and analysis of textbooks are many, but studies that investigate the way in which the textbooks present CSs have not existed until recently (Faucette, 2001). Little literature on L2 materials is classroom-based, but the most conclusive arguments urge that these materials should consider the cultural context of certain classrooms (Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013).

Mariani (2010:1-2) produced a book for the pre-intermediate level onwards and included a "manual for teachers, teacher trainers and educators, providing them with a sound theoretical and methodological background, and a collection of activities for learners and users of an L2". It can be said that similar materials to that of Mariani can be useful for teachers to adopt, either partially or as a general guide for implementing similar tasks in the classroom. However, not all teachers can have the freedom of choice to do this.

Maleki (2007) employed two types of teaching materials, with and without CSs, and found that CST was pedagogically effective. Interactional strategies were employed more effectively and extensively and were helpful for language learning. The materials highlighting CSs were more effective than those without them, suggesting that "communication strategy training should be incorporated into school syllabuses" (594).

Implications of the Tasks on CSs

The CSs research has a strong link with communicative tasks as they were the main tools for eliciting CSs from L2 learners. Language tasks are central because, while completing tasks, learners can face language problems, and those who try to accomplish the task are most successful (Oxford, Cho, Leung, & Kim, 2004). Tasks are also used to teach CSs by some researchers. Common tasks used by researchers include concept identification (Paribakht 1985), topic description, cartoon description, and definition formulation (Dörnyei, 1995); translation task, storytelling and free discussion (Flyman, 2009); and jigsaw and decision-making (Smith, 2003). Poulisse (1990) used different tasks (concrete picture description, abstract picture description, story retelling and oral interviews), showing that the strategies were vastly task-specific.

The scarce studies concerned with the task factor (Poulisse & Schils, 1989; Rababah & Seedhouse, 2004; Rabab'ah & Bulut, 2007; Khan, 2011; Ghout-Khenoune, 2012) proposed a relationship between task type and the number of CSs used by the learners. Some investigations targeted exploring the effect of the type of task used in communication (Bialystok & Fröhlich, 1980; Dobao, 2001; Poulisse & Schils, 1989; Rabab'ah & Bulut, 2007). In many of these, the task type was correlated with the frequency (quantity) and type (Quality) of CSs usage (Ghout-Khenoune, 2012) based on the task demands, the time given for its realisation, and the learners' familiarity with the activity, amongst other things.

Tasks (picture story, a photograph description and a conversation) with other considerations (type of discourse, cognitive difficulty, and interlocutor presence) have a huge impact on CSs use (Dobao, 2001). Challenging tasks, such as interviews, require more CSs than role-play, because interviews encourage leaners to use of range of vocabulary and also require more certain answers that may be beyond the learners' capability (Rabab'ah & Bulut, 2007). Majd (2014) employed role-play and discussion tasks in a textbook's curriculum and created a framework to encourage the use of specific types of CSs which were explicitly introduced in his experiment. Khan (2011) found that, the more challenging the task, the more CSs are called into use. Therefore, it can be claimed that the learners' exposure to certain tasks over a long period might have an impact on their development of certain strategies and a lack of others. Therefore, efforts are needed to explore the most common tasks used in classrooms that can have the potential to encourage CSs use in interactive situations (Ghout-Khenoune 2012). Although the complexity of the task effect is not widely investigated, the current literature seems to suggest that, for the higher or lower quantity of strategies, preferences for certain CSs over others can be determined by task type.

Additionally, the task requirements, which may depend on the nature of the task (closed/open-ended), the context provided, the time given and the presence of an interlocutor, are all aspects which may affect learners' CS use in terms of frequency and choice. Thus, the useful criteria for distinguishing these tasks from Yule (1997), comprising different features, will be of significant value in the current research when examining the different task types in the Libyan teaching materials:

1. Information flow: tasks can be one-way (from speaker to interlocutor) or two-way (from both interlocutors).

2. Task outcome: tasks can be convergent (needs mutual agreement) or divergent (entail various end products).
3. Flow and outcomes: they can be closed (do not need information exchange or approved solution) or open (need information exchange or an agreed solution).

As discussed in Littlemore (2001), one-way tasks (e.g., picture description, concept identification task, and storytelling) do not reflect natural authentic aspects of communication. Malasit and Sarobol (2013) argue that two-way tasks (e.g., giving directions, oral interviews and discussions, information exchange) are natural and practical and can encourage the use of various types of CSs. Some tasks are not real-world activities, yet they stimulate learners to use communication strategies as those used in real life situations: e.g., identifying the differences in two pictures but they reflect "interactional authenticity" when learners need to negotiate meaning and exchange information as happen during authentic communication (Ellis, 2003, p.6). This means that even the classroom activities used for learning vocabulary or subject knowledge might offer opportunities to develop CSs, as will be explored in the current research.

It can be argued here that all of the above-mentioned literature encourages assessing the materials in use, and since such studies are not common, there is a need to expand this research area. What teachers and learners actually do in the classroom is determined principally by what the course book tells them to do (Tomlinson, 2008). This current research will try to fill this gap and could practically and specifically benefit the Libyan context, in that it will explore its current materials to identify the instructions and useful activities available for developing CSs. This will be the first phase of my research.

2.9.2 Teachers' use of CSs in the classroom

CSs in classroom interaction received researchers' attention recently (Doqaruni, 2013; Rustandi, 2013). Thus, "awareness of strategies through classroom instruction can, indeed, be a fruitful area of study in SLA, and can accordingly have implications for research, theory and practice in a variety of ways" (Yaghoubi-Notash and Karafkan, 2012, p.150). Thus, a few researchers have started to notice the importance of investigating the CSs used by teachers in the classroom. Willems (1987, p. 354) generalised the idea that teachers have a "natural tendency to use communication strategies when communication problems arise". Rampton (1997) also believes that teachers can use CSs to fill the gap in their linguistic knowledge. This can be more accurate in respect to teachers lacking actual exposure to L2, in EFL contexts. In

addition, there is the aspect of common misunderstandings which undeniably conflict with teaching L2 (Walsh, 2006). Therefore, the benefits arising from negotiation of meaning can be valuable, which is also a basic criterion in the CLT classroom, an essential concept in SCT and represents interactional strategies CSs. This was discussed in Clennell (1995), who argues that a deficiency should not be the only perspective of CSs but also their ability to enable the transfer of crucial information to improve communication. Any chances to developing strategic competence are constrained by the nature of much classroom discourse (Houston, 2006).

Given that, it is believed that an awareness of the CSs used by teachers can develop their teaching practice, contribute to teacher preparation and materials design, and encourage CSs applications in the classroom (Yaghoubi-Notash & Amin Karafkan, 2012; Azar & Mohammadzadeh, 2013). Hence, teachers need an awareness of CSs and ways of creating or employing tasks to teach them (Rababah 2004).

As a source of L2 learning, exploring teachers' talk in the classroom is valuable in reflecting the interactional aspects underlying the teaching-learning process (Sarab, 2003). The study of Doqaruni and Yaqubi (2011) is novel in highlighting this new research area by assuming that EFL teachers are like learners in that they have gaps in their knowledge. Their analysis of natural interactional oral data from L2 classrooms revealed that CSs were important and frequent in the teachers' talk.

Similarly, Cervantes and Rodriguez (2012) studied the CSs used by two EFL teachers and their beginner level students in Mexico City, using data from audio-recordings of classroom interactions, teachers' interviews; and observation notes. They showed the common presence of language switching in classroom talk and that the teachers who were more involved with their students used clarification requests, comprehension checking and asking for confirmation strategies, while the less involved teacher used comprehension checking and repetition strategies. The findings indicated the effect of classroom factors on CSs use: class size, seating arrangement and learning activity tasks.

Finally, Azar & Mohammadzadeh (2013) investigated the lexical and discourse-based communication strategies used by teachers in the Iranian EFL classroom by means of questionnaires. Their participants used achievement lexical-based CSs when facing difficulties and frequently used discourse-based CSs to enhance the effectiveness of their communication and express the importance of the topic. From the discussions

above, this area of research may be important for understanding how teachers can represent and facilitate communicative performance in L2. As the features of Libyan teachers' language in the classroom have not been investigated before, there is a need to provide an initial description of the CSs used by teachers in the Libyan classroom. This research attempts to explore the CSs used by teachers and students in the classroom through questionnaires and teachers' interviews.

2.10 Conclusion

This review of the literature highlights the implications for the current research study. It shows that communication strategies can be vital for language learning and the development of communicative competence, which is the aim of teaching language communicatively (CLT). Communication strategies play an optimal role in helping learners to fill in the gaps in communication and promote interaction in the classroom through the negotiation of meaning and obtaining feedback, thus characterising essential concepts in SCT. They also relate to different aspects of CLT in terms of encouraging interaction and fluency with respect to the teaching materials and classroom activities.

Chapter Two reflected the various theoretical conflicts related to CSs research and practice, which can be related to researchers' inability to provide unified conceptualisations and categorisations of CSs and their teachability that can be reflected by useful practices. In addition, much of the previous experimental CSs and CST investigations were not based on actual classroom findings, and followed different research techniques, and various taxonomies and methods in culturally and contextually dissimilar settings, which resulted in divergent findings. Neglecting the context's influence on CSs development and use is important in developing an understanding of the development and use of CSs rather than linking findings from different contexts. Previous research has neglected the potential role of teaching materials and strategic behaviour of teachers in the classroom. It also shows that CST guidelines and research implications do not take into considerations the unique characteristics of individual classrooms and presumes that teachers are aware of CSs and the ways to teach them, which may not be the case in EFL classrooms.

Additionally, CSs use in the Libyan context seems to be a neglected area in previous research, although the Libyan classroom is CLT based but struggles to develop the CC of the learners. Thus, this study aims to fill this gap through exploring CSs use in the Libyan classroom, considering different participant perspectives and the role of CSs in

the course book materials. Thus, my research can fill the gap in the research on the Libyan classroom by understanding the role of CSs in the classroom. It is intended to add a pedagogical CSs research perspective with the aim of linking the theory, research and practice.

Chapter Three Methods and methodology of the research

3.1 Introduction

Chapter Three will first introduce the research and recap its aims and questions. It will also deliver an account of the methodology embraced in this investigation and its framework. This comprises the research approach and its philosophical underpinnings and the chosen research paradigm. The ethical considerations followed in conducting the research and its possible benefits and non-malfeasance to the participants will be explained with regard to their importance to social and educational research. The design of this mixed methods research with its sample population and its different sequential procedures and methods will be covered in this chapter.

Additionally, preceded by an analysis of Libyan teaching materials, the questionnaires and interviews used to collect data from Libyan schools are discussed. The potential of each instrument and their benefits leading to their selection for this study, their design, the sampling, and piloting will be provided. The chapter ends by highlighting some of the challenges and possible limitations related to the methods and circumstances surrounding the data collection.

3.2 Overview of the research

Research can be defined as a "systematic method of gaining new information, or a way to answer questions" (Gliner, Morgan, & Leech, 2011, p.4). It involves enunciating the problem, formulating a hypothesis, collecting the facts or data, analysing the facts and reaching certain conclusions either in the form of solutions(s) to the concerned problem or certain generalisations for some theoretical formulation (Kothari, 2004, p.2).

The model of research known as the 'onion', developed by (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2015), was implemented and slightly modified according to my research to ensure the sincerity of the plan used. As demonstrated in Figure 3.1, this model encompasses all of the basic phases and requirements for research. It is applied by detaching each layer at a time until one reaches the midpoint, which represents the actual investigation element of the research. In the current research, pragmatism was chosen as the paradigm, along with the deductive and inductive approaches, which will be discussed thoroughly in the analysis phases. A mixed methods research (MMR) design represents the selected strategy for my study which will benefit from using materials' analysis quantitatively, survey questionnaire quantitatively and qualitatively,

and semi-structured interviews qualitatively. Each of the different instruments for the data collection was implemented at a single point in time according to the cross-sectional timing horizon. Finally, the data that were obtained from applying the different methods were collated, analysed, integrated and compared to provide a comprehensive picture of CSs in EFL classrooms in Libyan secondary schools. The materials' content was analysed using the quantitative content analysis, while statistical procedures were applied to the quantitative data obtained from the questionnaires, while the qualitative data obtained from the questionnaires and interviews were analysed by employing thematic analysis.
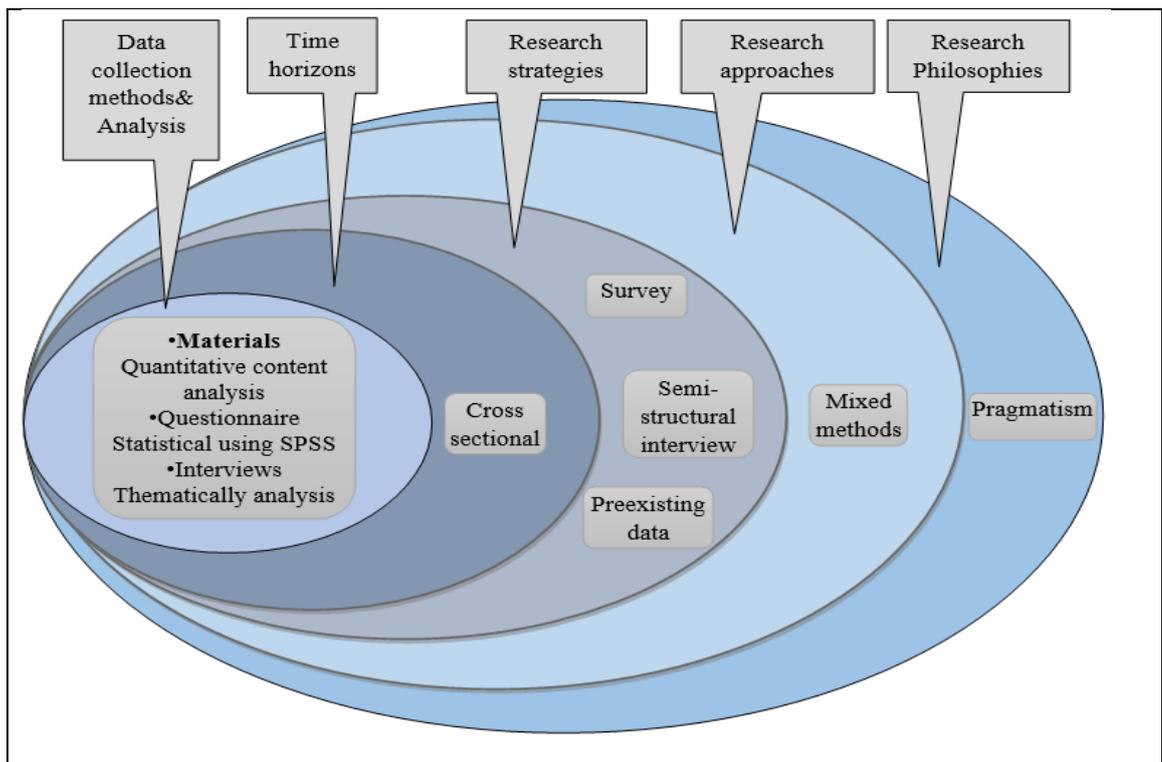
Figure 3. 1 methodological approach

Adapted and modified from the Research Onion (Saunders et al., 2015)

3.2.1 Restatement of the Research Purpose and the Research Questions

At this point, it is essential to highlight the purpose of the research and provide the research questions in detail, clarifying the different choices made during the different phases of the study. The research purposes are reflected in the types of research questions (Marshall & Rossman, 2014, p.69). Research design selection is based on certain elements and four of these are highlighted in relation to my study: (1) the researcher's epistemological stance; (2) the nature of the research problem being addressed; (3) previous evidence-based studies on CSs; and (4) the data collection

techniques used. As the second and third points were discussed in the previous chapters, the first and fourth issues will be discussed in this chapter (Creswell, 2013).

The primary aim of this study was to investigate the role of CSs in the current Libyan English as a Foreign Language (ELF) classroom by exploring the materials, teachers, and students. This is processed by exploring the teaching content: the knowledge, use and teaching of CSs. The secondary objective was to obtain a supplementary understanding of these aspects by exploring the teachers' perceptions and understanding of CSs and their potential teachability and value in the Libyan classroom.

The analysis and interpretation of the different data sets will then answer different research questions which, in combination, can fulfil the objectives of the study and make it possible to provide suggestions and recommendations that could benefit the learning and teaching of CLT in the EFL Libyan classroom, with respect to the development of CSs.

It is recognised that research questions can provide direction for how research is conducted (Richards & Morse, 2007) and, as a PhD student, my questions have the greatest influence on my research journey. They reflected my world view implicitly, I believe, when I first prepared my research proposal. Thus, any research activity must often implicitly be established on ontological and epistemological stances (Scotland, 2012). In the current research, these questions represent one of the basic criteria for the selection of the MMR approach (Bryman, 2016). The purpose and expected outcomes of each of my research questions are clarified in Table 3.1.

The association amongst the questions outlines the overall research design and informs the relationship between its quantitative and qualitative components (Plano Clark & Badiee, 2010). Questions of MMR can be addressed in different ways, such as constructing more than one research question that relate and inform each other or they can be separate questions (Plano Clark & Badiee, 2010). A research question can be quantitative only, qualitative only or they can be designed to imply both types of data collection (Creswell, 2014). My research questions were addressed using both the quantitative and qualitative methods (Airasian & Gay, 2003; Morse, 2015; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006). To ensure the quality of this research, the mixing of methods took place from as early as constructing the research question to the final stage of the data interpretation (Morse, 2016).

Q1 and Q1a lend themselves to descriptive quantitative data and analysis to offer a vision of the CSs and tasks that enhance them in the target materials. Research questions Q1b and Q2 entail obtaining a snapshot of a large sample of participants' (teachers and students') perceptions of CSs' possible uses and teaching in the classroom; however, Q1b necessitates additional information about the implementation of the tasks and activities taking place in the different classrooms which entails collecting data qualitatively from the teachers.

Table 3. 1 The research questions' relationship to the data collection and analysis

Research Question	Materials Analysis	Students and teachers Questionnaires	Teachers Interview	Data obtained
Q1- Are there any explicit or implicit examples of Communication Strategies or ? tasks in the Libyan ELT materials that could have the potential for introducing, enhancing or encouraging the use of communication strategies?	√			Quantitative
Q1/a- In what ways are the potential examples of CSs and the related communicative tasks presented in the materials?	√			Quantitative
Q1/ b-Are those related tasks and activities implemented in the classroom and in what ways?		√	√	Quantitative + Qualitative
Q2- What are the teachers' and students' perception of their knowledge, use and teaching of CSs in the classroom?		√		Quantitative + Qualitative

3.2.2 Approach of the Research

Mixed methods research, the approach used in the current research has various definitions (Hashemi & Babaii, 2013, P.829), sharing the idea that "empirical research that involves the collection and analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data" to enable the integration of the various data, and compensating for the weaknesses of each methodology (Punch, 2009, P.288). Quantitative and qualitative methods should be "thought of as complementary methods that, when taken together, provide broader options for investigating a range of important educational topics" (Airasian & Gay, 2003, p.20). This argument seems to be effective respecting the recent popularity of MMR (Creswell, 2014), specifically in educational research (Cameron, 2014; Griffee, 2012; Maes, Heyvaert, Onghena, & Hannes, 2013; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009; Zohrabi, 2013). Quantitative or qualitative research is about obtaining the general patterns and more specific insights and processes in the same study (Bazeley 2004).

Hence, MMR is useful "to grasp complex phenomenon" at the individual and group levels in a single study, "to explore different aspects of the phenomenon, such as the experience and behavioural response", which would be impossible without mixing quantitative and qualitative methods (Morse, 2016, p.13). It is also asserted that MMR can provide more certainty of research outcomes (Coyle & Williams, 2000; Sieber, 1973) and a more comprehensive interpretation of the findings (Morse & Chung, 2003; Tashakkori & Creswell, 2008).

These issues can be linked to arguments about the insufficiency of the quantitative surveys in the CSs research due to the complexity of CSs, which contributes to designing and conducting the current research, assuming that my research problem will be better understood by adopting a mixed research methodology (Creswell, 2014). Accordingly, this can provide a novel understanding of the different classrooms in Libya that will make it possible to identify the overall trends that can be linked to CSs. Lund (2012, p. 157) summarises a number of publications that identify four advantages of MMR and the two features below are considered in the current research:

> -Qualitative and quantitative results may relate to different objects or phenomena but may be complementary to each other in mixed methods research. Hence, the combination of the different perspectives provided by qualitative and quantitative methods may produce a more complete picture of the domain under study.

> - In mixed methods research, qualitative and quantitative results
> may be divergent or contradictory, which can lead to extra
> reflection, revised hypothesis, and further research. Thus, given
> that data have been collected and analysed correctly, such
> divergence can generate new theoretical insights.

Regardless of those benefits, I am aware of certain limitations and challenges, including misconceptions about the nature of MMR, time constraints, effort and cost, the difficulty of data integration and interpretation and validity issues (Bazeley, 2004; Fielding, 2012; Hashemi & Babaii, 2013; Morse, 2016; Uprichard & Dawney, 2016; Yin, 2006). Hence, I attended methodological orientation sessions that introduced the basic knowledge of quantitative and qualitative data, the choice of relevant instruments, design, and analysis techniques, in addition to some training sessions on quantitative data analysis and the use of statistical software (SPSS). The limitations are considered and the ways to avoid them will be discussed for all the phases of this research throughout the thesis.

3.3 Research methodology

A research methodology is linked to the philosophical underpinnings or research paradigm (Sarantakos, 2005; Scotland, 2012), including the choices made by a researcher with regard to conducting a research investigation. The assumptions and underlying philosophy of the current investigation are highlighted in this section.

3.4 Philosophical assumptions underpinning the choice of mixed methods

In Figure 3.1, the first layer of the onion displays the philosophical research aspect, known as a research paradigm. Pragmatism underpins the current research and most MMR. It is a problem-oriented philosophy that takes the view that the best research methods are those that help most effectively to answer the research question (Cornish & Gillespie, 2009). In social science research, this can involves a mixture of quantitative and qualitative methods used to investigate different aspects of a research problem. In addition, pragmatists tend to perform MMR due to lacking boundaries and therefore have the freedom of choice over which methods, techniques, and procedures to apply in their research that best meets their purpose and understanding of the problem (Creswell, 2013).

An awareness of a research paradigm can link the values and choices for novice investigators that guide research practice (Shannon-Baker, 2016). A research paradigm "stands for the entire constellation of beliefs, values, and techniques, and so on shared

by the members of a given community" and can affect "the way knowledge is studied and interpreted" (Kuhn, 2012, p.175). It embraces ontology, epistemology, and methodology but the constructs of each paradigm differ according to the underpinning theoretical agenda (Assalahi, 2015, p.313). The research paradigm encompasses the relationship between the ontological position embraced by the researcher, the researcher's view of the epistemology, and the methodology and methods used (Gray, 2013). Figure 3.2 presents the above terms together with the association between them and the other research constructs for this study.

| Ontology | Epistemology | Theoretical perspective | Methodology | Methods | Sources |

What is reality? → What and how can I know reality/ knowledge? → What approach can we use to get knowledge? → What procedure can we use to acquire knowledge? → What tools can we use to acquire knowledge? → What data can we collect?
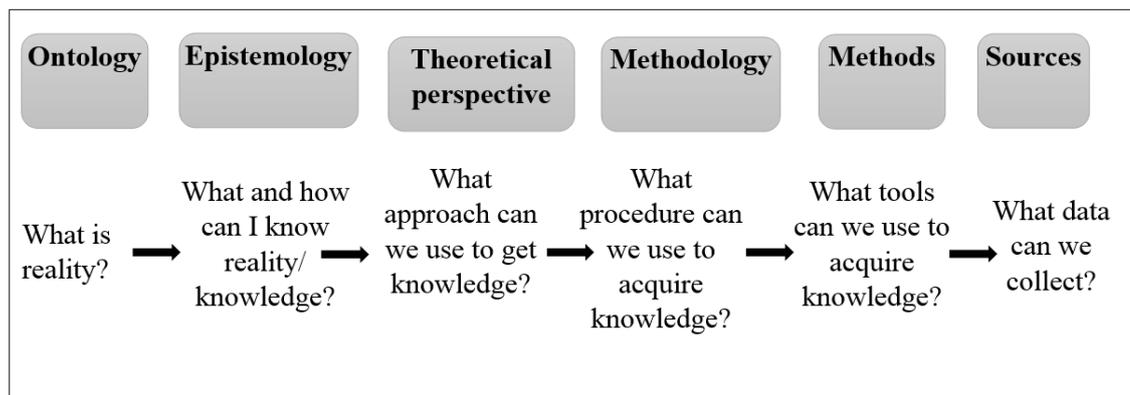
Figure 3. 2 A research paradigm adapted from (Patel, 2015)

Choosing an appropriate research paradigm can be a difficult task, especially for PhD students. The best choice cannot be made on the basis of its rightness but rather on its suitability for answering the research question because different philosophies "are 'suited' to achieving different things" (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009, p.8) based on theoretical framework, and research practice, assumptions and value and ethical principles factors (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012, p.3).

There appears to be some agreement that the rationale for a mixed approach has to be a pragmatic one (Punch, 2009; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2016). Using pragmatism as the reasoning for conducting MMR has been verified to be an outstanding means for investigating a specific idea and describing the existing state or condition (Feilzer, 2010). Pragmatism places the research problem central, applies all approaches to understand the problem (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2016) and makes it possible to emphasise the 'what' and 'how' of the research problem by using quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell, 2013). Therefore, it is considered product-oriented (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) because it emphasises communication and shared meaning-making in order to create practical solutions to social problems (Shannon-Baker, 2016). Thus, the reality is unconcerned

with things in isolation, but with the association between individuals' experience of a thing, on the one hand, and our potential actions or reactions to it, on the other (Dewey, 1997).

The pragmatism offers variances: "multiple methods, different worldviews, and different assumptions, as well as different forms of data collection and analysis in the mixed methods study" (Creswell et al., 2003, p.12). It entails using quantitative and qualitative data in a complementary way to avoid the limitations within each (Morgan, 2007; Punch, 2009). This integration can happen "in the philosophical or theoretical framework(s), methods of data collection and analysis, overall research design, and/or discussion of research conclusions" (Shannon-Baker, 2016). This "could shed light on the actual behaviour of participants, the beliefs that stand behind those behaviours and the consequences that are likely to follow from different behaviours" (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017, p.35) which entail researchers' flexibility and openness to the development of unpredicted data (Feilzer, 2010). This can be linked to the recommendation to use numerous procedures of triangulation, including 'methodological triangulation' and 'data triangulation' (Dörnyei, 2007; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2013), where the former refers to 'the use of multiple methods' and the latter to 'the use of multiple data sources' (Rowles & Schoenberg, 2001, p.183), which are believed to be fulfilled in my investigation.

Accordingly, pragmatism is grounded on "relational epistemology (i.e. relationships in research are best determined by what the researcher deems appropriate to that particular study), and that it is a non-singular reality ontology (that there is no single reality and all individuals have their own and unique interpretations of reality)" (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017, p.322). Pragmatism, as my worldview, represents all of the assumptions underpinning my research which assumes that the nature of reality can be both objective and subjective and that both deductive and inductive reasoning will be used to address the questions raised in this research.

The current investigation elicited data from different components of Libyan classrooms, using a variety of research instruments and data analysis techniques to gain a better understanding of CSs by obtaining information from the different classrooms and the role of CSs in the teaching/learning process. Hence, the more suitable pedagogical considerations and recommendations that were missed in many other previous findings, as discussed earlier in Chapters One and Two, could be achieved.

3.5 Methods of the research

Continuing the previous discussion, the research methodology can also be detected by the use of certain methods. Research methods refer to the implements used to collect and then analyse the data, which can include interviews and questionnaires (Blaxter, 2010; Crotty, 1998). Thus, this section discusses my choice of a cross-sectional design within a sequential explanatory mixed-methods design. A visual model of the processes could enable the researcher and readers to understand the study more clearly (Creswell et al., 2003; Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2006). Figure 3.4 provides an overview of the three phases of the data collection and the subsequent procedures of the analysis and interpretation of the data.

3.6 The Research Design

Choosing MMR research design requires preciseness and clarity in outlining the theoretical drive of a research to avoid validity threats caused when the research focus is not accurately defined, as this can lead to faults in all of the research procedures that are based on the design (Morse, 2016). MMR Researchers should define their theoretical drive (induction/deduction). Induction is concerned with discovering or confirming and is usually associated with qualitative methods while deduction is more closely related to quantitative methods, therefore defining the research aim and the core component (Quan/ Qual) stemming from the research's nature and the research questions' structure is helpful (Morse, 2016).

Qualitative findings are valuable in offering evidence about settings and context, underscoring the members' voices through quotes (Creswell, Klassen, Plano Clark, & Smith, 2011), to develop and explain quantitative results (Creswell et al., 2011; Riazi & Candlin, 2014). Accordingly, the findings from the qualitative method used in the third phase of this research were used to enrich the interpretation and understanding of the findings identified in the initial quantitative phase (Plano Clark & Creswell, 2008) through teacher semi-structured interviews.

The sequential design selected for this MMR research involves two successive levels of data collection and analysis (see Figure 3.4). As the first phase is quantitative and the second is qualitative (Ivankova et al., 2006), the research has an explanatory design, which have wide potential feasibility in education research (Punch, 2009) and is helpful for examining a variety of educational problems and issues (Airasian & Gay, 2003).
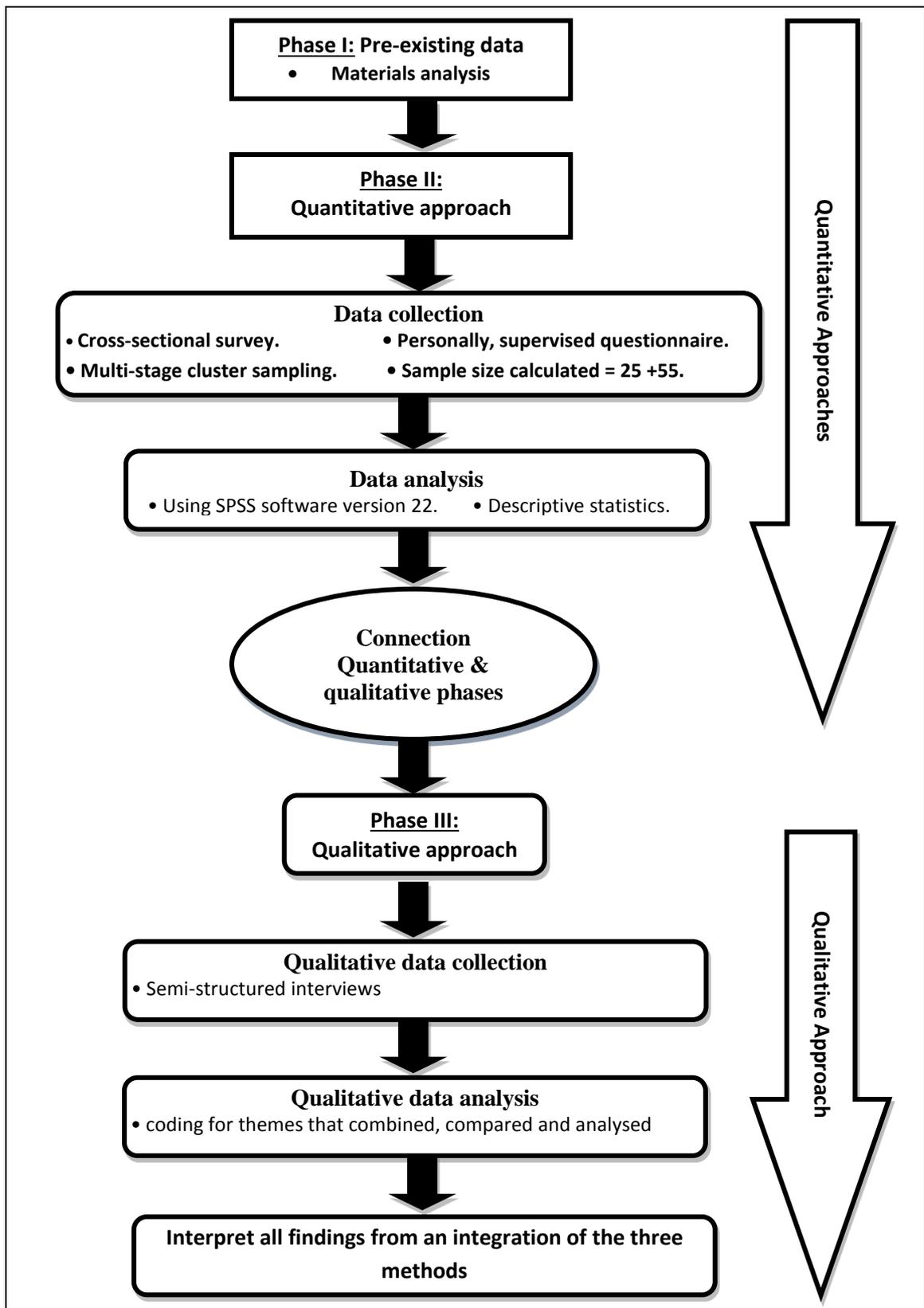
Figure 3. 4 Schematic Model for a Mixed-Methods Sequential Explanatory Design
modified from (Ivankovaet al., 2006, p.16)

Hence, a "quantitative method in which theories or concepts are tested, is to be followed by a qualitative method involving detailed exploration with a few cases or individuals" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p.18). Quantitative findings offer a general understanding of the research problem while qualitative findings explain statistical outcomes from the participants' viewpoint (Creswell et al., 2003; Creswell et al., 2011). Additionally, one of the major concerns of these designs is defining the point of interface which represents the points at which the two methods meet (Creswell et al., 2011; Morse, 2016).

This can be done using three strategies: merging data, connecting data, and embedding data (Creswell et al., 2011). The first can be chosen when the data are analysed separately and then discussed in combination, whereas the second entails analysing each type of data separately to inform the following stage. The integration was utilised in two points within the current research. The first was used during the design and development of the interview schedule, based on the findings obtained from the quantitative data analysis, and the second was during the final discussion (presented in Chapter Seven), when the researcher converged and combined the findings from different research phases to provide an overview of the topic under study.

2.7 Framework of Communication Strategies adopted for the current research

To investigate the classroom's role in developing CSs, the choice of this framework considered the Libyan classroom context, in which CSs learning can be mediated by exposure to CSs in the teaching materials, classroom interaction, and teachers' instruction. CSs' framework was essential for the different research phases that reflect the research questions and aims. It offered a clear guide to the researcher that can help to avoid misconceptions and errors associated with collecting and analysing the data.

To avoid the pitfalls of many previous CSs studies, research requires an economic framework of the CSs categories and avoids unrelated ones (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). Accordingly, I adopted the CSs typology of Mariani (2010, pp.1-2) which was developed for pedagogical purposes and clearly concentrates on the achievement of interlanguage-based strategies rather than on the reduction/avoidance of strategies or the use of L1-based strategies (Mariani 2010: 32-33), which is similar to that of Maleki's (2010) topology, used for CST.

Mariani's book targeted learners of the pre-intermediate level and upwards. It included a "manual for teachers, teacher trainers and educators, providing them with a sound theoretical and methodological background, and a collection of activities for learners and users of an L2". Thus, his taxonomy includes the most researched and recommended CSs for L2 classroom including those of Oxford (1990). Thus, it seems to offer a basic guidance for the problematic issues about strategies teachability discussed in Chapter 2.

Therefore, it can be useful for various research purposes as for tracing the different possible strategies types in the various research data by offering a clear and detailed breakdown of CSs, in particular those of paraphrasing and circumlocution, used in previous research. It refers to different strategic expressions with representative exemplifications (see Tables 3.2 and 3.3).

Færch and Kasper (1983) and Björkman (2014) argued that achievement or compensatory strategies (e.g., using circumlocution, approximation) are more prevalent and useful in ELF settings. Reduction strategies and code-switching are less beneficial to potential learning, since CSs are designed to help students to learn and communicate in a second language (Goh, 2012). The two strategies types adopted are meaning expression (MES) and meaning negation strategies (MNS) that respectively represent the psycholinguistic and interactional approaches, discussed in Chapter Two. MES compensate for limitations in language knowledge while MNS enhance the continuation of the communication between interlocutors.

Table 3. 2 The adopted CSs classification (Mariani 2010:34-36)

A. MEANING-EXPRESSION STRATEGIES	
Description	Examples of Verbal strategy markers
1. Using all -purpose word	*thing, stuff, object, machine ...* *person, human being, animal ...* *do, make ...*
2. using a more general word instead of the specific one (hyponym)	*flower* instead of *geranium* *animal* instead of *pet*
3. using a synonym or an antonym (opposite) of a word /(hyponymy)	*very small* instead of *tiny* *not deep* instead of *shallow* *worried, anxious* instead of *concerned*
4. using examples instead of the general category	*shirts, jeans, skirts , jackets …* instead of *clothing*
5. using definitions or descriptions:	
general words + relative clause	it's the person who cuts your hair instead of hair dresser it's a thing which ….. it is a machine that….. it's when …./ it's where…..
phrases instead of specific adjectives describing qualities, e/g. shape, size, colour, texture, material	*in the shape of ...* *the size of ...* *the colour of ...* *made of ...*
structure	it has ….. it consists of …..(the) part of…..
purpose or function	*used for ...*, *used to …* it *opens* a door …; a doctor *uses* it …; you *can* … with it
context or situation	you use it *if …* in a place *where ...* at the time *when …*
6. using approximations	it's *like / similar to a very tall building* instead of *skyscraper* *a kind of ..., a sort of ...*
7. paraphrasing	*I didn't expect her call. I was so surprised* instead of *She phoned out of the blue.*
8. self-correcting, rephrasing, repairing incorrect or inappropriate utterances or when spotting a misunderstanding	*It's at the front … no, at the back, at the back of the room.* *Sorry, I'll try to say that again ...*

Table 3. 3 The adopted CSs classification (Mariani 2010:34-36) (continued)

B. MEANING-NEGOTIATION STRATEGIES	
9. asking for help: • telling one's interlocutor that one cannot say or understand something:	
○ directly	A: Put it in the oven. B: *Put it in the ...? / Put it where? / Sorry, I don't understand that / Sorry, I can't follow you*
• asking one's interlocutor to:	
○ slow down, spell or write something	*Can you speak slowly/spell that/write that down for me, please?*
○repeat	*Can you say that again, please? Pardon?*
○ explain, clarify, give an example	*What exactly do you mean by ...?*
○ say something in the L2	*What's the word for ...? I don't know the English word. In* (German) *we say ... How do you pronounce ...? What do you call it when ...?*
○ confirm that one has used the correct or appropriate language	*Is this correct? I want to replicate the experiment ...replicate, yes?*
○ confirm that one has been understood	*Did you get that?*
• repeating, summarizing, paraphrasing what one has heard and asking one's interlocutor to confirm	*Did you say ...? So you're saying that ... is that right?*
• guessing meaning and asking for Confirmation	*Is it a dishwasher? Yes?*
10. giving help, by doing what the "helping" interlocutor does in 9., e.g. trying to "adjust" to one's partner language level by speaking slowly, repeating, giving examples, asking if she/he has understood …	

3.8 The Research Sample

A research sample is selected from a population as the total set or universe of people, substances or events of concern to an inquiry (Cohen, 2017). My research population include some units of teaching materials (as will discussed in Chapter Four) and Libyan students and teachers of EFL in secondary schools in different geographical areas of Libya. Three school years are considered. Different samples were selected for each phase of the research. Based on the school admissions policies and the Libyan education

system, the teacher participants are adults aged over 25 years old while the students are aged 16-19 years old.

Deciding on the number of potential participants (the sample size) for this research influenced this process, including the "resources available, the aim of the study, and the statistical quality needed for the survey" (Kelley, Clark, Brown, & Sitzia, 2003, p. 264), which will be discussed further in the following chapters. I was aware that receiving a response from all of the people invited to participate is rare (Kelley et al., 2003) and that there could be difficulty in obtaining a large qualitative sample in Libya.

As recognised in many previous Libyan researches, this results from cultural considerations and the restrictions on liberty during the era of Gadhafi's regime (Gadour, 2006). It was important to recognise that Libya has a central political system and is not broadly a multi-cultural and multilingual country. This suggests that the classroom shares many cultural and contextual features, and curriculum and educational policies, which means that the representativeness of the different geographical areas could not be substantial. However, my research aimed to reveal the experiences of the individuals in relation to this educational system. The samples used in each of the three phases of this research are presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3. 4 Research process

Research Phase	Process	Sample	Timeline
Materials Analysis	Pilot study	3 Units	February- May 2015
	Main study	6 Units	August- December 2015
Questionnaires	Piloting	4 students 2 teachers	September 2015
	Distribution of Questionnaires and data analysis	53 students 55 Teachers	November 2015 to January 2016
Interviews	Pilot interview	1 teacher	October 2016
	Conducting interviews and data analysis	10 teachers	November 2016 to January 2017

3. 9 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations are vital in research with human participants who are involved in data collection via the use of questionnaires and interviews or observation (Denscombe, 2014). In this case, the participants should be treated with respect but, of course, this does not exclude the non-human research object because honesty is essential during all phases and practices of any investigation (Walliman, 2017). Ethical issues need to be considered before, during and after the research (Creswell, 2013; Walliman, 2017) because they represent the suitability of the researcher's behaviour and the rights of the individuals involved or affected by the research (Saunders et al., 2015). The research study reported here was undertaken in compliance with a set of common standards of good practice, represented by guiding principles used under Sheffield Hallam University research's ethics policy (February 2012). To meet the requirements for research ethics approval, I first made an application to the university, prior to the data collection. This necessitated confirming the four categories (beneficence, non-malfeasance, informed consent and anonymity/confidentiality). I also required overall permission to conduct the research in the Libyan context from the Libyan Ministry of Education (represented by the Cultural Affairs Bureau in London), which was issued in the form of an official letter at my request (see Appendix B.2). Ethical approval was granted by the Faculty Research Ethics Committee on 24th March 2015 (see Appendix B.1.); however, the concerns raised by the committee regarding the current political situation in Libya and the tensions existing among the different geographical areas implied following certain procedures in targeting the participants; therefore, as a researcher, I was flexible in making modifications to a few of the predetermined strategies during my research journey. Nonetheless, MMR implies additional consideration because of dealing with two approaches (quantitative and qualitative) to ethical issues that a researcher must understand when collecting different types of data from human participants (Creswell et al., 2011). Similar precautions taken in relation to the data collection techniques and procedures will be highlighted later in this chapter.

3.9.1 Beneficence and Non-malfeasance

The research participants had to be informed about the benefits of the research (Punch, 2013). In this regard, I made it clear when I advertised for participants that one of the overarching objectives of the current research is to offer useful recommendations and understanding of the Libyan classroom that can improve the communicative skills of Libyan students. Teachers, specifically, were offered access to the findings once I had

obtained my PhD. They may benefit from the research findings in different ways: 1- by introducing/exploring communication strategies further; 2- by investigating possible teaching methodologies in this area; and 3- by becoming more open-minded and creative in dealing with the available materials and their hidden/ignored components. This can encourage participation and the completion of the questionnaires (Adams & Cox, 2008).

On the other hand, to avoid causing any harm to the participants and schools due to being anxious, harmed or misled, I clearly and honestly introduced myself as a PhD researcher and the research institution to which I belong, in addition to my contact details, which were also enhanced by the research permission letter issued by the Libyan Cultural Affairs Bureau. That is to say, the credibility of the researcher's identity to the participants, especially in an online environment is crucial. These procedures were followed in advertising my research and also in the consent forms sent to the participants (see Appendix B).

However, I made it clear in my ethics application that the only possible negative consequence known to me could be the time required of the participants because the data were collected during term-time and possibly during the school day. I described the time that was likely to be required for the data collection for each instrument (questionnaire/interview) and offered flexibility to the participants to choose times when it suited them to conduct these activities. Additional considerations will be further explained later in this chapter.

3.9.2 Recruitment of the Research Sample

To obtain a reasonable number of participants for my sample (initially intended to contain at least 100 teachers and students for the questionnaire and 20 teachers for the interviews), I followed different strategies to advertise my research and reach the sample within the timeframe available for my data collection. Additionally, the students, being aged under 16 years old, were considered regarding the issue of being able to give their consent to participate. The first step in recruiting my participants was to email the Ministry of Education to provide me with a list and contact details of secondary schools, in order to estimate the number of teachers and students, but this proved unsuccessful.

The researcher sent hard copies of the advertisement (see Appendix B.3) to five different schools, accompanied with an official letter stating my identity and the permission to access to Libyan schools issued by the Libyan Cultural Affairs Bureau,

and to some of my relations who are aware of my research nature and are known to some schools because they work in schools or regional education offices.

In addition, I also sent online advertisements to the official online pages of 25 schools and educational offices (representatives of the Ministry of Education locally who monitor the schools in each regional area of Libya) in various regions in Libya. The web pages are administered by the Ministry of Education and the teachers in the schools. The school pages were found by searching the web, but most of the schools were contacted using their Facebook page. Facebook became the main contact channel with official governmental bodies, including the Ministry of Educational and schools, after the revolution in 2011.

Some of the schools' pages are administered by the head teachers or the deputy heads and their responses varied, from instant to many weeks' delay to not at all. However, I should acknowledge that those who responded were supportive and welcoming. Consequently, a total of 14 schools from different areas of Libya responded and expressed a willingness to invite their teachers and students to participate in my research.

3.9.3 Obtaining consent

Those who replied and agreed to advertise the research to their teachers and students received an information letter, introducing the researcher and explaining the nature of the research in general, as well as a consent letter (as loco parentis for the students) (see Appendix B.6). This additional letter was used because parental permission is difficult to obtain in terms of practicality (gaining access to and the contact details of the parents), and would have been time consuming, costly and difficult due to cultural and contextual considerations. In addition, there are no regulations in Libya that require the parental approval of students' participation in research, since best practices of research are still developing in the Middle East in general and in Libya in particular. Most Libyan researchers either use the students' verbal or written agreement or the headmaster/ school principal's signature as loco parentis. In my research, the students were not interviewed but required to fill in a questionnaire while at school to ensure that they had help if needed with the instructions. Also, their voluntary participation was clarified in the information letter and consent form received by their head teachers and also reemphasised on the consent form attached to their questionnaire.

Additionally, the teachers were asked to give their consent, on the questionnaire, to be interviewed and to be contacted if they are selected to do this. Those selected had to read a new information and consent letter, explaining the nature and procedure of the interviews (see Appendix B.5).

Although a considerable number of teachers acknowledged their willingness to participate, their response rate was very low when interviews were requested, which required the sending of reminder emails.

3.9.4 Anonymity and confidentiality

The participation in this study was voluntary. They were free to withdraw from this study at any time without giving any explanation and without penalty, as explained on all of the invitations and consents forms. Furthermore, the participants in the survey were accorded confidentiality and anonymity because this can encourage participation (Adams, 2011; Fink, 2015). All of the information collected about them during the course of the research was kept confidential (Adams &Cox, 2008). The participants were made aware that none of their information, including their identity, would be shared and that their data would be reported anonymously. All of their data were kept secure, using password-locked computers and hard desk memory, and will be destroyed once the research degree is obtained. The participants in this research did not raise any concerns about their data either prior to or after their participation, which gave me more flexibility in anonymously reporting the data obtained in the form of quotations and the use of generated codes referring to the different participants when reporting qualitative data obtained from questionnaires and interviews. I also treated the schools anonymously, because privacy may be required by some institutions (Oliver, 2010). I did not save the IP addresses obtained from online surveys to the dataset because these are considered as identities (Barchard & Williams, 2008; Benfield & Szlemko, 2006).

3.9.5 Generalisability and Transferability

Generalisability refers to the degree to which the findings of a certain investigation apply to a wider population. Transferability refers to the different contexts and situations in which researchers believe or speculate that their results are most likely to be relevant and applicable. Based on my research aims and considering the sensitivity of CSs as individual behaviour, plus the fact that learning and teaching can be affected by personal and contextual factors, the generalisability of my findings was not a target. This was also supported by the size and characteristics of the samples obtained for the

survey and interviews, which may have excluded certain individuals, schools or regions. The limitations were "also taken into consideration (e.g. time, cost, opportunity)" because they imply that I "can never get an ideal sample" (Adams and Cox, 2008, p.25). However, the transferability of certain findings to other Libyan classrooms and similar EFL settings may be possible to offer more understanding. Transferability implies that the findings of the research study can be applied to comparable situations, circumstances or individuals.

3.9.6 Positionality

The positionality of researchers is related to their relationship to their own research. They can bias their findings by involving their own assumptions, values and attitudes during the different phases and procedures of their investigation. Although it is acknowledged that bias is likely in any research whatever method of enquiry is used, researchers should consider that systematic bias in research can lead to a lack of validity (Arbnor & Bjerke, 1997). This is more challenging when dealing with qualitative approaches (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Qualitative research utilises the personal interpretations of the researcher which are less likely to affect quantitative research, so MMR can bypass these issues by integrating different approaches (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). MRR can reduced the bias by acknowledging that all processes have an underlying bias (Bazeley, 2004) and, through data corroboration, less biased, more truthful inferences can be reached (Reams & Twale, 2008). Given this, in order to reduce the potential bias due to my positionality and motivation in conducting the research, which were clarified in Chapter One, I maintained a level of transparency within my data collection and analysis and left a clear audit trail of my actions. In this way, the trustworthiness of the research can also be ensured.

3.10 Instruments for the Data Collection

As previously discussed, the data collection and analysis in this present study were administered in three different subsequent phases. The first phase denotes an analysis of the different teaching course book materials (pre-existing data), the second entails the use of questionnaires for collecting data from the teachers and students followed by quantitative analysis, and the final one involves conducting interviews with the teachers, the data from which were then analysed qualitatively.

Due to the different nature of the first phase, the materials analysis will be fully discussed (sample and sampling, framework and procedure of the analysis, presentation

and discussion of the findings and the reflections on the following data collection phase) in Chapter four, to improve coherence. The methods used in the second and third phases will be discussed in this section, including the rationale and design for each of these tools. Questionnaires and interviews are common ways to collect data from human participants and are widely used in educational and CSs-related research.

3.10.1 The Questionnaires

3.10.1.1 Rationale for the Questionnaires

Different research tools can be used to provide various data about learners' strategies that differ in quality, according to the research purpose (Oxford, 1996a) (see Appendix D.1). Accordingly, questionnaires were considered a basic tool in this research, where CSs were investigated by exploring the perceptions of the teachers and students. My research aims to describe the perceived cognition, use, teaching and usefulness of CSs in general. Combined with the additional data, including strategy awareness on the questionnaires and those obtained from the materials analysis and interviews, the findings reflect a potential portrait of the value of CSs in EFL in the Libyan classroom.

Self-report questionnaires were used to offer a core set of data obtained from the teachers and students. This tool offers the respondents a sequence of questions or statements to which they must provide either a written response or make a selection from the answers provided (Harris & Brown, 2010). These are economical and impersonal tools for collecting data when the target participants are spread over a wide geographical area, regardless of the researcher's presence (Walliman, 2015, 2017), and offer plenty of information that can be promptly gathered and processed (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010; Schwinger, Christoph, Pröll, Rasinger, & Retschitzegger, 2008). Questionnaires are popular in second language research for enabling the answering of questions in a systematic way (Benali, 2013) to find the patterns within large samples (Kendall, 2014).

Questionnaires can minimise the potential source of bias due to lacking direct contact with the participants (Denscombe, 2014) and can be used when interviews are inconvenient (Phellas, Bloch, & Seale, 2011). These properties replicated my intention to approach Libyan students and teachers widely in Libya within the timeframe available for the research programme, offering three data types: factual, behavioural, and attitudinal (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). Questionnaires are suitable "for research with pedagogical purposes" that enables the "catching" of learning strategies (Gu, 2018)

and provide a basic tool for investigating the perceptions of CSs or reporting the benefits or preferences regarding CSs usage in experimental studies (Wei, 2011). Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) is possibly the most widely-recognised tool in the literature, which also assesses CSs (Nakatani, 2006). Several versions of this tool were used to collect the data on learning strategies and CSs in general, with no mention of a particular task (Schellings, 2011), which are considered 'prospective' since they measure common behaviour during learning (Veenman & van Hout-Wolters, 2003).

Strategies' questionnaires consist of three main types, two of which investigate actual or possible strategy use related to specific tasks, and one that can be used to explore strategies use in general, as employed in this investigation (Oxford, 2017). My cross-sectional questionnaires are descriptive in nature, since they examine "what is going on" (Greenfield, 2016) and focus "on certain phenomena, typically at a single point in time" (Kelley et al., 2003, p.261).

Questionnaires can suffer from limitations. There may be difficulty in obtaining a sufficient number of participants (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). A level of nuisance might occur when designing the questionnaire in addition to the difficulty of establishing the truthfulness of the responses, which makes it necessary to employ supplementary research tools (Denscombe, 2014). Questionnaires may not reflect the multi-dimensionality and complexity of language learners' strategy use, as what they reflect may merely be a general illustration of strategy use, which reduces the chance of applying the findings in other environments (Fazeli, 2012). Therefore, these issues were considered by the researcher when choosing MRR, designing the questionnaires and interviews, and interpreting their findings.

3.10.1.2 The Choice of Questionnaire Design

Designing the questionnaire incorporated reviewing the relevant literature on the language learning strategies research, and CSs in particular, with regard to the research aims and design, the findings from the preceding research phase, and the most commonly reported findings of Libyan EFL classroom research.

A self-administered strategy questionnaire design can follow three techniques: using an existing questionnaire precisely; using a modified questionnaire; or developing a new one (Fazeli, 2012). This seems to apply to the questionnaires of Oxford (1990) and Nakatani (2006), in addition to a few other inventories. These were sometimes

translated and modified by the researchers according to the purpose and context of the investigation.

Since my study is pedagogically-oriented, new dimensions needed to be added to the questionnaires related to the classroom practices. The questionnaires were developed to include various aspects aimed at explaining CSs usage in the Libyan classroom. This required replacing the commonly-used scales that measure the frequency of strategies use. The statements used to represent each of the CSs are very similar to many previous inventories, since they are based on well-established strategy definitions.

3.10.1.3 An Overview of the Final Questionnaire Design

I followed the recommendation to include both close-ended and open-ended questions on the questionnaires (Airasian & Gay, 2003; Bryman, 2016; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2013, 2017). The closed questions accumulate quantitative data about the teachers and students, that can be analysed by means of statistical methods, while the responses to the open-ended questions require qualitative analysis. Both the teachers and students' questionnaires shared a similar content and structure, comprising six sections:

1- Introduction and consent, **2-** Meaning Expression strategies (MES), **3-** Meaning Negotiation Strategies (MNS), **4-** tasks, activities and classrooms practices, **5-** open-ended questions, and **6-** demographic information. I considered grouping similar items in separate sections (1-5) with short statements to describe them to make the response process smoother and less frustrating, and also placing the open-ended and more personal information at the end to avoid the former causing tediousness and the latter discouraging the supply of the major information (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010, p.51).
The participants responded to each item in the four sections by providing information on the different issues, except for those in Section 5, which required the participants to write answers to the questions. In section 1, as suggested by (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010; Walliman, 2015), a written introduction containing the important information was needed at the beginning of the questionnaire. By doing this, my participants' rights and their informed consent to participate in the questionnaire were included, which also helped to gather the contact details of teacher who were willing to be interviewed, if selected.

Sections **2** and **3** investigate four different aspects of the two types of CSs, adopted from the taxonomy of (Mariani, 2010). Questionnaires investigating language learning

strategies usually present arrays of illustrative statements of the strategic behaviour, that the students are asked to rate to show how frequently they implement the strategy, and the learner's use of a stage is decided when a certain level of cumulative deployment of strategic learning behaviour is attained (Gu, 2018). The perceived use of the strategies in the Libyan classroom was alternatively assessed by asking the students to respond to "yes/no" questions for each strategy. Additionally, the possible available teaching and usefulness of the taught strategies were also investigated, using a similar format. Both the teachers and students were also asked to estimate each other's use of the strategies, which is believed to provide additional useful data and can possibly overcome the sample size limitation.

 The measurement of strategies' cognition was added to indicate how the strategies are acknowledged in the Libyan classroom that can suggest an enhanced understanding of the responses regarding the teachability and use of the strategies and may also increase the reliability and validity of the findings. According to Lee and Oxford (2008) their study is the first to add this concept to SILL, by adding a question, "Did you know about it?", to elicit a "Yes/No" response.

Section 4 uses a rating scale for the items, ranging from 'very often' to 'never'; to investigate the frequency of the implementation of tasks and activities along with other practices in the classroom to account for and describe the interactional aspects in the classroom needed to reflect the current and possible outcomes of learning and using English communicatively. Some of the questions will be used to triangulate the findings obtained from the other sections, such as problem-solving, risk-taking and the use of Arabic and English in the classroom. The frequency of all of these items can possibly estimate the opportunities available in the classroom to practise CSs. From a different perspective, the previous findings about the Libyan EFL classroom and those from the analysis of the teaching materials are also included in Section 4, which includes the use of the listening materials and use of the workbook.

On the other hand, Section **5** contains a set of open-ended questions that are designed to provide explanatory information (qualitative data), such as opinions, understanding or truthful, personal statement from the respondent (Cohen, 2013). These questions are also considered to reflect the general attitudes of the teachers and students regarding the teaching and learning of speaking skills in light of the materials, with respect to the findings obtained from the analysis, and classroom practices, which are expected to

reveal some of the themes and issues that can be help to develop a theoretical framework for interview design.

Nonetheless, they allow the participants who will not be interviewed to share their opinions freely. The literature on the Libyan EFL classroom raises the issues of the students' attitudes towards language teaching, the materials' lack of communicative content, and the teaching as the main factors affecting the negative outcomes for the development of the speaking skills, which I wished to investigate through my participants. The final section was designed to provide demographic information about the school year in which the participants study or teach, together with their gender. The school's name and geographical area was avoided for ethical considerations related to the current national situation in Libya. The teachers' educational background and previous teaching experience were not included either, because these might indicate that their teaching was being assessed, which might affect their responses.

3.10.1.4 Questionnaire Validity and Reliability

"In the main, validity is concerned with whether our research is believable and true and whether it is evaluating what it is supposed or purports to evaluate" (Zohrabi, 2013, p . 258). Reliability refers to the consistency of a measure. If one person takes the same personality test several times and always receives the same results, the test is reliable (Bryman, 2016). "Reliability depends on the accuracy of the questions asked, the data collection methods and its explanations offered" (Denscombe & Denscombe, 2002, p.100). The validity of the outcomes relies mutually on the data accuracy and reliability.

- **Piloting of the Questionnaires**

In this study, the questionnaires were structured and piloted to certify their reliability, as well as their validity (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), following various piloting stages of the three different versions. Issues relating to the clarity of the questionnaire items and the item formats of the questionnaires were considered in order to guarantee a reasonable degree of reliability and validity. The last versions of the teachers and students' questionnaires were then used (see Appendix D2, 3). These processes included using different techniques and tools for drafting and redrafting the questions as well as translation to enhance the clarity of the language and wording choice. The highest possible degree of precision in the layout of the electronic version was also considered to ensure that the tool used would not affect the credibly and reliability of the data obtained. The first draft of the questionnaire used the 'Google Forms' tool, which

facilitates both questionnaire design and distribution. This tool was used to pilot the first draft of the questionnaire. The second draft required additional questions that entailed the use of an alternative tool to include a large number of questions and benefits from other technical design and data analysis and management features.

Thus, I converted to Survey Monkey, which offers longer questionnaires and facilitated the design of the final questionnaires that were piloted, refined according to the recommendations offered by the participants, and distributed in two versions (Arabic and English). It should be noted that the modifications included removing questions asking for personal details, for ethical reasons. The modifications included revising the language and style to enhance the clarity, flowlines and logical links between the sections, and also testing the visibility and feasibility of the electronic versions on different types of screen (computers, tablets, and phones) which included the use of the short form of language ('Yes, I know about this strategy' into 'Yes, I do') and also changing the length of the scales. I also considered adding additional open-ended questions.

The later version was translated by myself and revised by two Arabic-speaking Libyan PhD candidates specialising in TESOL and applied linguistics, who have been involved in the process of translation for research purposes and who also have English teaching experiences in Libyan secondary schools and are aware of the Libyan cultural context. Being aware of the Arabic that is commonly used in Libya, those persons helped to ensure that the Arabic version contained "natural-sounding text" that can be easily understood by the Libyan participants (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010, p.51). Two students participated in the pilot study and failed to raise any significant issues in respect to the content or structure of the questionnaire. As a result of the piloting stages and regarding the recommendations made by the supervisors and survey training course leader, my questionnaires were refined and reconstructed.

One of the considerations made during this process is ambiguity, which can determine questionnaires ineffective when their wording is problematic (Cohen, 2014). In response to this, the language used to represent the different variables was kept simple, difficult, technical words were explained through simple examples, as recommended, and leading language was avoided (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). This in turn can increase the content validity of the instruments (Gu, 2018). Nonetheless, the feasibility of accessing the online surveys via different electronic instruments was checked. The data from the

Arabic version of students' questionnaire were then manually entered into Survey Monkey which was written in English to enable the analysis, reporting and writing up of the results accurately and clearly. I was aware that these precautions regarding the design do not necessarily mean that the questionnaires will be totally valid without using other data collection techniques (Gu, 2016). However, following the previous procedures and considering the different potential threats to validity due to the wording, clarity and layout of the questionnaire indicates that it may be satisfactory.

- **Assessing the Reliability of the Questionnaires**

Cronbach alpha coefficient was calculated to check the internal consistency and reliability of the developed questionnaires. It is frequently used to assess the reliability or internal consistency of an instrument or scale which could be attained from a single administration (Taber, 2017). It can assess whether combining the scores of the particular questions for all of the participants in the research study provides a stable and internally consistent measure (Warner, 2008). Researchers, including those concerned with language learning strategies (LLSs) (Nakatani, 2006), have used this test to develop strategies questionnaires.

A coefficient of >0.7 is commonly acceptable in social science research (Bryman, 2016). Because the Cronbach alpha is most valuable for single-construct scales and less helpful for reported instruments assessing several concepts at once (Adams & Wieman, 2011), the three main questions on both questionnaires were tested individually. The results, presented in Table 5.3, show that the reliability of the different constructs is satisfactory.

Table 3. 5 Internal consistency and reliability (Cronbach alpha)

Construct	Cronbach Alpha	N of Items
Teachers' MES	0.873	40
Teachers' MNS	0.886	36
Teachers' TAS	0.739	12
Students' MES	0.856	40
Students' MNS	0.924	36
Students' TAS	0.823	17

3.10.2 Teachers' Interviews

3.10.2.1 Rationale for the Interviews

Using qualitative research approaches, such as interviews, has benefits when seeking to understand a specific phenomenon from the viewpoint of the individuals experiencing it (Vaismoradi, Turunen, & Bondas, 2013b). Since Libyan teachers' knowledge, understanding, perceptions of the value of CSs and possible related practices related to these concepts are a "little understood phenomenon", the research questions must be answered in order to establish "what is happening in a social programme".

However, because the interviews will be compared to data gathered from the questionnaires and materials analysis, they will serve an additional purpose in explaining the possible causes of the phenomenon by asking questions about the actions, attitudes, beliefs and policies influencing it. Through asking explicit questions and follow-up questions to the interviewee's responses, the researcher can choose and categorise the information in order to answer the research questions (Creswell, 2012). It is particularly important in the case of MMR to make use of more than two data collection techniques (Seliger & Shohamy, 2013). Quantitative data collection can be refined and improved through the use of qualitative inquiry, and the data from the latter canbe used to confirm and expand the results obtained by using the first tool (O'cathain, Murphy, & Nicholl, 2010).

My aims in choosing MMR considered the superficiality of the quantitative methods, which can be reduced by the interpretation and contextualisation offered by communicative data (O'Brien, Harris, Beckman, Reed, & Cook, 2014). Considering the previous criticism of strategies research, "context-specific" research approaches are needed to provide a more detailed account of Learners' strategies, so questionnaires can be used with interview data from a smaller sample to identify unexpected details in the learning process (Rose, 2015). Therefore, the CSs concepts or patterns of behaviour in this research are explored in relation to different issues.

3.10.2 .2 Semi-Structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were implemented in the current research to provide in-depth data, being feasible for use by novice researchers, being flexible in the way they are conducted, and being a supplementary tool for MMR. A semi-structured interview is one of the various interviewing approaches, such as structured, standardised, unstructured, intensive, qualitative, in-depth, focused, group and life history interviews

(Bryman, 2016). This approach is compatible with research in educational contexts as it has an intermediate position compared to the unstructured and structured types of interviews due to the structure and purpose of the questions used for the data collection (Tarhuni, 2014); hence some questions are structured (closed) while others are open-ended.

Interviewing enables the discussion of topics relevant to this investigation in a guided yet probing manner (Holliday, 2007). I used open questions to expand the understanding of an issue and closed questions to obtain definite answers. Both types were followed by "why" or "how" questions (Adams, 2010). Open questions allow the respondents to reply without having to select from several provided responses (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009) and also give the interviewer an opportunity to use prompts outside the set questions, thereby allowing the interviewee to answer with more expansion (Berg, Berg, & Lune, 2012). This allows the interviewer to be more flexible in developing the questions during the course of the interview, to decide on the quantity of information needed for the question asked (Pathak & Intratat, 2012), and to "provide a framework within which respondents can express their own understandings in their own terms" (Patton, 2002, p, 248).

3.10.2.3 Interview design

Constructing interview questions is a challenging task because the choice of questions can determine the data obtained. Usually, there is a potential link between the research questions and the interview questions but there is no automatic approach for translating the former into the latter because the productivity of interview questions entails offering data about the situation in specific research (Maxwell, 2013). I constructed a set of 18 questions to obtain data for qualitative analysis. These were piloted (see Appendix E.1) and used for the main interviews, with a few modifications to the questions' construction, wording and ordering (see Appendix E.2). The choice of these questions was inspired by the research aims and questions and considered the findings from the questionnaires, which were also based on the materials' analysis findings (see Table 3.6).

These questions aimed mainly to answer RQs 1/B, 2; however, the flexibility of this tool made it possible to dig more deeply into issues of interest that the researcher felt valuable to explore during the process of the interview.

Table 3. 6 Interview questions in relation to the research questions and others

Interview Questions	RQ	Theme	Link to other research instruments
What is your understanding of the term CSs?	*RQ2*	*Teachers' knowledge*	*questionnaire*
Do you think that most Libyan teachers know about CSs? What is the source of this knowledge? FOR EXAMPLE, L1?	*RQ2*	*Teachers' knowledge*	*questionnaire*
Is there any need to develop the understanding of CSs and their use among teachers? why? why not?	*RQ2*	*Teachers' knowledge*	*questionnaire*
Do you think that Libyan students know about CSs? What is the source of this knowledge?	*RQ2*	*students' knowledge*	*questionnaire*
What types of communication problems do most of your students often face or report when performing a communicative activity?	*RQ2*	*CSs use (nature of problems)*	*questionnaire*
What do your students usually do if they do not know a word or cannot remember it during a speaking activity? how often?	*RQ2*	*Students use of CSs*	*questionnaire*
If one of your students is performing a speaking task and stops because of facing a difficulty? What do you do?	*RQ2*	*CSs instructions/ scaffolding*	*the questionnaires qualitative results regarding the encouragement factor*
Do you believe that teaching CSs in the Libyan classroom is possible? Why? Why not?	*RQ2*	*Perceptions/ Teachability*	*questionnaire*
Is there any need to develop the understanding of CSs and their use among the students? why? why not?	*RQ2*	*Perceptions/ Teachability*	*questionnaire*
What benefits do you think that the students will get from teaching or awareness rising of the CSs?	*RQ2*	*Perceptions/ Teachability*	*questionnaire*
How do you introduce new vocabulary, such as those included in the reading passages, to your students?	*RQ1/b*	*Strategies use in classroom interaction*	*Questionnaires Materials analysis: TB contains the 30/ 88 instances (answers) and few extra instructions for tasks that may relate to CSs production.*
Do you usually follow the instructions in the teachers' book? why? why not?	*RQ1/b*	*Tasks and activities*	*Materials analysis: TB has few extra instructions for tasks that may relate to CSs production.*
Can you think of any examples of tasks included in the course book materials that help the students to develop problem solving behaviour needed for successful communication?	*RQ1/b*	*Tasks and activities*	*Materials analysis*
In some tasks, the students are asked to explain phrases, sentences or words in their own words? do you use this activity? in what ways do your student respond to it?	*Q1/B*		*Materials analysis (the 'Other' category in additional analysis of tasks)*

The findings of the materials' analysis providing an account of the tasks and activities, and the questionnaires provided an account of the perceptions of the CSs used and taught in the classroom together with the participants' awareness of them, which provided a general overview of CSs, in addition to the frequency of the tasks and activities used. From this, the researcher required further explanation and understanding of the quantitative data. Hence, the teachers were anticipated to reveal more about their understanding of CSs and their relevance in the Libyan classroom and explain their implementation of the materials, with a focus on the results of the materials' analysis.

Open-endedness is relatively common and permits interviewees to contribute as much exhaustive data as they wish, while also allowing the researcher to ask probing questions to encourage the flow of conversation, in which the participants can fully express their views and experiences (Turner III, 2010). I considered, in my choice and design of the interviews, the valuable recommendations of Leech (2002) and McNamara (2009), including wording choice, the need for clarity, avoiding harming the participants and avoiding asking leading questions. McNamara's (2009) interview guide was very useful during the process, which stresses the need for time management, the logical ordering and timing of the questions, neutrality, and maintaining the focus of the interview while cautioning the researcher's reactions and behaviour.

3.10.2.4 Piloting the Interviews

Researchers are advised not to presume the suitability of their research design for obtaining the intended results without piloting their techniques, resources, methods, and coding frameworks, which allows them to detect weaknesses in design and instrumentation (Gass & Mackey, 2007) and apply the required amendments before conducting the study (Kvale, 2007). As a novice regarding qualitative research methods, piloting the interview was therefore useful to my research. This is because it addressed an important issue, namely, the interview technique, which could affect the quality and validity of the data. The general guidelines for novice researchers offered by (Turner III, 2010) were helpful, and those regarding the preparation for the interview were considered.

The pilot interview for this research was held in October 2016 and lasted for approximately 40 minutes. A meeting room belonging to Sheffield Hallam University was booked in advance to ensure that the interviews were not interrupted and was also chosen because it offers the silence needed for the recording, is easily accessible, is

located in a secure building and is well-known to all of us. The teacher's permission to be interviewed was obtained via the questionnaire, where the consent included an interview option. However, due to ethical considerations, she was provided with a new version of the participants' consent form attached to the pilot study, which included permission to use the data in both the piloting and the main study (see Appendix B.4) The female participant was a Libyan teacher who was a PhD in TESOL candidate. She was notified that she had been chosen for the interview and asked to choose a suitable date and time. She has two years' experience of teaching English in a public secondary school in Libya and one year in the Libyan state school in Sheffield.

This semi-structured interview was conducted in English, as the teacher preferred, and was audio-recorded. My supervisor observed the interview to assess my interview skills, such as eye contact and the use of prompt questions. These prompts increased the productivity of the interview questions and the in-depth nature of the data obtained, when used appropriately. The interview was followed by a discussion concerning the clarity of the questions, the length of the interview, the interviewer's skills and the overall experience. The teacher interviewed was asked to reflect on the issues mentioned above.

3.10.2.5 Reflections regarding the main interviews

The piloting stage helped me, being novice to qualitative data collection and analysis techniques, to put my knowledge into practice. Only after being involved in the analysis process was I able to make sense of what the literature suggests and to see what was relevant to my data. It made me more confident about managing, analysing and obtaining meaningful results. The processes used to define the categories and themes were then used as the basic criteria for the main interview analysis. The definitions and subdivision principles of the categories or subthemes were assessed by regularly comparing them to the pilot study's list of categories and themes. The aim of this was to maximise the consistency of the coding and analysis process and the validity of the results that could be easily affected by the circumstances of the researcher, such as fatigue and time (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2016).

The suggestions and recommendations made by my supervisor and the participant were considered for the main interviews schedule. For instance, due to the significance of the first questions, in that they investigate the perceptions of the research topic (CSs), it was crucial to reach an agreement and clear dual understanding with the participant

regarding what these concepts are and what types they include. Therefore, after obtaining the participants' responses to the question about their understanding of the CSs concept, it was necessary to explain the meaning of CSs, so that the interview is clearly focused and there will be a common understanding throughout the remainder of the interview. In addition, one of the questions (Q16) was unclear without more explanation, according to the teacher, to clarify the vagueness associated with the term "problem-solving behaviour". This question has been extended to include a list of tasks and activities to help obtain a detailed account of the materials' tasks and activities implementation; this was a valuable element in conducting the interviews, the data from which would be merged with the questionnaire results. Moreover, the pilot study helped me, as the researcher, to estimate the time needed for the data analysis, including the transcription process, of the main interviews.

Furthermore, the pilot showed a need to ask supplementary questions in case the teachers' answers were insufficient or unclear. Two additional subordinate questions were added to Q2 and Q12 (see Appendix E.2). Consequently, a list of the tasks was prepared to make it possible to ask the teachers about them separately in case the teachers' answers were insufficient due to not including a variety of tasks. This would also make it easy for the teachers to express their views more easily, and guarantee that the teachers were asked similar questions, so that the comparison and the interpretation of the data could be logically and clearly discussed. This list might also contribute towards the triangulation of the interview results with those of the questionnaires to see if the teachers use the tasks and activities, whether they find them useful, how they handle them, and how their students respond to them.

Another benefit gained from trialling the interview instrument was that it highlighted the need to pay attention to the probing questions in the main interviews, as they are sometimes as productive as the main question, not only in providing more depth to the responses, but also in cases where the answers given are vague, an element that considerably assisted the process of developing representative themes and categories during the analysis phase. These additional questions are important for the interviewer because unsatisfactory probing could yield narrow verbal responses which might result in superficial, barren thematic categories (Castro, Kellison, Boyd, & Kopak, 2010). Prompting is useful if the speakers go off topic and one can bring them back to the important points gently (Leech, 2002). It is suggested that interviewers need to use their

expert knowledge to their advantage in making meaningful interruptions, but these should not be numerous or extensive because this may obstruct the responses (Pathak & Intratat, 2012).

Nonetheless, it was useful for me to focus on the issues that recur in the responses because these recurring ideas can provide useful clues to the interviewees' concerns regarding issues of significance (Pathak & Intratat, 2012). An example of this is the teachers' training and the students' levels, as repeated by the teacher, which encouraged me to add 'contextual factors' to my analysis, which was assigned to accumulate the possible factors or reality that form part of the Libyan classroom as a distinctive context. Noticing repeated thoughts helped me in two different ways. First, during the pilot interview, it was necessary to discover more about the idea of encouragement used by the teachers because it was mentioned on different occasions, including the open-ended responses to the teachers' questionnaire, and I deemed that it may have a relationship to certain useful practises which may be related to strategic behaviour; therefore, I asked the participants to explain more about this area. Second, it is important that repeated opinions are extensively inspected in the main interviews.

The analysis of this interview resulted in five main themes which were coded in order to minimise the overlap of ideas. However, there were a few cases where it was difficult to assign certain categories to a specific theme because they also fitted under another, which required a decision to be made regarding stricter coding criteria when assigning the categories to the different themes. As a result, the final version of the main interview schedule was amended according to the issues discussed above. The analysis procedures used for the pilot stage were deemed workable and adopted for analysing the main interview data. These procedures will be reported in Chapter Six.

3.10.2 .6 Trustworthiness in Interviews

As discussed earlier in this chapter, validity and reliability seem to be related to quantitative research. The reliability and validity of qualitative research instruments are construed in 'ways appropriate to the production of knowledge in interviews' (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p. 245) and concern the interviewer, interviewee and the interviewing process, which are related to the concept of trustfulness (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). The following consideration guided the current research:

> The interviewer should be skilled and know how to carry out the interviews smoothly, have a good background in the topic, maintain a good relationship with the respondents in order to minimize the threat of bias, and know how to record and analyse the data. The interviewees should be interviewed in an appropriate place and given the opportunity to express themselves and elaborate on their points, but they should be prevented from rambling. The interview itself, however, should be guided by the questions and, as mentioned above, the wording of the questions should be appropriate, not threatening and not likely to lead to certain answers (Attelisi, 2012, p.84).

Additionally, the reflexivity issue, which is "similar to construct validity in quantitative research, requires a self-critical attitude on the part of the researcher about how one's own preconceptions affect the research" (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011, p.154), was considered. My motivation and positionality (see Section 3.7.6) in this research were discussed in relation to my previous learning and teaching experience (discussed in 1.7). I consider myself as external and not directly involved in the school context, so am not in a position that will prevent the participants' from expressing their views, which can be influenced by the issue of power. I also tried to maintain a friendly relationship with all of the participants and also offered to conduct the interviews in Arabic, if they felt more comfortable with that. I tried my best to ensure that the content of the interview questions focused on the research intentions and was unaffected by my interests. This precaution was applied when providing guidance or clarification to my interviewees at the start of the interviews (Gray, 2013).

Additionally, as an interviewer, my knowledge of the topic and the target of the investigation could contribute to the validity of the data obtained (Abdul-Rahman, 2011). This knowledge was possibly attained from my previous CSs research and enhanced by analysing the materials, which increased my research skills, especially those associated with the coding procedures needed to analyse the qualitative data from the interviews.

Nonetheless, using online interviews poses an additional challenge. The guidance available for "applying the E-interview Research Formwork Handling and Recruiting", helped me to pay attention to the timing issue, particularly related to using text-based interviewing, so I followed the cut and paste technique with questions and "prompt responses", such as "I'd like follow-up…" (Salmons, 2015, p. 142).

All of the questions and the probes were prepared earlier in an open document on the same computer used to conduct the interview, and the questions were sent to the teachers to read shortly before we started the interview. I also verified that the teachers possessed the skills needed for an online chat. I also considered the credibility of the participant interviewed online by using "nomination", which means that the participant's identity is verified by another who knows them (Salmons, 2015, p. 135). Using the schools' head teachers and official websites to advertise my research may also have increased its credibility.

It is important to acknowledge that variation might be implied in the data obtained from the two interviewing techniques. Face to face interviews seem to offer more language for the analysis in terms of quantity; however the main themes and information seem to be similar to a large extent.

3.11 Conclusion

This chapter reviewed the various methodological aspects of the current research. It, first, revisited the research questions in more detail, demonstrating their link with the three research tools and potential data. Then, the philosophical and paradigmatic assumptions were discussed with a focus on pragmatism, leading to the choice of mixed methods as my research approach. From this, an overview of the sequential explanatory research design followed. Also, the important aspects and issues affecting the research, including the ethical considerations and approval, were presented and discussed in light of their relationship to the Libyan educational context. Following this, an overview of the research sample and participant recruitment was provided. Moreover, it was necessary to offer a detailed account of both of the instruments used for the data collection: the questionnaires and interviews, together with the related concerns about validity and reliability. The next chapter will present the process of analysing the Libyan classroom materials which represent the first phase of this research, endorsing basic data that overarch the development of the questionnaires and interviews. Thus, the approaches followed in the analysis, the findings obtained, and their implications will be discussed thoroughly.

These questions aimed mainly at answering RQs 1/B, 2; however, the flexibility of this tool made it possible to dig more deeply into the issues of interest that the researcher felt valuable to discover during the interview process. The findings of the materials' analysis provided an account of tasks and activities, and the questionnaires provided an account of the perceptions of the CSs that were used, taught in the classroom and the

participants' awareness of them, which provided a general overview of CSs, in addition to the frequency of the tasks and activities used. From this the researcher needed more explanation and understanding regarding the quantitative data, so the teachers were expected to reveal more about their understanding of CSs and their relevance to the Libyan classroom, in order to uncover their implementation of the materials with a focus on the results of the materials' analysis.

Chapter Four Analysis of the Libyan ELT materials

4.1 Introduction

This research explores the potential of the Libyan EFL secondary school classroom materials' content regarding the learning and teaching of CSs. These exclusively designed CLT materials are key elements in improving the learners' communicative abilities and the only resources available for teaching in Libyan public schools. This chapter is dedicated to presenting the first data collection instrument and its findings. It generates a fundamental basis for developing the two following phases of the data collection by answering the following RQs:

RQ1/A: Are there any explicit or implicit examples of communication strategies or tasks in the Libyan ELT materials that could have the potential for introducing, enhancing or encouraging the use of communication strategies, if Yes:

  a- How are the potential instances of CSs and the related tasks presented in the materials?

This chapter discusses the procedures followed in analysing the course book materials during the piloting and the subsequent main study and gives an account of the subsequent quantitative results obtained. It will also present and discuss the significant findings from the three analysis phases, provide a summary of the findings in association with the RQ1 and provide reflections and implications regarding the next two research phases.

4.2 Approach to materials analysis

4.2.1 Defining the analytical framework

Quantitative content analysis is selected to process this research phase. This "research tool in the context of curriculum materials, typically focuses on the presence of certain words or concepts within the texts or sets of texts" (Hoffman, Wilson, Martinez, & Sailors, 2011, p31). It measures the frequency and extent of trends (Cohen, 2017; Creswell, 2012) systematically, objectively and quantitatively (Neuendorf, 2017). Thus, it is expected to reveal the frequency and the variation in the CSs and the targeted tasks and activities in the Libyan classroom materials.

It is flexible, can be mixed with other research tools (Marsh & White, 2006) and can "also allow inferences to be made which can then be corroborated using other methods of data collection" (Stemler, 2001, p.1).

Thus, the findings from analysing the Libyan materials, in light of the main research question, will be incorporated with the teachers and the students' views of the materials' content and with their perceptions of CSs. This can add more credibility to the materials' description based on the researcher's inferences and can offer a better understanding of the materials' role in developing CSs in relation to relevant practices.

Apart from its benefits, there was difficulty associated with executing this analysis tool. There is a lack of clear replicable procedures that can guarantee the credibility and validity of the results obtained when analysing ELT materials considering CSs. The lack of regulations on using this methodology is caused by the differences in research, requiring "many conceptual and technical decisions to be made" to suit every case (Lin & Jeng, 2015, p .88). This flexibility makes the researcher's task challenging as it is necessary to make decisions that benefit the analysis and findings, as there is no absolute right approach (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008).

Given the above, it can be argued that the researcher would need to have relevant knowledge of the area under research in order to identify appropriate ways to conduct the analysis according to the research questions, aims and the nature of the materials available. Also, the research needs to be conducted with respect to the fundamental procedures of textual quantitative content analysis, that allow replication and independence of the researcher's decision regarding its correctness (Marsh & White, 2006), which suggests following clear, accredited procedures. Therefore, the coding scheme requires clear descriptions, straightforward instructions, and explicit illustrations (Marsh & White, 2006), which are considered in the choice of the analytical framework of the CSs.

Although the pedagogical values of CSs gains more attention, the guidance available for L2 research (e.g. Fairclough, 2003; Creswell, 2005; Cohen et al., 2013; Mackey & Gass, 2015; Cohen, 2017) seems to lack methodological considerations for investigating CSs within ESL/EFL materials. This may be related to the diversity about strategies' teachability and inconsistency in the research findings on CSs, as discussed formerly in Chapter 2. At that stage of my research, Faucette (2001) has been identified as a key study with a similar focus to my research that faced the limitation discussed above. Her methodological approaches and analysis procedures were not fully discussed but she provided theoretical and practical guidance that benefitted this research.

4.2.2 Procedures for Content Analysis

It can be argued that quantitative content analysis follows key steps to ensure the validity and reliability of the findings. Useful references (Marsh & White, 2006; Rose, Spinks, & Canhoto, 2014; Cohen, 2017) provide useful procedures for content analysis, similar to those of Marsh and White (2006, p.30):

> 1. Establish hypothesis or hypotheses
> 2. Identify appropriate data (text or other communicative material)
> 3. Determine sampling method and sampling unit
> 4. Draw sample
> 5. Establish data collection unit and unit of analysis
> 6. Establish coding scheme that allows for testing hypothesis
> 7. Code data
> 8. Check for reliability of coding and adjust coding process if necessary
> 9. Analyse coded data, applying appropriate statistical test(s)
> 10. Write up results.

It is believed that these fundamental procedures have been followed in this research. The research questions, the properties of the CLT materials, and the available theory on CSs seem to have influenced the overall steps above, to some extent. For instance, determining specific CSs and tasks was decided by the research questions and that the sample was pragmatically selected (Marsh & White, 2006). This in turn suggested analysing the materials deductively in the first phase of the analysis. "With a deductive approach, the researcher begins with predetermined key words, categories, or variables (based on relevant literature or other resources) and sifts the data using these variables" (Kondracki, Wellman, & Amundson, 2002, p.225). This was processed by counting the number of instances according to the two adopted frameworks from Faucette (2001) and Mariani (2010). However, some flexibility was allowed for inductively coding the elements that emerged within the context of the main codes inside the materials, including the types of lessons and the objectives of the tasks. This helped developing an additional level of the analysis based on the results obtained from the initial analysis to clarify missing inferences in order to answer RQ1/A.

Moreover, analysing the materials deductively eliminates the process of defining the categories and validating a final coding scheme which requires comparing the results obtained from different coders or intercoders' analysis that is usually followed to make

decisions on the units of analysis and check the validity of the analysis, especially when a level of inference and interpretation is required.

Another feature that distinguishes the analysis of the course book materials from other narratives and texts is their structure. The materials are divided into defined sections, such as reading and vocabulary, and the instructions available to students and teachers are helpful in defining and categorising the embedded content useful for quantitative content analysis. Accordingly, the content analysis of the Libyan materials was based on three basic requirements:

1. Objectivity: the analysis is pursued on the basis of explicit rules, which enable different researchers to obtain the same results from the same documents or messages.
2. Systematic: The inclusion or exclusion of content is done according to certain consistently applied rules, whereby the possibility of including only materials which support the researcher's ideas is eliminated.
3. Generalisability: The results obtained by the researcher can be applied to other similar situations (Prasad, 2008, p.3).

4.2.3 Possible Limitations of Content Analysis

This research instrument has five potential limitations, two of which seem to relate to my research. First, this methodology can provide a description of a research phenomenon, and it limits defining the underlying objectives: "what but not why" (Rukwaru, 2015, p.155). To overcome this possible limitation in the research instrument, an invitation was sent to interview the materials designer so that clear, definite information about the role of CSs in the materials could be obtained, but this was not accepted. Therefore, this limitation was considered in designing the analysis framework, which required examining the materials' objectives and instructions available in the lessons and the teachers' book to support my interpretations of the findings. Second, the data resulting from the content analysis could not illustrate events or behaviour, which Faucette (2001) discussed as a limitation of her descriptive study. Thus, the use of mixed method with a survey and interview to explore the human interactions with the materials can be a valuable contribution to the current research.

4.2.4 The choice of frameworks for the materials analysis

As implied in RQ1/ 1A, the main purpose of the material analysis is to discover whether and to what extent there are expressions which encourage strategic competence and any related teaching activities in the course books of the Libyan English curriculum and the way in which they are presented. Two types of achievement communication strategies, meaning expression strategies (MES) and meaning negotiation strategies (MNS), adopted from Mariani (2010: 34-36) were used to develop two checklists for the process of coding instances of CSs, as presented in Tables 4. 1 and 4. 2. Additionally, tasks and activities (TSA) proposed to encourage the implementation of CSs in the classroom, adopted from (Faucette, 2001) and presented in Appendix A.2, were used to develop the third checklist (see Table 4. 3). In this thesis, I will refer to the analysis resulting from each of the three checklists as **MESA** (Meaning Expression Strategies Analysis)**, MNSA** (Meaning Negotiation Strategies), and **TSAA** (Tasks and Activities Analysis).

The CSs checklists include the book type, unit, lesson name, page, appearance of the strategies (explicit or implicit), and the actual text. The abbreviations' list contains full texts of the shortened forms in the tables (see page xi). The TSAA checklist (Table 4. 3) includes the book name, unit, lesson number and name, task number and page, appearance (Explicit or Implicit CSs), task definition, task instruction, resources available in the book (visuals, audio, text), lesson objective, and the target group of students to perform the task.

The resources were included because they can suggest the potential context for using or introducing CSs. As discussed in chapter two, pictures are useful for eliciting CSs while audio recordings and transcripts can be used to expose learners to the uses of CSs. It should be noted that the lesson objectives, mentioned earlier, will be counted after conducting the analysis, where these categories will be matched to each task type as a summary. The purpose of adding an analysis of the lesson's objectives to the study is to reflect on the materials' purposes in introducing lessons and tasks to show if these have any reference to the notion of CSs explicitly, by naming the strategies or by referring to their benefits or functions. This can provide a detailed overview of the frequency of the occurrences of CSs and the task types.

Table 4. 1 Meaning Expression strategies checklist

Type of CSs	Book			Unit	Lesson		Page/ Line	Explicit	Implicit	Actual text	Total
	C	W	T		No	Name					
1. all purpose											
2. General word											
3. synonym or antonym											
4. using example											
5. definition or description											
- general word + relative clause											
• Phrases instead of adjectives describing qualities											
• Structure											
• purpose or function											
• context or situation											
6. approximations											
7. Paraphrasing											
8. self-correction											
Total											

Table 4. 2 Meaning Negotiation Strategies' analysis checklist

Type of CSs	Book			Unit	Lesson		Page/ Line	Explicit	Implicit	Actual text	Total
	C	W	T		No	Name					
9. asking for help:											
• telling one's interlocutor that one cannot say or understand something:											
• asking one's interlocutor to:											
slow down, spell or write something											
repeating											
explain, clarify, give an example											
say something in the L2											
confirm that one has used the correct or appropriate language											
confirm that one has been understood											
• repeating, summarising,											
paraphrasing what one has heard and asking one's interlocutor to confirm											
• guessing meaning and asking for confirmation											
10. giving help, by doing what the "helping" interlocutor does in 9., e.g.											
Total											

Table 4. 3 Tasks and activities' analysis checklist

Activities and Tasks	Book	Unit	lesson		Task	page	explicit	implicit	Task	task	Resources	lesson	Target	Total
			No	Name	No				definition	instruction		objectives	group	
dialogues														
abstract shapes														
video/audio tape analysis														
spot the difference among similar drawings or objects														
jigsaw tasks														
simulations														
describe the strange gadget, cultural concept or other unfamiliar objects or concepts														
crossword puzzles														
assembling parts														
role-play														
games, riddles, brain-teasers														
identify familiar objects														
directions/map routes														
Story-telling														
assembling tools														
Total														

As discussed in Chapter Two, teaching and knowledge acquired in the classroom can be affected by the concepts of explicitness, which are also embedded in the RQ1, and thus considered critical to the analysis. Accordingly, I will identify these clearly before moving on to the actual analysis, which was similar to Faucette's (2001) approach. She referred to CSs as explicit if there is a clear reference to them, and implicit "if lexical items were found that could be used to implement CSs (e.g., procedural vocabulary, expressions for appeals for assistance)" (ibid, p.14). However, my concept of implicitness may be wider than Faucette's because I had to consider every instance that can potentially be useful in exemplifying or developing CSs. On the other hand, explicit tasks are those which have a clear a link to CSs by demonstrating the idea of solving communication problems or naming the strategies clearly, while implicit tasks, on the contrary, have no explicit link to these notions. Implicit content might be useful when considering individual perceptions of CSs and possible interaction with the materials in the classroom.

Task definition, task instructions, lesson objectives, and the target group were presented in the course book and teachers' book, so these did not need interpreting by the researcher. However, adding this information to the analysis framework is considered to add additional value to my own interpretations on the materials' both latent and direct goals. The findings of the materials' analysis will be used to help to inform the subsequent data collection and also compared to the findings from the teachers and students' questionnaires and the teachers' interviews to triangulate the findings and enable me to provide an overall description and review and make recommendations with regard to the Libyan ELT context.

4.3 The Pilot study

The pilot study was conducted prior to the main study, between February and May 2015. The rationale for piloting, the development of the framework and the procedures followed will be discussed in the following sections.

4.3.1 Rationale for piloting

The purpose of the pilot study was to test the validity of the chosen approaches of the research instrument and the framework designed to analyse the materials, since a valid, established model for this type of research is lacking in this field. The piloting stage is essential for developing the coding schemes, and the coding processes and techniques to increase the reliability of the data obtained (Neuendorf, 2017; Prasad, 2008).

Another major reason for the piloting was to explore the feasibility of the first research question in relation to the Libyan context, as the materials are a core component of the research that bonds the different research instruments together. This was important, as it entailed examining my own skills in making use of my knowledge in the field, retesting my previous expertise in analysing and identifying CSs in oral discourse gained from my MA research project, and evaluating my ability to manage the process of analysis and making inferences from the materials with no major obstacles. These skills are important because, in content analysis, the concept of inference is particularly significant, and requires using "analytical constructs or rules of inference, to move from the text to the answers to the research questions" (Marsh & White, 2006, p.27). These constructs could be based on existing theories or practices, the experience or knowledge of experts, and previous research (Krippendorff, 2004).

The three constructs above seem to be present to some extent in the current research. First, there is an existence of established categories of the CSs and tasks used to elicit or teach them, with a variety of identifications and classifications due to different scholars' views. There is also a small amount of research on CSs in the teaching materials and considerable empirical CSs research, as a response to scholars and researchers' call to include strategic competence in ELT.

The book by Mariani (2010) can be regarded as a positive step in providing practical and straightforward materials to use. It also aimed at teachers, teacher trainers, educators and course book writers concerning a speaking syllabus (Kay, 2012). For this reason, his categorisation of CSs was adopted for the construction of the coding scheme. Second, the expert knowledge may be represented by my previous research experience of the different categories of CSs and the process of their identification and my general knowledge of TESOL, including my short experience of teaching the target materials. Thirdly, Faucette (2001) represents some general guidelines to follow regarding the issues of explicitness and implicitness of CSs and provides a basis for developing an analytical framework for tasks and activities. Finally, the available research and literature concerning CSs and CST, discussed in Chapter Two, are helpful in analysing and discussing the materials' content.

4.3.2 The sample and elements of analysis

The preliminary coding scheme was piloted on a randomly selected sample (Neuendorf, 2002). The total range of the course books on Libyan secondary school materials consists of five groups divided into three main grades. Students in their first year are

asked to choose between the science and literary departments that they will attend for the two following years. In the scientific section, they study scientific subjects (maths, physics, chemistry, etc.) and, in the literature department, they study literary subjects (history, sociology, psychology, etc.). For each of these three grades, there are three books (a course book, a workbook, and a teacher's book).

The sample selected for the pilot included three units: unit 7 of year one, unit 2 of year two (science) and unit 5 of year three (literary). These were selected by means of a simple random sampling strategy to fulfil the representativeness of the population, known as the probability sampling technique that can be used if the likelihood of the participants of the total population being selected for the sample is acknowledged (Cohen, 2013; 2017). Since the three books seem to follow a very similar structure and number of units and lessons, with similar types and number of tasks, it is assumed that this sampling approach could fulfil the representativeness of each book and of the whole series. In regard to the year 2 and 3, the books most units share identical lessons for literary and scientific sections and they only differ in the last two lessons which introduce relevant subject knowledge.

Consequently, one unit from each course book, together with the related tasks in the workbook and the related instructions in the teacher's books were selected as a sample for this study. In content analysis, coding may include phrases, sentences, images, paragraphs or whole documents, which can be called the coding unit and the choice is based on the research question and the target concepts of the analysis (Rose et al., 2014, p.4). My analysis included all of the texts, activities, and transcripts of listening materials.

4.3.3 The process of identifying and coding the CSs and the related tasks and activities

After a sample of three units representing the three years of the study had been selected, an analysis of each unit was conducted individually. The process of the analysis required a thorough, focused reading of each lesson's components. This means that all of the passages, texts, instructions, transcripts of the listening materials (CDs), and tasks were included in the analysis. The coding of the two types of strategies into checklists, (Tables 4.1 and 4.2), comprised two separate stages to ensure that the researcher's focus was narrowed.

After that, I analysed the same units to record the tasks and activities on the related checklist (Table 4. 3). Those procedures resulted in total counts of the occurrences from the two groups of concepts: CSs (MES and MNS) and the tasks and activities (TSAA).

The feature discussed earlier considering the flexibility of content analysis and researchers' ability to make decisions are reflected in this stage. Overall, no major difficulties arose during the process of the analysis in general or in the identification and categorisation of the recorded items on the checklists. However, coding the CSs and tasks under the categories of the book name (Cb/Wb/Tb) when an occurrence appears in more than one book was difficult on a few occasions. For example, there were occasions when an instance of CSs is observed in the teacher's book and it relates to a task in the workbook or course book. To diminish confusion and ensure the credibility and accuracy of the results, specific rules were considered, as I will discuss in the main study. The occurrences of the strategies in the workbook were recorded in the workbook column on the check list and the same applied to the course book. If an occurrence of CSs is identified in the teachers' book as an answer to an exercise in the course book or workbook, it was counted in the teacher's book column.

Additionally, the identification of the MES was managed when examples of the verbal strategies provided in the adopted taxonomy of Mariani (2010) were found. The examples of CSs provided in the taxonomies of (Mariani, 2010) were helpful on occasion where there were some similarities or confusion among specific concepts, which are also anticipated to minimise the bias and subjectivity and increase the validity of the coding process. Thus, the taxonomy was helpful in making specific decisions about categories, such as the "general word" and the "all-purpose word". These two categories are classified under the same type in other taxonomies of the CSs; namely, generalisation. Similarly, Faucette's (2001) used procedural words to identify MES, including paraphrasing, definitions, and explanations.

4.3.3.1 Identification of MES

The process of identification was also managed when a substitute linguistic expression is presented or requested during tasks. For example, when the task asks the students to give the meaning or definition of a word, it emphasises that the students need to find another way of expressing vocabulary or a more complex structure. This could encourage or imply the use of CSs, such as paraphrasing. In addition, a considerable number of research studies employ this feature in tasks, such as defining familiar objects to encourage the use of CSs. It can also expose the students to referring to things

or ideas in variety of ways. An example of this can be seen in the subsequent task, where the students are asked to find alternative expressions for a reading text. The word "leave" was given as an answer to point number 5, which was considered to relate to the strategy of "***description or definition: purpose or function***".

C *Underline the words in text 2 on Course Book page 55 that mean the following.*
    1- A building where old, disables or ill people live when they need professional care
       _____
    2- Die _____
    3- Not sure, uncertain _____
    4- The end of the day, when it is getting dark _____
    5- Permission to be absent from work _____
    6- Say no to a request from someone_____

4.3.3.2 Identification of MNS

The identification of the meaning negotiation strategies differs from MES because they "are definitely based on an explicit attempt at establishing meaning from both parties in the interaction, through various forms of asking for and giving help" (Mariani, 2010:32). This implies that occurrences of this type are probably presented within dialogues in the speaking or listening sections of the units. Only two examples were identified: "**repeating**" and "**asking for help by telling one's interlocutor that one cannot say or understand something**".

Overall, the processes and results of the materials analysis were promising for the progress of the research and the validity of the enquiry, which was a main concern at that stage. Moreover, it showed that the existence of some occurrences of CSs and of certain tasks were ambiguous; thus, the piloting stage helped the researcher to consider remodelling the frameworks related to the CSs, by adding more coding themes.

4.3.4 Findings from the pilot study

The findings obtained from the three checklists are discussed in the following sections individually.

4.3.4.1 Meaning Expression Strategies

The results of the MESA are presented in Table 4. 4. There were **38** implicit instances of meaning expression strategies use in the sample. Thirty-three of these were found in the workbooks and 20 of these relate to the reading lessons while four relate to the

vocabulary lessons, with only one example provided for the first year. Two of these did not relate to certain lessons, and thus were not included under the lesson name.

The **definition or description** strategy has the largest number of instances (**18**). For example, there is an exercise, concerning the reading lesson, that asks the students to match the words to their definitions. W3 uses "part of a door you push or pull to open" to refer to the word "Handle".

The strategy of **synonym or antonym** registered **eight** instances. Two of these were found in an exercise in the W3, where the students were asked to find the meanings of given words and phrases in a reading passage. For example, "not sure, uncertain" means doubtful. There are six instances of **Paraphrasing** enclosed within a meaning matching activity. Four instances relate to the strategy of all-**purpose words**, **general word**, and **self-correction**, and no occurrences were found for the **use of examples** strategy. **All-purpose word** was included three times. Two relate to the listening lesson's transcripts in the TS2. The word "one" is a general word used to refer to the planets Mars and Jupiter.

4.3.4.2 Meaning Negotiation Strategies

As Table 4.5 shows, only two implicit instances that relate to meaning negotiation strategies were counted in the T2 and W2 from a listening lesson and a vocabulary lesson, respectively. The first, copied below, relates to the *repeating* strategy, as the man is repeating the women's instructions in order to confirm them. The second is an example of **asking for help** (telling one's interlocutor that one cannot say or understand something): "I can't hear you, can you speak up please?"

Man:	Excuse me. Can you tell me the way to the astronomy exhibition?
Woman:	Yes. Turn right here. Walk through the first two rooms and it's on your left.
Man:	Right here; through the first two rooms; then left.
Woman:	That's right.
Man:	Thank you.

Table 4. 4 Meaning Expression Strategies analysis (pilot study)

Type of CSs	Year / Book									lesson Name									Exp.	Imp.
	C1	W1	T1	C2	W2	T2	C3	W3	T3	RD	VC	GR	LIS	SP	WR	SZ	PR	O		
1- all purpose		1				2							1							3
2- General word					1					1										1
3- synonym / antonym					6			2		5	3									8
4- using example																				
5-definition/ description																				
- general word + relative clause				2	1					2							1			3
Phrases instead of adjectives describing qualities																				
- structure				1	1					1		1								2
- purpose or function								10		4							6			10
- context or situation								3		3										3
6- approximations					1					1										1
7-paraphrasing					4			2		2	4									6
8- self correction								1		1										1
Total		1		3	14	2		18		20	7	1	1				7			38

`

Table 4. 5 Meaning Negotiation Strategies Analysis

Type of CSs	Year / Book									lesson Name									Exp.	Imp.
	C1	W1	T1	C2	W2	T2	C3	W3	T3	RD	VC	GR	LIS	SP	WR	SZ	PR	O		
9. asking for help: - telling one's interlocutor that one cannot say or understand something:					1						1									1
- asking one's interlocutor to:																				
slow down, spell or write something																				
repeating						1							1							1
explain, clarify, give an example																				
say something in the L2																				
confirm that one has used the correct or appropriate language																				
confirm that one has been understood																				
- repeating, summarising, paraphrasing what one has heard and asking one's interlocutor to confirm																				
- guessing meaning and asking for Confirmation																				
10. giving help, by doing what the "helping" interlocutor does in 9.																				
Total					1	1					1		1							2

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4.3.4.3 Tasks and Activities

As can be seen in Table 4.6, 15 instances of activities and tasks adopted from Faucette (2001) were registered. These were distributed across three types of lessons: six relating to the reading lessons, four relating to vocabulary, two relating to the listening lessons and two to topic-based lessons listed in the other column. Eleven of these were found in the course book, and one relates to the workbook for the second year. The following paragraphs will show the instances in detail.

- Role play:

For example, in C1, there is an exercise that was regarded as role-play, although the materials do not state that, which seems to agree with the explanation of the Ladousse (1987, p.5): "when students assume "role", they play a part (either their own or somebody else's in a specific situation)". According to the instructions below, the topic of the talk related to a different culture which could pose a challenge in terms of using strange vocabulary that may be hard for the partner to understand during the practice, thus chances to use MES or MNS are possible. Peer feedback might also be valuable. However, giving a talk could offer chances to use MES if the student has difficulties in expressing him/herself.

You are an environmental scientist on a news programme. You are asked why foods in Bangladesh are so bad. Explain, using the notes you have made.

1- Practice with your partner.
2- Give a talk in front of the class.

-Identify the familiar objects

This activity below, from WS2, was coded under this category since the two objects are considered familiar. The idea of asking the students to compare three items to give the answer, the use of the grammatical words provided, and the example given could encourage the use of meaning expression CSs, in written form. If this activity is performed orally as a pair or group, meaning negotiation CSs could be expected, for the reasons mentioned above. However, the example provided useful expressions and structures that may be useful to follow in oral performance. This shows that tasks and activities should be examined in relation to CSs analysis.

A Write sentences in your notebook about what you think the drawings show. Use can't, might and must. Explain your reasons.

Example: flower – firework – star

It might be a star or a firework, because they both look like that in the sky. It can't be a flower. I've never seen a flower that shape, flower have leaves and a stem.

car – motorbike – bicycle   telephone book – notebook – newspaper

4.3.4.4 Reflections and summary

Examining the results from this phase, it seems that there is some valuable information which was not included on the checklist, based on the adopted list of Faucette (2001), which could offer more understanding or clarify any general trends or approaches to the materials about communication strategies.For instance, the following exercise in W1 asks the students to paraphrase certain phrases and the typical answers in the teachers' book contain examples of paraphrasing strategies.

Lesson 2: Reading

A Read the fax again on Course Book page 23. Explain the following in your own words.
1. … say a big thank you… (paragraph 1)
2. … thank goodness! (paragraph 4)
3. Second felt like minutes! (paragraph 5)
4. 'This is the end!' (paragraph 5)
5. … just in time … (paragraph 6)

The answers in the teachers' book are as follows:

Workbook A

Tell students to study extracts in the text. Elicit possible explanations from different students.
Answers:
1. … say thank you very much for me …
2. … I felt very happy and wanted to say thank you to God!

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This raises the point that there might be a need to obtain more details about the context of each instance of CSs by linking the results of the CSs analysis with that of the tasks in a different final stage of analysis to make it possible to examine all of the possibilities available and whether the adopted list of tasks can be developed. Therefore, a new category (text or task), was added to the CSs-based checklist, showing whether the registered CSs are presented in the text (this could be any type of text in the materials) or task (this can be offered as a sample answer to a task) as shown in Table 4. 7; it will establish primary data for the additional analysis mentioned above.

In Faucette (2001), only CSs in tasks encouraging their use are included in the analysis and she considered whether the task is accompanied by useful linguistic devices to practice CSs or not. Thus, I added the category text to provide a systematic analysis of the potential examples of CSs in other content.

This is also valuable because it shows the ways in which these CSs are presented. For instance, finding a strategy within a reading text could be different in terms of pedagogy from a strategy itemised in relation to a communicative activity, but it could be useful in terms of offering linguistic knowledge that can be used in oral performance.

The data from both the questionnaires and interviews should help to reveal more issues about whether and how CSs are taught by triangulating the findings obtained from the three instruments. The above-mentioned modifications were applied to the CSs-based checklists of the main study.

As shown in the Table 4. 7 below, new categories were added to the coding frameworks (tables). These new categories go under the heading "source", which contains TS (task) and TX (text). Text refers to the CSs presented in the text, including reading passages, dialogues and short extracts or paragraphs, and even those included within the activities. CSs will be registered as a task, if they resulted from answering or performing an activity and would generally be related to suggested or sample answers to the tasks and activities in the teachers' book.

Table 4. 6 Tasks and activities analysis (pilot study)

Activities and Tasks	Book															Lesson Name								Appearance		Resources			Target Group			Total
	C1	W1	T1	CS2	WS2	TS2	CL2	WL2	TL2	CS3	WS3	TS3	CL3	WL3	TL3	RD	VC	GR	LIS	SP	WR	PR	O	Exp.	Imp.	Aud	Vis	Tex	Class	pair	Ind	
dialogues		1																	1						1	1			1			1
abstract shapes										2	1	1				1							3		4		4	1	1	3		4
video/audio tape analysis																																
spot the difference among similar drawings or objects	2			1						1		1				3							2		5	1	4	1	3	1		5
jigsaw tasks																																
simulations																																
describe the strange gadget, cultural concept or other unfamiliar objects or concepts	1	1		5	1	1	4		1	5		2			1	6	1	2		2			11		22		9	5	10	7	2	22
crossword puzzles																																
assembling parts																																
role-play	3			1			1													3	1		1		5		2	3	2	2	1	5
games, riddles, brain-teasers	1			4												3	1						1		5		1	4	2	3		5
identify familiar objects	1			2	1					2		2	2			1	2	2	1	1			3		10		9	1	4	4		10
directions/map routes																																
Story-telling	3			2						1						1	1			1	1	1			6		4	3	1	5		6
assembling tools																																
Total		13			18			6			18			3		15	5	5	3	6	2		20		58	2	33	18	25	26	5	58

Table key: C (Course book), W(workbook), T (Teachers book), CS2 (Year 2 Scientific Course book), CL2 (Year 2 Literary workbook), R (reading), VC (vocabulary), GR (Grammar), LIS (Listening), SP (Speaking),WR (Writing), PR (Pronunciation), O (Other lesson), EXP (explicit), IMP (Implicit), Ind (Individual), Vis (Visual), Cla (Class)

Table 4. 7 The developed checklist for the MESA and MNSA

Type of CSs	Book			Unit	Lesson										Appearance		Source		T
	C	W	T	No	Name										Exp	Imp	TS	TX	
					RD	VC	GR	LISS	SP	WR	SZ	PR	O						

Regarding the tasks and activities framework, there was also a need to see the context of the tasks by adding a new category called "resources". This is anticipated to provide indications of the variety of resources used with the different activities and to help me to discuss each type of tasks and activities. For example, the use of audio resources is suggested by researchers in presenting a genuine model of the use of the use of the CSs. This can be linked to point 3 of the guidelines of Mariani (2010) and Dornier (1995), where a model of strategies' use is suggested. "Audio" will refer to tasks requiring listening materials, "visual" will be coded for tasks asking students to look at or describe pictures or objects, whereas "text" will be coded if the students are asked to look at a text (see Table 4. 8).

Table 4. 8 The developed checklist for TSAA

Activities and Tasks	Book																Lesson Name								Appearance		Resource			Target Group		
	C1	W1	T1	CS2	WS2	TS2	CL2	WL2	TL2	CS3	WS3	TS3	CL3	WL3	TL3	RD	VC	GR	LIS	SP	WR	PR	O	Exp.	Imp.	Audio	Visual	Text	Class	Pair	Individual

To facilitate the process of counting the occurrences of tasks, new subcategories were added to the book level, lesson name, and sources. The first contains abbreviations of the book's level and specialisation and the second includes nine groups representing the names of all of the lessons. The second list is initiated from the contents and course description pages in both the teachers and course books. For example, CS3 in the book category refers to the course book of the third year of the scientific section, while LIS in the lesson name is an abbreviation for listening.

To sum up, it seems that the results are not very different from those of Faucette in one aspect; that the strategies were "introduced in terms of functions, such as giving instructions, directions, and definitions" (Faucette 2001:21). That is, there was no mention of the notions of communication strategies or solving communication problems in any way.

In addition to this, the fact that all of the registered strategies and activities are implicit, mostly correlating to the reading lessons, and that the MES instances exceed the MNS instances could initially suggest that the materials do not offer many genuine examples of real problem-based situations for practising CSs use. It seems also that more focus is placed on vocabulary and grammar learning rather than communication.

4.4 The Main Study of the Materials' analysis

The main study was conducted between August and December 2015. This included different stages of the analysis, as presented in Figure 4.1. The first concerned analysing the materials to count every potential instance of MES and MNS on two different checklists (see Appendix C3,4), and the tasks and activities on a different checklist (see Appendix C5). This resulted in the number of occurrences for each type of analysis within the different series of books for each for the three years.

A second stage was decided to fill in the gap in the data within the preceding findings by giving a more detailed report that links the strategies' analysis with that of the tasks and activities. This process entailed analysing the occurrences of the meaning expressions strategies, coded as tasks, to identify the types of tasks and whether they might be valuable. This resulted in two categories of activities. The first contained the previously identified list of tasks and activities (see Table 4.5) and a new category called "Other". The category "other" enclosed all of the tasks and activities that are not included in the list adopted from Faucette (2001).

Thus, an additional analysis of the 'other' category investigated how this category is presented in terms of the potential of the tasks for requiring linguistic production or not which is hoped to reflect more precisely the interaction suggested by the materials. A similar step to the "task" category was accomplished with the "text" category. The results and framework were used to develop the questionnaires and interviews.
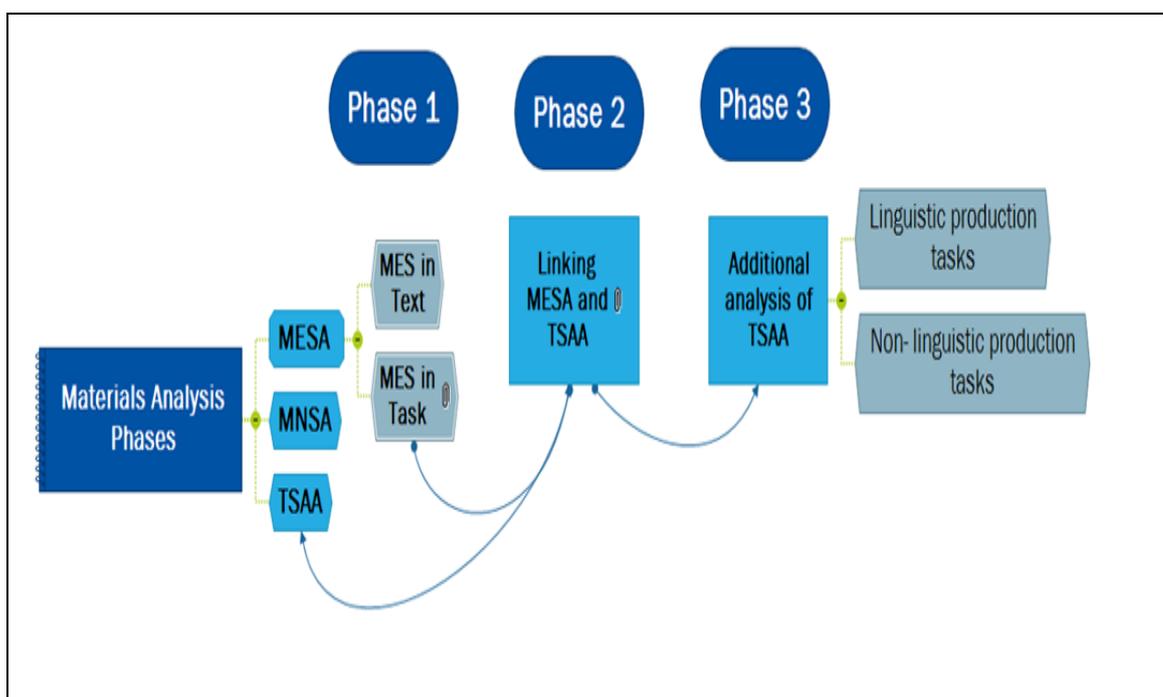
Figure 4. 1 Phases of the materials' analysis

4.4.1 Procedures and techniques for the materials' analysis

The main study followed similar procedures and techniques to those used in the pilot study, discussed in the previous sections. These include the decision-making on the explicitness/implicitness of the CSs and the allocation of the types of CSs or tasks to the right category on the checklists, which depended totally on the researcher's interpretation. It should be noted that the PhD supervision team checked all of the recoded items on the worksheets and their comments were considered, where necessary, but these affected only very few occurrences. For example, there were three instances related to the all-purpose word, general word, and definition that needed revising. The difficulty of recognising these specific categories could be understood when looking at the different classifications and taxonomies of CSs, which seems to compound the general word with the all-purpose word in a single category. On the other hand, two colleagues with a TESOL background helped by reviewing one sample unit by looking at the recorded instances in the book from which they were taken. Their comments did not indicate the need to make alternations or modifications to the procedures and approaches used by the researcher.

4.4.2 The sample for the main study

The sample for the main study contained two units selected from each of the five course books materials, making a total of ten units (see Table 4.9 below). The three units from the pilot study were included in a second analysis to increase the reliability of the

process of identifying all of the coded occurrences. "In content analysis, reproducibility is arguably the most important interpretation of reliability" (Krippendorff, 2013, p.25).

Comparing the results shows high consistency in allocating the strategies and tasks under the appropriate types and in the total numbers obtained. Seven more units were selected randomly. This approach relates to the probability sampling technique and can be used if the likelihood of the participants of the total population being selected for the sample is acknowledged (Cohen et al., 2013). Since the three books seem to follow a very similar structure (the same number of units and lessons with a similar type and number of tasks), it is assumed that this sampling approach will fulfil the representativeness of each book and of the whole series, which will help to validate the results. Moreover, the books for the second and third year for the two sections (science and literary) share the same lessons, with very few added lessons at the end of each unit to suit each branch of knowledge.

Table 4. 9 Sample description

Year	Sample Units		Total number of sample units
	Pilot study	**Main study**	
Year 1	unit 7	unit 3	2
Year 2 (Scientific section)	unit 2	unit 6	2
Year 2 (Literary Section)		units 5 and 3	2
Year 3 (Scientific section)		units 1 and 4	2
Year 3 (Literary Section)	unit 5	unit 8	2
Total			10

4.5 The findings

This section will present an overview of the findings of the main study. The results related to the MESA, MNSA and TSAA are presented with examples and extracts from the original books and the actual worksheets used during the analysis. These will explain my reasoning and the procedures used for analysing and understanding the content of the materials.

4.5.1 Meaning Expression Strategies Analysis (MESA)

Table 4.10 shows the 88 instances that relate to MES. The "source" category collected 71 items that relate to the tasks in the materials, and only seven relate to the text. The occurrences were categorised into these different categories according to where they occurred in the lessons, either as a text or as a task, as suggested in the analysis

framework. These features were added to the analysis to provide a better understanding of the materials' content.

As discussed earlier in the thesis, the tasks and activities are likely to have an impact on the use of specific CSs. The items recorded as tasks are in the suggested/sample answers of tasks and activities in the teachers' book and some of these were registered under tasks, such as matching the words to the definitions whereas the items recorded as a text were included in the reading passages and other short texts or dialogues.

1- **All-purpose word**

Three words from the texts were regarded as **all-purpose** words. One is included in a short reading paragraph in W1 and two are allocated to the transcripts of the listening dialogue in TS2. In the examples below, the word "one", which replaces the word "car" in the first example, the word Jupiter in the second example, and the word Mars in the third example are regarded as all-purpose words, according to Mariani (2010:34).

C Read about the two cars in the picture on Course Book page 54. Then answer the questions below.

The new car belongs to the teacher, Dr Shakir Mansour. The very old one belongs to one of the students Hisham Ali. They live in the same street, seven kilometres from the college Dr Mansour has worked at the college for eight years. He says, 'When I started work here, the journey took ten minutes. Now it takes 30 minutes because there are too many cars on roads and the smell of exhausts is terrible!'

Transcript: CS2

Son: Oh, look! It's the solar system. Which planet is Jupiter?

Father: Jupiter's the biggest one.

Son: Which one is March?

Father: That one. The one nearest to Earth.

Type of CSc	Book			Unit	Lesson		Page	Appearance		Source		Actual text	Total
	C	W	T		No	Name		Exp	Imp.	TS	TX		
1.All purpose		√		7	2	Reading	48					The very old one belongs to …	1

Type of CSc	Book			Unit	Lesson								Page	Appearance		Source		Actual text	Total
	CS2	WS2	TS2	No.	Name									Exp.	Imp.	TS	TX		
					RD	VC	GR	LIS	SP	WR	P	O							
1.All purpose			√	2	2				√					32		√		√	The one, the one nearest to Earth	1
			√	2					√					32		√		√	Jupiter is the biggest one	1

2- General word

The example below is registered in an exercise in WS2. The word "organism" is a superordinate of the word "microbe".

Lessons 1 & 2: Reading

A Look at the text and match the following words to their meaning. Do not use a dictionary

1 *astrobiologists (paragraph 1)*   ☐   a) *poisonous, dangerous for life*

2 *unlikely (paragraph 2)*   ☐   b) *dead*

3 *Lifeless (paragraph 2)*   ☐   c) *nearly the same*

4 *Surface (paragraph 2)*   ☐   d) *kind of animal or plant*

5 *Toxic (paragraph 2)*   ☐   e) *scientists who study Life in space*

6 *Species (paragraph 3)*   ☐   f) *the top part*

7 *Microbes (paragraph 3)*   ☐   g) *not very probable*

8 *Similar (paragraph 5)*   ☐   h) very small Living organisms

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Table 4. 10 Meaning Expression Strategies Analysis (MES)

Activities and Tasks	Book															Lesson Name								Appearance		Source		Total
	CI	W1	T1	CS2	WS2	TS2	CL2	WL2	TL2	CS3	WS3	TS3	CL3	WL3	TL3	RD	VC	GR	LIS	SP	WR	PR	O	Imp	Exp	Task	Text	Total
1- all purpose		1				2										1			2						3	0	3	3
2- General word					1			1				1				2							1		3	3	0	3
3- synonym / antonym			3		6					2	4			2		9	3						5		17	17	0	17
4- using example																									0	0	0	0
5-definition/ description																												
general word + relative clause				4	2			5	4			2				6		5					6		17	15	2	17
- Phrases instead of adjectives describing qualities		1										1				1							1		2	2	0	2
- structure				1	1							1				2		1							3	2	1	3
- purpose or function							1	1	1			1		11		4		1					10		15	14	1	15
- context or situation			1				1	1	4	2				3		4		7		1					12	12	0	12
6-approximations						1										0							1		1	1	0	1
7-paraphrasing			5		4				4					2		10	4								15	15	0	15
8- self correction																									0	0	0	0
Total	0	1	10	5	14	5	1	11	11	2	6	4	0	18	0	39	7	13	2	1			25		88	81	7	88
	11			24			23			12			18															

`

Type of CSc	Book			Unit	Lesson		Page	Appearance		Source		Actual text	Total
	C	W	T		No	Name		Exp.	Imp.	TS	TX		
1.All purpose							9						
2.General word		√			1 & 2	Reading	9		√	√		Microbes very small organism	1

3- Synonym / Antonym

The answers to an exercise in WS3 contained examples of synonyms.

> ***B** Read again the text in Exercise D on Course Book page 51.*
>
> ***Then find words in the text which match the following.***
>
> 1. *thought up, invented (verb)* _____
> 2. *thin, slim (adjective)* _____
> 3. *can be carried (adjective)* _____
> 4. *object, tool (noun)* _____
> 5. *Line up one thing with another (verb)* _____

The answers given in the teacher's book are the following:

> <u>Workbook B</u>
>
> *Get students to read the text about early clocks in the Course Book again and fine*
> *words which mean the same as those in the exercise*
>
> *Answers:*
>
> 1. *Devised*
> 2. *Slender*
> 3. *Portable*
> 4. *Device*
> 5. *Align*

4- definition/ description strategy contains five categories, as can be seen in the section below.

- The phrases instead of adjectives describing qualities: this was registered in an activity asking the students to "**work out the meanings of words from the context (the other words**

- General word + relative clause:

Seventeen examples of this type were found in the materials. The following task from WL2 contains an example of this type, and the recommended answer to this is the word "**representative**".

> *B* *Find words in Text B that mean the following.*
>
> *Paragraph 1*
>
> 1. *people who speak for a group or a country* _____
> 2. *a big meeting organized discussion* _____

Another instance (astrobiologists) was found in a reading text in CS2:

> # *Life on other planets?*
>
> *If there are living things on other planets, what are they like?*
> *Scientists who try answer this question are called astrobiologists.*
> *Twenty-five years ago, life on other planets seemed very unlikely.*
> *Astronauts had visited the Moon and had found no life on its surface.*

- Phrases instead of adjectives describing qualities: Only two instances were recorded in the tasks. In the first, the highlighted phrase was used to describe the word "portable" in a reading text. The answer was given in WS3.

> *B* *Read again the text in Exercise D on Course Book page 51.*
> *Then find words in the text which match the following.*
>
> 1. *thought up, invented (verb)* _____
> 2. *thin, slim (adjective)* _____
> 3. *can be carried (adjective)* _____

The second was an answer found in the T1 for the exercise below. The answer was "The hall between all rooms".

> *B* *Work out the meanings of these words from the context (the other words around it).*
>
> 1. *Including (paragraph 1)* _____
> 2. *Corridor (paragraph 2)* _____

- Structure:

From the two instances registered in the entire sample, the following example from CS2 of a typical answer to an exercise included a description of the structure of the planet Neptune.

Work in pairs. Student A, choose a plant from the List, but do not tell your partner its name. Give your partner a clue. Student B, say which planet you think it is.

Example:

Student A: It has more moons that Mars, but not as many as Uranus.

Student B: It must be Neptuner.

- Purpose or function:

This type was repeated 13 times in the materials. For example, there were two instances (a and e) in the following matching tasks from WL2:

---

4 *Read text 1 on Course Book page 55 and match the words 1-5 to their definition a-e*

1) *Holding his breath (Lines 1-2)* ☐	a)	*Part of a door you push or pull open*
2) *Mosquito net (Lines 3-4)* ☐	b)	*The first appearance of Light in the morning*
3) *Handle (Line 5)* ☐	c)	Looked carefully
4) *Peered (Line 7)* ☐	d)	not breathing
5) *Dawn (Line 8)* ☐	e)	*a thin curtain which protects a sleeping person from insects*

- Context or situation: ten examples were found in the total sample, such as the highlighted description below which was given to the word "refuse" provided in the reading text in WL3.

WL2 contains a grammar lesson about relative pronouns, and where and when these were used to correct the sentences. These sentences describe/define the subjects (Tripoli and Tuesday) by providing a context or situation.

5- Approximations:

There were only two cases where this type was used, and it was in WS2 and TS2. The first is an answer suggested in the teacher's book to the exercise below. It relates to a lesson in the course book named as "Diseases" whose target is introducing medical terminology. The answer given is "Influenza: like a cold but more serious".

The task below includes the second example, where part (d) approximates the word "species" in the first list.

A Look at the text and match the following words to their meaning.

 Do not use a dictionary.

1. *Astrobiologists (paragraph 1)*	☐	a) *Poisonous, dangerous for life*
2. *Unlikely (paragraph 2)*	☐	b) *Dead*
3. *Lifeless (paragraph 2)*	☐	c) *Nearly the same*
4. *Surface (paragraph 2)*	☐	d) *Kind of animal or plant*
5. *Toxic (paragraph 2)*	☐	e) *Scientist who study life in space*
6. *Species (paragraph 3)*	☐	f) *The top part*

6- Paraphrasing:

This was the third of the most common strategies used in the materials with 15 instances: T1 contains answers that use paraphrasing: "we are going to die" for number (4) in the following task:

Lesson 2: Reading

A Read the fax again on Course Book page 23. Explain the following in your words.

1. *... say a big thank you ... (paragraph 1)*
2. *... thank goodness! (paragraph 1)*
3. *second felt like minutes! (paragraph 5)*
4. *'This is the end!' (paragraph 5)*

WL2 introduces a task where the students read a text and give the meanings of certain phrases within it. One of the phrases was, "I wouldn't risk losing them" and the suggested answer was a paraphrasing of it: "I wouldn't do anything that might result in losing your friends".

4.5.2 Meaning Negotiation Strategies Analysis (MNSA)

Expressions related to this type were detected twice. One relates to **"asking the interlocutor to help by repeating to confirm that what he is saying is right"**. This strategy was presented in the transcripts of a listening dialogue. Here, the man is repeating the woman's instructions.

"Woman: *Yes, turn right here. Walk through the first two rooms and it's on your left.*

Man: *Right here; through the first two rooms; then left.*

Woman: *That's right".*

The second strategy detected was asking for help by **telling one's interlocutor that one cannot say or understand something**: "I can't hear you, can you speak up please?" This was not presented as a dialogue; it was an exercise, which asks the students to use the phrasal verbs.

4.5.3 Discussion of the findings from MESA and MNSA

The results presented earlier and summarised in Table 4.11 demonstrate three main issues. First, there is a prominent representativeness of MES and absence of MNS, which can have pedagogical implications considering the different learning potential and linguistic nature of each of the two strategies, as the former is more concerned with lexical based difficulties while the latter is interactional. Thus, it can be assumed that the materials provide knowledge related to one aspect of these communicative skills at the expense of the other, as I will explore further when I discus the findings later. Second, there is a prevailing frequency of certain MES (see Table 4. 10). The definition and description, synonym or antonym, and paraphrasing were the most represented strategies, respectively. Third, the issue of explicitness is important in that, given that all of the examples identified were implicit, we can infer that not all occurrences were intended by the materials' writers to develop knowledge of CSs explicitly.

Table 4. 11 Summary of the results of the main study on MESA and MNSA

Strategy Type	Course book	Workbook	Teacher book	Lesson Name								Appearance		Total
				RD	VC	GR	LIS	SP	WR	PR	O	Exp.	Imp.	
Meaning expression strategies	8	49	30	39	7	13	2	1	0	0	25	0	88	88
Meaning negotiation Strategies	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
Total	**8**	**50**	**31**	**39**	**8**	**13**	**3**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**25**	**0**	**90**	**90**

Considering the frequency of MES, it is important to state that is difficult to suggest that certain frequencies are satisfactory or not but comparing the presence of certain types is

noteworthy. Therefore, it can be argued that the most frequent strategies can be more pedagogically useful than including strategies used to replace specific words with empty vocabulary as general, all-purpose words. However, the lack of self-correction may suggest that the materials are not offering useful expressions that can be useful for them as L2 users. This could also mean that the materials are mainly offering ideal, prescribed forms of language, thus suggesting that more value is given to accuracy compared with fluency.

As discussed in Chapter Two, CSs are important aspects of communicative competence that encourage fluency. Given this, CSs should be developed instead of emphasising accuracy, and strategies of approximation which are commonly used by EFL learners should be offered in language teaching (Willems, 1987; Björkman, 2014). Iwai (2001) confirms very few instances of "circumlocution", represented by "definition or description" in junior high school textbooks, which contradicts my findings, since this type is the most common in the different materials, specifically the second and third years, which was also noticed in Faucette (2001). The diversity within the findings may emphasise arguments suggesting the lack of CSs education in the ELT materials. It therefore suggests that CSs in CLT-based materials should be investigated individually in order o obtain useful pedagogical implications for classroom use.

In addition, the lack of the important aspect of CSs representing the interactional aspect of communication, negotiation the meaning, was different from Faucett's study (year). The extensive availability of "appeal for help" in her sample materials was discussed for its pedagogical value. However, a recent study (Vettorel, 2018), concerned with the content of Italian secondary schools' textbooks used between 1991 to 2015, seems to show similar findings to my study.

The lack or shortage of "appeals for help" and "confirmation checks" may suggest a limitation of the Libyan CLT materials because these strategies are a natural aspect of the speaking that is required for L2 both inside and outside classroom (Iwai, 2001; Vettorel, 2018). Due to its basic function in offering a continuation of the message and reaching a point of understanding through mutual interaction with others, an 'appeal for help' can aid the development of communicative competence, offering both input and output (Rababah, 2002).

Additionally, the occurrences of CSs Libyan materials are distributed randomly because some types of strategies are not presented in certain books while appearing more

commonly in others. Also, the relationship between book type and the number of occurrences is worth considering, specifically as approximately half of the occurrences were included in the workbooks, and most of these belong to the second year materials (literary and scientific). The non-systematic appearance of the different CSs types in the older materials could be affected by the trends at the time of publication, which mainly view CSs as learning strategies (Vettorel, 2018).

This remark could be relevant to my study since the current materials in Libyan classrooms were first introduced in the early 1990s, with a few alterations made in 2007/2008, when specialization was introduced (Tantani, 2012). Iwai (2001) claimed that the research findings of CSs are not yet reflected in the classroom materials, which is also possible in the case of Libya. Nevertheless, the sample choice should be considered because inconsistency in the CSs' occurrences among the Libyan materials may suggest that that findings could differ if other units were analysed. Hence, generalisations of the remaining content of the material will be treated with precaution at this stage.

As strategies are communication skills, it was expected that they would be introduced as skills or offered as examples in speaking and listening related lessons or sections, with real examples of the language use required for developing CSs (Dörnyei, 1995; Mariani, 2010) that can be used in real situations.

That is, even in EFL contexts lacking a persistent need to communicate in L2, students could face situations that require the use of CSs in their classroom when performing communicative tasks or during classroom interactions with their teachers and other students. However, the findings show that the largest number of occurrences were compatible with specific lessons, namely the reading, grammar lessons and the "other" category, introducing the language for the two "literary or scientific" pathways.

An implication of those outcomes may be that the materials give prominence to linguistic knowledge. This assumption seems to be emphasised by the dominance of MES, which can reflect the materials' focus on developing linguistic knowledge, especially when occurrences of CSs are not presented within real communication contexts, as my findings show (Faucette, 2001).

Similarly, Abubaker (2017, p.21) claimed that the current Libyan material "mostly focuses on acquiring the relevant knowledge (vocabulary, grammar structures) through exposure to specific content".

In addition, one of the vital issues in my analysis is that of implicitness, implied by the lack of reference to the notions and concepts or functions of CSs in the materials, including the teachers' books. Vettorel (2018) noted that, in a small number of course books, CSs were introduced as an additional section, titled useful expressions, that included examples of MES and MNS with some explicit clarifications in the teacher books stating a language awareness of solving communication problems.

The implicitness issue can have two explanations. The first could be that the materials may not be designed explicitly to introduce the models of CSs. However, it can be argued that, even if the materials follow an implicit approach for strategy learning, the teachers may require some instructions to teach or raise awareness of the strategies. The second is that the design of the materials was aimed at developing the strategies indirectly by developing communicative competence through the implementation of the activities outlined in the materials.

As discussed in Chapter Two, the literature evidently indicates an association between CSs' use with task type (Kaivanpanah, Yamouty, & Karami, 2012). Accordingly, tasks and activities are required to offer the students real situations that encourage risk-taking and problem-solving to maintain the communication flow. These possibilities will be discussed later in this chapter, especially as most of the instances are associated with tasks.

To conclude, the evidence provided from exploring the models of CSs in the Libyan materials seem to suggest that CSs are more likely to be developed through natural classroom interaction or using the communicative tasks rather than through the materials' explicit modelling, raising awareness or instruction on the use of strategies. Considering that these CSs not only embody communicative competence but also represent an aspect of the native speakers' oral production might suggest that the students need explicitly to be aware of the benefits of strategic competence in the CLT materials which encourages aspects of fluency. This helps "making learners conscious of strategies already in their repertoire, sensitising them to the appropriate situations where these could be useful, and making them realize that these strategies could actually work" (Dörnyei, 1995, p.63).

Additionally, the lack of clear instructions about the strategies could similarly mean that available instruction on CSs in Libyan schools might be grounded on the teachers' own

efforts. In brief, supposing that all Libyan materials follow similar trends to those found in the examined units, we can presume that an awareness of CSs might be lacking.

4.5.4 Tasks and Activities Analysis (TSAA)

The process of coding the tasks and activities were conducted by analysing each task or activity according to different categories, developed deductively and inductively, to reflect on their learning potential. The analysis includes the name of the lesson (grammar, speaking, etc.) for linking the tasks and activities to the targeted skill. It comprises the appearance of tasks showing direct (explicit) or indirect (implicit) links to the notion of communication strategies. It also considers the resources used to perform the task (audio, visual, text).

In addition, there was a need to explore the nature of the expected oral interaction and the possible flow of information that performing each task suggests (see Section 2.5.4). Therefore, a final category called "the target group" of students (individuals, pairs, or class) was added. Table 4.12 below shows the developed framework used for the analysis and the results obtained. Among the 15 tasks targeted for this investigation, only eight types were present in the materials, represented by 58 occurrences, as the book section and total show. It should be noted that, in the other sections, the total is below 58. This happens when it is difficult to assign tasks to certain categories. For instance, the target group for some tasks were not defined.

4.5.4.1 The Results of TSAA

This section presents the results shown in Table 4.12 for each task presented in the materials. For the reader's clarity, I highlight in yellow those included in the analysis, where necessary.

1- Dialogues:

Only one dialogue activity is used to talk about the differences between two people's narratives regarding the same story. Although the answers suggested do not include any types of strategies, this type of activity could foster their use, according to the criteria presented by (Mariani 2010:53). He suggests that CSs use is likely in tasks that "promote interaction and meaning negotiation: such tasks would have to foster a learner-learner mode, by incorporating pair and group work, two-way information exchange, and information and/or opinion gaps (as often the case with role-plays, simulations, games, class discussions, etc.)". The highlighted part is recorded in the table below.

A Work with a partner. You should choose each one of the maps to study.

Then describe the accident to your partner.

B Listen to the first two speakers. Two people are describing the same accident.

C Listen again. Are their stories the same or different? How are they different?
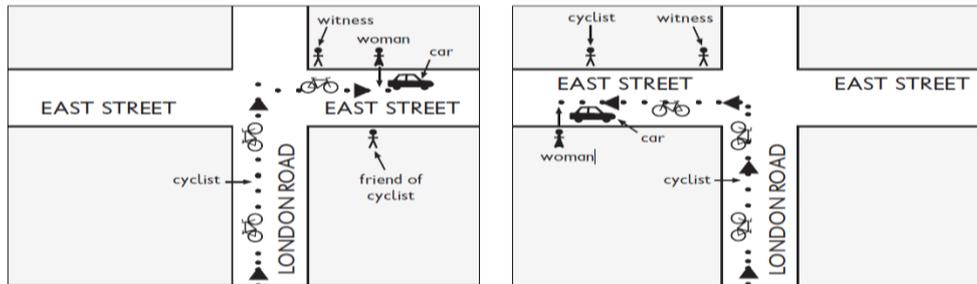
| Activities Tasks | Book | | | Unit | Lesson | | Task No | Page | Explicit | Implicit | Task definition | Task instruction | Resources | Lesson objectives | Target group | Total |
	C	W	T		No	Name										
Dialogues		√		3		Listening skills	B	23		√		Listen to two speakers	Audio + map	Listening to find differences	Class	2

Table 4. 12 Tasks and Activities Analysis (main study)

Activities and Tasks	Book															Lesson Name								Appearance		Resources			Target Group			T
	C1	W1	T1	CS2	WS2	TS2	CL2	WL2	TL2	CS3	WS3	TS3	CL3	WL3	TL3	RD	VC	GR	LIS	SP	WR	PR	O	Exp.	Imp	Aud	Vis	Text	Cla	pair	Ind	
Dialogues		1																	1						1	1			1			1
abstract shapes										2	1	1				1							3		4		4	1	1	3		4
video/audio tape analysis																																
spot the difference among similar drawings or objects	2			1						1		1				3							2		5	1	4	1	3	1		5
jigsaw tasks																																
Simulations																																
describe the strange gadget, cultural concept or other unfamiliar objects or concepts	1	1		5	1	1	4		1	5		2			1	6	1	2		2			11		22		9	5	10	7	2	22
crossword puzzles																																
assembling parts																																
role-play	3			1			1													3	1		1		5		2	3	2	2	1	5
games, riddles, brain-teasers	1			4												3	1						1		5		1	4	2	3		5
identify familiar objects	1			2	1					2		2	2			1	2	2	1	1			3		10		9	1	4	4		10
directions/map routes																																
Story-telling	3			2						1						1	1		1	1	1				6		4	3	1	5		6
assembling tools																																
Total	13			18			6			18			3			15	5	5	3	6	2		20		58	2	33	18	25	26	5	58

Table key: C (Course book), W(workbook), T (Teachers book), CS2 (Year 2 Scientific Course book), CL2 (Year 2 Literary workbook), R (reading), VC (vocabulary), GR (Grammar), LIS (Listening), SP (Speaking),WR (Writing), PR (Pronunciation), O (Other lesson), EXP (explicit), IMP (Implicit), Ind (Individual), Vis (Visual), Cla (Class)

2- Abstract shapes: four tasks, considered to belong to this type, are presented in CS3, WS3, TS3, and were coded like this:

1	2			3	4										5	6
Activities and Tasks	Book			Unit	Lesson										Appearance	
						Name										
					No											
	C	W	T			RD	VC	GR	LIS	SP	WR	PR	O	Explicit	Implicit
Abstract shapes	√			1	1	√										√
	√			1	9								√			√
			√	1	10								√			√
		√		1	10								√			√

Followed

1	7	8	9			10	11		12
Activities and Tasks	Definition	Instruction	Source			Lesson objectives	Target Group		Total
			Audio	Visual	Text				
Abstract shapes	Before you read	Look at the pictures and then discuss		pictures		Predicting content	Pairs		1
		Study the graph		picture	Text	Interpret graphs	Pairs		1
	Introduction	What are the shapes?		Drawing		Describing shapes		Class	1
		One describes without naming and the other draw the shape				Describing shapes	Pairs		1

Example one: this activity is presented in the course book as an introduction to the reading lesson, intended "to develop skills in predicting the content of a text, including vocabulary". Number 2 of activity A below is recorded as an **abstract shape** task.

1. **Before you read (Lesson 1)**

A Look at the photos on page 7. Then discuss these questions in pairs.

1. Which of the photos was taken from a plane?

2. What can you see in each photo?

3. How old do you think the lines in each photo are?

4. Who or what do you think mode the lines?

Example two: the technique used in the following activity is recommended by Mariani (2010:67) and Faucette (2001) to teach the use of the definition, description and paraphrasing strategy and is used by researchers and teachers either to elicit CSs or to teach it to learners. Meenakshi (2015:72) used the "describe the object without naming it" to train her students in the use of paraphrasing. This requests one student to look at a picture of an item and describes it to other students, who will try to name the item. WS3 presented the task as follows:

Lesson 10: Shapes

A Work in pairs. Take turns describing one of the shapes opposite. Your partner draws the shape in their notebook with their Workbook closed. Take turns to describe.
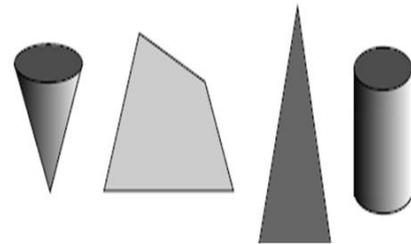
The instructions in the teacher's book are as follows:

Workbook A

Divide the class into pairs. Students should try to describe the shape to their partner without naming it. The partner draws the shape and cheeks with the diagrams in the book when they have finished. Students then change roles. Before the students begin, demonstrate the idea by describing a shape (a parallelogram for example) the whole group, and getting them to draw it.

3- **Spot the difference among similar drawings or objects:** five instances were detected in four books. An example from CS2 is a task that asks the students to describe the difference between the astronaut and the astronomer, with the pictures below provided as a hint.

4- **Describe the strange gadget, cultural concept or other unfamiliar objects or concepts**: Twenty instances of these tasks were considered in the analysis, which is the highest number compared to the other types. The extract below relates to CL2, with four instances registered.

1	2			3	4									5	
Activities and Tasks	**Book**			Unit	**Lesson**									Appearance	
					No	**Name**									
	C	W	T			RD	VC	GR	LIS	SP	WR	PR	O	Explicit	Implicit
Describe the strange gadget, cultural concept or other unfamiliar objects or concepts	√			3	1&2	√									√
	√			3	10	√									√
	√			5	1&2	√						√			√
			√	5	9										√
	√			5	4			√							√

Follow

1	6	7	8	9	10		11
Activities and Tasks	**Definition**	**Instruction**	**Resources**	**Lesson objectives**	**Target Group**		Total
Describe the strange gadget, cultural concept or other unfamiliar objects or concepts	Before you read	Study the graph	Pictures+ Text			Class	
		Look at the pictures and read brief	Pictures+ Text			Pairs	1
	Before you read	Explain to someone				Class	1
		Look at the pictures and describe	Pictures			Class	1
	Clauses with where, when, and what	Ask questions and other students answers using where, when, and what	Text	Revise and extend skills in using relative clauses		Pairs	1

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Example one:

The students are asked to bring some photos of their family during festivals and describe them to the class. The pictures of people wearing festival clothes were considered cultural concepts.

Example two:

Lessons 1 & 2: Reading: Finding mistakes

1. *Before you read [Lesson 1]*

   A Discuss these questions with a partner.

   1. *Think of some examples of Arab culture*
      (for example, customs and beliefs).

   2. *How would you explain them to a person*
      who knew nothing about Arab culture
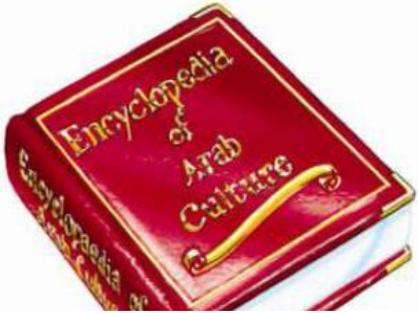
The teacher's books included the following guidelines for performing the task:

Introduction

Books closed, ask students for examples of what culture means, e.g., religion, literature, art traditions, music, language, history, architecture, food.

Ask students for examples of Libyan culture. Elicit some famous examples.

   1. ***Before you read***

   A Elicit one or two examples or Arab culture and how to explain them to someone who know nothing about it. Put students into pairs to discuss some others.

5- Role-play:

Example One: This activity relates to CS2:
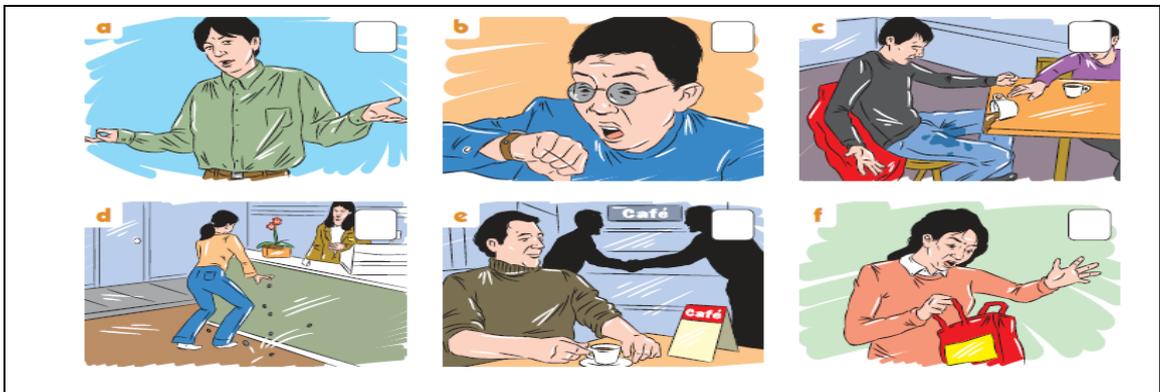
> 1. *Two people are in a crowded coffee shop They do not know each other. Person A spills hot coffee on person B by accident*
> 2. *A and b are friends. A, asked B to buy something. But B has brought the wrong thing*
> 3. *B waited outside the cinema for A to arrive, but A didn't come.*
> 4. *In a café, A has stood up, just for a moment to go say hello to a friend. B takes his table.*
> 5. *A lost the music CD that B lent him last week.*
> 6. *In a shop, A is paying the shop keeper, B for something, but A drop the money all over the floor.*
>
> **C** ***Work in pairs. Role-play the situations, using phrases from Exercise A. Don't get angry – be polite!***

Example two: The example below relates to SL2, which is a follow-up exercise entailing reading a passage about speed limits which suggests that vocabulary and expressions might be ready for the students to use in the role-play activity. However, it asks them to add new ideas which may increase the difficulty of the situation regarding finding the right expressions in English, and this is a situation in which students need to find alternative methods of expression, which will probably require the use of CSs.

> *E Work in pairs.*
>
> *Student A, take the role of A (against speed limits).*
>
> *Student B, take the role of B (for speed limits.)*
>
> *Add new ideas and continue the conversation.*

6- Games, riddles, brain-teasers

Example one: CS2 includes this activity which seems to be related to the problem-solving type of activities. It requires the negotiation of meaning and information exchange among pairs or groups of students to gain agreement (the right character). It is consistent with the recommended feature of CSs teaching tasks; namely, the "providing opportunities to put strategies to use" of (Mariani 2010:52).

> *D Work in pairs and think of some facts about another famous person from the past.*
>
> *Then work with another pair and ask and answer questions to find the name of the person.*

Example two: is related to the reading lesson in the **before you read** part of the lesson in CS2. The target of this lesson is to learn current ideas, guess meaning and predict content, which is very similar to the previous example.

> **B** *Look at the title and pictures from the text on the opposite page.*
> *Discuss these questions with a partner.*
>   1.   *What do you think the text is about?*
>   2.   *What information do you expect to read about the topic?*

7- Identify familiar objects: this is the second most common task, with 11 instances:

Example One: The TS3 suggests a closing activity, which asks the teacher to: "Write the words: clock, watch, and calendar. Ask the students to think of a definition for each of one and they should produce something like: A clock is an instrument for measuring and showing time. A watch is a small clock which is worn or carried in a pocket; a calendar is a system which divides time into years, days, and months". The suggested answers contained examples of the **definition/description** strategy and these were included in the results of the activities' analysis.

Example one: from the CS2:

> **A** *What uses are there for lenses? Working in pairs, make a list of objects that use lenses.*
> **B** *The picture shows two different lenses.*
> **C** *Read this text on the history of the*
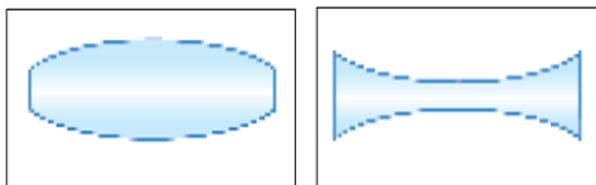
8- Story-telling: six examples were detected of this activity. Two of these are presented below from the course book. The first task does not state the idea of a story but was considered so, because it asked the students to explain an event from the past. In the second, the type of the exercise is clearly acknowledged. The two examples shown below relate to C1.

Table 4.13 summaries the findings from TSAA and shows the total tasks and activities in different materials for different lessons. The reading (RD) and other lessons (O) included the largest numbers of tasks, most of which are included in the course books. The latter category incorporates lessons named according to different topics, such as "Famous people" or "Theatre", which are the four last lessons of each unit. These mark the only difference between the scientific department and the literary department, as they share the remaining lessons.

Table 4. 13 Summary of the results of the tasks and activities' analysis

Book/ lessons	Course book	Work book	Teacher book	Lesson Name								Appearance		T
				RD	VC	GR	LIS	SP	WR	PR	O	Exp.	Imp.	
Tasks and Activities	44	6	8	15	5	5	3	6	2	0	20	0	58	58

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the lessons' objectives and instructions were also analysed separately. Table 4.14 below shows the results of this section. It clearly demonstrates a lack of direct and indirect reference to CSs, problem-solving or the negotiation of meaning. This seems to be consistent with the fact that all of the potential instances of strategic expressions are considered implicit.

Table 4. 14 Summary of the task instructions and lesson objectives

Task Type	Instructions	Objectives
Identify familiar objects	--------------------	developing reading skills
	Discuss	developing reading skills
	Write sentences	speculate about drawings' appearance+ discussing possibility of true events
	Discuss	getting information from a text
	What are these things called	Giving opinions and comparing English with Arabic
	Name the objects and link the objects that relate to each other	discuss development of thinking +review its made of and it is used for+ to practice vocabulary relating to language and thoughts
	Describe the picture	subject and object question
	Look at the picture	solving buzzles and responding to suggestions
	Describe the picture	to practice vocabulary related to telephone communication
	Think of a definition	----------------------------
	Discuss the pictures	to practice narrative cohesion
Story-telling	Discuss	
		listening for key information: Adjectives to describe feeling modality
	Discuss	getting information from a text
	Tell a story	Describing an accident
	Talk about an accident	writing reports
	Tell a story from pictures	telling story from picture
dialogues	Listen to two speakers	Listening to find differences
abstract shapes	Look at the pictures and then discuss	predicting content
	Study the graph	interpret graphs
	What are the shapes?	describing shapes
	One describes without naming and the other draw the shape	describing shapes
	Discuss	learning current ideas, guessing meaning and predicting content
spot the difference among similar drawings or objects	Look at the pictures and then discuss	predicting content
	What is the difference	describing shapes
	Discuss	reading for information
	Study a diagram	learning g from a quiz

Table 4. 14 Summary of tasks instructions and lessons objectives (continued)

Task Type	Instructions	Objectives
describe the strange gadget, cultural concept or other unfamiliar objects or concepts	Discuss	learning current ideas, guessing meaning and predicting content
	Guess the meaning	Review phrasal verbs
	Describe	Familiarization with medical terminology to talk and read about diseases, vaccination, and symptoms + express opinions
	Discuss	to introduce language relating to bacteria and viruses + p practicing talking about health
	Discuss	Familiarization with medical terminology to talk and read about diseases, vaccination, and symptoms + express opinions
	Label the diagram	------------------------------
	Study the diagram	--------------------
	Look at the picture and read a brief	--------------------
	Explain to someone	---------------------
	Look at picture and describe	---------------------
	Describe in your own words	Develop vocabulary and skills of explaining meaning in different words
	What is this?	Practice of modal verbs
	You are a foreigner, ask your partner the following questions and partner answer using where what and when	Revise and extend skills in using clauses
	What a puzzle is?	Practice speculating about a buzzle
	Think of a definition	Understand definition
	Answer and ask questions	Discuss shapes in context
	What is the type of the TV programme in the picture	Predict the content
	Discuss the signs	To understand common warning symbols
	What is a monument?	Read and understand encyclopaedia entry

Table 4. 14 Summary of tasks instructions and lessons objectives (follows)

Task Type	Instructions	Objectives
role-play	Role play	
	give a talk	to role play apology-response situations
	role play	learning g from a quiz
	talk about the accident	Describing an accident
	have a short conversation	writing reports
	taking roles	developing skills in discussing cultural topics+ question tags
games, riddles, brain-teasers	Guess the meaning	revising consolidate grammar items
	----------------	learning current ideas, guessing meaning and predicting content
	discuss	learning current ideas, guessing meaning and predicting content
	ask a question to guess meaning	learning current ideas, guessing meaning and predicting content
	find a person from a picture	
	read the puzzle and talk about solutions	getting information from a text

4.5.4.2 Discussion of the findings from TASA

The outcomes obtained from the analysis of the Libyan teaching materials show that the materials contain instances of almost half of the targeted tasks and activities and that these are presented inconsistently regarding the different school grades. Although this may indicate that the findings could be affected by the choice of units from the individual book, is worth noticing that, in some cases, the two units related to certain school years lack specific tasks while others contain tasks more frequently. It is also prevalent that there was no consistency in terms of the frequency and distribution of the different types of tasks across the different books. That is, coursebooks and the

scientific sections' books utilised the largest number of activities in TSAA, whereas the literary section contained the fewest occurrences.

Additionally, there is a prevalence of "**describe the strange gadget, cultural concept or other unfamiliar objects or concepts**" and "**identify familiar objects**", respectively, with less presence and comparable instances of the other tasks. In theory, those tasks could prove valuable in offering students chances to practice CSs, since they are commonly used to elicit and teach CSs (see Chapter 2). It should be noted, though, that they are linked to MES, especially in terms of their definition, description, and synonym (Poulisse, 1990; Faucette, 2001; Mariani, 2010).

Accordingly, this can suggest that those common tasks are used to teach lexical knowledge. This seems to be a reasonable assumption considering that the majority of the tasks were traced in the reading lessons and in the additional sections used to develop the subject knowledge language (literary/scientific) for the second- and third-year students, and also that the instructions related to these tasks need discussing or describing (see Table 4.14). This echoes the findings of (Faucette, 2001; Iwai, 2001). For instance, the extensive use of speaking during interactional activities has been associated with the emphasis on grammar learning based on the materials' focus on form (Iwai, 2001).

It can be argued that those three activities seem to offer a degree of difficulty that is important in encouraging the use of CSs (Lee, 2004). Additionally, the fact that most tasks require pair and group work can urge students to follow their communication until they reach the goal of the task and offering a common agreement or understanding suggests that the students will be encouraged to use CSs to do that (Rosas, 2018). In this case, MNS might also be necessary. This will also be determined by the way in which the tasks are implemented, including the number of students involved and the cognitive resources available while performing the task, such as familiarity with the picture or concept used in the task, because these features will have an impact on the number of strategies used (Lee, 2004; Khan & I Blaya, 2011; Rosas, 2018). Pair and group work affect the flow of information (one-way or two-way) that is required for the task performance, its outcome (convergent or divergent), and both these factors combined (open or closed) (Yule, 2013). This requires understanding the task's implementation in the Libyan classroom, which will be developed later in this research using the questionnaires and interviews.

Moreover, since the majority of the tasks, presented above in Table 4.12, show that just over half of the examples tasks used pictures, this suggests that these tasks may encourage the use of CSs, especially when the picture's content is difficult to identify or describe to others. Students encountering difficulty in naming the object can use a strategy or strategies to do that. There is a common link between the use of visuals and the use of MES (Konchiab, 2015). Conversely, in some cases, the use of visuals can create a lower demand for using CSs among learners because they help the participants to understand the meaning from the pictures (Rosas, 2018). Additional analysis was helpful in estimating the task outcomes, especially based on the suggested answers. It compared the findings from the MES related to tasks with those resulting from TSAA.

4.5.5 The Relationship between MESA and TSAA

Given that the CSs analysis findings revealed that most of the strategies relate to tasks and the difficulty of finding a link to CSs in the task instructions and objectives, there is now a need to see what types of tasks are correlated with each type of CSs and whether there will be new categories to add to those resulting from TSAA. Furthermore, an additional analysis was conducted, in which each occurrence of CSs within the category "text" was investigated.

Table 4.15 presents a summary of this analysis, which compares the previous findings on MESA and TSAA. As a result, only three types of tasks relate to instances of MES. That can be associated with the fact that these three tasks require the teacher to provide answers in most cases, as the teacher's book offers these as recommended answers. On the other hand, the teacher's book does not offer sample answers to certain tasks, specifically "role-play" in most cases, so these cannot be traced in this analysis.

From this, the largest number of CSs was not linked to the target task, so a new category of "Other" was introduced. The tasks in this category are linked to the largest number of instances of MES. Therefore, they were categorised into two groups, according to whether they require linguistic production or not. A summary of this categorisation in relation to the CSs types is presented in Table 4.16 below. As can be seen, the non-linguistic production category contains the largest number of almost all types of the CSs compared to the other category. The following section displays in detail the two types of activities.

Table 4. 15 Summary of the findings on the relationship between task type and CSs

Type of CSs	Task type								
	Dialogues	Abstract shapes	Spot the difference among similar drawings or object	Describe the strange gadget, cultural concept or other unfamiliar objects or concepts	Role-play	Games, riddles, brain-teasers	Identify familiar objects	Story-telling	Other
1- All purpose									
2- General word									3
3- Synonym / antonym									17
4- Using example									
5-Definition/ description									
General word + relative clause				5			3		7
- Phrases instead of adjectives describing qualities									2
- Structure							1		1
- Purpose or function				1		1			12
- Context or situation				6					6
6-Approximations									1
7-Paraphrasing									15
8- Self correction									
Total				**12**		**1**	**4**		**64**

Table 4. 16 A breakdown of the category of the "other" tasks and activities

Strategies Types	Linguistic production tasks						Non- linguistic production							Total
	Work the meaning of a word from the context	Explain in your own words	Explain the phrases	Describe the words	Give clue about an object without naming it	Think of definition	Match the words to their meaning	Match the words to their definitions	Choose the right meaning of a word according to the text	Find words from the text that mean this	Correct the relative pronouns	Fill in the gaps of the sentences using where or when	Rearranging letter to name people	
1.all purpose														0
2.General word							1	1	1					3
3. synonym/ antonym	3						5	3		6				17
4. using example														
5. definition/ description														
General word + relative clause						2	2		1		1		1	7
Phrases instead of adjectives describing qualities	1						1							2
structure					1									1
Purpose or function							1	2	9					12
Context or situation										3		3		6
6.approximations				1										1
7.paraphrasing		5	4						6					15
8.self-correction														0
Totals	4	5	4	1	1	2	10	12	11	9	1	3	1	64
	17						47							

A- Tasks that requires linguistic production and/or discussion

a. **Work out the meaning of the words from the context (the other word around it**):

The following task in WS3, counted once in the whole sample, asks the students to read a text and then explain the meaning of specific words. It relates to the **synonym/antonym** type of CSs:

Work out the meanings of these words from the context (the other words around it).

1. Including (paragraph 1) _____

2. Corridor (paragraph 2) _____

3. kids (paragraph 4) _____

b. **Explain in your own words**: only one occurrence was recorded, and five cases of **paraphrasing** considered in the analysis relate to this task, coded T1, as the key answers. Students in W1 are asked to read a text first and then explain the following phrases:

1. Say a big thank you ... (paragraph 1)

2. ... thank goodness! (Paragraph 4)

3. Seconds felt like minutes

Workbook A
Tell students to study the extracts in the text. Elicit possible explanations from different students.
Answers:
1. ... say thank you very much for me ...
2. ... I felt very happy and wanted to say thank you to God!

c. **Explain these phrases**: this activity was recorded in TL2 as follows:

C Read the extracts from Text C and explain these phrases in Arabic to your partner

1. ...she's a good friend.

2. ... I often have to choose between her and them ...

3. ... I would try to change their attitude ...

The teacher's book requires the teachers to elicit answers as a class in English and the given answers relate to the **paraphrasing strategy**.

> d. **Describe these words**: One task asks the students to describe different diseases and one of the answers relates to the **approximation strategy**. This type seems very similar to the "**describe the strange concept**" task. However, it was impossible to decide whether the target items/concepts were strange since they are the names of known diseases.

> e. **Give a clue about an object without naming it:** this relates to the definition or description (structure) type of CSs:

Work in pairs. Student A, choose a planet from the list, but do not tell your partner its name. Give your partner a clue. Student B, say which planet you think it is.

Example:

Student A: It has more moon than mars but not as many as Uranus

Student B: It must be Neptune.

Closure

Write these three words on the board after the students have closed their books: clock, watch, calendar Ask students to think about definition for each one. Then check their answers. They should produce answers like these: A clock is an instrument for measuring and showing time. A watch is a small clock which is word or carried in a pocket.

> f. **Think of a definition:** The following activity in TS3 contained three instances of the definition or description types of CSs in the suggested answers.

This types of exercise, with a sample answer containing an instance of CSs asking the students to make a comparison between two planets, could allow the other person to guess the target item, may be typical in terms of exposing students to ways of negotiating meaning, if the other person cannot recognise the answer instantly, so that the answer provided (it must be Jupiter) could be replaced by a confirmation check, such as (is it Jupiter?). On the other hand, the students who give the clues could use

other types of CSs to describe the planet and could use negotiation of meaning by giving help.

B- Tasks that do not require linguistic production/discussion: this group of tasks share one feature which in that they do not involve the students in language production for their answers, as these are already provided, and the students merely need to link the concepts. However, the fact that the teachers are sometimes instructed to arrange their students into groups or pairs to find the answers should not be ignored because the performance of this activity may lead to verbal production and/or discussion or negotiation of meaning. This means that the teachers need to monitor the groups/pairs' performance to ensure that the students use L2 to negotiate and discuss the answers. The use of these tasks will be explored during the interviews.

1- **Match the words to their meaning**: This task was recorded twice in the two workbooks for year two and year three (scientific) and related to different strategies: general word, synonym/antonym, (definition/ description) general word + relative clause, (definition/ description) structure, and approximation. In TS3, the task instructions require the students to work in pairs and find the words in the text, work out the meaning and then conduct matching.

2- **Match the words to their definition**: three workbooks contain cases of this task, which relate to different types of strategies: synonym/antonym, paraphrasing, all-purpose word, (definition/description) general word, and (definition/description) purpose or function; see an example below:

---

4 match the following words from paragraph 2 of Text A on Course Book page 31 to their definition

1. Borrow ☐   a) Decide what to choose
2. Weapon ☐   b) Stop something happening
3. Neighbour ☐   c) Someone who lives next or next to your home
4. Make a choice ☐   d) Take something from another person to give later
5. A promise ☐   e) A strong agreement to do something

The teacher book offers different ways of implementing this task. This extra instruction below has the potential to relate to the "identify the familiar object" in respect to the word "weapon":

3- **The right meaning of the word according to the text**: this task was **Choose**, included in WL2, and relates to three strategies: all-purpose word, general word, and (definition/description) purpose or function. The teachers' instructions are added as follows and state the link to the reading skill:

B *Find these words in the text on Course Book page 55. Choose the meaning that you think is correct. DON'T use a dictionary but use the text to help you.*

1. *Literature (paragraph 1)* — *writing philosophy / writing stories and novels*
2. *Province (paragraph 2)* — *a region / Al Hijaz*
3. *Loudspeakers (paragraph 3)* — *a person who speaks loudly / sound equipment*
4. *Architecture (paragraph 4)* — *style of building / modern city design*
5. *Wind instrument (paragraph 5)* — *an instrument you blow / a North African instrument*

Workbook B

Write the words on the board. Elicit ideas as to their meaning. Explain that they must work out the meaning of the words as they are used in the text and they must use the text- not a dictionary- to help them. This is an important reading skill.

4- **Find words in the text that mean this (a word/phrase/sentence)**: This activity is repeated in different workbooks: WL2, WS3 year 3, and WL3. It was presented similarly in these books, and the teachers' books do not include extra suggestions or alternative methods of implementation. The example below relates to WS3, and the

activity is introduced as follows:

> **B** *Read again the text in Exercise D on Course Book page 51.*
>
> *Then find words in the text which match the following*.
>
> 1. *Thought up invented (verb)* _____
> 2. *Thin, slim (adjective)* _____
> 3. *Can be carried (adjective)* _____
> 4. *Object, tool (noun)* _____
> 5. *Line up one thing with another (verb)* _____

The teacher's book's instructions are clear and direct:

> **Workbook B**
> *Get students to read the text about early clocks in the Course Book again and fine words which mean the same as those in the exercise*
> *Answer:*
>
> 1. *Devised*
> 2. *Slender*
> 3. *Portable*
> 4. *Device*
> 5. *Align*

5- **Correct the relative pronoun in the sentence:** This activity was presented once in the grammar lesson of WL2 and included "the general word + relative clause" strategy type:

> **C** *There is a mistake with the relative pronoun who is most of these sentences. One sentence is correct. Correct the sentences that are wrong*.
>
> *Example: Mahfouz is a writer which who has won the Nobel prize*
>
> 1. *The great al-Haram mosque, that contains the Kaaba in its grounds, is situated in Mecca.*
> 2. *The Moors were Arabs and other people which lived in north-west Africa.*
> 3. *Couscous is a food that is eaten in a lot in Arab countries*
> 4. *My friend Salem is learning to play the oud who is father gave to him.*
> 5. *Misurata, who is situated in 200 kilometres east of Tripoli, is Libya's third largest city.*

6- **Fill in the gaps in these sentences using what, where, or when**: WL2 contains the following activity that included three examples of "context or situation" strategy. The teacher's book's instructions suggest an extra activity in

order orally to practise the rule, which seems to have a link to the "describe the strange gadget, cultural concept or other unfamiliar objects or concepts" task:

> *Answers:*
>   1. *Tripoli is **where** most government buildings are located.*
>   2. *Tuesday is **when** we have our sports lessons.*
>   3. *'Excuse me' Is **what** you sat when you want to ask a stranger a question.*
>   4. *I'm not sure **what** I am doing this weekend.*
>   5. *Salem is not sure **where** he's going for his holidays.*
>   6. *The science laboratory is **where** we study physics and chemistry.*
>   7. *Winter is **when** we usually repair our houses.*
>   8. *This hotel is **where** we stayed last time we were here.*
>
> **Closure**
>
> *Ask students for information about important cultural sites and sates in their city or town Encourage such language as it's in the place where   … / it's when . . .*

7-Rearranging letters to name people

> *A Rearrange the letters to name the people.*
>   1. *Someone who studies the stars and planets*
>   *oensorartm _____*
>   2. *Someone who works with numbers and calculations*
>   *maemthiactian _____*
>   3. *A man who lives in a religious community*
>   *konm _____*

4.5.6 Summary of the category "Text" in relation to CSs type

The results of the CSs analysis show that only six of the total 88 instances were noted in the texts, which relates to five types of strategies. These texts will be presented in the following section:

1- **All-purpose** word type of CSs:

- W1 contains the following texts from the reading lesson:

155

> **C** *Read about the two cars in the picture on Course Book page 54. Then answer the questions below.*
>
> *The new car belongs the teacher, Dr   Shakir Mansour. The very old one belongs to one of the students, Hisham Ali. They live in the same street, seven kilometres from college. Dr Mansour has worked at the college for eight years. He says, 'When I started work here the journey took ten minutes. Now it takes 30 minutes because there are too many cars on roads. And smell of exhausts is terrible!'*
>
> *1. what should people like Dr Mansour and Hisham do? Which of these suggestions do you like most/least?*

- The transcripts in TS2 of a listening lesson:

> **Transcript**: CS2
>
> *Son: Oh, look! It's the solar system. Which planet is Jupiter?*
>
> *Father: Jupiter's the biggest one.*
>
> *Son: Which one is March?*
>
> *Father: That one. The one nearest to Earth.*

2- The general word + relative clause:

- The main reading passage in the reading lesson in CS2 comprises an instance of this strategy. The one below from WS2 was coded in a lesson called versus and bacteria:

> **A** *Read the dictionary entry. Answer the questions.*
>
> *1. Which words do scientist use for gems?*
>
> *_____*
>
> *2. Underline the defining relative clause.*
> *3. Give definition of a virus. Write one sentence.*
>
> *_____*
>
> **Pathogens** are parasitic organisms which live in or off the body. Viruses and bacteria are pathogens. They damage cells in the body and cause disease.

4.5.7 Discussion of the Findings of the Additional Analysis

The additional analysis, which linked the analysis of MESA and TSAA, revealed the relationship between the tasks and their potential outcomes expected from the learners being offered suggested answers in the teachers' books. It reflected the prevalent possible focus on developing linguistic knowledge. In this case, the task, "**describe the strange gadget, cultural concept or other unfamiliar objects or concepts**", was compatible with the largest number of 'giving definition' strategy.

This also suggested that additional tasks, that can be useful for encouraging the use of CSs, are rare. These are enclosed in the teacher books and workbooks, and list alternative ways of expressing ideas, rephrasing and giving meaning from the text context. Specifically, activities offer the students the chance to articulate their own ideas in the target language, which is the main concern of CSs researchers (Iwai, 2001). This is what defines strategic competence: "the ability to generate many alternative ways of saying something" (Tarone, 2016, p.219). Nonetheless, the probable link between using MES through vocabulary learning tasks may not be anticipated (Faucette, 2001) since the findings show that the majority of instances of MES are not communicative in nature.

An additional feature noted from this analysis is that occurrences of MES representing lexical language were provided as fixed answers, disregarding the idea that there might be other ways of defending or describing things. This remark may provide evidence that accuracy is emphasised in the current materials. This can be better understood considering the argument of Richards (2006, p.14) on the contradiction between accuracy and fluency (see Table 4.17). That is, the use of CSs distinguishes activities aimed at fluency, whereas control choice of language can refer to a focus on accuracy. Additionally, LaBelle (2010), when analysing the learning strategies in middle school text books, suggested that there is a need to investigate qualitatively students' interactions and responses to material by considering that diversity in learning styles and preferences is vital. Incompatibility between the student's style, strategy preferences, the instructional procedure and the materials can lead to students' common poor performance, lack of confidence, and anxiety (Oxford, 2001).

Table 4. 17 Fluency vs accuracy (developed from Richards, 2006, p.14)

Activities focusing on fluency	Activities focusing on accuracy
Reflect natural use of language	Reflect classroom use of language
Focus on achieving communication	Focus on the formation of correct examples of language
Require meaningful use of language	
Require the use of communication strategies	Practice language out of context
	Practice small samples of language
Produce language that may not be predictable	Do not require meaningful communication

With respect to the preceding considerations, the findings produced by exploring the types and frequency of the tasks and activities in the Libyan coursebook materials seem to be in line with previous claims regarding the lack of focus on CSs in the EFL classroom, including the findings of those few studies investigating CSs in the teaching materials.

The current findings are compatible with those of Faucette (2001), showing the lack of variety in the activities designed to develop strategic competence, which are restricted to describing and defining tasks. Iwai (2001) argues that the lack of sufficient exercises to practise CSs in the materials may be due to the appropriateness of the CSs, particularly for beginner language learners. This may be irrelevant to the Libyan classroom, considering that the materials are designed for students of intermediate level with past language learning experience in preparatory school which suggests that at least third year students may not be beginners.

4.6 Summary and Reflections

As explained in Chapter Three, this investigation is based on building up knowledge from each of its three research instruments, and the three main classroom components of materials, teachers and students. The findings of each research instrument will inform the construction or design of the subsequent instrument/s. Therefore, the selected taxonomy of CSs and the adopted list of tasks and activities will be used to construct the questionnaire design.

The findings from the materials analysis emphasised the need to explore the students and teachers' perceptions of the materials' content, investigate the task and activities implementation, and more importantly to establish the teachers' understanding of CSs, since they are not instructed in the materials. As highlighted in Chapter Two, feedback and scaffolding are important in CLT and for language learning, according to CST. Thus, the teachers' reactions to the students' communicative difficulties will be investigated further in the questionnaires. Additionally, the use of group or pair work, as an important feature that can affect strategies' use, will be explored. Nonetheless, the questionnaires will investigate the use of the workbooks since they include some important tasks. There are also some instances of MES in the extra activities in the teachers' book so it is necessary to explore the teachers' use of the teachers' books' instructions.

4.7 Possible Limitations of the Materials Analysis

In this research, the quantitative content analysis was useful in providing an account of some of the general trends in the materials for this MMR. However, it was restricted in its ability to provide in-depth knowledge about the tasks and activities. Therefore, I suggest that CSs research, based on the teachers' materials, would require the use of both qualitative and quantitative content analysis to provide more resourceful pedagogical recommendations regarding the different tasks and possible ways to improve their instructions, especially for EFL teachers with limited linguistic and pedagogical competence.

4.8 Conclusion

An analysis of the Libyan schools' materials aimed to answer the first research questions (RQ1/1A) and provided a descriptive illustration of the materials' approaches (explicit or implicit) in offering instances of CSs and tasks that can encourage CSs use. It revealed the potential presence of CSs and the targeted tasks, the characteristics and objective of the tasks and activities and their relationship to potential occurrences of CSs. These findings are discussed according to the materials' content and the possible implications of their design and provide some understanding of the possible role of materials in the development of strategic competence. Noticeably, the findings related to MES were associated with lessons developing linguistic knowledge. The tasks and activities were limited in type and number, and also in their relationship to certain MES.

The findings indicate that CSs are limited in terms of their type and availability in the different materials relating to the different grades. The possible focus on form is linked to the dominance of MES and absences of MNS. The issue of implicitness could imply that the MEs resulting from the analysis might not be useful in teaching/raising awareness of CSs directly (explicitly) but can be useful to develop linguistic competence, i.e., grammar and vocabulary development and other skills needed to perform CSs. The findings, thus, advocate that more opportunities to develop CSs can be achieved by students engaging in tasks and activities using pair and group work and during classroom interaction with their teachers, which can offer examples or instructions regarding CSs use. The teachers' practices, including feedback, can be of equal value.

However, the current findings mainly demonstrate the materials' role in potentially developing CSs, which was one of the aims of the current research, but students'

exposure to the materials' content and their ability to use strategies during their classroom interactions depends on the teachers' awareness and understanding of CSs and on the classroom practices, especially the task and activities implementation. Faucette (2001, p.27) maintained that "the students' needs, teaching context, available resources, and creativity of the teacher could suggest other possibilities" that improve the materials' content. Therefore, the teachers and students' perceptions and practices, that shape both the teaching and learning processes and outcomes, are explored in the next two phases of this research. The students and teachers' perceptions of the role of the materials' content in developing speaking skills will be explored in the questionnaires to add to my views about the materials that could reduce the researcher bias. The questionnaires and interviews will provide a clearer understanding of the role of the Libyan classroom in developing CSs, considering the teachers and students' perceptions about CSs use in their classroom and the tasks and activities, as revealed from the different analysis.

Chapter Five Teachers and Students' Questionnaires (Procedures, data analysis and findings)

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents description, analysis and discussion of the data obtained from the close-ended questions from the teachers and students self-report questionnaires. Questionnaires were administered randomly to Libyan teachers and students in many Libyan secondary schools during the second phase of data collection. The analysis of this data would provide a broad spectrum overview of the Libyan classroom based on the participants' perceptions. These findings will be presented and concisely discussed in three main sections: the background of the participant groups, their perceptions of the meaning expression and meaning negotiation strategies and the implementation of the tasks and activities. This chapter concludes with a summary of the main findings that will premise an overview of some considerations and issues to be investigated in the interviewing phase.

5.2 Questionnaires Samples

The fifty-five Libyan teachers and the fifty-two students participated by filling in questionnaires. They were selected by means of non-probability sampling rather than the probability sampling technique. In the first, "some members of the wider population definitely will be excluded and others definitely included and the chances of members of the wider population being selected for the sample are unknown", while the in the other "the chances of members of the wider population being selected for the sample are known" and these can be randomly chosen (Cohen et al., 2013, p.153) to achieve representativeness that can be important to some studies than others (Punch & Oancea, 2014).

This design has been selected for two reasons. First, it was not possible for me to have access to the entire population, which probability sampling is based on. Second, it is because the main target of this research is not to generalize the results (Rossiter, 2005; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2013, 2017). Therefore, the non-probability sampling is thought to be an appropriate and convenient approach for this investigation. The sample choice here is based on availability, accessibility, and/ or readiness for participation (Teddlie & Yu, 2007) and the 'easy to access and inexpensive to study' relates to convenience sampling (Suri, 2011, p.71). Since my participants were contacted via their emails or their schools' offices, some of them who are unreachable or unwilling to take

part were excluded. The questonnire design, affected by ethical and cultural considerations could not offer detail description of the sample such as teachers' experiences and educational backgrounds.

5.3 Administering the Questionnaires

The final English questionnaires' versions were distributed before the end of November 2015. The online survey remained open for 11 weeks until obtaining a sufficient number of responses, that can be statistically analysed, was obtained. English versions were sent to the teachers, who have been acknowledged that an Arabic version can be offered on request. An Arabic version was sent to the students since their linguistic abilities are not assessed. Based on the assumptions made in this research and on literature, the English version could presumably affect students' understanding.

The process of filling in the questionnaires was completed in two different ways. Most of the teachers and students used the electronic links to their questionnaires sent through the school pages, and through personal emails to some of the teachers who responded individually. Other students from the schools filled in hard copies of the questionnaires during a school day. My relatives monitored this process to offer help because the questionnaires questions were explained to them. They were responsible for collecting the completed questionnaires and made sure the students will not be enforced to participate.

5.4 Management of Questionnaires' Data

The questionnaires' data collected electronically via Survey Monkey was ready for the analysis. The other set of data contained in hard copies was manually exported into Survey Monkey so that the entire responses can then be transformed into descriptive data into Excel, SPSS and pdf files containing all summary data and full detailed data for each participant. The two questionnaires produced qualitative and quantitative data, which entail using different data analysis techniques. The first set of data was analysed using qualitative content analysis and the second was processed using the SPSS software.

5.5 Approaches and procedures to quantitative data analysis

As explained earlier (see Section 3.10.1.1) teachers and students' questionnaires were intended to provide descriptive quantitative data about communication strategies (CSs), the related practices, including language use and task implemented in the different classroom represented by students and teachers from their own view. The

questionnaires in this research are aimed at partially answering the following research questions:

RQ2- What are the teachers' and students' perceptions of their knowledge, use and teaching of CSs in the classroom?

RQ1/B- Are the related tasks and activities implemented in the classroom and in what ways?

The responses from fifty-five teachers and fifty-two students from different Libyan schools provided data on the perceived knowledge, use, and teaching and benefits of CSs. The responses obtained also reflected the perceived frequency of their use of the tasks and activities and some other related practices. These responses, obtained from the two questionnaires, were directly exported from Survey Monkey into SPSS version 19 and MS Excel, where the first tool enabled checking errors and was used for statistical analysis and the other used to design graphs and organise the qualitative data from the open-ended questions.

5.5.1 Descriptive statistics

After cleaning and cross checking the data against the original questionnaires to certify the accuracy, I analysed the data using descriptive statistics to provide further knowledge about the study sample (Simpson, 2015) used in MMR projects as the researcher is aware of the rationale for doing this (Woodrow, 2014). Adopting descriptive analysis as the main approach for analysis was guided by inspecting Gould & Ryan (2015) and Greenfield (2016) and others and on statistician advice in Sheffield Hallam University which provided me with further understanding of the data types and suitability to relevant statistics.

My decision regarding the analysis of the research data in general and the quantitative data in particular was established on "iterative-analytic", where prior and a posteriori decision can be used (Combs & Onwuegbuzie, 2010). Descriptive statistics were decided prior to data collection being "the first step in nearly any data analysis situation to describe or summarize the data collected on a set of participants that constitute the sample of interest". They can be used to mainly analyse all research data and they can be combined with more advanced analytical measures (Mertler & Reinhart, 2016, p.7).

My research questions, aims and objectives stimulated the questionnaire designhas also affected the research outcomes and data analysis (Simpson, 2015). When targeted

"research question is descriptive in nature, the researcher should select from the arsenal of descriptive statistics (i.e., measures of central tendency, measures of variability/dispersion, measures of position/location)" (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006, p.488) which allow the researcher to convey data into interpretable forms, such as frequency distributions, means and averages (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). I had also allowed some flexibility for the use of additional inferential statistics tests according to the characteristics of the accessible participants' samples, which are grounded on a hypothesis of random representative choice of cases and error rates in derivative assessments when population characteristics are comparative to sample size (Martínez-Mesa, González-Chica, Duquia, Bonamigo, & Bastos, 2016).

Two questionnaires' sections exploring meaning expression strategies (MES) and meaning negotiation strategies (MNS) provided nominal data (Appendix D4 ,5). These entail the use of certain types of statistical analysis such as frequencies, percentages and that data obtained from the ranking scale investigating the tasks and activities in the classroom provided ordinal data which also implicate the use of frequencies and means. Mean scores are very common and most effective measure valued because it considers the "actual values of all scores in a distribution" (Mertler & Reinhart, 2016, p.8).

When the quantitative data were analysed using descriptive statistics, the participants' demographics and the number of the participants discouraged possibilities for using inferential statistics to detect statistically significant results in this study useful for comparisons on different school years. The sample selection and size also bound the type of statistical procedures and the capability to generalise to a larger population (Martínez-Mesa et al., 2016). The Libyan teachers and students were not selected randomly, and the samples size obtained were relatively small and the subgroups varied in size (three different grades) and relate to different schools which limited the benefits and opportunity of inferential tests. Thus, the descriptive statistics can provide an initial understanding of the phenomenon that will be developed by the qualitative data the next phase.

The analysis of the students and teachers' questionnaire are presented in three main sections: meaning expression strategies (MES), meaning negotiation strategies (MNS), and tasks and activities. This section will present the results obtained in tables containing percentages and frequencies which describe the different perceptions and behaviours, whereas figures will describe possible trends from the results. Tables and

graphs can enable a better understanding of the quantitative findings to the readers (Woodrow, 2014), which seems to be suitable for the current research.

5.6 Quantitative data findings

The quantitative findings showing the demographic information, perceptions of MES and MNS and perceptions of tasks and activities will be presented and discussed in the following sections. Full details of the different results can be seen in Appendix D4, 5.

5.6.1 Background information

Demographic data obtained from the participants were restricted to gender and school year for ethical and theoretical considerations discussed earlier in chapter 3 and was used to analyse the participant's sample in this study.

- **Gender**

Figure 5.1 and Figure 2.5 illustrate the participants' gender. They show that more than half of the students' respondents (**55.8%**) are female and **44.2%** are male and that the number of the female teachers (**63.6%**) is higher than that of the male teachers (**36.3%**). Therefore, it can be said the research sample contains more females than males. Although gender might have an impact on the findings, the current research is not interested to examine this issue. However, I can explain that one of the remarkable characteristics in the Libyan educational system is that females are more involved than males in the teaching careers for different cultural and religious consideration (Abusrewel, 2014). Researcher findings on the Libyan public schools conveyed similar findings (Alkhboli, 2014).
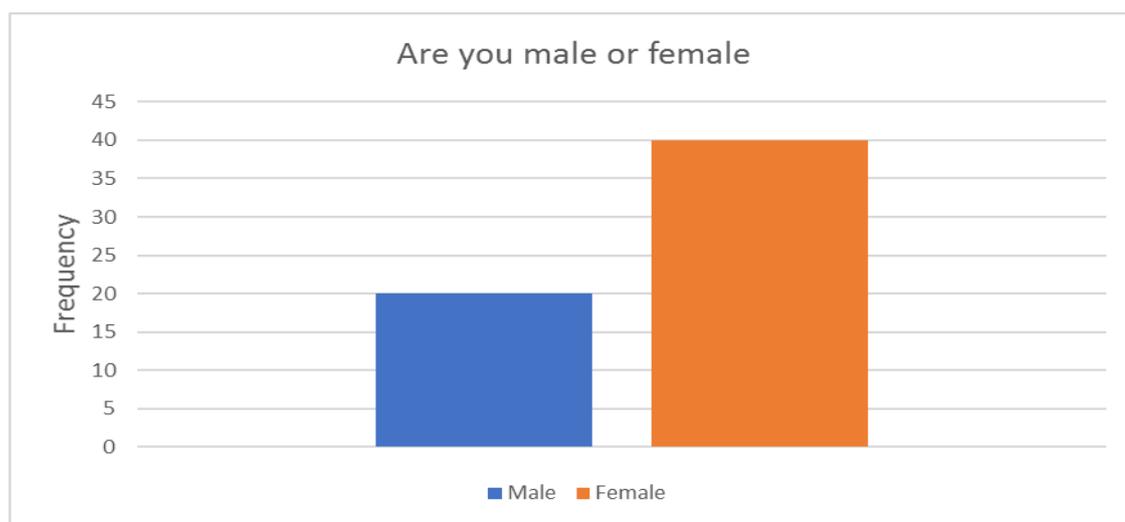
Figure 5. 1 Students gender (n= 52)
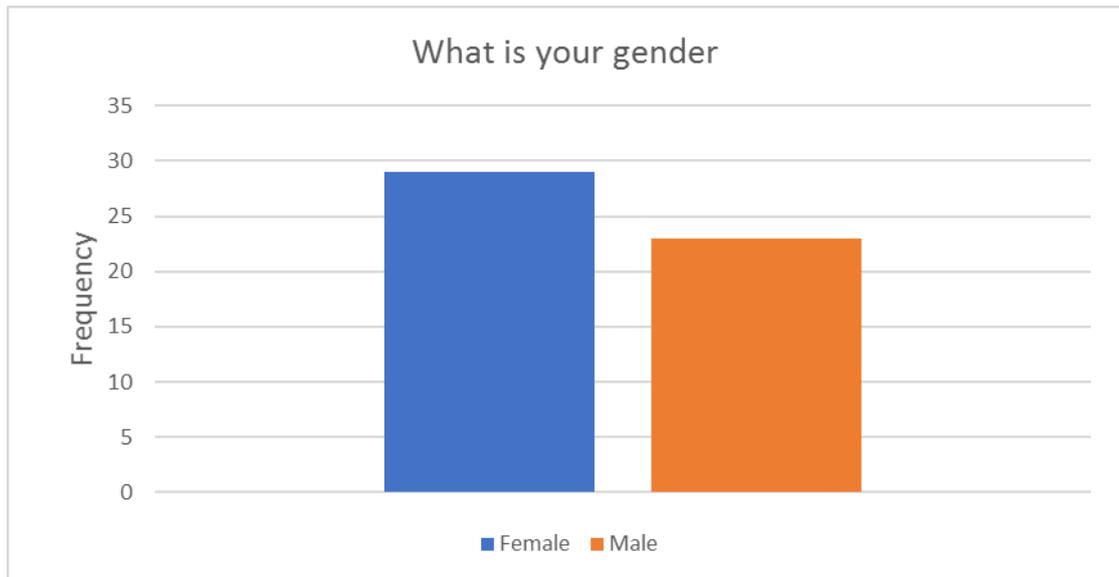
Figure 5. 2 Teachers Gender (n=55)

- **School grades (Years)**

The distribution of the research sample for the different grades of secondary education presented in Figure 5.3 shows that the third-year students represent the majority of the sample, students from second years, scientific and literacy department, are 35 in total and those from first years are only four students in total. In respect of the teachers' sample, demonstrated in Figure 5.4, there is a more comparable spread of the number of teachers representing the three grades among teachers than among the students. Nevertheless, the numbers of the participants who teach third-year grades are slightly larger (n= 22) whereas the first-year teachers are the smallest group (n=17). Therefore, it can be said that the third year has more representativeness in this research than in the other two grades.
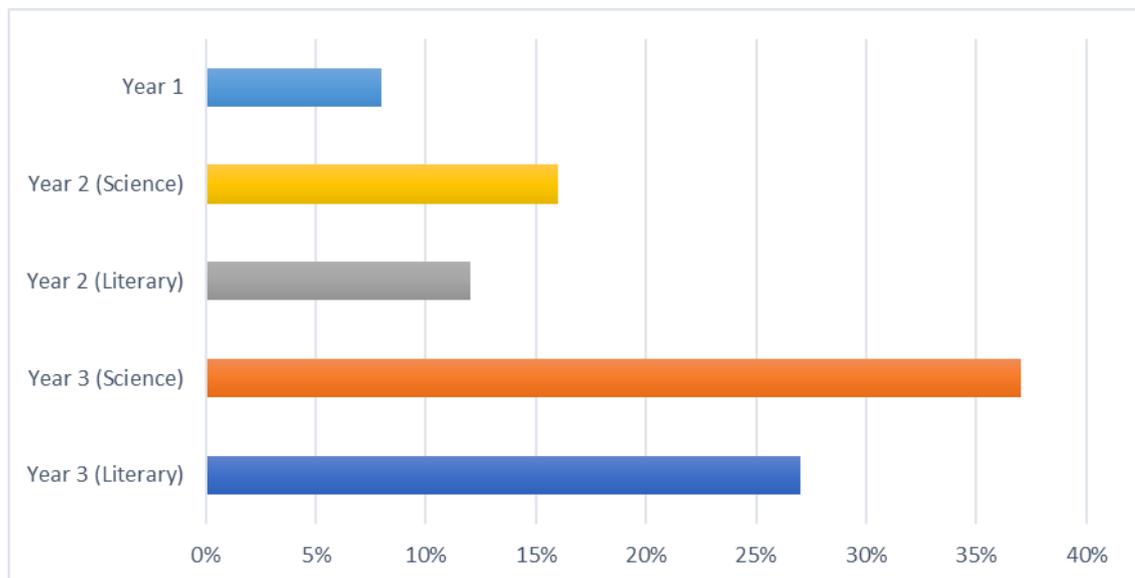
Figure 5. 3 Students year of study (n=51)
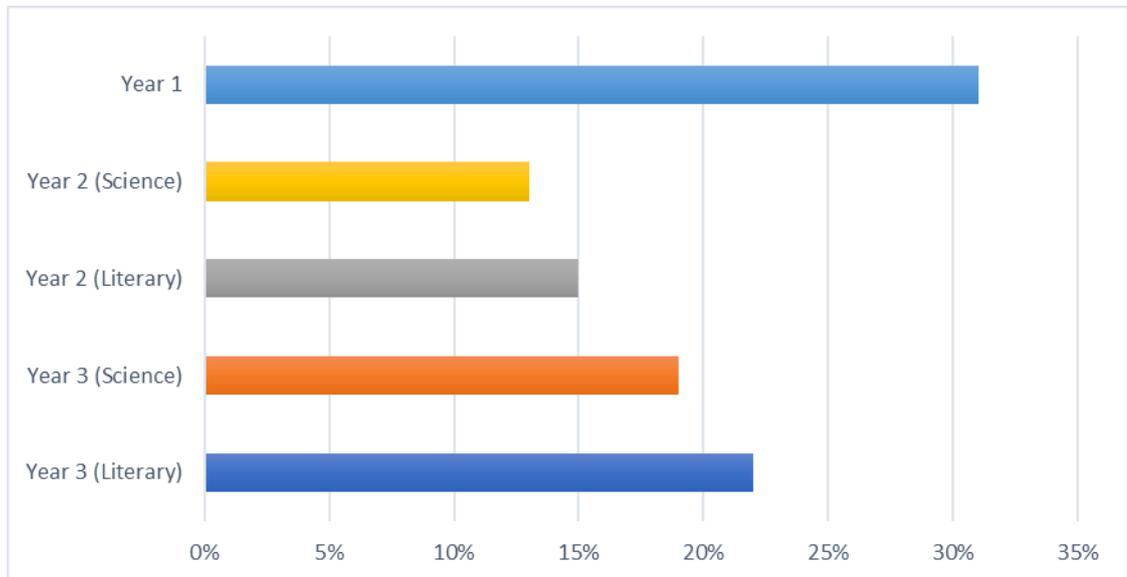
Figure 5. 4 Teachers year of teaching (n=54)

5.6.2 Perceptions of MES and MNS in the Libyan classroom

Teachers and student's questionnaires offered data about the perceptions of MES and MNS use, teaching in the Libyan classrooms. Some marked features about these aspects were noticed when examining and comparing the overall trends of the findings before conducting a thorough examination of the two questionnaires. That is, the percentages and frequencies of the responses related to the first options in both of the questionnaires such as "Yes, I know about it", "Yes I use it", "Yes, I teach it and it is useful" are the highest values whereas the other categories which show uncertainty or reject the first category are the least reported and they are similar in many occasions. An example of this can be seen in Figure 5.5 which represents the teachers' knowledge of MES (see full version of the questionnaires in Appendix D.2). These results will be the focus of this section as it covers the majority of the responses and because it seems to be the most important. The responses related to MES and MNS are presented in Tables 5.1 and 5.2, whereas the results reported about the frequency of implementing the tasks and activities will be presented in Table 5.3.

A- Do you know about it

Categories (top to bottom):
- 10- Correcting myself when
- 9- Repeating a sentence in
- 8- Expressing the similari
- 7- Using a description
- 6- Using a definition
- 5- Using an example of
- 4- Using an opposite word
- 3- Using a word with th…
- 2- Using a word that is roug….
- 1- Using a general word

X-axis: 0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

Legend: ■ Yes, I know about it   ■ No, I do not know about it   ■ I am not sure

Figure 5. 5 Teachers questionnaire (MES)

Conversely, the results regarding teachers reporting students CSs use and those related to students reporting their teachers' strategies use were not very different and the choice "don't know" and " not sure" were less variant, see Figure 5.6 for details. These two trends of the data might not be unusual considering that both groups of the participants are more capable to report information about themselves rather than reporting other people's behaviour. This could possibly suggest that the data obtained in those categories cannot be regarded confirmatory, but it could also suggest that my participants were trying to give accurate answers more than making random choices if this is compared to the trends discussed earlier. The questionnaire data will highlight general trends which will be investigated in more depth in the interviews and will be integrated with all the research findings in chapter seven. Nonetheless, other issues emerging from the open-ended questions from both of the questionnaires are aimed at offering more understanding of the quantitative findings, where the students' voices will be heard.
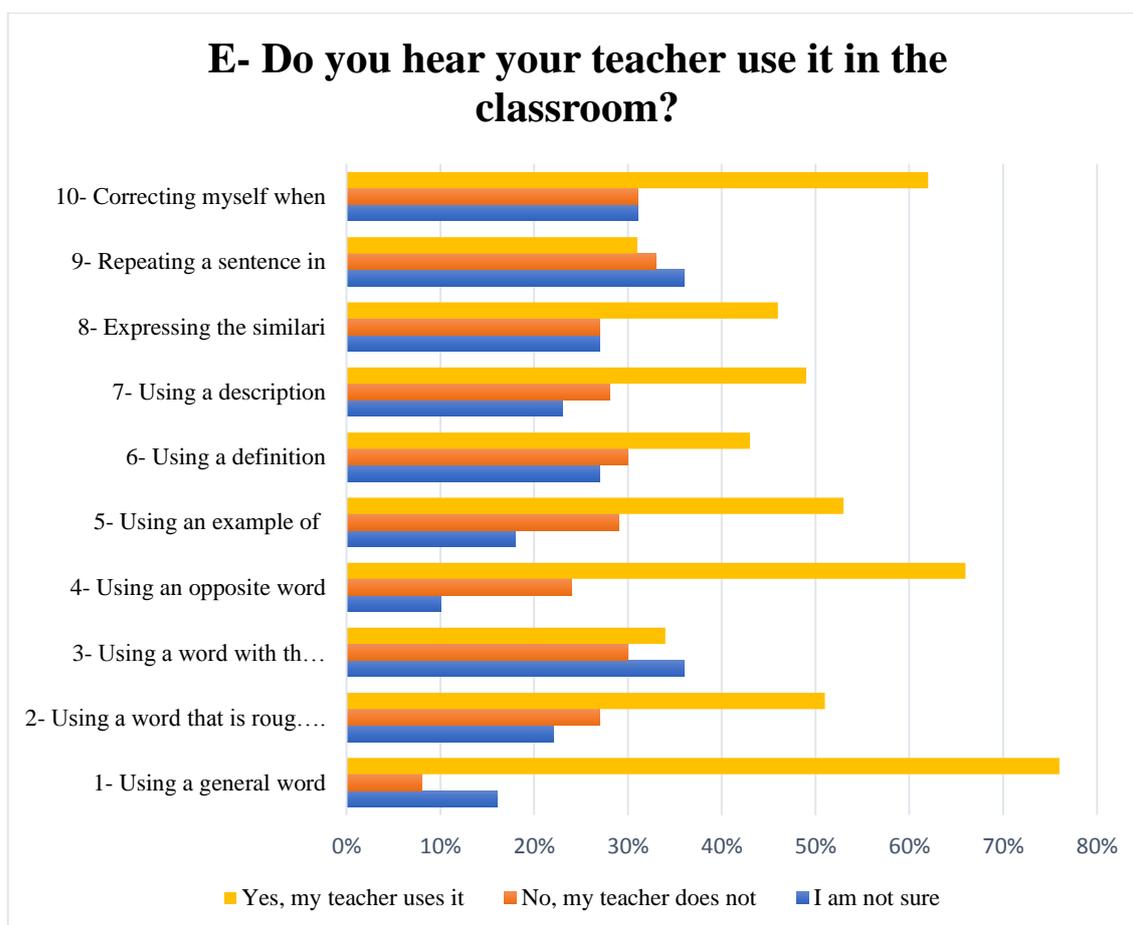
Figure 5. 6 students' questionnaire (MES)

5.6.3 Meaning expression strategies (MES)

Table 5.1 presents the results of the two questionnaires. Teachers' questionnaire shows that the teachers' perceived knowledge, represented by the choice "yes, I know about it" is considerably high and it ranges between **74%** (approximation and paraphrasing) and **87%** (all-purpose word and general word). Also, the lowest is **53.7%** (general word) and their highest perceived use of the MES strategies, represented by "yes, I use it", is **84.6 %** (all-purpose word), and their proposed percentage for teaching and usefulness (yes, I teach it and it is useful) of these skills vary between **51.8%** (general word and using examples) and **68.5%** (definition and description). The teachers' reported use of MES of their students, represented by the choice "yes, they use it", is relatively low in general where the highest score is **58.4%** (all-purpose word) and the lowest score is **28.3%** (paraphrasing).

Table 5. 1 Teachers and Students perception of MES

MES	Teachers Questionnaire (%) + frequency				Students Questionnaire (%) + frequency			
	Teachers' Knowledge (yes, I know about it)	Teachers' use (Yes, I use it)	Teaching / usefulness (yes, and it is useful)	Students' Use (yes, they use it)	Students' Knowledge (yes, I do)	Students' use (yes, I use it)	Teaching/ usefulness (yes, and it is useful)	Teachers' Use (yes, my teacher uses it)
1- all purpose word	87 % (48)	84.6% (46)	56.3% (31)	58.4% (31)	90% (47)	80% (40)	66.6% (32)	75.5% (37)
2- General word	87% (48)	53.7% (29)	51.8% (28)	42% (22)	76.9% (40)	53% (26)	54% (27)	51% (25)
3- synonym / antonym	83.6% (46)	73.5% (39)	64.1% (34)	46% (24)	63.4% (33)	38.7% (19)	44.9% (22)	34% (17)
	83.6% (46)	68.5% (37)	61.1% (33)	52.8% (28)	88.4% (46)	65.3% (32)	67.3% (33)	65.3% (17)
4- using example	75.9% (41)	64.7% (33)	52.9% (27)	41% (21)	80.7% (42)	63% (31)	64% (32)	53% (26)
5-definition/ description	83% (45)	77.7% (42)	68.5% (37)	50% (27)	67.3% (35)	50% (25)	44.9% (22)	42.8% (21)
	79.6% (43)	75.4% (40)	67.9% (36)	56.6% (30)	74.5% (38)	60.4% (29)	56.2% (27)	48.9% (23)
6-approximations	75.9% (41)	69.8% (37)	54.7% (29)	41% (22)	80.3% (41)	62.5% (30)	58.3% (28)	45.8% (22)
7-paraphrasing	74% (40)	60.3% (32)	60.3% (32)	28.3% (15)	60.7% (32)	43.7% (21)	39.5% (19)	31.2% (15)
8- self correction	79.6% (43)	75.4% (40)	58.4% (31)	47% (25)	62.7% (32)	43.7% (21)	35.4% (17)	37.5% (18)

According to these results, it can be said that most of the Libyan teachers were aware of the different types of MES. They also had an awareness of their own implementation and their teaching of those strategies in the Libyan classrooms. Moreover, the Libyan teachers were aware and able to report MES used by their students. However, it is noticeable that their views varied about the different types of strategies.

On the other hand, comparing the results describing the teachers' knowledge with those representing their use and teaching and their students presented in Table 5.1, it is obvious that decreasing percentages show consistency. That is, the percentages representing the first choice for those four categories (knowledge, use, teaching, and students' use) are decreasing respectively. Furthermore, looking at the strategy of "general word", as one of the highest perceived strategy for teachers' awareness, its perceived use and teaching is the lowest. Moreover, consistency is reflected by comparing the strategies types (all-purpose word and "paraphrasing) in the lowest values of teachers' perceived knowledge with those of teachers' perceptions of their students. Noteworthy, these two strategies are different in terms of linguistic complexity.

The findings obtained from the students' questionnaire are like those of the teachers in that the positive responses (yes choices) representing the students' knowledge contained the highest percentages which vary between **90%** (all-purpose word) and **62.7 5%** (self-correction). The students' perceived use included the highest score of **80%** (all-purpose word) and **38.7%** (synonym). The teaching and usefulness of the strategies' question range between **67.3%** (synonym) and **35.4%** (self-correction). The teacher's highest use is **75.5%** (all-purpose word) and the lowest is **31.2 %** (paraphrasing).

These results might suggest that the Libyan students are aware of MES, that these strategies are used by their teachers and that they have taught them in the classroom. However, the teaching and the use of the strategies are not in line with each other in terms of frequency of the responses of "yes, I use it "and of "yes, I have been taught this". Here, it is worth noting that students' results are not directly comparable to the teachers' results because we do not know if they are referring to the same classrooms.

Overall, when comparing the data about MES from both questionnaires, no substantial observations are noticed. However, two strategies "all-purpose word" and "paraphrasing" are exceptions. That is, the first type is perceived as the highest relevance to the classrooms in regard to awareness and use, whereas the other is the least common. This might reflect that the type of the strategy with regard to the degree

of the complexity of the language needed to perform each strategy could possibly have an impact on its popularity in the investigated classrooms, where paraphrasing is more complex than an all-purpose word or general word. The strategies of "all-purpose word" and "general word" are considered to be one of the most common strategies among language learners in previous research (Dörnyei & Scott, 1995; Rababah & Seedhouse, 2004), due to their feasibility but it seems that they are also used by the Libyan teachers.

5.6.4 Meaning negotiation strategies (MNS)

Table 5.2 shows the most significant results about MNS obtained from the teachers' and the student's questionnaires (see Appendix D4, 5 for detailed results). As can be seen in the teachers' questionnaire, the percentages reporting the teachers' knowledge of MNS seem to be high in general and most of the teachers disclosed their knowledge of these strategies. This can be seen by looking at the highest percentage of **90.7 %** (asking the person to repeat) and lowest of **77.7%** (telling one's interlocutor that one cannot say or understand something). Also, the category investigating strategies use is not diverse because the highest score is **85 %** (Asking the person to repeat) and the lowest is **69.8%** (Repeating, summarize or paraphrase what I have heard and ask the person to confirm) which suggest that most of the participants are aware of MNS and are using them to teach English in their classrooms. On the other hand, the other two categories reflecting on the teaching and usefulness and the students' use of MNS decrease respectively as the table shows. The first category ranges between **83%** (Asking the person to repeat) and **60.3%** (Repeating, summarize or paraphrase what I have heard and ask the person to confirm), whereas, the other one ranges between **72.2%** (asking the person to repeat) and **37%** (asking the person to confirm what I am saying is correct).

The students' questionnaire reflected a range of perceptions about the different strategies. Their knowledge of MNS was common among most of the students and it ranges between **88.2%** (asking the person to clarify) and **56.8%** (repeating, supersizing or paraphrasing what I have heard and ask the person to confirm). Responses about strategies use, teaching and teachers' use were less common, compared to the previous category which could suggest that awareness of the strategies might not have a link to their use. Also, the findings show the students' perceptions of the specific types of strategies (asking the other person to slow down, spell or write something) is the most frequent in terms of strategies" use (**66.6%**), teaching and usefulness (**68.7%**).

Table 5. 2 Teachers and Students of MNS

MNS	Teachers questionnaire Yes answers: percentages (frequency)				Students Questionnaire Yes answers: percentages (frequency)			
	Knowledge	Teacher Use	Teaching and usefulness	Students use	Knowledge	Students Use	Teaching and usefulness	Teacher use
1-telling one's interlocutor that one cannot say or understand something	77.7% (42)	73.5% (39)	64% (34)	42.2% (24)	80.3% (41)	45.8% (22)	43.7% (21)	50% (24)
2- Asking the person to repeat	90.7% (49)	85% (46)	83% (45)	72.2% (39)	84.3% (43)	54% (26)	60.4% (29)	64.5% (31)
3- Asking the person to slow down, spell or write something,	85% (46)	74% (40)	70.3% (38)	57.4% (31)	86.2% (44)	66.6% (32)	68.7% (33)	56.2% (27)
4- Asking the person to say something in English	88.8% (48)	81.4% (44)	70.3% (38)	52.8% (28)	68.6% (35)	58.3% (28)	58.3% (28)	50% (24)
5- Giving an example, e, g., ask the person to clarify	88.8% (48)	83.3% (45)	72.2% (39)	55.5% (30)	88.2% (45)	60.4% (29)	62.5% (30)	60.4% (2)

Table 5.2 Teachers and Students of MNS (follow)

MNS	Teachers questionnaire Yes answers: percentages (frequency)				Students Questionnaire Yes answers: percentages (frequency)			
	Knowledge	Teacher use	Teaching and usefulness	Students use	Knowledge	Students Use	Teaching and usefulness	Teacher use
6- Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is understood	88.8% (48)	81.4% (44)	75.9% (41)	40.7% (22)	84.3% (43)	52% (25)	47.9% (23)	52% (25)
7- Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is correct	83.3% (45)	74% (40)	61% (33)	37% (20)	78.4% (40)	62.5% (30)	58.3% (28)	58.3% (28)
8- Repeating, summarize or paraphrase what I have heard and ask the person to confirm	81.4% (44)	69.8% (37)	60.3% (32)	39.6% (21)	56.8% (29)	33.3% (16)	35.4% (17)	31.2% (15)
9- Guessing the meaning and ask the person to confirm	79.6% (43)	76.9% (40)	65.3% (34)	55.7% (29)	76.4% (39)	62.5% (30)	47.9% (23)	50% (24)

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This could mean that those students moderately interact and negotiate meaning to understand difficult language. Similarly, the answers related to "repeating, summarizing or paraphrasing what I have heard and ask the person to confirm" were of the lowest frequency. It should be noted that the language needed to summarise, and paraphrase other people's talk requires a higher level of competence than the other strategies such as 'asking for repetition'.

5.6.5 Discussion of the findings of the Libyan teachers and student's perceptions of MES and MNS in their classrooms

As presented earlier, the teachers and students questionnaires offered data concerning perceptions of about strategies known, used, and taught in Libyan classrooms which will be discussed to offer an understanding of the prevalent findings.

Considering the strategies' awareness, most teachers' and students perceived that they are aware of MES and MNS. Awareness is useful for understanding the degree of consciousness of CSs use and instructions in classrooms. It can be of two levels, noticing (is the lower) and understanding (is the higher) (Oxford, 2017). The fact that strategies' teaching and use are both assumed to be available in some classrooms could suggest that many teachers and students hold knowledge of CSs. Also, since the perceived knowledge of the strategies seems to be common, particularly for the teachers, it can be assumed that the majority of the strategies they use and teach are consciousness. However, it is not possible to make affirmative claims using questionnaires findings, especially with regards to the arguments of Mariani (2010) and Faerch & Kasper (1983, p.35) suggesting that consciousness is "perhaps more a matter of degree than of either-or". This means that those assuming knowledge of CSs may differ in the way they perceive knowledge of strategies. Given this, knowledge perceived during data collection might be declarative or procedural (Ellis, 2015; Oxford, 2017). This will be discussed in relation to the materials analysis findings and the interviews findings.

The findings describing the perceived use of the strategies in the classroom, MES and MNS seem to be used by the teachers and students with variation regarding strategy types. These findings will be discussed with caution because they only offer a description of potential strategic behaviour. In other words, what might be perceived as a strategy would depend on the motives encouraging their use, although the questionnaires included statements explaining that strategies may be used as problem

solving and interactional techniques. This means the goal of strategy's use can clarify whether the investigated behaviour relates to language learning or language use (Cohen, 2007) (see Section 2.3.2.3) which also reflect on to the issue of intentionality that emphasises consciousness (Mariani, 2010). It implies learners' awareness of the problem and planning to reach a communicative goal, which differs from unconscious behaviours such as automotive skills. Additionally, the speakers' latent purpose may be to "enhance the effectiveness of communication" rather than to solve communication problem (Canale, 1983b, p.11). Nonetheless, since my questioners asked teachers' and learners to report on each, the argument of Cohen (1995, p.7) is considered. He stated that some strategies are:

> ….behavioural and can be directly observed (e.g., asking a question for clarification), others are mental and behavioural but not easily observable (e.g., paraphrasing), while others are just mental (e.g., making mental translations for clarification while reading) and must be accessed through other means, such as through verbal report.

Generally, my findings echo previous research to some extent, because Libyan students' use seems to be limited to some participants and to types of CSs, as they have been widely used by ESL/EFL learners in various research contexts and settings. Thus, this slightly agrees with the literature suggesting that most language learners are active strategy-users (Marefat and Barbari, 2009 in Kaivanpanah et al., 2012). However, the questionnaires' findings cannot be used to estimate factors and contexts related to strategies, which are important for enhanced recognition of the use of learner strategies "as a mediating tool between task characteristics and performance in a particular context" (Barkaoui et al., 2012, p.321).

Specifically, the choice of CSs can be affected by learners' personality and proficiency and by the task they are involved in (see Section 2.6.9). It can also be affected by context-based features such as the relation with the interlocutor involving a degree of formality, the time pressure, and whether the speaker's interest or the teaching approaches available to the individual are form or communication oriented (Mariani, 2010). A variety of factors can "influence strategy frequencies in any given category or

across categories for an individual or a group" which can be reflected by qualitative research tools (Oxford, 2017, p.316).

Most importantly, my interpretation of these findings considered the fact that learners' perceptions and their actual performance were consistent in some studies and contradictory in others (Moattarian, 2012) which encouraged researchers to highlit complexity and sensitivity of the strategic behaviour. For instance, Mohammadipour, Rashid, Rafik-Galea & Thai (2018) show that learners' positive emotions were replicated in more habitual and a variety of language learning strategies' use. Therefore, there is a difficulty in the generalisability of research findings and linking research findings to others in different contexts (Barrios, 2015).

Moreover, considering that Libyan teachers use CSs in their classroom, as they perceive, can assume that the current research agree with Willems (1987) who asserts that strategy use is a natural and common behaviour in teachers' talk when they face communicative problem as suggested in research, such as that of Sarab (2003). He found out that strategies' use is essential for native and non-native teachers in teaching classrooms and it varies in frequency due to the nature of tasks and teaching focus.

At this stage of understanding, it is believed that since a remarkable number of the Libyan students and teachers acknowledged their awareness of CSs it can be argued that most of their perceived use of different strategies can be based on consciousness. Additionally, linking students' awareness of MES and MNS with the findings suggesting that some useful CSs instructions are offered in classrooms can mean that some of the students' awareness could be in the understanding level. However, the perceptions of teaching could vary according to the participants' interpretations of the teaching. In Frewan (2015), English native instructors taught CSs in their classrooms, but they were not aware of their practices before their participation in interviews with the researcher. This suggests that the research instrument could help to raise the participants' awareness of some unconscious practices. Also, what might be perceived to relate to CSs teaching might refer to other behaviour (ibid).

Furthermore, the types of strategies perceived to be used could show the development of communicative competence and the proficiency of the Libyan students. Those perceived to be used by the teachers may indicate the nature of L2 output available to learners and some potential aspects of classroom interaction. The difference between the

most common (all-purpose words) and least common (paraphrasing, rephrasing, summarising, asking the person to confirm, and synonym) used strategies could be explained with respect to the different nature and complexity of those strategies which may suggest implications to proficiency and linguistic knowledge. Speaker's proficiency in many LLSs and CSs research affected strategies' frequency, choices, and the effectiveness of their use to fulfil communicative goal (Murray, 2010; Yaman & Özcan, 2015), but the findings vary according to research contexts.

For example, circumlocution (definitions, descriptions and example of the target lexical item) is one of the features signifying the native speaker like (Jourdain, 2000); hence, the strategies being not widely common by the students can be a negative indication of proficiency level or competence. Equally, CSs' use might not be a sign of good language learners (Oxford & Cohen, 1992; Barrios, 2015). Nonetheless, the data obtained from the questionnaires do not suggest how the strategies are used or the extent to which they are used, and this cannot be estimated in this current phase of the inquiry.

An additional observation on my findings is that the responses among the two groups of participants varied between MES and MNS and among the types associated with each of these two major taxonomies. Comparing the highest and the lowest frequencies of the responses to same categories for MNS and MNS (such as use and teaching) in each questionnaire shows that the teachers' responses regarding the MNS for some specific types are higher than those obtained about MES. Conversely, when similar comparisons were made on the students' responses, it can be concluded that the frequency of the responses on the different categories is higher for MES. This remark could indicate different issues, considering the different nature of the two types of strategies and the type of difficulties they can generally solve.

For example, the teachers' perception of their MNS use is higher than MES, could be based on their frequent need to interact and negotiate their messages when misunderstandings happened. It also suggests that teachers' need to negotiate meanings is more common than their need to find alternative ways to solve lexical based problems, which is properly understood because teachers' level of proficiency would be higher than that of students in addition to the teacher role in the classroom. In Özdemir-

Yilmazer & Örsdemir (2017), EFL teachers of beginners were found to use MNS to offer to understand to the students while MES were used for simplifying the language.

However, teachers' use of strategies might result from their need to fill in the gap of their linguistic knowledge (Rampton, 1997) which can negatively refer to the development of their interlanguage and lack of teaching skills (Azian, Raof, Ismail, & Hamzah, 2013). In Rahmani (2017), non-native EFL teachers used alternative words (approximation) when they have a gap in their knowledge during their talk in the classroom for its easiness, time-saving, and hiding their linguistic weaknesses that could appear in using other strategies, and because the teacher gave more importance to the meaning, rather than the form.

Similarly, having a larger number of students who perceived employing MES than those perceived using MNS, could indicate that they face lexical issues more frequently during their talks (Özdemir-Yilmazer & Örsdemir, 2017). Also, this may suggest that they had fewer chances to negotiate meanings because of the classroom environment or due to their incapability to use these strategies. However, the teachers' perceptions of this are almost the opposite. Concerning students' grades, MNS seem to be more common among the first and second-year teachers.

One of the important findings reflected from the two questionnaires is the variation between the overall perceived knowledge, use and teaching of CSs. The similar trends of the findings (which compared highest and lowest values of the teachers and students' responses) from the two questionnaires about the MES and MNS and about some specific types of strategies could suggest that the results obtained might possibly reflect that the Libyan classroom represented in this research seem to share some features that affect CSs. Furthermore, comparing the findings from the two questionnaires, it can be inferred that the high level of awareness of the CSs seem to contradict with strategies' use and teachability, as these were less common. A possible explanation for these differences can be developed by the integration of the findings. The findings discussed the strategies' use might be useful in giving an overview of interactions taking place in classrooms. Strategies use may advocate that MES of the Libyan students are more developed than their MNS. Nonetheless, as I constantly declare in this thesis, questionnaires are useful to be used as a diagnostic tool for learners' weaknesses and strengths (Nakatani, 2006): "A strategy inventory may cover all possible strategic

learning behaviours employed by a learner, but it is very difficult to capture the multidimensionality of a strategic human action" (Gao, 2004, p.8).

Given these considerations; interpretation of the quantitative data was made with caution to avoid fabricating of the findings and repeating pitfalls and criticism of many of the previous CSs research. This caution is also made in comparing my findings to previous studies, especially that I am not yet aware of similar research that explores the development of CSs. Many of previous CSs research investigated learners' strategies in arranged settings, therefore, the impact of the classroom was not explored which the current research is aiming for. Thus, those research settings affect the quantity and quality of strategy use (Nakatani & Goh, 2007).

In my view, my participants' evaluation of their strategic behaviour could reflect their attitudes of their communicative abilities in the classroom. It is important to acknowledge that "research is not about truth but about explanation and utility, that is to say, there is no absolute truth" (Al Alami, 2015, p.1330).

These descriptive findings will be triangulated with the findings from the next section in this chapter and later in this thesis, with the interview data in the discussion chapter. This should present an account of the current situations and practices inside the different classrooms that could reveal useful findings and a more in-depth assessment of the results from a wider perspective of the three data sources.

5.6.6 Tasks, activities and practices

As presented earlier, a Likert rating scale of four categories which asks the participants to range the tasks and activities in terms of frequency begin with very often/ frequently (1), sometimes (2), rarely (3) and ends with never (4) was used to investigate how frequently the tasks and activities are implemented in addition to other issues included in the scales which are thought to help to clarify the use of both CSs and the tasks and activities in light of the materials analysis results. These additional categories targeted to the students and teachers were also investigated for triangulation (integration), as discussed in chapter 3. Frequencies and percentages are used to present the results for each category and the averages are used to demonstrate the overall findings for the different categories for the tasks and activities questions.

The mean scores obtained for each category in the two questionnaires are presented in tables 5.3 and 5.4. It should be noted that the highest scores indicate high

frequency according to the values given to the responses options. Therefore, the discussion of the results in this section will be based on the mean scores and the percentages given to the "frequently" option in the scale. It is apparent that the tasks and activities investigated (categories 1-6 in the students' questionnaires and 1- 5 in the teacher's questionnaires) are not frequently implemented in the classroom.

Table 5. 3 Students' mean average: tasks and activities

Answer Options students	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Very often	Rating Average	Response Count
1- different objects or concepts and explain any differences in English	12	12	17	11	2.48	52
2- roleplay	14	19	14	5	2.81	52
3-Story Telling	18	12	12	10	2.73	52
4-Guessing from pictures	9	4	24	15	2.13	52
5-Guessing from titles	4	4	22	21	1.82	51
6-unfamiliar objects or concepts	12	11	18	11	2.46	52
7-conversations and transcript during speaking	14	7	14	16	2.37	51
8-strategic behaviour	12	8	19	13	2.37	52
9-I use English to ask the teacher	9	15	15	13	2.38	52
10- Arabic use	11	5	13	22	2.10	51
11-participation in speaking activities	7	3	16	26	1.83	52
12-expressing ability in speaking	6	9	20	17	2.08	52
13-expressing ability in writing	4	7	23	17	1.96	51
14-risk taking	6	10	17	19	2.06	52
15-using listening materials	28	7	11	5	3.14	51
16-teacher help with speaking difficulties	6	2	16	27	1.75	51
17- teacher inspect speaking difficulty	13	10	15	14	2.42	52

Table 5. 4 Teachers' mean average: tasks and activities

Answer Options teachers	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Very often	Rating Average	Response Count
different objects or concepts	2	12	24	2	2.4000	40
role play	7	12	13	8	2.5455	40
story telling	9	14	9	7	2.7636	39
guessing from titles or picture	2	10	19	7	2.2407	38
unfamiliar objects or concepts	4	14	19	3	2.6296	40
conversations and transcripts	6	11	14	9	2.5283	40
English use	5	15	18	2	2.5185	40
Arabic use	1	2	8	29	1.3455	40
workbook use	1	5	11	22	1.6981	39
expressing in writing	3	8	9	19	1.8889	39
Motivation to speaking	2	11	10	16	2.0926	39
strategic behaviour	4	9	21	5	2.4259	39

The Libyan teachers considered that their students' participation is more common for activities concerning role play (**18.1%**), storytelling (**14.5%**) and guessing the content of reading passages by looking at picture or titles (**12.9%**). They also reported that their students are least engaged in activities including explaining differences between objects or concepts (**3.6%**), describing unfamiliar objects or concepts (**5.5%**).

According to the students' perceptions of their performances, the least common activities are role play (**9.6%**) and storytelling (**19.2%**). On the other hand, guessing content of reading passages by looking at pictures (**41.1%**), or reading passages by looking at their titles (**28.8 %**), and describing the difference

between objects and concept and unfamiliar objects, which were reported similarly by (**21.1%**) of the students, are the most frequent.

5.6.7 Discussion of the findings of Tasks and activities

The findings suggest that Libyan teachers and students' perceptions differ in terms of how regularly the students are involved in the different activities, as the percentages related to the teacher's responses are less than those obtained from the students. This discrepancy could refer to the fact that the majority of the students are in their third year and that their communicative abilities are more developed than other grades that might enable them to participate. It is important to clarify that the difference is one of perception which cannot reflect exactly how many times any of these strategies are performed in class and can be affected by what one group remembers more clearly. On the whole, the overall perceptions of both groups seem to reflect that the tasks and activities targeted for this research may not be all used in many Libyan classrooms.

This can be discussed in relation to the lack of implementation of these activities in certain classrooms can be affected by their availability in the teaching materials (as discussed in TSAA analysis in chapter four) or by the lack of relevant teaching practice. Also, it can also be linked to the students' incapability to partake in these activities. Thus, it can be assumed that many Libyan classrooms may not be able to offer communicative interaction that is essential for developing all aspects of communicative competence in CLT. Hence, these initial findings seem to be in line with previous research which suggests the lack of communicative practices in the Libyan classrooms (Orafi & Borg, 2009; Diaab, 2016; Shihiba, 2011).

The students' participation seems to be more common in activities related to the reading lessons which could assume that these activities are used more than the other activities in the classrooms. Again, this can be understood by considering the findings from materials analysis which suggested the materials focus on those lessons. As explained previously in the previous chapters, task type and complexity have an influence on the use of different communication strategies (Konchiab, 2015). However, these findings seem to suggest that interaction and communicative practices might be more common during the reading and vocabulary lessons, and that there could be an effect of the grades on the obtained results from the two

questionnaires and these might possibly be related to the findings discussed above about the higher frequency of students' perceptions related to the use of MES. Therefore, teachers' interviews could clarify teachers' perceptions (see Chapter Six for additional explanations).

As discussed earlier, the second part of tasks and activities question (categories from 6-12 in the teachers' questionnaire and 7- 17 in the students' questionnaire) reflect on issues related to different perceptions and practices about the classroom. The response "using conversations and transcripts to see examples of problem solving" is frequent according to **31.3%** of the students and **16.9%** of the teachers. The use of the listening materials for the same purpose is considered frequent by only **9.8%** of the students. These findings seem to differ from those suggesting a lack of CSs in the listening and speaking lessons. Nonetheless, the available evidence above could mean that the Libyan students have limited exposure to both spoken English and the use of CSs in meaningful ways in their classrooms. This could mean that one of the guidelines for a direct approach to teaching communication (Dörnyei, 1995; Faucette, 2001; Mariani, 2010; Mariani, 2013) might not be available, in respect of the materials implementation.

Moreover, there seem to be some differences between the two groups about the students' use of Arabic to ask for difficult words or instructions which was regarded frequent by **72.3%** of the teachers and **43%** of the students. Again, students' abilities and differences in grades might have had an impact, therefore should be considered. On the other hand, **25%** of the students perceived that they use English frequently to ask their teachers about the materials' difficult content. On the contrary, only **5.5%** of the teachers considered that their students use English to express their own ideas in the class which assumes that the students' use of Arabic might be higher than that of English when they require the teachers' help or clarification.

Despite the diversity in the perceptions discussed, there seems to be a joint agreement between student and teacher responses that the Libyan students' use of Arabic when they face difficulties in understanding might be more than that of English during their interaction with their teachers. Arabic and translation practices are a prevailing medium of teaching, learning and communication in Libyan English classrooms (Shihiba, 2011; Omar, 2013). Use of L1 is common in EFL classrooms, as the speakers share the same

language, and its benefits cannot be discounted in these classrooms. The mother language cannot be avoided when understanding can be obstructed despite its negative impact on the process of learning by reducing the students' exposure to TL models (Pachler, Evans, Redondo Ana, & Fishe, 2014). The contribution of L1 in understanding, use and learning of L2 is evidenced by research (Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009). However, in my investigation, it is aimed at estimating the extent to which both languages are present and the cases in which L1 is called for use to have a better understanding of CSs use.

As explained in chapter three, the questionnaires contained general statements to reflect on the frequency of the use of CSs. the findings show that risk taking behaviour was considered very frequent by **36.5 %** of the Libyan students while the use different means to express their ideas instead of leaving or ending the message are **25%** compared to only **9.2%** of the teachers who think that this is the case. According to these findings, strategic behaviour might not be very frequent among Libyan students. As suggested in previous research, less proficient learners use a larger number of strategies since they face more communication problems generated from their limited knowledge in the target language (Chen, 1990; Dobao, 2002; Nakatani, 2010; Paribakht, 1985; Poulisse, 1990). Other studies clearly established that successful learners use a larger variety of strategies and that they use them more frequently than unsuccessful learners (Barrios, 2015). Libyan learners, according to these two assumptions, may not be directly related to any of these explanations. However, these explanations only take the students characteristics into account. The reasonable closeness of the student answers to these two categories, which are conceptually interrelated to the use of the use of CSs, might reflect the students' ability to evaluate their own skills and behaviour in the classroom and would suggest that the strategic competence of the Libyan students might not be significantly developed or that the classroom context itself has an impact on these findings.

In respect of the overall frequency of the students' participating in the speaking activities, half of the student participants perceive this to be a frequent behaviour and **35.1%** of the teachers perceived their students to be willing and motivated to take part in the speaking activities very often. Furthermore, the Libyan student's abilities to express themselves in both writing and speaking were reported very similarly, as about **33%** of the students find these to happen frequently. However, less than half of the

teachers (**46.3 %**) believe that their students are very often able to express themselves better in writing than in speaking. These findings seem to reflect that the Libyan students could have problems that prevent them from communicating their thoughts regardless of the medium used. Also, considering that the students might be able to express themselves in writing than in speaking could be an indication of obstacles associated with the classroom environment where a speaking performance or with the students themselves, such as their perceptions about their own abilities. In order to explore possible issues, the nature of the communicative problems hindering the Libyan students' communication in the classroom will be explored in the next phase of this research.

In regard to the teachers' role in helping their students with their difficulties during communication, **52.9 %** of the students considered this to be a frequent practice by the Libyan teachers, and fewer students (**26.9%**) considered that their teachers frequently examine their students' abilities to manage difficulties when perform speaking activities. On one hand, these issues could show that the students' communicative difficulties do not receive regular and instant attention from the majority of the teachers in the targeted classrooms.

Nevertheless, the findings discussed previously, concerning the participation in the different tasks, their willingness to take part in speaking activities and their perceived risk taking and strategic behaviour could suggest that the teacher's practices might be restricted by the student's behaviour such as their willingness to communicate. Therefore, the teachers' perceptions and practices related to these findings, which could possibly demonstrate any instructions and/or behaviour that have relevance to the development or the use CSs, will be discussed in the interviews.

Nonetheless, one of the important findings in this section is related to the use of the workbook, where most of the prospective examples of MES exist, according to the results obtained earlier from analysing the teaching material (see Chapter Four for details). Almost half of the Libyan teachers (**52.8%**) believe that their students regularly use the workbook for more practice. This means that their exposure to certain potential models of the MES in the learning materials might be missed and it could also mean that the implementation of the Libyan materials is not stable. Thus, the outcomes of the objectives assigned from the materials implementations would not be fully fulfilled.

which was as similarly conveyed in previous research of Libyan classroom (Orafi & Borg, 2009; Pathan & Marayi, 2016).

5.7 Conclusion and reflections

Since the questionnaires are mainly aimed at exploring CSs used in the Libyan classrooms, and the possible frequency and opportunities to use the strategies reflected from the tasks and activities section many conclusions can be made. As discussed earlier, the students' overall use of the two strategies was relatively low in terms of consistency. Also, the frequency of risk taking entailing the CSs' use, opposite to staying in the safe side by using reduction or avoidance behaviour (Mariani, 2010) and the overall perceptions of the students' ability to solve their problems were not popular. Therefore, it can be concluded that the potential use of CSs might not be common among many students in the Libyan classroom.

Moreover, respecting the fact that the knowledge of MES and MNS is indicated by a large number of the participants regardless of the fact that both types of strategies are not widely taught and used by the teachers and the students might imply two interpretations. First, that the declarative knowledge available in these classrooms is higher than the procedural knowledge or that other issues related to the individuals or to their classrooms apprehend the use of CSs. Second, that the knowledge they reported does not reflect an accurate account of CSs use due to the difficulty in distinguishing strategies used as learning aid or as problem solving (Lee & Oxford, 2008; Mariani, 2010). Nonetheless, the teaching approaches (e.g., explicit, implicit and awareness raising) can lead to different types of knowledge such as declarative or procedural knowledge (Ellis, 2009).

The assumption made above seems to be logical when discussed in association with the other findings. One of these is that L1 is used more than L2 by the students for making inquiries when facing difficulties in the content of the materials or in the teachers' instructions because this could mean that students miss important opportunities to put their L2 in practice. Additionally, they would also miss chances to negotiate their problems in L2 that may offer chances for using CSs and probably receiving useful strategic and linguistic output from the teacher. "Several experiments have revealed that negotiated interaction plays a facilitative, not a causal, role in helping L2 learners develop necessary language knowledge/ability" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, P. 34).

Similarly, the findings endorsing the frequency of participating in the speaking activities and the students' ability to use writing more than speaking to express their ideas require attention because issues such as students' characteristics and sociocultural aspects in the Libyan classrooms might be impactful as equal as the teaching practices and materials content. For instance, learners' abilities and preference of L2 writing refer to their lack of confidence (Derakhshan, Tahery, & Mirarab, 2015).

Also, the findings related to the teacher's inspection of communicative difficulties and possible help when the students perform speaking activities may indicate that many Libyan classrooms represented in the current research may not be widely encouraging the use and the learning of CSs. However, teachers' help and scaffolding will be investigated further when conducting the interviews and analysing the relevant qualitative questions of the questionnaires.

To sum up, it can be said that the findings of the questionnaires seem to emphasise groundworks for the use of MMR to investigate CSs because questionnaires cannot construct comprehensive understandings of a complex phenomenon such as CSs. Strategic behaviours of the learners might not be directly indicated by questionnaires (Oxford, 1996b).

Therefore, it is important to consider that the results obtained from the questionnaires and the overall discussion of the different research instruments outcomes could not be subject to generalization. That is, replicability may not relate to educational research in the firm meaning as in the physical sciences, as we cannot repeat the circumstances of previous investigations, because the generalisability of findings can be obscured by contextual differences between research samples (Taber, 2014).

Questionnaires used in this research offered estimated accounts of some issues about language learning and communication in the Libyan classroom in addition to CSs. The prominence of the learning context in LLSs research, which traditional strategies questionnaires neglected, requires more attention (Woodrow, 2005).

Al Alami's (2015) findings echoed the impact of Iranian EFL context on inconsistently in using specific strategies because this classroom lacks need to use English to produce socially appropriate language focuses on grammar, and its students' are aware of these issues. It can be argued that the developed questionnaires used in this research seem to be helpful in reflecting classroom context and on partially comparing and linking the

issues investigated. Therefore, the findings obtained from these different constructs seem to reflect the complexity of the learner's strategies as thoroughly discussed in Oxford (2017). She discussed that flexibility and complexity of learner's strategies necessitate using other/additional methods to the questionnaires to understand contextual and cultural aspects affecting use and efficiency of strategy instructions and improve the diversity of previous research's outcomes.

Accordingly, the next phase of this research investigates the nature of CSs knowledge and the use of tasks and activities. The nature of the problems that the teachers believe are more common in their classrooms need to be investigated to understand students' needs in relation to types of CSs, as lexical difficulties require using MES. It would also be useful to see practices the teachers offer in terms of dealing with instance difficulties that face their students in oral interactions and ways in which the teaching of new vocabulary is offered which seem to have a focus in the Libyan classrooms as suggested by the findings from the materials analysis and these current findings.

Nonetheless, teachers' perceptions about the usefulness and importance of CSs to the Libyan classroom would also be investigated. This, in turn, could help me to conclude with relevant recommendations that are more realistic and practical to the Libyan classroom.

To conclude this chapter, I should acknowledge that the diversity in taxonomies of CSs available, as discussed in chapter 2, caused some difficulties in making useful comparisons with previous research. Also, it seems that generalisations to both ESL and EFL classrooms may exist without considering the differences between these very different contexts.

5.8 Summary

This chapter discussed and presented the choices, techniques and the procedures used in analysing the quantitative findings of teachers and student's questionnaires. Descriptive statistics used to analyse the data about Meaning Expression Strategies, Meaning Negotiation Strategies, and about the use of some tasks and activities. Each of these findings was presented and discussed. This chapter offered a general conclusion and reflections from the quantitative findings which will be useful for the development of teachers' interviews.

Chapter Six Oral interviews

6.1 Introduction

The two previous chapters discussed the quantitative findings from the two research phases, showing potential examples of CSs and tasks and activities in the materials, as well as the percentages and means of the students and teachers' perceived knowledge, use, teaching of CSs and the implementation of the tasks and activities. This chapter presents the procedure of interviewing the Libyan teachers, the interview sample and the qualitative data analysis approach and procedures related to the open-ended questions on the questionnaires and the teachers' narrative during the interviews. Codes, T and S, as S22 and T 13, represent the participants' responses to the questionnaires. Other codes, such as DD, represent the interviewees' identities. These findings aim to answer RQ1/A and RQ 2, to provide more understanding of the previous findings. These are presented and discussed in the form of organised categories and themes. The chapter provides a conclusion and a summary of the key findings.

6.2 Interview Sample

As an explanatory sequential design of MMR, a qualitative sample can be driven by means of quantitative data (Fetters, Curry, & Creswell, 2013, p. 2135; McCrudden & McTigue, 2018). A convenience sampling technique was followed to choose participants for the interviews from the questionnaire sample, due to the limited response rate. The participants were among the 37 teachers who provided their consent to be interviewed on the questionnaires and provided their contact details (email address). They were sent invitations followed by reminders to arrange the interviews. However, many participants did not respond, and others withdrew, which created difficulty and delay in the data collection. Consequently, ten Libyan teachers from different secondary schools responded to my invitations and were interviewed for 60-80 minutes during the winter term of 2016, providing oral and written qualitative data

6.3 Interview Procedure

Arrangements were made to choose a time and place for the interviews that were convenient for the participants. Five face to face interviews took place in Sheffield with English teachers from secondary schools who are currently in Sheffield either as postgraduate students or as dependants of postgraduate students. Their teaching

experience in Libya ranges from two to ten years, as they informally acknowledged prior to and after the interviews.

Another five teachers were interviewed online via Skype, which is a free communication facility that offer the possibility of making calls, seeing, messaging, and engaging with individuals anywhere in the world (Anonymous, 2013b in Janghorban, Latifnejad Roudsari, Taghipou, 2014). This tool enabled participation when the interviewee had time and place constraints and offered better circumstances for the interviewees, as they can end the interaction with a single click (Bertrand[1] & Bourdeau,[1] 2010). However, it was necessary to find an alternative method, as face to face contact was impossible for different reasons, most significantly the national situation in Libya (as discussed in Chapter one: The Libyan Context), which also affected my sampling approach.

A qualitative sample in Quan-Qual MMR research is not preferably selected conveniently because the sample choice should depend on the most informative participants, considering the implications from the quantitative findings (Morse, 2010). This, however, was not followed due to the challenges faced in obtaining an interview sample, which affected my initial sampling plans (a purposive qualitative sample) for conducting the research. One of the reasons was the internet's slow speed in Libya, which is the slowest in the world, according to MCINTYRE (2014), together with the regular prolonged, unplanned power cuts and blackouts, which affect all means of communication including the Internet and telecommunication providers. The other reasons were some cultural factors that relate to contact among males and females; I also noticed this when I conducted a face to face interview with a male participant. This teacher looked uncomfortable during our conversation. These situations and conditions urged me to modify my data collection strategy, without affecting the ethical considerations, since the participants' consent regarding the use of this tool had already been obtained. Skype contact was deemed to be appropriate for text chatting, where the chance for interaction and probing through follow-up questions is available. Therefore, the other five teacher participants were encouraged and agreed to use text instead of audio or video chatting. More importantly, it is assumed that the process will be easier when the interviewees feel more comfortable, and do not feel controlled or discomfited when expressing their ideas (Turner III, 2010).

6.4 Qualitative Data Analysis

Interviews and open questions, as used in this research, are common tools in social science research for providing text, transcripts and text materials that can be qualitatively analysed to help to answer the research questions (Mayring, 2014). As a novice to the area of qualitative analysis, I required a good understanding of the different approaches to analysing qualitative data and had to find an easy to follow framework that was appropriate to my research questions and aims. The difficulty was that "few research designs provide specifics about analysis procedures, while others are either silent or very general" (Lichtman, 2012, p. 258). I concluded that the steps are similar in research, but that the differences relate to the use of codes, themes, categories, content analysis, thematic analysis and the number of steps followed (Schurink, Fouché, & De Vos, 2011). What distinguishes qualitative analyses is the expertise, perceptions, analytical abilities and style of the researchers (Hoskins & Mariano, 2004) and whether the research investigates what is said, as followed in the current research, rather than how it is said (Walliman, 2017).

Qualitative data are commonly analysed using content analysis and thematic analysis to reduce a large amount of data into smaller parts. Both methods are appropriate "for answering questions such as: what are the concerns of people about an event? What reasons do people have for using or not using a service or procedure?" (Vaismoradi, Turunen, & Bondas, 2013a, p.400) but are not clearly distinguished (Howitt, 2016) for researchers. Thematic analysis is a "method of identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (or themes) within data" which enables researchers "to tell the complicated story of your data in a way which convinces the reader of the merit and validity of your analysis" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, pp.79-93). Conversely, content analysis was followed because it is a descriptive approach that can be used when "a relatively lower interpretation" is required by the researcher (Vaismoradi et al., 2013a), where categories and/or themes will represent the findings (Graneheim, Lindgren, & Lundman, 2017) and it could also comprise the quantification of themes and categories (Vaismoradi et al., 2013a). In this research, the categories are as important as the themes for describing the strategies' types and classroom activities. The categories and themes could be predefined or could be a result of the process of analysis (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006).

Coding is followed to "explore the transcripts and reduce them to manageable patterns" (Gu, 2014, p.75), known initially as codes, which can range in size from words to whole pages (Saldaña, 2016, p. 262). The process comprises identifying important instances and encoding them prior to the interpretation stage (Boyatzis, 1998). Thus, it follows the data collection, leading to a far-reaching analysis (Saldaña, 2016, p. 262). Codes develop categories and a group of categories can be linked under general themes (Morse, 2008).

A theme articulates something significant concerning the data and forms some level of patterned response or sense within the data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006) which can be identified by reading all of the text, asking, "What is this about?", and thinking interpretively. Analytic strategies may ease this process (Morse, 2008; Holiday 2015; 2006; and Braun and Virginia 2006) and incorporate guidelines and examples with steps and clarifications which were helpful for the current research. The procedures followed in the analysis are presented in Figure 6.1, which includes a universal framework of the phases that were followed in various studies.

The level of complexity faced during the analysis for the current research, is similar to those discussed in Gu (2014). These include deciding top down or bottom up approaches of analysing the verbal protocols because of the difficulty of ignoring the theoretical backgrounds and the available research and because of the researcher's aim to discover any potential new concepts related to CSs. Thus, the two approaches of analysis were used to achieve a pragmatic balance. This flexibility in using inductive or deductive approaches or a combination of both approaches is one of the positive features of this analytical mechanism, as it can involve extracting perceptible and hidden content meaning (Cho & Lee, 2014). Inductive analysis extracts the categories directly from the data being analysed, whereas using the basis of former knowledge such as previous research directs the deductive approach (Mayring, 2000).

Both deductive and inductive approaches were employed for analysing all of the qualitative data since there were some defined themes, such as the different types of CSs and other concepts that are usually linked to them, such as the problem-solving behaviour. Also, the effect of the predefined research question, the nature of this MMR, its sequential nature and its pragmatist paradigm seems to have affected both the data collection and analysis. For instance, using semi-structured interviews was aimed to

explore the conceptualisation of CSs or any relevant variables in relation to the development of CSs. Therefore, it was decided not to exclude interesting themes and categories at the analysis stage.
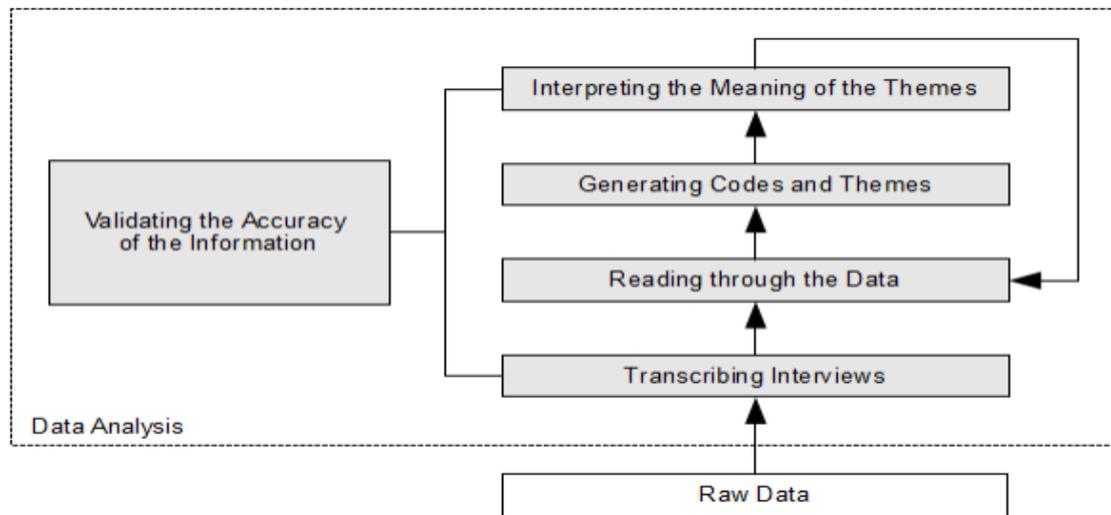
Figure 6. 1 Content Analysis Procedures (Creswell, 2013, p.185)

6.5 Content Analysis Procedures

The qualitative content analysis technique was used, due to its suitability, to analyse the pilot interview, main interviews and the qualitative data from the teachers and students' questionnaires (open-ended questions). The initial procedures comprised transcribing the audio recordings, revising them and comparing them to the original recordings. Then, to get used to the data and gain some understanding of its content, I listened carefully to the recording and read the hard copies of the transcripts, the responses to the open-ended questions on the questionnaires and the text chats. This was followed by coding all of the important and relevant data, using tables in Word and Excel containing the interviews and questionnaire questions, the participants' reference codes, and the themes.

The themes were developed from the target research questions, the aims of the interview questions and any emerging interesting themes that relate to the inquiry of the research. Therefore, the extracts (codes) refer to the participants' actual words, while the categories contain the initial descriptions of the codes and the themes related to the global concepts overarching the different categories. A next stage involved a review of the extracts and how logically relevant they were to the codes and themes assigned to them, and the final themes' names were decided and assigned different colours, as shown in Table 6.1 and Figure 6.2.

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Differently-coloured highlighting was assigned to each theme and used to distinguish between the different categories. After coding and analysing the data, I revised the resulting analysis by copying all of the participants' extracts and categories for each theme in a single document. This enables examining the consistency of the coding and provided an understanding of the different categories and their relevance to the assigned themes. It also provided a good way method for reporting the results (see Table 6.1).

6.6 Qualitative findings

The findings from this significant part of the study are presented according to the five major themes investigated and each theme contains some related categories (see Figure 6.2 for details). The formulation of these themes and categories was a constant process of interaction and interchange among the data, my analysis and interpretation, the participants' extracts and the literature.

6.6.1 Understanding and Perceptions

The teacher participants expressed a range of understanding of the CSs, knowledge, values and teachability issues related to these concepts in the Libyan classroom, as discussed below.

6.6.1.1 Understanding of CSs

Two participant teachers admitted an awareness of the term, CSs, through participating in my research. Seven teachers expressed an understanding of the nature of the CSs. Six teachers included the problematic feature implied in the speakers' awareness of having difficulty. For example, SK said "*it may also help the learner to overcome the difficulty of communication*", and OM expressed similarly "*it is like using words or expressions to carry on a conversation when we miss a specific word"*. Differently, others perceived CSs as learning and teaching aids, as SK stated, "*It's kind of the strategy that helps the learner to understand the meaning but in a different way*" which seems to refer to MES. AA more precisely contextualised the concept in the classroom by saying, "*communication strategies in education, in my opinion, is that the students explores information and discusses it without receiving anything from the teacher until they get a common understanding*".

Table 6. 1 Coding and analysis procedures (an example from the Pilot Study)

Question	Participant code	Responses	Codes	Themes
Q1- What is your understanding of the term CSs?	*SK*	Communicative strategy is a strategy used by the second language learner and even used by the native speakers to covey the meaning. It's kind of the strategy that help the learner to understand the meaning but in different way. And also, to overcome, it may also help the learners to overcome the difficulty of communication. That's my main initial idea about communicative strategy.	CSs definition: CSs are used by L2 learners and L1 speakers to express the meaning in an alternative way	Teachers' Understanding CSs
Q2 - Do you think that most Libyan teachers know about CSs? What is their source of this knowledge?		SK: Honestly, I can say the majority of Libyan teachers do not know about communicative strategy. I couldn't provide absolute judgment. But this is because I was a teacher and also from my previous experience I can…. I can say that they don't know about communicative strategy and this is ..ammm.. this can be traced to many factors and one of these factors is the lack of training. I think the training is very important for teachers to add their knowledge to add something to their existing knowledge and to update their teaching methodology. So, they need they need the training. And unfortunately, Libyan teachers haven't provided or support by their training or challenge them to be aware of the different communicative strategies.	Most teachers do not know about CSs Teachers don't know about CSs Lack of teacher training Need for the training Teacher training in CSs is needed	Teachers' perception of CSs Teachers' Perceptions of CSs Contextual factors Contextual factors Contextual factors

This suggests that CSs promote learners' independence in learning and in tackling communicative problems that implies an association between the use of strategies and language learning. Ideas about interacting and negotiating are reflected in "*discuss"* and "*common understanding*". Two others defined teachers' use of CSs as teaching strategies emphasising the lexical elements. ZK referred to the use of clarification and description in teaching new vocabulary as "*the strategies which teachers use to clarify or describe the meaning of certain words or concepts in English*". Similarly, teachers use CSs when students face difficulties understanding, according to DW: "*communication strategies mean to make the elements of the lesson clear to the students by repetition or sometimes by giving examples to clarify the words which seem difficult to them*". This could provide additional evidence of the teachers' use of the strategies in the classroom.

Considering the nature of the problems encouraging the strategies' use, three teachers restricted their definition to vocabulary as the main obstacle, including SK, OM, and DW, quoted above. FL stated this clearly: "*I think they are ways to clarify and communicate new or difficult vocabulary*". Only FM mentioned misunderstanding: "*example how you explain to somebody, if he could...if he could not understand...you can for example explain it in many ways*". Additionally, only a few of the teachers acknowledged the types of CSs. FM discussed three types of CSs: description, similar word, and definition: "*by for example describing this thing or for example bringing something similar to it or umm...or by defining the thing"*. ZK, meanwhile stated that the use of *"clarify or describe"* could refer to description or definition CSs. Also, DW's mention of using "*repetition*" and "*giving examples to clarify the words*" could refer to the MNS of repetition and giving examples.

To sum up, the Libyan teachers showed some awareness of the use of strategies in the classroom as a means of processing and solving lexical output and as a means of teaching them. However, their understanding of CSs may be limited, considering the strategies' nature and types.
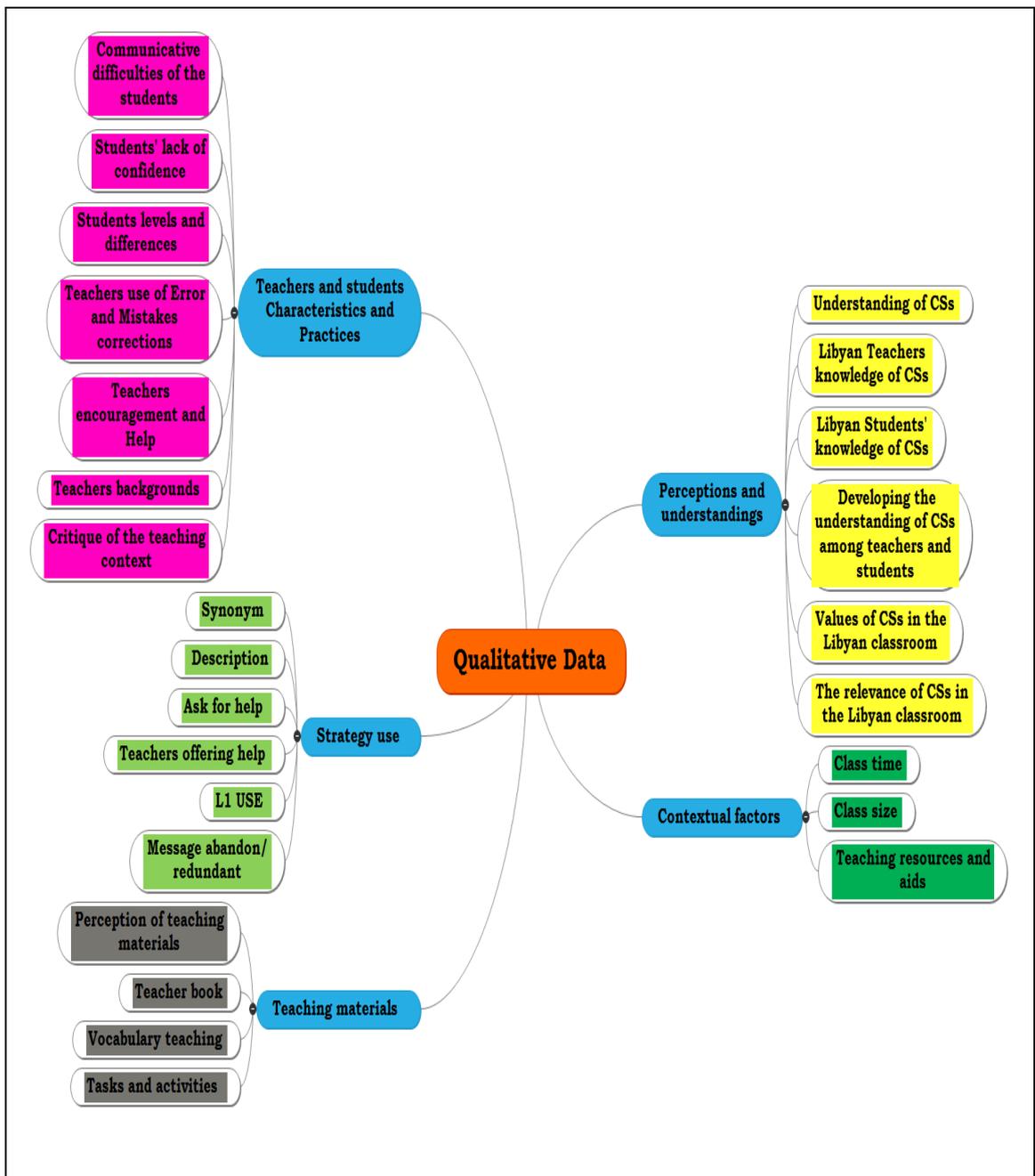
Figure 6. 2 Map of the Qualitative Data

6.6.1.2 Libyan Teachers' Knowledge of CSs

To gain a broader overview of the Libyan teachers' knowledge of CSs, I invited the interviewees to reflect on this. Eight teachers maintained that there exists a lack of CSs knowledge among Libyan teachers. As SK said, "*the majority of Libyan teachers do not know about communicative strategy*". Two teachers suggested a lack of knowledge of the term itself. As OM explained, "*I am not sure if teachers know communication strategies as a term but, no doubt, they use them. The strategies should be known by the teachers*". DW, meanwhile, adopted a neutral view: "*I really don't know, they may use them in their own work*".

The teachers' source of knowledge of CSs was linked to their teaching. FM said, "*I think that teachers may know it by experience*", and AS stated that "*but I think that these strategies are part of the everyday teaching*". AA clearly linked this to her teaching experience: "*I know this from my long experience and working in different schools*".

It appears that the teachers' knowledge of the term, CSs, often seems to have no association with their use of these skills in the classroom. These strategies are considered part of the language teaching practice and can imply that teachers could use CSs regardless of their knowledge about them and regardless of their ability to explain this concept.

6.6.1.3 Libyan Students' knowledge of CSs

When investigating the general students' knowledge of CSs, my interviewees similarly negated this assumption, declaring that very few students would know about CSs. One teacher linked the students' lack of knowledge to that of the teachers, considering teachers the only source of knowledge for the students. OM separated the implementation and the awareness of CSs: "*they use communication strategies even if they don't know about them or what they are called*". Two teachers considered the likelihood of the students' awareness of CSs from outside the classroom and the ways to develop that knowledge. FE said: "*I think that having contact with native speakers, providing opportunities for communication and linguistic models of communication strategies, and methods of inspiration, such as the Internet, magazines and stories could really help*". This reveals the value of exposure to real examples of CSs, suggesting that they are part of any L1. AA linked students' awareness to "*self-dependant learners*".

These statements did not suggest that there is a common awareness of CSs among teachers and students, excluding the classroom's role as the only potential source of CSs' knowledge for students and questioned the link between strategies use and awareness.

6.6.1.4 Developing an understanding of CSs among the teachers and students

There was a consensus among all of the interviewed teachers that they see the understanding and use of the CSs as a requirement for Libyan teachers. OM, for examples declares: "*strategies should be known by teachers*". The need to have special training on CSs and relevant modification to the teaching materials is suggested by FL to help teachers to "*deal with and use CSs*". AA sees CSs as: "*part of all of the languages that we cannot just ignore*". Likewise, nine teachers suggest that the Libyan students need to understand CSs. Two other teachers considered CSs part of the L2

learning and of the students' fluency: *"Making him use language without complications is the main target that we should consider"* (DW); *"because of the virtue of the status of English as an international language, there is an urgent need to understand and master its techniques and mechanisms* "(FE). FM discussed the need to employ a direct method of CSs teaching as part of CSs education: "*they should learn…the child…he student the meaning of communications strategies first and then they should show them a variety of communication strategies*". She even referred to CSs education from the students' perspective: "*yes they have the desire, they are eager to know these things*". The teachers provided different requirements regarding CSs education in the Libyan classroom. They mentioned the need to change the current teaching practices in the classroom in order to develop the students' communicative skills. They also seem to raise the need to change the teachers' conceptions regarding teaching EFL as part of their argument about the importance of introducing CSs into the Libyan classroom.

6.6.1.5 The Value of CSs in the Libyan classroom

Although there is an agreement about the need for the presence of CSs in the Libyan classroom, the teachers presented a variety of reasons to support their opinions. Nine of them advocate teaching the strategies because they see that they could help Libyan students in different ways. Some teachers see that the use of CSs will help learners to improve their communication abilities, such as ZK: *"the main benefit of these strategies is they can enrich the students' communication skills"*. SK also expressed this comprehensively:

"*for this student, for instance some students have difficulty doing or saying something. If they are aware of these strategies, they…so they can convey the meaning…or they can make any substitution word if they want to use a certain word or they cannot remember it*".

The above quotation seems to propose that students' knowledge will lead to strategies use, a view that is comparable to ZK: "*When students know how beneficial these strategies are, they are more likely to use them*". Additionally, the idea that CSs could help language learning is supported by many participants, whose views differ slightly. AS perceives that CSs use could increase participation which, in turn, improves learning: *"they can participate more and learn more"*, whereas FM considered the change in the students' attitudes towards language learning: "*if the students learn how to use CSs as a means of language learning rather than being negative in the classroom*".

In addition, the idea of increasing the self-confidence of the students is raised by seven teachers, such as OM: "*the use of communication strategies could make the learner less nervous, so it should support self-confidence*, while AA stated: *"I think they will enhance students' self-confidence and add a lot to their linguistic abilities*". In addition, DD suggested that CSs exceed the classroom boundaries' restrictions on language and are related to the social aspects of language. She refers to these techniques as, "*practical and flexible to suit the new generation and their new needs, they are using social media and all they need is to make themselves understood and heard, no matter how accurate their language*".

CSs could help the students to learn better, as they will be able to interact with their teachers, according to other teachers, such as *DD*: "*I think it will be like a link between the teachers and their students that will fill the gap in the student/teacher interaction difficulties*", and FM: "*they will communicate with their teachers, for example, when they don't understand something, they can confidently just stand up and explain the problem*". Some other issues were raised individually, such as increasing the use of L2: "*these strategies seem to be very useful in that they help teachers to encourage their students to think and respond in English*" (ZK), and facilitating vocabulary learning: "*the main benefits relate to vocabulary learning and making communication easier"* *(FE)*. SK has a slightly different view which emphasised the increase in students' attitude or motivation towards English learning: *"students don't like the traditional way"*.

One more common justification by the teachers for the valuable role of CSs is that these skills will improve their teaching practice. They comprise the ability to introduce CSs to their students, improving the teachers' knowledge and communicative abilities of language teaching and changing their current attitudes about it, thereby updating the Libyan classroom. As expressed by AS: "*Yes, sure it will basically help them during their teaching. Teaching, as I said earlier, is mainly about getting your message understood by the students*". In brief, the valuable role of CSs in improving learning and teaching in this specific classroom is clearly expressed, as the participant teachers seem to find that many of the distinctive obstacles in their classroom can be tackled by using and introducing CSs to their students.

6.6.1.6 The Relevance of Teaching CSs in the Libyan classroom

The participant teachers show diversity in their views on teaching CSs and these can be grouped into two clusters. One relates to those who have positive views and the second

symbolises those who seem to reject this possibility. Five teachers perceive teaching CSs as difficult or even impossible in the current environment of the Libyan classroom. SK commented: "*In the real situation of the Libyan classroom, it will be really difficult*". FM stated that, in order to teach the strategies to secondary students, there should be some changes made to the way in which English is introduced, as she suggests that it should start from primary school so that the secondary school students could be prepared well to learn CSs. This comment may suggest that the Libyan students in this stage of education have a gap in their L2 knowledge that is needed to learn these skills. On the other hand, AS believes that: "*teachers need be well educated on using these skills*", which suggests that these strategies are not in use or that that teachers' knowledge of the CSs or L2 is insufficient. Likewise, OM refers to the diversity in learners' ability as a constraint: "*because the way students learn is different from one to another*" and she even thinks that it wastes time. A statement by T47 seems to eliminate the need for CSs and to limit the communicative problems to the vocabulary element: "*I think the students can deal with the speaking problems by using the random words they learned during the class, and it is not a problem if they make some mistakes"*. This statement may show that this teacher's awareness or understanding of the nature of the different communicative problems of L2 learners and of the concept of communicative competence is limited. It could also indicate that some Libyan teachers perceive English language learning to be based on vocabulary learning, which seems to relate to the traditional approach to language teaching that remains in use in the Libyan classroom. These methods "not only ignore strategic competence but may actually hinder its development" (K. Johnson, 2017).

On the other side stands the other group who support the teaching of CSs in this EFL context. However, they consider some hindrances to exist. As ZK stated: "*However, it might not be easy*". Other teachers seem to see it more promising and their views are stronger than the others, as they mentioned the benefits that the students can gain. This can be seen in the statement of FE: "*I think that the strategies could enable Libyan students to communicate and break the barriers between them and increase their learning skills and help them to overcome any obstacles that not only affect speaking, but also learning*". This teacher also commented on the students' readiness for strategy education: "*yes they have the desire, they are eager to know these things*". Moreover, SK agrees on the students' need for this new education and emphasised the students' willingness to communicate on two different occasions. She stated: *"They have the motivation and desire to learn a language for practical reasons. Not for...ahhh...for..*

exam purposes or to pass exams". Teaching CSs is feasible for this EFL classroom and is not seen as a different topic that needs to be taught independently, as can be understood from the statement of AA: "*they could be included within lessons and I don't think they will be difficult to teach and not difficult to learn*".

In brief, although the teachers' views about the relevance of CSs education in the Libyan classroom vary, most of the teachers in this research do not seem to reject the idea of introducing the strategies and believe that they are valuable because they can improve learners' communicative ability and self-confidence and also increase the teachers and learners' classroom interaction. However, the readiness of the Libyan classroom seems to be the main concern among the teacher participants.

6.6.2 Discussion of the perceptions and understanding of CSs

Previous CSs research did not explore the teachers' roles in developing CSs (Rodriguez & Rodriguez, 2014; Frewan, 2015; Al-Gharaibeh, 2016). Exploring the Libyan teachers' perceptions and understanding of CSs showed that some teachers had a basic knowledge of the term, but they doubted that a common awareness of CSs existed among other Libyan teachers and students. They also rejected the Libyan classroom's role in developing CSs. These findings could be linked to the argument which considers that EFL teachers are unconscious of the significance of CSs teaching, and those who are aware of it do not use these strategies themselves to serve as a model for their students nor clearly train their students to use them because the teacher training and educational programmes' lack a CSs component (Rodriguez & Rodriguez 2014). My teacher participants' limited use of metalanguage seems to indicate possible limitation in their ELT educational and training's background.

It is important to note that, regardless of the time interval between filling in the questionnaires and the interviews, the teachers' exposure to CSs definitions in questionnaire could contribute to their knowledge of CSs. This was considered because teachers' definitions of CSs were similar to that on my questionnaire. It should also be noted that three teachers were educated in the UK, which could have an impact on their knowledge.

The teachers' definitions were focused on solving lexical difficulties, as considered by many scholars, including Bialystok (Bialystok, 1990). They added another aspect, considering CSs them as a means of learning (understanding new words) and teaching (explaining) in the language classroom. Frewan's (2015, p. 120) classroom observation

revealed similar implications. He noticed the teachers' use of circumlocution and paraphrasing "to make their language simple and easy to understand" and not to solve the problems they faced. The teachers' understanding of CSs seems to be linked to MES, which could show that these were developed from their experience in the classroom. Todd (2005) and Cullen (2002), who investigated CSs in teachers' oral discourse, similarly show that CSs can serve pedagogical objectives. This is possible because proficient speakers can use CSs not due to a lack of linguistic resources but to make their language more easily comprehended by the least proficient listener (2006).

Also, the teachers rejected Libyan students' consciousness of using CSs in the classroom. The findings of Al-Gharaibeh (2016) agree with this possibility; students can use CSs unconsciously. Consciousness is considered a decisive feature, differentiating strategic behaviour from similar non-strategic practices (Cohen, 2014, p.7) but the research findings show that an awareness and use of CSs can result from explicit teaching (Teng, 2012; Hmaid, 2014). Supporters of CST value its role in raising students' awareness of CSs. In Tarhuni (2014), Libyan upper secondary school students were found to use LLS including CSs, but were only able to acknowledge this after being trained to use them. She attributed this to implicit instructions, the teachers' unawareness of the strategies or the strategies' unavailability in the materials. Thus, the students' awareness enables them to recognise CSs in discourse (Mesgarsharh & Abdollahzadeh, 2014), which could suggest that the CSs used by the teachers and other students may go unrecognised, without awareness. Consequently, it is possible that Libyan teachers and students may lack an explicit awareness of CSs, but they unintentionally use them to fulfil pedagogical aims.

Nonetheless, despite Libyan teachers' limited knowledge of CSs, they recognised the necessity of CSs for teachers and students to improve their classroom interaction and increase the use of L2 to aid language learning. This accords with the perception of native English instructors in the UK (Frewan, 2015) and various research findings, discussed in Chapter Two. "Making efforts for maintaining conversation flow and negotiation of meaning, could contribute to the oral proficiency development of EFL learners with sufficient proficiency" (Nakatani, 2010, p.128). For example, using an 'appeal for help' can stimulate new language items from the interlocutor (George, 2016), that benefits the building of an interlanguage system and language learning process (Mariani 2013). My participants recommended highlighting CSs in the teaching materials and assumed that developing the CSs of Libyan students could increase their

self-confidence that is needed to initiate communication. Their perceptions in regard to self-confidence are valuable because it can be improved following SCT (Le, 2006; Kongsom, 2016). The benefits gained from strategies training implied that giving the students chances to make use of the different strategies can make them conscious of their strategic competence, as Tarhuni (2014) and Ounis (2016) recommended for Libyan and Tunisian classrooms.

The Libyan teachers' perceptions of the CSs' value for learners agree with some of those highlighted in the literature, although it is not explained how these can occur. They highlighted the lower reliance on L1, reduction strategies (Williams, 2006; Mariani, 2013; Saeidi & Farshchi, 2015) and vocabulary learning (Faucette, 2001). It can be assumed that engagement in interaction by asking; answering, receiving and producing input may imply learning new vocabulary (Mariani, 2010).

The teachers' views about CSs' benefits for teachers seem to be valuable and may be relevant to Libyan teachers, who "typically graduate from university with undeveloped spoken communication skills in English", and thus rely on L1 in their teaching (Orafi & Borg, 2009, p.251). "For non-native English speaker teachers, these strategies may increase their confidence in resolving some interruptions in target language production in classroom verbal discourse" (Aulia, 2016b, p.435). This suggests that the use of Arabic can decrease L2 interaction (Ounis, 2016), which is important for developing communicative competence and, hence, CSs development could be hindered.

An additional benefit of CSs that emerged from the current research indicates a possible improvement and updating of the Libyan classroom by offering practical aspects of English language teaching that are neglected in the teachers' education and training, as recommended by Hmaid (2014). This is based on the fact that language is a means for communicating, regardless of the accuracy, and also the fact that English is a global language for the current generation, that is needed for social media communication. CSs can bridge the gap between formal and informal communication so that language learning could benefit the communicative situation outside the classroom (Faerch & Kasper, 1983). CSs' value, as indicated by the Libyan teachers, is implied in (Iwai, 2006, p.387), signifying that the target of CSs training "is not to produce a good strategy user but a good communicator who does not have to rely on strategies. This can be achieved by strengthening the learner's interlanguage potential". This means that CSs could be the means and language learning is the end in Libyan secondary schools.

The debate about the teachability of CSs, their "pros" and "cons", is reflected in the Libyan teachers' perceptions. Those acknowledging the pedagogical effectiveness of CST for improving the communicative skills of the learners reflect the teachers' views in (Frewan, 2015), and support the arguments of researchers such as Faucette (2001), Nakatani (2010), Chen (1990) and Hmaid (2014). The teachers' emphasis on the need for an awareness of and the teachability of CSs in the Libyan context might be justified. CST "is important for countries moving from traditional to more modern educational methods to use effective methodologies in teaching; this is evidence for a new approach in teaching that would be useful in Libya" (Hmaid, 2014, p. 165).

However, views denying CST in the Libyan context were highlighted in light of the teachers' experiences and the difficulties they face in teaching EFL in secondary schools. Although these views contradict many empirical research findings, they reflect the importance of exploring the teachers' attitudes towards CST because they can possibly provide more understanding of CSs' development in EFL contexts. The teachers' attitudes "guide teachers to adopt their teaching strategies for coping with their teaching challenges, shape language learners' learning environment, their motivation and their language ability" (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2017).

Also, it can help to offer realistic CSs' pedagogical recommendations for individual classrooms. Many arguments of CST "have a tendency to be separated from discussions about the real world of the English as a foreign language classroom, in which grammatical and structural syllabi are commonplace, and are used in preparing students to pass benchmark examinations" (Konishi & Tarone, 2004, p.189)

For instance, it is important for Libyan teachers to consider the possible effects of the students' differences with regard to learning and using CSs. Konchiab (2015, p. 263) argues the teachers need to identify students' individual differences because strategies that are "linguistically demanding (e.g., circumlocution)" are difficult for less proficient learners, so approximation would be a substitute to enable such learners to achieve target of the communication, improve their confidence and develop strategic competence. This could be linked to the findings suggesting the lowest popularity of paraphrasing strategies, as discussed in Chapter Five.

The individual characteristics and preferences discussed by Libyan teachers should be considered. This means that predetermined teaching approaches to CSs might not be appropriate for all learners. The individual's sense of ability to communicate a message

motivates risk-taking, whereas a sense of inability might negatively impact on his/her attitude towards communicating and preferences of communication than of form may affect strategies' choice (reduction or achievement) (2010). Therefore, learners' readiness to use strategies during meaningful communication, ignored by researchers, is required for "arguing the teachability of CSs" (Iwai, 2006, p.403). The readiness of intermediate and pre-intermediate Japanese students to participate in CSs training shows that declarative knowledge did not enable the learners to describe a simple object, so "something is needed to change their knowledge into a more useful kind" (ibid).

The findings discussed in this section show that it is important to explore the perceptions of CSs in order to understand the development of CSs in the EFL classroom. They show that the complexity of CST can relate to individuals and situational contexts in the classroom.

6.6.3 Contextual Factors

This section highlights some of the features of the Libyan EFL classroom. The participating teachers and students shared some issues, including difficulties, concerns or situations that can define the classroom practice. More importantly, different participants suggested the potential effect of these factors on the strategic practices and teaching related to CSs in the Libyan classroom.

6.6.3.1 Class duration

Class duration seems to affect the English teaching in the Libyan classroom, according to the teachers and students. For example, the possibility of teaching CSs or using communicative activities, important for classroom interaction, and the development and practice of CSs, are affected by the class duration because of the dense curriculum. OM declared: "*I need to finish the book as it is planned by the Ministry*". This leads to avoiding some tasks, including the extra activities in the teachers' book and matching tasks, as mentioned by the same participant. The class duration is linked to using Arabic for difficult instructions. According to *DD*: "*it is quicker, honestly, if I don't have enough time"*. Two students expressed their difficulty with practising some skills due to the limited time. As S23 commented, on the usefulness of the material in developing communicative skills: "*It is compressed and usually there is no time to practise speaking within the same lesson. I think it is better if conversation classes are separate, with their own content*". Thus, it appears that it is necessary to place more focus on the speaking lessons, as emphasised by the response of S47, who could not see the

usefulness of the materials as a result of the shortage of class time, "*yes, but they are a little bit helpful since the student cannot comprehend the reading lessons and grammar and practice them inside in a short time class*". The argument mentioned in the last quote, about the students' comprehension, is reflected by T39: "*we must give students more time to understand what we said* ". This means that the role of the students and teachers, defined for CLT, entailing learning through interaction and students' independence from their teachers, is not followed because the teachers deliver the lessons but, due to the time constrains, the students become passive recipients of the knowledge, whose comprehension may not even be considered. This lack of time affects English teaching negatively and communicative practices leading to teachers' inconsistency in using tasks may affect the use and development of CSs.

6.6.3.2 Class size

The crowdedness of the classroom is an issue reported by six teachers as hindering English teaching, including materials implementation and classroom management. The students' use of English for communication in the classroom is affected by this factor. According to FL: "*they get few chances to practice because of the crowdedness of the class*", while DD stated: "*As you know, the current situation is not helpful in many aspects. For example, the classroom is very crowded which makes it difficult for me to do speaking activities*". OM considered that this situation affects the teaching of CSs due to the restrictions in the classroom, including the time factor. She revealed: "*you have a classroom full of students, you have specific curriculum you need to follow, and you have limited time*". According to this view, teaching CSs is considered a separate topic and may not be part of the current teaching. The class size, which was noted alongside class time on many occasions by different participants, seems to be similarly restricting for both teaching and implementing and following the materials' instructions, according to the teachers.

6.6.3.3 Teaching resources and aids

Eleven teachers highlighted the lack of and need for teaching aids, such as visual, video and audio materials, to enhance the teaching of speaking and listening skills. FM stated this clearly: "*there are no facilities for speaking, listening. They need lots of, you know, materials*". According to FL these facilities can be used "*to encourage the students towards learning*". Although she praises the teaching materials, T41 states that: "*it is helpful, but the lack of equipment inside the schools is a fundamental obstacle*", however, T47 declares: "*Yes, they are very useful and can help the students to*

remember what they have learnt. The materials you could use in the classroom, illustrating pictures, videos, graphics, etc."

6.6.4 Discussion of Contextual Factors

The contextual factors discussed in this research received little attention in the previous CSs research. They seem to affect the development of CSs in the Libyan classroom in the long-term, as they affect teaching and L2 interaction. Class size has an impact on teaching practices and the implementation of the Libyan EFL materials, including speaking activities and group work, which are an essential form of interaction in CLT. It can reduce the chances given to the students to talk (Leong & Ahmadi, 2017). According to my experiences of Libyan state schools, seating arrangements, in rows facing the front of the classroom (Orafi, 2017), are an additional restraint regarding group work. In Rodriguez & Rodriguez (2014), teachers who ask questions and move around the class can tackle these difficulties and encourage the students' participation and use of CSs. Libyan teachers may be unable to follow similar procedures due to other constraints, such as class time and curriculum plans.

Class duration is a major factor associated with many practices in the classroom, such as the use of Arabic and ignoring some tasks. Speaking and listening lessons are skipped by Libyan school teachers to save class time (Orafi, 2008). This can also limit the time allowed for students to communicate, causing pressure that influences the choice of certain strategies (Mariani, 2010).

The lack of audio and visual resources was crucial to the current research because it shows a lack of implementation of the speaking and listening materials, which means that L2 classroom interaction could be the main source of exposure to the use of CSs. Visuals and pictures are useful in eliciting CSs, such as descriptions, as used in CSs research (Khan, 2011).

6.6.5 Students and Teachers' Characteristics and practices

The Libyan students have distinctive characteristics which might be a result of the sociocultural aspects and practices in the Libyan EFL classroom. It is important to acknowledge these features, as they influence this classroom in different ways, as will be discussed in this section.

6.6.5.1 Communicative difficulties of the students

This feature is one of the motives that inspired this research, as discussed in Chapters One and Two. Libyan students, according to the participant teachers, lack the ability to communicate in English. This affects their ability to solve their communicative problems and respond to certain communicative tasks' instructions, such as paraphrasing tasks. As ZK stated, "*not all of them are capable to use English*". FL suggested that this lack of communication happens because: "*not being used to use English is the main problem*" and also commented on the challenges related to paraphrasing due to difficulties with sentence structure: "*most of the students, they do not know how to say things in their own words. As I said, there is a problem in how to make sentences* ". Similarly, DW commented negatively about the communicative abilities of third year students': "*rarely to find a student to explain a word or a phrase*".

Additionally, the teachers defined several factors that inhibit students' L2 communication, including an insufficient knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. DD explained: "*I think that the vocabulary are the main obstacles for my students, they don't know what word for what occasion or situation*". This means that such students do not communicate if they have problems due to a lack of resources, which also means that they lack CSs use. Similarly, T54 highlighted the inadequacy of the students' linguistic knowledge, which is essential for the use of CSs: "*students in this year can't remember a word or understand anything about grammatical structure also no understand them well basically*". Regardless of those problems, SK emphasised the students' willingness to learn English and use it for communication, "*they have the motivation and the desire to learn a language for practical reasons*". Accordingly, it can be argued that students need to be aware that they can make use of their limited knowledge to communicate using CSs.

6.6.5.2 Students' lack of confidence

The participant teachers discussed self-confidence as a problem preventing students' interaction and communication in classrooms. Generalising, SK stated: "*the majority of Libyan students are hesitant to participate and shy*". Another teacher proposed some reasons for this phenomenon: "*students are shy to have a conversation because they are afraid of making mistakes or don't have enough vocabulary and grammatical structures are usually wrong*" (T48). A contradictory statement was made by ZK, who does not believe that the students' ability affects their confidence: "*some students are good learners and their only problem is their fear or, in other words, shyness of speaking loudly* ", which is similar to the view of DD: "*sometimes, the students' language is*

accurate but they feel worried and need continuous reassurance to follow". This seems to be a culturally-based issue because negotiation with teachers can be considered a negative behaviour for students, as SK suggested: "*the cultural things ... yes. I have to respect the teacher because the teacher is the source of the authority*". Lack of confidence is a common obstacle of the Libyan students which may influence or limit CSs use requiring the negotiation of the meaning, such as asking for help or clarification, that is needed for classroom interaction and learning in CLT.

6.6.5.3 Students' Levels and Differences

The implications of the differences between the students' level and characteristics in the classroom were noted by both the teacher and student participants. These create difficulty for teachers because they need to do things differently with the students and restrict following the materials' instructions needed for the implementation of communicative tasks. These were linked with performing communicative activities and problem-solving. S22 stated: "*there is a big difference in the students' levels. I prefer speaking with the teacher*". S19 commented on the teachers' help with speaking activities as follows: "*No; because most of the students are low level and the teacher give the opportunity to specific students in the class*" (S19). This may suggest that the teachers are unable to encourage their students to make efforts to speak with someone of a lower proficiency, which would require additional skills, such as negotiation and turn-taking to achieve their target message. Thus, students with lower communicative abilities may be excluded from participation. The students' differences may affect the introduction of CSs in the Libyan classroom, T3 stated: "*the different levels in the classroom are problematic for the teachers because you need to teach different strategies with different students*".

Briefly, it seems that some Libyan teachers face difficulties in adapting their practices to suit the students' different levels and characteristics and so integrate low-level students into communicative activities. Opportunities to use CSs and any related instructions and scaffolding by their teachers and peers might be limited for those learners. Therefore, this suggests both teachers need to stimulate more interaction (student-teacher and student-student), which is essential for developing CC and language learning, using CSs.

6.6.5.4 Teachers' use of mistake/error correction

As discussed in Chapter Two, the teachers' error correction and scaffolding are underpinned in CLT by the sociocultural theory. Their role in classroom interaction is

associated with learning. Students who are experiencing communicative difficulties might be instructed to use alternative methods for communication. The Libyan teachers discussed some behaviour that they considered could help their students who were experiencing difficulties during their spoken performance.

They considered error correction as one of these means in particular for counteracting pronunciation difficulties. They correct incorrect pronunciation during or after the spoken performance. T52 stated: "*I write the word on the board which learners cannot pronounce and let them practice it, I also with some learners use phonology if they have had previous knowledge of this it is of benefit* ". T16 stated: "*I always try to help them by stopping them and correct the wrong pronunciation of the words*". Two teachers mentioned working out the nature of the communicative problems when students cannot proceed their communicative message. FM declared," *I have to ask him, for example, why you just stopped. What is the problem?*" The students had a similar view. S23 described the teachers' help as follows: "*yes, because correcting the linguistic errors we make during conversations*".

The teachers' assessment of the nature of the communicative obstacle is important because it can offer a chance for CSs instructions. The teachers could ask the students to use definitions, descriptions or general words for difficult or unknown words. DW encourages fluency: "*I always help them to continue speaking and never look to the mistakes that occur during his speaking after that tell him about his mistakes and give the correction*". This is important in the CLT classroom as CSs seem to be linked to fluency, as discussed in Chapter Two.

Libyan teachers' general practices regarding mistakes and errors are also considered negative. SK labelled the constant interrupting of students' performance as a: *"punishment" which discourage the students to participate because of their fear of making mistakes.* It seems that the teachers' help is often restricted to inspecting the nature of the difficulty and providing the right forms, either during or after the student's performance, which could indicate their emphasis on accuracy. S23 stated: *"No, it is the teacher who often interferes and corrects. Colleagues often don't correct each other's mistakes they don't want to embarrass others".* It can be assumed that the students' focus is on accuracy and mistakes/errors are not considered a natural aspect of language learning and communication. The fact that students do not provide feedback to each other could imply that the negotiation of meaning, such as asking for repetition, help or

the correct form may be restricted by cultural attitudes towards errors. Thus, guidelines requiring negotiation, fluency and risk-taking may be unavailable in many classrooms.

The data indicate a lack of strategic behaviour or instruction. However, the teachers' ignoring of their students' mistakes, which seem to be rare, might help to increase the self-confidence of the learners with regard to using CSs.

6.6.5.5 Teachers' Encouragement and Help

The teachers' view about encouraging their students to continue a communicative message when they face difficulty was expressed in a variety of practices. The need to motivate the students is essential in order to develop their speaking skills. According to T27: "*Motivation is one of the most important parts in teaching speaking*". The need to maintain the communication flow at the expense of accuracy is shared by different teachers to increase the students' confidence and participation in the class. SK argued: "*If I ignore any kind of mistake she or he did during the .. do .. sorry during the speaking. So he will be encouraged and increase his motivation. This is my role as a teacher. I need to help him .... I need to encourage and support him*".

Additionally, the lack of confidence among Libyan learners seems to affect their communication in the classroom. DD indicated: *"sometimes, the students' language is accurate, but they feel worried and need continuous reassurance to follow, once you encourage them they look happy and confident and they can do well"*. Although the teachers are aware of this problem, the help they provide does not appear to incorporate practical solutions, such as highlighting new helpful skills or advice regarding CSs, especially for those students who do not participate in communication. The teachers can ask the students to help each other when they experience communication problems, as two teachers stated. FM suggested: "*just try to participate with your friend or your fellow and try to tell him what is that you want to say* ". This suggests that students can be assured by talking to a peer rather than to the teacher, which may indicate their shyness, lack of confidence or desire to avoid their teacher's correction, discussed earlier.

The Libyan teachers discussed their helpful practices without referring to the different types of communication problems or hindrances, such as lexical difficulties, although vocabulary is considered one of the reported obstacles among the Libyan students with regard to communication. This suggests that the teacher's practices lack strategic instruction use and could also indicate a lack of the knowledge of these techniques.

6.6.5.6 Teachers' background

The teachers' educational background and lack of training were areas of criticism for many participants. These issues contribute to the current problems in the English classroom and affect the students and the materials' implementations in a variety of ways. For instance, teachers who studied English literature for their university degree do not have an efficient teaching ability. As SK stated: "*Our university education is very basic. As you know, we studied English and literature in the university but not know how to teach it*". This participant remarked that the teachers' lack of knowledge about CSs is a result of their lack of teacher training. SK commented:

"*teachers haven't provided or supported by their training or challenge them to be aware of the different communicative strategies. They haven't provided with something practical to enable them to do something useful or practical for the students* ".

OM commented on the same issue: "*there is no practice of the language and there is no related education*". This suggests that the Libyan teachers employ their own methods in the classroom which may suggest a variety of practices in different classrooms. This gap in how Libyan teachers are educated and their lack of materials' orientation programmes and training may be translated into the teachers' inability to use appropriate metalanguage to discuss and teach CSs.

6.6.5.7 Critique of the teaching context

The teachers displayed their dissatisfaction with the current situation regarding the Libyan classroom on different occasions, including their responses to the possibility of introducing CSs in the classroom or the use of communicative activities. Two clear statements reflected the inadequacy of the classroom. AS referred to the facilities available in the classroom: "*the world has changed, and we are still using poor facilities. The current classrooms do not qualify to language teaching. We need to show real language use that student can learn from*". SK, meanwhile, emphasised the difficulty of teach CSs in this classroom: "*in the current situation, I think it's impossible*". The focus is on specific skills, namely reading and grammar at the expense of the speaking, with listening and writing as an additional aspect:

"*when the teachers just give the lesson, the new words, and the grammatical rule and he solve, he answers the questions. That is it, Then it will be difficult for the students to express them, even themselves by their*

own words speaking and writing skills which I think is very poor in our
classroom" (FM).

Accordingly, this implies that communicative language teaching, proposed by designing the new materials, is not being fulfilled and that the traditional methods of teaching this language are still in use. SK commented: "*Libyan teachers didn't or don't apply or implement this kind of... which depend on communicative or the functional use of the language*". This also accords with DW, who advocates CSs education as follows: "*We have been teaching many generations in the same old ways and look what we have got so far* ". They also discussed that English is perceived by the students and teachers as a subject and not as a language, with the passing of the final exams the main target. "*The teachers in our schools don't treat English as a language to put into use; it is taught as a subject that students need to pass*", commented DW. The education policies in Libya do not impose any assessment regarding speaking and the listening skills, for which all of the exams are written. The value given to quantity rather than quality in this education system is an issue raised by AS: "*the learning are assessed by the amount of the knowledge given to the students* ". The factors discussed, and the attitudes of the teachers and students imply that the Libyan EFL classroom may not yet be the ideal setting for CLT.

6.6.6 Discussion of the Teachers and Students' Characteristics and Practices

The previous sections highlighted various issues related to the teachers and students' characteristics and practices. It presented the findings about the learners' communicative difficulties because these can have pedagogical implications when choosing communicative tasks (Nakatani, 2010). Assessing the students' needs during communication and offering appropriate guidance is implied in the direct approach to teaching CSs offered by (Dörnyei, 1995). This advocates that many communicative tasks can help all learners to develop CSs.

The difficulties reported by the Libyan teachers are multifaceted, relating to different grades. These inhibit the construction of sentences, correct pronunciation, the appropriate use of vocabulary, and recalling grammar and vocabulary that have been learnt, suggesting that a variety of gaps exist in their L2 knowledge. These problems are similar to those discussed in the literature about students. Generally, Libyan students have difficulties related to reading and comprehending written and spoken English (Jha, 2015), and even university students encounter difficulties in understanding the meaning

of simple vocabulary, such as "post office" or "money" (Rajendran, 2010). This means that CSs can be valuable for solving speaking and understanding difficulties.

In addition to these, a lack of confidence and shyness were considered crucial obstacles that reduce the students' participation and so affect the teaching practice and materials' implementation. A fear of making mistakes and an unwillingness to communicate were discussed in relation to the over-use of error correction and the methods used for this. The Libyan novice teachers' use of negative feedback and rejection of answers comprising grammatical mistakes reduces the students' self-esteem and ability to correct their own mistakes (Tantani, 2012). A fear of negative evaluation commonly affects EFL learners, thereby increasing their anxiety when asked to speak (Diaab, 2016) and thus leading to "communication apprehension" (Burroughs, Marie, & McCroskey, 2003, p. 231), as reflected in an unwillingness to communicate (Mesgarsharh & Abdollahzadeh, 2014). Regarding these later features, the student-teacher relationships and interactions seem to be affected by cultural considerations, as the teachers are still considered the "suppliers of information" and "an authority figures whose instructions and knowledge should be beyond students' questioning" (Alhmali, 2007, pp 76.173; Orafi, 2017). Frewan (2015) argues that culture influences the students' ability to use negotiation strategies with their teachers, which could have similar implications in the Libyan classroom.

The Libyan teachers showed an awareness of the problems causing communicative difficulties for their students but few of them ask their students about the nature of the difficulty that is affecting their oral performance. This means that the teachers' help, feedback or scaffolding may not be offered in an appropriate way.

The Libyan teachers followed two approaches to the communication difficulties of their students. They provide the accurate from or missing word or structure ready for use by the students to enable them to continue their communicative message, which symbolises a focus on accuracy and does not represent the CLT teachers' role as a facilitator. This could reflect an "over reliance on traditional methods that emphasize extensive linguistic input rather than communicative output" in Libyan schools (Diaab, 2016, p.338). Thus, chances to develop strategic competence in genuine circumstances might be missed. The focus on accuracy and correctness could encourage learners to use avoidance strategies rather take risks, using achievement strategies (Mariani, 2010). Alternatively, other teachers encourage the students to proceed with their intended message by ignoring any errors, delaying feedback, using verbal encouragement or

instructing the use of synonyms or gesturing. This behaviour seems to encourage fluency and could lead to the development of CSs. Delayed feedback is "found to increase the students' willingness to communicate in that it let the students keep the flow of their speaking and deliver the message" (Zarrinabadi, 2014, p. 292).

The variation in the teachers' practices, that are affected by the various factors discussed, suggests a lack of structure, even in a single classroom. Structure "refers to the teacher's provision of clear and detailed expectations and instructions, guidance, scaffolding, and constructive feedback" (Jang, Reeve, & Deci, 2010, p.598). Learners with structured teachers do better than those with unstructured teachers and display greater classroom engagement (Muñoz & Ramirez, 2015), because their motivation can be influenced by the teachers' instructional and interpersonal styles (Jang et al., 2010).

My findings revealed a general view of the Libyan classroom as a distinct educational context, and so considered more flexible ways for understanding CSs rather than applying the fixed, previous guidelines which might not be credible (2010). The findings regarding the status of English in secondary schools, considered as a school subject, are in line with the previous literature. That is, the Libyan educational system, with its curriculum plans and policies, assesses students on their ability to remember grammar and vocabulary (Alhmali, 2007; Orafi & Borg, 2009). Subsequently, the Libyan teachers place a greater focus on the content, that is targeted during exams, and disregard other components (Onaiba & Mustafa, 2014). Hence, speaking and listening are neglected in the Libyan classroom (Orafi & Borg, 2009; Altaieb, 2013; Tantani, 2012; Omar, 2013). It is acknowledged that the ELT classroom is perceived in different ways, as a place to prepare learners for language use outside the classroom or as a means of obtaining a qualification (Jenks & Seedhouse, 2015). The second type seems to represent Libyan schools.

The findings also show that insufficient or a lack of knowledge of CSs result from the teachers' educational background and training, as they lack practical, effective techniques and skills to deal with the materials and their students' needs. The teachers' educational and professional development is one of the concerns in Libya (Mansor, 2017). The teachers' background can be linked to other findings related to their practices which are not associated with CLT principles, as well as to their lack of knowledge regarding strategic competence.

With all considered, the development of communicative competence, including CSs, seems to be affected by the educational frameworks and policies as well as the teachers' practices.

6.6.7 Strategy use

Some teachers reported a range of different CSs adoption from Mariani (2010) and referred to the popularity of additional strategies (L1 and reduction strategies) that are believed to be used in their classrooms in problematic communicative situations. Both types of strategy are included in this analysis to provide a clearer picture of the relevance of CSs in the Libyan classrooms under study.

6.6.7.1 Synonym

Some teachers use the word "synonym" constantly to describe their own behaviour and that of their students, admitting to using synonyms to encourage their students to continue their communicative messages when encountering difficulty: "*I provide him with the synonym*" (SK). Two teachers use it to introduce new vocabulary to the class, whereas FM admitted to using a word that is similar in meaning to help the students to understand the content of the matching tasks, which I coded as a synonym:

"*if they do not understand or cannot match words with their meaning, I try to give another meaning, which is really ahhhha ahhhh.*
S: Similar

FM: yeh, similar or the, yeah, to the meaning in the course book".

According to FM, it is one of the very few strategies that the teachers use: "*teachers...they...they have just limited ways to explain things. I mean, for example, by describing ahh the target thing or by giving a synonym* ". AS described his students' use of this technique to solve their problems: "*They use a word with a similar meaning, as a synonym"*, T2 referred to the students' use of synonyms implicitly: *"students always try to explain themselves by using various words to indicate the exact meaning"*. Another teacher mentioned the use of an "*alternative word*", which may be relevant to the use of 'synonyms' or the use of a 'general word' and an 'all-purpose' word. In conclusion, synonyms are used as part of vocabulary teaching by the teachers and are implemented by the students to deal with vocabulary-related difficulties that they encounter during communication.

6.6.7.2 Description

This meaning expression type of strategy is mentioned by three teachers. Two of these relate to one of only two strategies used by the Libyan teachers and as being one of the methods that ZK uses to teach new vocabulary: "*I first try to describe it or use drawing or other facilities if possible*". The students' use of description as a problem-solving method was mentioned by one teacher: "*the good students try to describe the words in English (FL)*". Here the use of the word "*good*" seems to indicate students with a high level of proficiency. The use of description seems to have relevance for vocabulary teaching and may be used by some teachers as well as a few students with English communicative ability. It could be argued that the use of this strategy requires more language structures than the previous strategies, which restricts its use to a specific group of learners.

6.6.7.3 Asking for help

This type of meaning negotiation strategy is reported to be used by the Libyan students to solve their problems and this can be in Arabic or English as reported by six of the teachers. It seems to be common for the students to ask their teachers rather than their peers for help, especially with grammar, structure and vocabulary meaning, as mentioned by the teachers, including T13L "*They often ask me to correct their grammar while they are speaking*". The teachers reflected this general view; for example, FM stated: "*most of the time they ask me, they ask me in Arabic*"; ZK: "*They usually ask me to help them to find the right English word, or they sometimes help each other*"; and FL: "*some other will ask other students or ask me to help ……Some students can use English to seek help clearly*". T27 explained the students' reaction to their speaking problems as, "*other times they ask a classmate about the word*". Another type of asking for help by the students mentioned is asking for clarification as two teachers stated, "*they ask other students ask directly for a clarification*" (T53)*.

It could be argued here that this type of strategy is relevant to the Libyan ELT classroom to some extent, as it is principally used when a language element is missing, or when confirmation of the use of the appropriate structure is needed. Here, this limited implementation of this strategy may signify the students' need to use perfect language structure or vocabulary by asking for the correct forms rather than using the range of meaning expression strategies to sum up the missed or unknown form or negotiating with the speaker to reach a common understanding with the listener.

6.6.7.4 Teachers' offering help

There were some instances where the participant teachers indicated different ways to help their students who were failing to proceed with their communicative messages which relate to the strategy of offering help. Four teachers directly help by providing difficult vocabulary or sentences. OM stated: "*I could just use direct help. I mean by providing the English vocabulary or the sentence that the student cannot say*". Three different forms of teachers' help that suggest strategic instruction include teachers' advising of the use of gesture, encouraging the students to ask for help, and asking them to use synonyms or definitions. AA seems to use the strategy of clarification: "*I try to help by clarifying*".

Overall, the teachers' help can be divided into two types, regarding their possible value for CSs learning. That is, the teachers provide the difficult linguistic structure or forms, so that their students can continue their target message, which is important for language learning. However, the overuse of this practice could decrease the students' ability to develop the use of CSs to solve their own problems in their own ways. On the contrary, what seems more relevant and valuable is the use of strategic instructions, which the teachers use to help the learners to continue their message using CSs. However, the types of strategies suggested are limited in number and, notably, the MES suggested are among the most popular types reported in this research.

6.6.7.5 Use of L1

The use of Arabic is described as a common practice in situations where teachers and students are expected to use different techniques to communicate their ideas or instructions in the L2 classroom in Libya. L1 use by the teachers was defined on different occasions, such as for delivering grammar-related lessons or explaining to their students. The reasons expressed for its use are that the students are incapable of comprehending what is said in English or because the teachers find it easier. FL stated: "*, unfortunately, as I can see that most teachers go for easy ways and use direct translation and not even ask their students to try and translate* ", while AA added: "*in case he or she doesn't know cannot understand. I can I can explain in the first language*". These arguments illustrate the teachers' inability to express their messages in a easy way using L2 CSs.

Similarly, the teachers discussed their students' use of L1. ZK, in discussing students' knowledge of CSs, indicated their tendency to use them: "*Maybe they do. However, students usually prefer easier ways to capture the meaning of English words and*

concepts, such as a translation from English into Arabic". Ten teachers conveyed two common ways in which Arabic is used by their students to solve communicative problems. One way is to communicate their message in Arabic, a strategy known as language switch. DW explained: "*sometimes bring an Arabic word to go on with the sentence*" and T10, "*They usually turn to speak in their mother tongue if they faced any language problems*". Also, they use L1 to ask their teachers for help. FM stated, "*most of the time, they ask me, they ask me in Arabic. Can you just tell me the meaning of this word?*" However, MES and MNS could be used in each of these cases to solve these problems.

Three other teachers mentioned that similar behaviour that occurs when they introduce new vocabulary or when the students are required to guess and explain the meanings of vocabulary to the class. AS explained: "*I allow about ten minutes to let the students gives the meaning of the words and by the end of this activity, I provide the right meaning of the words. Some students will do that in Arabic*". FM indicated that this happens when the students are asked to guess the content of the lesson by looking at pictures and titles, "*most of them…they guess in Arabic*".

To sum up, it seems that the use of Arabic is common in the Libyan classroom, where it is used to substitute for a few words in English, to deliver the lesson or to ask teachers and classmates for help. In those cases, Arabic is used as a problem-solving technique by the teachers and students to manage their own speaking performance difficulties or to offer understanding to the listener, which could indicate a lack of CSs use. The over use of Arabic may suggest a weakness in communicative skills and CLT implementation in the Libyan classroom. While the efficiency and benefits of L1 use for L2 learning have been recognised recently, a balanced approach that includes both with respect to the more valuable use of L2 is suggested (Nation, 2003).

6.6.7.6 Message abandonment/redundancy

This type of behaviour is used when the speaker is unable/does not intend to continue their communicative message. It is discussed because of its popularity and since it represents an alternative behaviour to the use of achievement CSs. This strategy was reported by the teachers when discussing their students' behaviour towards the communicative obstacles they encounter during speaking performance. Seven teachers stated that their students leave their messages unfinished when they face difficulty. S10 explained: "*they usually stop talking if they face any difficulties*" while FE stated:

"*confusion and silence is the most common*". According to FM, this happens when pronunciation is an obstacle: "*sometimes, they cannot under…they can't voice or ahh, pron…ahh pronounce some new words, they can't. So, if they can't pronounce it, they try not to say it*". AA referred to vocabulary problems: "*they usually stop their conversation and they are hesitant when they don't find the accurate word*".

It can be argued that Libyan students' tendency to use message reduction or abandonment rather than risk-taking could indicate their limited use of achievement strategies. This is assumed in relation to the possible limitation of the use of MES and MNS and also to common use of Arabic by the teachers and students to solve various difficulties and interact in the classroom.

6.6.8 Discussion of the Findings on Strategies' Use

The teachers' strategies use was mainly limited to a few MES; providing synonyms or giving a description to help the students to understand the teachers' difficult messages while delivering vocabulary and grammar lessons or giving instructions. These agree with the earlier discussion (see Section 6.4.2) concerning the pedagogical intentions underlying the use of CSs in the classroom and the teachers' understandings related to MES. One of the critical findings that are thought to challenge the CLT principles is the teachers' tendency to use their L1 to deliver the lessons and clarify issues when their students fail to understand the L2 output. Arabic is considered an easy, economic way to facilitate students' understanding, considering the limited class time, materials' density and curriculum plans. This supports the finding of Tantani (2012) that Libyan secondary school teachers use L1 to explain new vocabulary, to correct their students' errors and when their students do not understand. Various studies indicate that using a single language is not common in the classroom (Ariffin & Susanti Husin, 2011), especially in EFL contexts when the teachers and students share the same L1. Jordanian teachers employ this strategy to solve their students' communicative problems (Al-Gharaibeh, 2016). Similarly, according to Rabab'ah and Al-Yasin (2016), the teachers used L1 with low proficiency students, as also expressed by the teachers in Arthur & Martin (2006).

L1 can be useful, but the over use of L1 can remove valuable opportunities for exposure and practice of L2 using negotiation and interaction in the EFL context. Furthermore, the extensive use of L1 by students to solve their problems or by teachers to explain or clarify issues could be replaced by similar strategies using L2. Thus, the inability to use L2 CSs could suggest a lack of knowledge of CSs among the teachers and students.

That is, "non-native speakers of the target language do not sometimes know how to repair, if they do, they might rely heavily on transfer from their native languages" (Çokal-Karadaş, 2010, p. 158).

The teachers' reliance on Arabic suggests a deficiency in the essential teaching strategies which could indirectly and reflexively inform their students "that using English cannot be helpful to clarify the meaning of instruction or unknown words, and this also might mean that teachers have low expectations of their students' understanding ability of English" (Al Hosni, 2014, p. 27). In the Libyan context, teachers are considered the model for their students which suggests that the students probably imitate their teachers' behaviour of using L1. The teachers' lower use of code switching would encourage their students to use L2 to process their messages (Rodriguez & Rodriguez, 2014).

My findings suggest that the students use L1 to solve problems, ask their teachers for clarification, and perform communicative tasks, such as guessing the meaning of new vocabulary and predicting the content of the lessons by looking at the titles and pictures and performing activities with their classmates. A reliance on L1 is a common phenomenon in Arab EFL classrooms, as learners lack communicative abilities due to the reliance on the traditional teaching methods (Al Ghazali, 2017). Other reasons include the effortlessness of L1 (Mariani, 2010) and the low proficiency of the learners (Świątek & Pluszczyk, 2016). In the Libyan classroom, these two arguments are common, because the Libyan teachers are acting in a similar way.

Additionally, the students' tendency to use message abandonment/reduction when they face problems was acknowledged. This behaviour represents the opposite behaviour of risk-taking using achievement strategies. Message reduction is difficult to detect, as it is decided in the planning phase of the performance (Mariani, 2010), but some teachers linked this to the hesitation and shyness preceding students' silence in individual performance. It can be argued that teachers can detect this strategy because they normally ask for specific responses when students perform vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation tasks. This behaviour might be due to the students' awareness of their restricted resources or to other personal and contextual factors.

Therefore, message reduction/abandonment in the current investigation could be related to inadequate linguistic competence (Nakatani, 2006) in addition to the reported anxiety (Grzegorzewska, 2015) and lack of confidence among Libyan students, which

encourage them to choose to save face, as revealed in (Świątek & Pluszczyk, 2016). For instance, even upper intermediate EFL students with a higher level of anxiety tend to use message reduction when facing difficulties in communicating (Sadeghi & Soleimani, 2016).

Training in and raising awareness of CSs can reduce this behaviour by encouraging the students to take risks using useful CSs (Nakatani, 2005). Nonetheless, a few of the teachers mentioned the students' use of the MNS of appealing for help from their teachers and classmates, and the teachers stated that it is used in L1 and L2. This strategy is valuable for learning by stimulating new language from the interlocutor (Mariani, 2010; Rabab'ah & Al-Yasin, 2016) and the more proficient speaker, as implied in ZPD theory (see Chapter 2).

Additionally, Libyan teachers acknowledged the use of synonyms and description by students to solve problems, such as difficulty with pronunciation, but this tends to be restricted to proficient learners. It might be claimed that the linguistic competence of Libyan students is limited, and Nakatani (2006) noted that learners with high oral proficiency used fluency-oriented and negotiation of meaning strategies.

Moreover, some teachers declared the difficulty of paraphrasing for Libyan students, which seems to be convincing in regard to the previous findings on strategy use and communicative difficulties in the EFL classroom. That is, paraphrasing requires managing the lexical, grammatical and semantic elements (Mariani, 2010). The treatment of Jordanian learners by Bataineh, Al-Bzour, & Bani Abdelrahman (2017) improved the meaning negotiation strategies, not paraphrasing due to an unavailable lexical repertoire. This suggests that teachers should be careful about using relevant activities that suit their students' ability and that the teaching of certain strategies might not be recommended for certain students.

6.6.9 Teaching Materials

My investigation reflected the participants' views of the Libyan teaching materials and their content, with a focus on the aspects considered helpful for improving and developing communicative skills, such as solving communication problems, which were also investigated by analysing the materials' content in Chapter Three. The implementation of specific tasks, thought to develop strategic skills, which relates to my theoretical framework, has been inspected individually. These viewpoints are additionally significant to this research as they could help to explain the quantitative

data obtained from the materials' analysis and the questionnaires to provide more detail about the practices and views that would build a more consistent discussion of the final findings and guide any valuable recommendations for the Libyan EFL classroom.

6.6.9.1 Perceptions of the teaching materials

The views of the teachers and students concerning the teaching materials incorporate two main segments, according to the students and teachers; satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the teaching materials. Most of the participating students and teachers were satisfied with the content and usefulness of the materials with regard to developing communication skills. Many of the positive views of the students took the form of general statements about the usefulness of the teaching materials, such as: "*yes, it's useful because it helps you to improve your ability to learn language quickly*" (S26). Another group of participants refer to the benefit of the materials for learning vocabulary, grammar and reading; for example, S18 stated: "*Yes, because they help learning new vocabulary and grammar rules*" while S11 commented: "*Yes, because they contain reading passages and grammar lessons that are helpful for our daily life*". In addition, some of the teachers find the materials helpful for teaching and encouraging communicative activities such as role-play and group and pair work. This was clarified by T33: "*Yes, of course. For example, encouraging students to practise the role-play activities helps them to build their confidence in speaking English in real situations and provides them with a wide range of vocabulary*". Additionally, T48 underlined the usefulness of the materials as follows: "*Yes, group work might lead to better speaking skills*".

On the other hand, there was some criticism among the students, who identified the insufficiency of the materials in terms of the shortage issue, as mentioned by S15: "*yes, they are useful but not enough alone*" and S33L "*No, the syllabus is brief*". A few students found implementation to be a factor when defining the usefulness of the materials. S23 stated: "*It is useful, but I think it is not well exploited by the teachers. They often skip tasks especially interactive and time-consuming ones*" and S34, "*May be they are useful, but the teachers do not know how to use them*". Here, the issue about skipping communicative tasks for time constrain is relevant to the class time discussed previously.

The students also argued that the materials deficient in speaking skills; for instance, S51 commented: "*most of the syllabus is about grammar and conversations are very few*

what makes the students abilities very limited". Another student discussed the idea of the artificial aspect of the conversations:

"*No, I do not think so. This is because the materials are not factual for the students. The lessons and the conversations used do not reflect the everyday life of the students and the British people as well. The conversations do not include what people actually use but they are artificial*" (S50).

This is similar to the declaration of T21: "*in my opinion, we need to improve our activities materials in class; for example, using real English conversation between students and give them a chance to speak in class*". Furthermore, other students stated: "*not a lot, because the speaking activities are few*" (S21), and that "*the reason why the students are not able to speak fluently is the weakness of the syllabus*" (S51).

The different views presented show that the materials' focus, according to the participants, is not on developing communicative competence. However, one should be careful in claiming this because the teachers' implementation of the available communicative activities might be insufficient, which is affecting the students' views of the materials' content. The obstacles discussed in the contextual factors section, such as the time restriction and inconsistency in the students' levels, that have an impact on this issue, should also be considered. The issue of the lack of genuine communicative tasks and examples highlights its importance to this inquiry, since CSs are natural communicative skills.

6.6.9.2 Teachers book

The views regarding the teachers' use of teachers' book's instructions suggested the difficulty of the content for the Libyan students and teachers as well as the unsuitability regarding the class duration and size, leading to diversity in the use of the instructions. OM stated: "*Honestly, I don't follow exactly*". ZK modifies or discounts some of the instructions, "*I usually use reach the target of the lesson using my own ways that are suitable for the different levels of the students*". DD explained the difficulty of using the activities' instructions: "*If you have a large classroom, you cannot listen to everyone, so it is better to divide the class into groups rather than use pair work*".

Only two teachers showed a tendency to follow the teacher books: "*I always try to follow them exactly as they written. What I mean is the instructions related to the answers of the different questions*", commented DW. This later statement, however,

excludes many other instructions such as tasks implementations and lessons instructions. SK raised a point about the sample answers as follows: "*some of the tasks are difficult for the teachers, so some teachers need to go back to check the correct answer or the exact answer or to compare their answers or their with the teachers book and then to provide it to the students* ".

The suggested answers to the tasks and activities in the course book may be followed by many teachers, suggesting that many instances of MES are allocated in the materials' analysis. However, the teachers' book's instructions and objectives may not be suitable for developing communicative competence in many classrooms, as suggested by the inconsistency in the teachers' practices and materials' implementation.

6.6.9.3 Vocabulary teaching

The different ways in which the teachers introduce or deal with vocabulary in the classroom, comprising tasks that are related to vocabulary and reading lessons, were explored. The methods used to introduce new vocabulary embrace two different teaching strategies. One is teacher-based while the other incorporates teacher-student or student-student collaboration. The first follows the traditional language teaching method, where teachers highlight the new vocabulary on handouts or by writing it on the board, providing it meaning in either L1 or L2 or both and teach its pronunciation. In the second method, the students are involved in finding out the meaning of the new vocabulary, which may encourage the use of CSs, particularly MES. SK deals with new vocabulary in this way: "*I let the students guess the meaning from the text*". More collaboration seems to be the method used by FE, as one teacher commented: "*I usually depend on the pair work and team work to teach the new vocabulary*". The use of pair work and group work to discuss the meaning of new words or expressions seems to be another possible way of helping the students to make use of both MES, such as description, definition or the use of paraphrasing, and MNS, such as asking for help or giving help to other students during the task performance. In conclusion, there seems to exist diversity within the ways in which the teachers introduce vocabulary in the classroom.

6.6.9.4 Tasks and activities

This research investigated the tasks and activities available in the materials and the use of those tasks on the questionnaires. The interviews developed some additional knowledge about the tasks and their implementation.

- **The matching tasks**

Matching tasks, used mainly for vocabulary teaching, do not seem to be implemented interactively by certain teachers. These are used as homework, where the students merely match the words to their meaning after these have been explained by the teachers either in L1 or L2 or are handed a list to study individually and learn by heart. Only two teachers use pair and group work to discuss the answers. FL explained: *I ask the students to prepare for the lesson in advance, so it's the students' job to find out the new words' meanings. I divide the class into groups or pairs and give them some slips of paper and ask them to express the meaning to each other*. This suggests that the teacher's target in using this task is an understanding of the meaning of the words rather than learning ways to express and negotiate the answers. Also, preparing the lesson at home could require the use of an English dictionary, which could be helpful but does not seem an easy job for the reported level of the students and could advocate the use of an Arabic dictionary instead. This means that any chance of exposure to different ways of expressing the meanings would be limited. This preparation also means that the difficulty required for strategy use might be eliminated because the students, in this case, will not arrive at the class with the need to negotiate meaning but rather to perform to an audience.

- **The paraphrasing tasks**

This type requires students to explain words, phrases, or sentences in their own words, and there are two different views of this. Six teachers explained the difficult nature of the task to the Libyan students. For this reason, they do not use it, set it as homework or do it themselves. OM commented: "*I think. It is difficult and cannot be used especially for the first-year students* " while FL stated: "*I have tried this few times, honestly. It is hard for my students, so we usually do it as a home work*". Three interviewees reported their use of such tasks, including DD: "*Yes, I do this with my students and I consider this the most interesting part of the lesson and my students enjoy it the most. We do it like a game most of the time*". The difficulty issue was still mentioned by AS, however: "*Of course, I use them…not all of our students have the abilities to use these techniques*". The Libyan students' ability, different levels and lack of communicative skills seem to influence both the implementation of the relevant tasks and their ability to use the paraphrasing skill, which seems to be difficult in nature.

- **Describing the differences between Objects**

Five teachers stated explicitly that they do not use this activity. FE stated: "*I don't use this activity, but we compare people and objects to practice the use of comparative and superlative adjectives*". DW, whose statement of a lack of practice of this tasks relates to the students' incapability to use English, declared: "*I am afraid; not really, because it depends on the students who really have nothing to say in English*". The other three teachers provided brief, unexplained answers regarding their lack of use of this activity. It is clear from these various statements that this activity is not common in the classroom.

- **Role-play**

Five teachers explained the benefit and their use of role-play. ZK responded: "*Yes, always. It improves their communication competence and self-confidence and helps them to practice how words are pronounced*", while OM showed her interest in role-play by saying: "*Good and fun. When they practise the conversation, for instance, they will practise the pronunciation. They may take some expressions from the conversation to use in their daily lives. We use it, but not regularly, to be honest*". Accordingly, self-confidence can be gained by practising this activity. Regarding the actual implementation of role-play, four teachers shared their experience of the difficulty of this activity. DW stated, "*Yes, I use this activity even though it is it is difficult for most of my students*". On the contrary, FM commented: "*I used to put them into groups to explain a word; they shared their information together and try to give me one definition for a word or a sentence or something like that, but I don't use this*". FE believed that "*some teachers skip this*" while AA suggested that "*few students can do this without having the conversation been prepared at home*". AA raised a common practice that I used to experience as both a student and teacher at school and university, which is the preparation of the role-play conversations prior to their performance. The students would learn their conversation by heart, and then they perform it in front of the class. The role-play, in this case, would lack the interactional aspects needed in real communication that require using MES and MNS. The responses show agreement on the value of this task in building students' self-confidence, improving their pronunciation and providing useful expressions than can be used outside the classroom. Nonetheless, role-plays implementation is challenging for teachers and students, suggesting that it may not play an essential role in developing strategic behaviour, although it has potential for CST, if used spontaneously.

- **Story-telling**

Only one teacher reported using the story-telling activity, saying: "*Yes, I use this exercise, because these are part of the reality and assist learning of verbs and adjectives so that they can link them to our daily lives, and they will learn how to use the tenses in the proper place* "(FE). Story-telling is not implemented by the others, as four of the teachers evidently articulated in their answers: "*never*" (DW), and "*No, this activity is difficult*" (AA). On the other hand, although there was only one positive response, the benefits mentioned suggest that these teachers might be focusing on the development of vocabulary and grammar learning rather than communicative ability.

- **Guessing the meaning from pictures and titles**

Seven teachers conveyed their use of this activity in the classroom, with a variation in the consistency of its implementation, as can be seen from the answers of AA: "*Yes, we do this all the time*" and DW, whose comment relates to the students' response rather than her own practices: "*seldom, they do that*". The approaches or techniques for applying this were described by some of the teachers. According to FL: "*I would rather to ask them to quickly read the text and tell what they understood*", which seems to be comparable to the paraphrasing task: "*I do not ask the students to guess from through titles because it wastes time but I usually ask them to guess through pictures, which is more useful and easy*" (FE). In this case, asking the students to guess the lesson content from the pictures is a similar task to the common task used by the researcher to elicit and assess the use of CSs in research experiments which seem to be useful for practising CSs. Only ZK seems to use group and pair work to perform this activity. FL asserted: "*teachers do not prefer it*". Three teachers consider the value of that type of task. Two of them deliberate this differently, as ZK commented: "*I use this way to encourage them to use any possible means that may help them to understand and use English*", while OM explained: "*Good task. It's a way of demonstrating the vocabulary*". This task seems to be more common than the other reported tasks in terms of its use. On the other hand, the ways in which it is used, incorporating a level of difficulty in expressing the target vocabulary or describing the objects or themes in the pictures, are an important factor that encourages the use of CSs. On the other hand, the interactional aspect of pair or group work is another valuable factor that may encourage the use of MNS. To sum up, the likelihood of employing both types of CSs is available even though the teachers do not demonstrate any link to CSs.

- **Describing familiar objects or concepts**

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Only one teacher reported using this activity, saying, "*sometimes, depends on the difficulty of the concept*", while seven teachers declared that they do not use it. Two of them attribute their lack of use to the unavailability of the task in the materials. FL said: "*This is a good activity, it urges them to guess without feeling bored, but we don't have these in our books*". This later statement shows that teachers depend on the materials' content.

- **Transcripts and conversations**

Looking at transcripts and listening to conversations including examples of CSs is advised in order to raise the students' awareness of strategy use in meaningful contexts. None of the teachers reported using these materials due to a lack of audio and visual equipment, which suggests that exposure to spoken language is limited to L2 classroom interaction. "*Yeah, it is beneficial, but we practise it in university not in secondary school, no we don't, we haven't use these because it needs facilities like visual aids and there is a lack of such facilities*", commented FM. Moreover, five students clearly conveyed their lack of practice of speaking activities, S12 stated: "*No, we do not practise speaking*" and S7 commented, "*No, because the teacher is not encouraging*".

In conclusion, it can be assumed that many Libyan classrooms lack the implementation of communicative tasks and are unable to make use of speaking and listening content, that seems to be due to different issues; classroom resources, and the teachers' practices. However, the teachers' views and practices seem to differ. Additionally, the interviews also show that the teachers' understanding of communicative tasks and CLT may be limited, as they do not make use of Meta language to express their ideas about language teaching and their knowledge and practices in relation to CSs. It was also observed that the interviewees could not deliberate in their responses and provided short, general answers, which affected the in-depth detail required from interviews, but seems to suggest that the teachers are inexperienced in using the tasks and activities and thus were emphasising their lack of using them.

6.6.10 Discussion of the findings on the teaching materials' content and implementation

CLT materials should be based on the students and teachers' needs (Savignon, 2018). My findings suggest an opposite situation, as reflected in the Libyan teachers and students' attitudes towards the materials' role in developing communicative skills. They highlighted a limitation and unauthenticity associated with the speaking and listening

lessons and called for content that was more appealing to students. This suggests that the ELT materials, lacking an interactional aspect of conversation, have ignored recent calls to focus on speaking skills (Tomlinson, Dat, Masuhara, & Rubdy, 2001). However, in addition to the materials' content, Libyan teachers' practices, and students' characteristics and abilities are also considered in the current research. Their views regarding the quality of the speaking content are also valuable because authentic materials have a positive impact on the development of the four language skills, according to different research studies (Belaid & Murray, 2015), and also increase motivation regarding language learning (Peter, Skopinskaja, & Liiv, 2016). None of these benefits were underlined in my findings. This was also associated with the participants' demand for audio and visual resources in the classroom, as Libyan students indicated this need in Omar (2013).

Moreover, the findings concerning tasks implementation reflected inconsistency in different classrooms and even in the same classroom, being subject to classroom circumstances. The teachers' perceptions of tasks efficacy reflected inadequacy concerning the development of CSs. This includes difficulties related to the use of group work and pair work, which are core aspects of CLT classroom interaction (see Section 2.5.2), due to the classroom setting and the students' differences. The reported use of these activities did not imply naturally directed situations, which suggests that one-way communicative practices are more common in certain classrooms.

These activities often include L1 use. In Rodriguez & Rodriguez (2014), L1 was used in group work by the least motivated students, which may be due to Libyan students' characteristics and attitudes towards speaking activities. It is common that many students revert to L1 and do not linguistically challenge themselves, which hinders the implementation of communication activities at primary and secondary schools when they are not thoroughly observed (Littlewood, 2013, p. 16).

Moreover, the students' different levels create difficulties regarding materials' implementation. Considering that less proficient learners might not be engaged in communication and may avoid interaction, as mentioned by the student participants, this can have undesirable implications for their communicative competence. It also suggests that they are unable or not encouraged to make use of their limited resources, by using CSs. The teachers are required to consider that the learners could be more interactive when they are conscious of the necessity to communicate and exchange information; this can reinforce the use of CSs (Mei & Nathalang, 2010).

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The limited interactive activities in the Libyan classroom could also mean that learners are exposed to textual rather than contextual or practical learning (Jha, 2014, p.20) and miss exposure to situations encouraging risk-taking and problem-solving in interactional situations. That is, strategic behaviour is developed gradually because of the frequent use of L2, which entails more exposure to difficulties to cope with (Bui & Intaraprasert, 2013), without being taught how to do that (Mariani, 2010). However, the complexity of CSs claimed in (Mariani, 2010) is worth considering because not only can the task type and proficiency level affect strategy use, but the nature of the problems and individual preferences are important.

It should be mentioned that some teachers value some activities' roles in improving self-confidence and communicative skills. However, it is possible that a lack of understanding of CLT and EFL teaching explains their difficulty regarding adopting useful techniques for applying tasks and activities that suit their students' abilities. Thus, creativity may be required of Libyan teachers to solve issues in the Libyan classroom (Omar 2013). Issues concerning the implementation of CLT and the conflict between theory and practice (CLT's theoretical assumptions of classrooms practice) are attributed to contextual issues (Hinkel, 2011). To sum up, the assumptions made by the materials designer and Libyan educational authorities to improve the communicative ability of Libyan students may not have proved successful, according to my participants, and as argued by (Orafi, 2017).

6.7 Summary of the Qualitative Findings

This chapter provided key findings to answer the relevant research questions. Theses seem to suggest that some Libyan teachers have restricted knowledge of CSs, mainly limited to MES. Many Libyan students may also lack knowledge of CSs. The teachers seem to lack a sufficient educational and professional background that would equip them with knowledge of strategic competence, and the lack of useful information for teaching English communicatively. The potential use of CSs in the classroom may be unconsciousness and some teachers' use of CSs could serve pedagogical intentions.

Various evidence in this chapter suggests that the Libyan teachers and students' employment of L2 CSs could be limited. That is, Arabic is over-used by the teachers and students to overcome communication problems; the use of L1 is also an easier way to process language learning and classroom interactions, which seems to be related to the proficiency factor. Also, reliance on message reduction by the students could show

that the Libyan students are not risk-takers and does not use CSs to achieve their communicative goals or keep the conversation open. Some types of MES and mostly MNS may require a level of proficiency that the Libyan students might not have acquired. The students' use of use message reduction might be related to factors such as the students' lack of self-confidence and the teachers' focus on error correction which could suggest that many students are not able to develop strategic competence in their classrooms.

Nonetheless, the communicative tasks targeted by the current research seem to have a very limited implementation due to different hindrances. Teacher's practices reflected focus on form and accuracy in the Libyan classroom. The Libyan educational context and the difficulties related to the classroom setting seem to affect the implementation of the materials.

The students and teachers seem to have negative attitudes towards the current teaching practices and materials' content. Despite this, the Libyan teachers seem to hold positive attitudes towards CST. CST and an awareness of CSs can be important to shift the classroom from a form focus to a proficiency focus and from traditional teaching to communicative teaching.

6.8 Possible Limitations of the Interviews

The use of semi-structured online interviews was practical and effective for collecting the data, considering the exceptional situation in Libya. They also offered links with previous findings through MMR. However, the data collected on the tasks and activities' implementation were less informative than anticipated. This may be attributable to the way in which the teachers were interviewed but face to face interviews do not differ from those conducted online in terms of depth. It might also be attributed to the teachers' current levels of competence and teaching experience. Similar research may benefit from gathering detailed accounts of how the teachers deal with the tasks and activities through conducting more in-depth interviews.

6.9 Conclusion

The main concern of the chapter was to present my implementation of the interviews as the main instrument for collecting the qualitative data, to discuss the qualitative analysis procedures, present the qualitative data of this study and discuss the major findings. The findings provided accounts of the understanding of CSs as perceived by the teachers and their implementation of the target communicative tasks and activities with respect to the

possible surrounding contextual circumstances. These findings will be discussed and presented under different headings in the next chapter to suggest the possible development of CSs.

Chapter Seven Discussion and Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

The main quest leading the current mixed methods investigation is to provide a critical overview of the potential role of CSs in the Libyan EFL secondary school classroom by sequentially exploring various relevant issues related to the content of the teaching materials, from the perspectives of the students and teachers, to the CSs in their classrooms. Hence, the evidence obtained regarding the materials' content analysis, discussed in Chapter Three, offered a useful framework for estimating the possible development of MES and MNS through both the students' exposure to models of CSs and also the different types of the tasks and activities that reflect the possible nature of L2 production and interactional behaviour in the classroom.

Additionally, Chapter Four presented the questionnaire findings which provide insights into the teachers and students' perceptions of CSs and the implementation of the most common tasks available in the materials. In Chapter Five, the Libyan teachers' interviews conveyed more in-depth insights into the teacher's perceptions, understanding and position regarding CSs and their teachability to students in secondary schools. Exploring those experiences provided useful background about the Libyan classroom which clarified issues in respect to the strategic behaviour of teachers and students. It also revealed many challenges in the Libyan EFL classroom and more understanding of the findings related to the implementation of some tasks and activities.

Consequently, my findings accumulated different evidence. The key findings were directly linked to the research questions (from the materials' analysis, quantitative data from the questionnaires) and those additional findings (from the teachers and students' qualitative data) provided additional contextualisation aspects (attitudes towards the materials and teaching, the contextual factors and settings in the classroom) that offered additional explanations.

The design of this research requires the integration of the key findings obtained by applying the three data collection tools. Accordingly, this chapter will comprehensively discuss the different findings in light of the conceptual, theoretical and empirical areas discussed in Chapter Two, particularly those related to CST and its implications, with respect to the Libyan classroom context and the research presented in Chapter One. As far as I am aware, no previous research has investigated CSs in the classroom in similar way, which makes it difficult to compare my findings with those of other research;

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therefore, the research aims and pedagogical considerations of CSs will be useful for my discussion.

Hence, the chapter will first review the major findings in relation to the available recommendations regarding strategies instruction, considering that the literature seems to lack this type of research. Then, it will provide a conclusion that clearly states the research's findings, contribution, reflections, pedagogical implications, and limitations, together with possible recommendations for future research.

7.2 The integration of the research findings

Before discussing the findings in relation to each research question (RQ), it is important to restate the definition of CSs, investigated in the current research. Meaning expressions strategies (MES) are used to "overcome obstacles in communication by providing the speaker with an alternative form of expression for the intended meaning" (Bialystok, 1990, p.35). Meaning negotiation strategies (MNS) are used in "a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where basic meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (Tarone, 1981, p.288), which can include confirmation checking, corrections and repetitions. Thus, the materials' content, the perceptions of the teachers and learners of knowledge, its uses, and the related teaching or instruction in the Libyan classroom were investigated according to those conceptualisations. Also, additional findings obtained qualitatively from the teachers and students' questionnaires and also the findings from the teachers' interviews, that did not directly answer my main inquiries, are of equal importance, providing more contextualisation aspects for the discussion of the research outcomes which will be incorporated in the final recommendations . These will be discussed below.

7.2.1 The materials' potential to develop knowledge of CSs

7.2.1.1 Materials' content

As presented and discussed in Chapter 4, quantitative features related to the representative instances of CSs and tasks and activities were revealed from the analysis of the Libyan classroom's materials, to answer RQ1 and 1/A:

RQ1- Are there any explicit or implicit examples of Communication Strategies or tasks in the Libyan ELT materials that could have the potential for introducing, enhancing or encouraging the use of communication strategies?

Q1/A- How are the potential examples of CSs and the related communicative tasks presented in the materials?

The findings reflected the frequency and distribution of MES among the different materials for each of the three school grades and among the materials of each grade (teachers' books, course books, and workbooks). The materials' explicitness and the related objectives of the lessons, the context (text or task) are presented, and also the types of tasks correlated with MES.

The CSs in the Libyan materials relate to three different categories: communicative tasks (requiring oral production), tasks (not requiring oral production), and a few instances found in the texts, such as the reading texts. These findings helped to form several possible assumptions of the materials' role in mediating CSs learning. Overall, it was apparent that the materials do not currently offer declarative knowledge about CSs (meta language of CSs and their value and function).

However, there is a potential implicit link to certain MESs that is believed to reflect more focus on form, as instances appeared in the lessons and tasks related to reading, vocabulary and grammar. Therefore, this potentially suggests that linguistic knowledge is needed to perform strategies for definition and description, since these two types of MES appeared more commonly. Surprisingly, however, MNS were not traced in the materials. Additionally, the materials contain other communicative activities that can also be useful to develop CSs through oral interaction. These findings will now be discussed in different sections: the first will focus on the findings of MES, while the second will focus on the potential of classroom interaction to develop CSs, especially MNS. Guidance for teaching CSs especially that of Dörnyei (1995) and Mariani (2010), will assist the examination of the materials' content and implementation.

The focus on form could therefore be related to the argument of (Kellerman, 1991, p.185), who argues that teaching more language can develop strategies, and that of Faucette (2001) and Dörnyei (1995), who suggest that the majority of useful CSs are hard to perform without the necessary supplementary vocabulary (procedural vocabulary) and structures. If declarative knowledge that clearly links language learning with CSs is not offered, strategic expressions may provide implicit procedural learning occurring with a lack of conscious attention or awareness (Brown, 2006) because implicit learning requires the construction of learning that is enhanced with the target feature without explicit attention (Ellis, 2009). It seems difficult to assume that possible

occurrences of CSs really represent strategies that can be noticed by the learners. Some features of the instances encourage this assumption: the strategies' frequency, the appearance in the materials (workbooks and teachers' book in vocabulary lessons and within texts) and the activities associated with them can be considered implicit learning, in the absence of reference to the communication functions. It could be hard for even the teachers to notice these in the absence of guidance and instructions.

As discussed in Chapter 2, a meaningful context is required for strategies to be learned or noticed. For instance, providing models of the use of certain CSs in realistic situations, such as dialogues (Dörnyei, 1995) or transcripts containing strategic behaviour performed by native speakers, can enhance learners' awareness of useful strategies which they can apply in similar situations (Mariani, 2010). On the other hand, implicit learning can be achieved by using real audio and visual content of strategy use by proficient speakers in realistic communication contexts (Amoozesh & Gorjian; Nguyet & Mai, 2012; Liaghat & Afghary, 2015; Alahmed, 2017). Considering that the Libyan classroom lacks the essential audio and visual facilities needed to teach speaking and listening content, and considering that potential CSs in the material which can be useful were not offered in the transcripts, could suggest that CSs modelling and noticing features might be lacking.

More importantly, the instances where MES was linked to certain tasks and activities requiring defining or describing vocabulary or objects could be useful because some of them require verbal production, in pairs, so CSs practice can be expected. In theory, these tasks relate to the information gap, especially those require spotting the differences between two objects (Mackey, 2013). They require students' interaction to share unfamiliar information because the purpose of communication is to close a gap in information between the students by them cooperating (Goh, 2016) in a two-way interaction which thus prospectively increases their opportunities to use MNS (Gass, Mackey, & Ross-Feldman, 2005; Alahmed, 2017).

MNS can be encouraged using information gap tasks, especially if the students involved are of similar proficiency levels (Jeong, 2011). "Engaging learner in conversational interaction" is an indirect teaching approach for speaking (Richards, 1990, P.76). Teachers may require some guidance to recognise opportunities for CSs and consider effective ways that suits the groups' structures (Jeong, 2011).

Conversely, when those tasks are used in a closed-way by one student, the strategies used can usually be MES for solving the speakers' own problems (Alahmed, 2017). Additionally, the fact that the answers given in those tasks seem to be followed by the teachers, especially that these will be needed for exam purpose in Libyan schools, may mean that these tasks will be performed in a closed way as, in open way performance, there will be no right answer (Luu & Nguyen Thi, 2010). Accordingly, Libyan students in secondary schools are taught lexical content out of context which creates more difficulties in their productive skills (Shihiba, 2011). This can be linked to issues of hesitation, a lack of participation, a fear of mistakes and difficulties related to using the correct vocabulary, as discussed in Chapter Six. What could be useful is encouraging fluency and the use of CSs. For instance, students can ask for help for difficult vocabulary or make use of MES to replace difficult lexical structures.

Adding to the previous discussion, the findings from the qualitative questionnaires and interviews show agreement among the teachers and students regarding the materials' focus on grammar and vocabulary, lack of speaking and listening lessons and a lack of genuineness in the materials' content. This seems to support the idea that many of the communicative tasks, regardless of their interactive nature, are mainly offering form-focused language practice which involves "intensive attention to pre-selected forms" and is usually clear to the learners (Ellis, 2001, p.17). Similarly, the grammatical and vocabulary content is a significant feature of the secondary English textbooks in Bangladesh, rather than communicative activities (Kirkwood & Rae, 2011).

Additionally, offering and following suggested answers can relate to the accuracy aspect because activities with the controlled production of grammatically-correct linguistic structures in L2 refer to accuracy activities that focus on linguistic form (Brumfit, 1984). Currently, CSs do not seem to be included or made explicit in the materials and thus do not appear to be being used in Libyan classrooms in a natural communicative way, which may seem to contradict slightly the questionnaire findings regarding CSs use and teaching but is more compatible with those regarding high the frequency of L1 use and low frequency of using the tasks and activities, L2 and risk-taking.

7.2.1.2 Implementations of the materials

As implied in **RQ1/b** (Are those related tasks and activities implemented in the classroom and in what ways?), the tasks found in the materials were investigated using the teachers and students' questionnaires (quantitative and qualitative findings) and

teachers' interviews. The findings show that few of the tasks are implemented in the classroom. Also, the interviews indicated that their implementation and methods of application can vary from one teacher to another, endorsing the idea that many students are not given an opportunity to practice strategy use. Although my findings did not reveal the details of exactly how the tasks are implemented, thinking about the exams as a learning target in Libyan schools and based on my knowledge of this context, teachers usually expect students to provide answers comparable to those in the teachers' books, which they have to remember for the written exams. These traditions are continuing from the previous teaching approaches, discussed in Chapter One. The traditional teaching methods used in the CLT classroom can be attributed to the teachers sharing the same educational background as the EFL students themselves (Turnbull, 2018). This is possible, considering the EFL development in Libya (see Section 1.4).

Additionally, most of the investigated tasks and activities linked to the definition/description's strategies require pair/group work. The difficulty of following these approaches, acknowledged by the teachers, seems to suggest that some students may perform this task individually. This could mean that chances to practise MES are unlikely. This can then support the findings related to MES discussed earlier in this chapter, but it is important to consider that these tasks might be fulfilled using Arabic or by teachers providing the correct answer immediately to the students. However, it can be argued that the materials, whether aimed at developing CSs or not, may implicitly develop procedural knowledge through the implementation of tasks and activities interactively in pairs or groups. This can happen without any metalinguistic awareness (Brown, 2006), through implicit learning, when students are exposed to problematic situations (Mariani, 2010). Thus, teachers must be made aware of ways to encourage pair and group work as a means of developing CSs.

Nonetheless, my research clearly shows that the teacher's implementations can be crucial in enhancing the understanding of classroom interaction and the development of CSs. Thus, since the teachers' books' instructions for the tasks and activities can be disregarded or modified by some teachers, when perceived as difficult or inappropriate for the classroom or setting because of challenges such as the class size and students' levels, this means that the few useful instructions found in the teachers' books may not be followed. Possible modification in the teachers' guidance may be required due to the complexity of the curriculum (Fullan, 2001), as the teachers similarly discussed in this research.

What is more, the teachers' practices in the classroom might seem to be affected by their personal attitudes and understanding of ELT, as seen in their views about CST and about certain tasks revealed in the interviews. The teachers discussed the lack of communicative activities in the materials (see Chapter 6), due to the focus on grammatical and lexical learning, which can be relatively acceptable, but they seem to ignore that the materials support interacting through an emphasis on pair and group work. In addition, my findings (Chapter 6) indicated that the teachers' book's content can be hard, unsuitable for the Libyan classroom and so may be ignored. A lack of knowledge of CLT, its methodologies and theoretical underpinnings, discussed in Chapters 1 and 2, are also indicated in (Alshibany, 2018). Also, the lack and/or limited nature of the teachers' training which is based on instructing teachers to follow the teachers' book (Orafi, 2015), cannot be disregarded. It was acknowledged that the belief in and practice of CLT have also been found to differ in various contexts (Rahman, Singh, & Pandian, 2018). From this, it can be concluded that some teachers require explicit instructions in order to fulfil CLT's aims.

In respect of the findings reflecting the students' reference to the ineffective role of their teachers and also to those showing differences between perceptions and practice, it is possible to argue that Libyan teachers' styles may be inconsistent and unstructured, which can make it difficult for researchers seeking definitive implications and recommendations and those aiming at establishing conclusions regarding the teaching trends in the Libyan context. As a result, it is hard to assume that the learning objectives of the tasks may be met, including those that can indirectly contribute to CSs development.

Additionally, considering the inconsistency of the potential MES instances, mainly available in the workbooks, and the deficiency in using the workbooks which was identified by the questionnaire findings, teachers can modify the materials' instructions regarding certain tasks that were discussed in the interviews, which seems to provide a possible understanding of the difficulties related to developing communicative competence which can similarly affect CSs development. In terms of the research's main focus on CSs development, it is important to state that this research could not thoroughly demonstrate that the lexical knowledge provided in the materials seems to enable learners to engage in basic communication "to convey the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary without reverting to L1 or giving up" (Faucette, 2001, p.7) (see discussions of strategy use, communicative difficulties, tasks implementation in Chapter 6).

My findings regarding the students' levels and various difficulties associated with learning, performing in L2, and taking part in communicative activities seem to emphasise that CSs development might be inhibited for some learners. Iwai's (2006) findings, implying learners' readiness to benefit from strategies' instructions, revealed that learners who developed fundamental lexical and grammatical declarative knowledge can be ready to turn this into procedural knowledge through CST and that those with very low proficiency levels can be less successful in preserving the learning outcomes of CST, but the behavioural gain related to encouraging the learner's active communication was incorporated in his findings.

Referring to the strategy use of paraphrasing as being the least reported among the teachers and students, the difficulty issue was emphasised in implementing the related tasks. From this, I argue that the linguistic knowledge of the Libyan classroom may not be sufficient to perform complex strategies. Therefore, potential CSs instruction in the Libyan classroom may be useful for students in different ways, based on their levels and linguistic knowledge, which need to be assessed systematically and clearly.

All evidence considered, it can be concluded that the Libyan classroom may fail directly (explicitly) to expose students to models of strategic behaviour through its materials, especially with regard to the limitation of MNS in the materials. In fact, the procedural knowledge (see Section 2.7.3) anticipated from student involvement in problem-based activities cannot be assumed, since it depends on whether the tasks are offered in a certain classroom, are implemented by the teachers, the students participate in them, how closely they match the student's abilities and, more importantly, how they are implemented.

7.2.2 Strategy awareness and understanding in the Libyan classroom

This research explored CSs awareness using questionnaires and interviews to answer RQ2 (What are the teachers' and students' perception of their knowledge, use and teaching of CSs in the classroom?), as discussed in Chapters Five and Six. Strategies' awareness was previously ignored in many strategies' questionnaires, leading to inadequate findings (Amerstorfer, 2018), and was one of the possible predictors that had the utmost ability to envisage strategy use (Lee & Oxford, 2008). It was also used to predict CSs development and available instruction in the Libyan classroom, being implied in CST (Dörnyei, 1995; Faucette, 2001; Mariani, 2010), especially for the direct (explicit) teaching approach. Thus, awareness should initially be explored before making any assumptions about CST because it is illogical to suggest CST if the students

already know and use CSs (Oxford, 2017). This chapter, by integrating all of the relevant findings, reviews the possible opportunities for CSs development.

The possible nature of CSs awareness (explicit or implicit) highlighted in the current investigation was explored assuming that it could be developed by the materials' modelling of CSs and/or encouraging their use through tasks and activities leading to useful classroom interaction, and also by the teachers' instructions and feedback.

The questionnaires show that the majority of the Libyan teachers and students have knowledge about various MES and MNS, an awareness of their own use of the strategies and also the strategies used in the classroom, and are aware of the usefulness of the strategies taught and used in the classroom. Thus, this suggests that declarative (what) and procedural (how) knowledge of CSs might be available in some classrooms. Full consciousness denotes two levels: the lower representing "noticing" and the higher denoting "understanding" of the rules (Oxford, 2017, p.40).

> …. cognitive theory suggests that if a given learning strategy is in full consciousness, it is a form of declarative knowledge, but if it becomes automatized (proceduralized) through practice over time and is therefore outside of consciousness, it is a form of procedural knowledge and is no longer a strategy" (ibid).

The interview findings conflicted with those of the earlier questionnaires. The teachers doubted an awareness of CSs and their metalanguage (declarative knowledge), suggesting that any implementation or instruction of CSs in the Libyan classroom is likely to be unconscious. This complies with the materials' lack of explicit reference to CSs, and also complies with the findings suggesting a lack of CSs knowledge in the teachers' education and training, which reflected the limitations in the teachers' understanding of CSs identified during the interviews. My findings added CSs as a new dimension to the previous research concerned with Libyan teachers' education (Alkhboli, 2014; Hussein, 2018), which is linked to the major hindrances suffered in the field of Libyan ELT education. It should be acknowledged that the centralisation of the Libyan political system in recent decades has affected all educational levels, including teachers' education, suggesting that my participants may be representative of many Libyan teachers.

The possible lack of awareness of CSs in teachers' education can also denote a lack of instructional and methodological knowledge of CST. Considering that some teachers essentially missed any ELT education, this may suggest that even those with some

knowledge of CSs may be unable to provide useful instructions about them. This seems to explain the interviewees' difficulty in providing in-depth evidence and using metalanguage about CSs, ELT and CLT. This, for example, was not the case in Frewan (2015) and Aulia's (2016a) research. Their participants offered some useful instructions on CSs in their classrooms and provided relevant explanations about language learning, regardless of the unconsciousness of certain teachers of CSs.

Moreover, Libyan teachers' practice and implementation of the materials seem be a consequence of their background and the difficulties caused by the policies and classroom setting, which reflects their limited pedagogical knowledge. Broadly speaking, the teachers' creativity, needed to develop CSs when the materials lack this knowledge, as assumed by Faucette (2001), was not evident in my research. Abid (2016) argues that the teachers' deficiency with regard to their linguistic and pedagogical competence negatively affected their CSs use, and instructions in the classroom could be relevant to the Libyan classroom, especially as some teachers expressed difficulties related to using the workbook and explaining in L2. This seems to be suggested in the teachers' views about the potential role of CST in solving difficulties during teaching.

Mansor (2017, p.2), in investigating L1 use, indicated that the Libyan EFL classroom is negatively affected by a "lack of teacher training, proficiency level in the TL and course content", while Hussein (2018), in investigating the factors affecting CLT implementation in secondary schools, reproduced issues related to teachers' lack of proficiency, pedagogical knowledge and training. Thus, thinking broadly about Libyan education and the findings regarding the communicative difficulties that students experience at university level (Omar, 2013), even those in English Departments, combined with the lack of strict regulations regarding employing English teachers in schools suggests that many Libyan teachers share similar problems and skills levels.

Additionally, the teachers' perception that their teaching activities may contribute to their awareness of CSs might be true, assuming that the teachers need to use CSs strategies themselves. It is acknowledged that EFL teachers face difficulties when explaining grammatical rules or word meanings and when adjusting any instructions to manage classroom verbal performance (Başyurt Tüzel & Akcan, 2009). However, suggesting that these strategies might be transferred from their L1 strategies could mean that they have developed procedural knowledge, considering that implicit learning can be linked to implicit knowledge (Hulstijn, 2015). Thus, considering the teachers' lack of

awareness of CSs might suggest that it is difficult to assume that their behaviour represents CSs and that that they can explicitly and effectively instruct their knowledge to learners.

Assuming that teachers' talk can provide a model for their learners is important. For instance, the overuse of CSs might lead to negative consequences, such as fossilisation (Mariani, 2010), so teachers need to know that the strategies transferred from L1 can be used inaccurately and, if fossilised, may be hard to eliminate later (Maleki, 2010). This suggests that the teachers' use of CSs is important, since an awareness of the nature and communicative potential of CSs (declarative knowledge) is essential for teaching CSs (Dörnyei, 1995). It can be argued that Libyan teachers may require essential knowledge about CSs and some guidance on CST since the teaching materials do not seem to provide this.

7.2.3 CSs in the classroom: behaviour and instruction

Perceived strategies use and teaching in the Libyan classroom were investigated by RQ2, through the questionnaires and interviews.

The questionnaires' quantitative evidence shows that a number of the teachers and students identified their use of certain CSs and perceived the each other's use of the strategies, which vary according to the strategy types. Noticeably, an awareness of MES and MNS was more common than their use and teaching, which assumes that the existing awareness may not be translated into strategic behaviour due to certain constraints, such as personal or contextual factors, discussed in Chapter Six.

Nonetheless, the students' perceived frequency of risk-taking involving ignoring errors and their overall strategic behaviour (the use of alternative ways to express their target messages) was low for the former and moderate for the latter. The teachers' perceptions of these aspects were similar to those of the students, which indicate that CSs may not be being used by the students in many classrooms. Risk-taking is one of the vital features that stimulate the use of CSs (Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Yule & Tarone, 1990) and requires encouragement in the classroom when the CSs development is the aim (Dörnyei, 1995; Mariani, 2010). It represents one of the required abilities for strategic competence, (Hedge, 2000; Mariani, 2010; Mariani, 2013; Burrows, 2015a) and for the CLT classroom.

Additionally, the qualitative findings concerning the teachers' role when students are unable to complete a communicative task do not reflect clear, direct CSs instructions.

Thus, the role of ZPD in developing CSs awareness, implying transforming knowledge from the most to the least knowledgeable person, might be limited (see Section 2.4), which supports my discussion of the teachers' awareness in the previous section.

The students' attitudes towards their teachers' help in exploring the nature of the difficulties were not positive, as this was not being offered and CSs were not being referred to, but a few practices seem to encourage accuracy. The students stated that obstacles faced during their performance may not be examined by their teachers, who are more concerned with error correction. Some teachers seem to explore the nature of the difficulties but what is considered helpful behaviour seem to be concerned with lexical difficulties with a focus on the accuracy required to achieve certain communicative messages and therefore the teachers offer help on that basis, what may indicate possible consequences. It is argued that teachers who "focus only on forms and accuracy may sacrifice learners' fluency" (Farshi & Baghbani, 2015, p. 292). This contradicts the guidelines on CLT and CST (Dörnyei, 1995), which are to encourage learners to take risks by discounting their errors, a behaviour that may not be common among Libyan students.

Accuracy, which students broadly perceive as the most important factor, can lead learners to produce short, accurate sentences rather than more complex, longer sentences (Tarone, 2016). On the whole, there was no clear evidence for direct instruction on the use of strategies or implications for strategies' awareness raising and encouraging risk-taking was scarcely mentioned in the interview and questionnaire findings. This suggests a link between the possible lack of explicit awareness of CSs, discussed earlier. In (Hmaid, 2014; Tarhuni, 2014), exploring the teaching impact of LLSs and CSs involved training the Libyan teachers, which indicates that effective teachability is not a straightforward process for Libyan teachers.

From this, it can also be concluded that some teachers, who fail to examine the source of the difficulties, may be unaware exactly what the students' difficulties are, and hence may be unable to offer relevant instructions. It may also mean that the students are unaware of their own learning process, which is required to improving their experience when thinking "about what happens during the language learning process, which will help them to develop stronger learning skills" (Anderson, 2002, p.3).

In light of the previous arguments, my findings show that the classroom environment, culture and settings seem to have an impact on the teachers' behaviour and practices,

including their use of L1 and L2 in the classroom, thus reflecting strategies use (see Section 6.7.7). The educational policies, for example, have restrained the assessment of speaking skills, resulting in the omission of speaking and listening content from the teaching materials, with respect to a lack of essential aids and equipment (see Section 6.6.3). Additionally, teaching English as a subject with a focus on exam achievements was also implied in my findings. This is very common in EFL classrooms, where the aim is to prepare school students for examinations (Richards, 2010). However, it is important to consider that my qualitative findings show that Libyan teachers and students appreciate the need for communicating and improving their speaking skills in Libyan schools.

Under those circumstances, it can be claimed that the teachers' possible attention to form, accuracy and errors (see Section 6.6.5) hinders their students' aptitude for taking risks and using CSs, so some Libyan students lack confidence as a result. This is supported by the findings regarding the materials and their implementation, in terms of the range of tasks and activities as well as the instruction to encourage certain aspects of communication that affects strategies type use (see Section 7.2.1). This complies with the argument of (Cohen, 2014) that learners' strategies can be affected by the type of task and context. On the other hand, the students' proficiency level and lack of linguistic competence (see Section 6.6.6) should not be ignored, as these seem to refer to proficiency, which is vital for CSs use and CST.

The interviews revealed a link between students' lack of confidence and motivation to take part in communicative interaction, and taking risks through certain types of strategic behaviour (reduction, message abandon, L1). These students' characteristics were discussed as challenges for Libyan EFL teaching and learning. The Libyan teachers linked these obstacles with the potential benefits of CST in the Libyan classroom. The literature shows that strategy teaching can change these negative behaviour and attitudes (Manchón, 2000) and increase risk-taking (Mariani, 2010). Importantly, Libyan students showed increased self-confidence and motivation interrelated with the practise of strategies use in the classroom following a CSs teaching intervention (Hmaid, 2014).

Moreover, the teachers' reflections on their classroom experiences and use of strategies in the classroom were mainly related to a small number of MES (synonym, definition, description). They suggested that their students tend to use message reduction and language switching due to their limited competence. L1 is considered to solve

misunderstandings by teacher and students. Thus, L1 use is not only part of the instruction, interaction and task performance, but also used strategically to solve the difficulties faced by the teachers and students (L1 switch), as revealed in (Alsied & Ibrahim, 2017). The Libyan teachers used Arabic for a variety of purposes, even for giving the meaning of unfamiliar words.

In addition, the questionnaires also investigated the frequency of the students' use of L1 and L2 to provide additional understanding of the possible dominance of each of the languages, that can be useful in estimating the possible chances offered to use CSs. This, however, does not indicate that Arabic use cannot be useful (Swain & Lapkin, 2000) in enhancing cognition but it is important to ensure that it is not over-used, so caution is advised against the overuse of L1 (Ellis, 1984). Alongside language use, the questions investigating the students' readiness and involvement regarding the communicative tasks found in the teaching materials provided further in-depth information, particularly with consideration to the interview findings.

Consequently, it was found that communicative activities in the Libyan classroom are either not commonly offered in the materials (as discussed in Chapters Five and Six) or not widely used in the classroom, as the teachers seem to omit some of the communicative content when skipping tasks or modifying the materials' instructions. This means that English use by the student in the classroom may not be extensive. This is compatible with previous research on the Libyan classroom (Orafi, 2009; Shihiba, 2011; Mansor, 2017). An important conclusion to this is that the English classroom in secondary schools share common characteristics which affect the classroom interaction and talk.

In light of all of these issues, it can be concluded that the use of L2 in the classroom by both teachers and students might be limited, particularly with respect to the frequency of use of the L2 CSs investigated. Based on these preceding considerations, it cannot be claimed that the L2 achievement strategies targeted in this research are used by all students and teachers and those used might not be extensively performed in some classrooms to solve problems and keep the L2 communication channel open. This, however, ignores the fact that different findings suggested that the Libyan students face a variety of communication difficulties (see Section 6.6.5), which means that CSs may be necessary in order to offer the L2 practice needed for learning and communication.

The teacher interviews also suggested that the learners' competence and personal characteristics may be inappropriate for applying strategies, which may be true to some extent. In other words, the qualitative findings about the students' levels and common communicative difficulties could be allied with those related to their strategies use show that the least popular strategy (paraphrasing) requires the use of more complex structures than single words (such as synonyms or general words) or certain phrases, as most types of MNS. Since the learners' proficiency was widely investigated and linked to CSs use (Macaro, 2006), the proficiency of Libyan learners should be investigated and defined in order to offer them relevant tasks that can be useful for those with certain levels of competence and proficiency.

Considering CSs use, some teachers referred to message enhancement's role in teaching practice, which is similar to Turkish teachers' use of CSs, aimed at offering a greater understanding rather than modelling the use of CSs to suit their students (Özdemir-Yilmazer & Örsdemir, 2017). Additionally, this research attempted to understand whether the classroom can offer opportunities to use and practise CSs as immediate first-aid devices (Dörnyei, 1995, p.64) by exploring the tasks and activities' implementation.

7.2.4 Interactional aspects of the Libyan classroom and CSs development

As discussed in Chapter Two, classroom interaction and negotiated meaning are the core features of language learning, that occur principally when people attempt to avoid a breakdown in the communicative message (Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000). In the classroom, meaning negotiation during classroom interaction is the determining factor for effective teaching and learning (Rustandi, 2013), which contributes to our understanding of the possible role of the EFL classroom in developing communicative competence. The findings reflected various complexities and mismatches between various aspects presented in the classroom interaction model of (Sundari, 2017) (see Section 2.4).

According to the questionnaires' quantitative findings, many teachers and students reported using MNS in the classroom. Remarkably, no strong evidence was obtained from the teacher's interviews about classroom strategies' use, which may be attributed to their possible lack of knowledge of CSs (see Section 7.2.2). On the other hand, it might indicate the ascendency of certain interactional practices.

Additionally, the interviews reflected difficulties related to the use of pair and group work activities, which are core components of CLT, encouraged in the Libyan materials (4.5.4), and highlighted in the teachers' book's introduction. Also, as discussed in Section 6.6.10, there exist difficulties and obstacles regarding the implementation of the tasks and activities. Therefore, a possible restriction in student-student interactions can be assumed. This can negatively affect the classroom interaction because these are the most interactive methods (Sullivan, 2000), especially since they promote students' independence and offer them a more relaxing learning atmosphere, away from the teachers' control, which can increase the amount of classroom talk (Luu & Nguyen Thi, 2010). It can be suggested that the tasks contained in the Libyan materials require further evaluation to explore their suitability for this specific context. Using a model such as that of (Skehan, 2001) might help to explore the code complexity (the language needed for the performance), cognition complexity (familiarity and cognitive processing), and communicative stress (time limits and pressure, participants, length of text used, expected response interaction control). Adding to this, there seems to be a need to explore the students' levels, for which CSs could prove helpful and be adapted to suit lower level learners.

Additionally, Libyan teachers' use of error correction during task performance was considered a negative aspect by the teachers and students, affecting the Libyan learners' communication in the classroom. Teachers of CLT are not supposed to focus on students' errors but to encourage interaction and fluency (Brown, 2007; Garton & Graves, 2014) and learners should communicate freely in L2 and be stimulated to attain CSs rather than seek 'perfection' (Willems, 1987).

My research findings seem to reflect the possible continuation of the traditional teaching methods, including audio lingual and grammar translation, in many Libyan classrooms (Orafi, 2009), since many of the practices and perceptions found within the classrooms examined in the current research seem to reverse the CLT principles. This, for example, was reflected in the teaching of new vocabulary, the possible frequency of one-way communication, such as teacher-student or student-teacher interaction can be more expected with consideration, the lack of some speaking activities in the materials and the potential focus on developing a linguistic knowledge of the available activities, L1 use, the quantitative findings reflecting a shortage and a lack of students' interest in the implementation of tasks and activities, and the potential focus on accuracy. With these issues in mind, 'the underlying factors (e.g. beliefs, culture, etc.) which shape

interaction in the classroom' (Tsui, 2001, p.120) and affect learning, according to SCT, cannot be ignored in regard to CSs development. This reveals that many Libyan ELT classrooms are still teacher-centred (Abuklaish, 2014; Alshibany, 2018).

As the materials' analysis shows (see Section 4.5.4), there seems to be a lack of variant interactive activities, such as games, plus infrequent story-telling, role-play and open discussion. The questionnaires also revealed a shortage and the students lack interest and participation in these tasks. This is compatible with the qualitative data, which associated this to the students' lack of interest in the materials' content, due to its artificiality. Accordingly, the classroom interaction can be limited in certain aspects, depending on the task types, the effect of which is reflected in CSs production (as discussed in Chapter Two, Four and Six).

Role-play, for instance, is one of the most interactive tasks which reflects real life situations, since it is not a controlled task, and can have the potential for developing interactional strategies used for solving misunderstandings (Ellis, 2003). It can also develop the students' imagination and creativity (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). That is, divergent tasks, for example, promoted student's interaction extensively and prompted the use of MNS (Konchiab, 2015), while the information gap activities used by pairs and groups encouraged the learners to negotiate mutual answers using MNS (Lee, 2004).

Furthermore, the materials' analysis findings related to MNS indicate a lack of useful expressions required for a procedural knowledge of MNS. This might contribute to students switching to L1 or using message avoidance/reduction when the negotiation of meaning is required. Accordingly, it seems that classroom interaction, which can play a significant role in developing communicative competence and CSs, even indirectly, might not be enhanced. That is, the effective communication of the message is the result of the cooperative efforts of all interlocutors (Fernández Dobao & Palacios Martínez, 2007, p.101).

The qualitative data revealed that Libyan students' speaking ability is affected by problems at the linguistic level (grammatical, lexical and phonological), but also at the sociolinguistic and pragmatic levels, and psycholinguistic level (a lack of confidence, hesitation, a fear of making mistakes). They pointed to the multi-level issue in the classroom and its challenging implication when implementing certain activities, regarding those requiring interaction and thus CSs use.

With all considered, it can be argued that Libyan classroom interaction seems to affect the use and development of the different types of CSs, particularly the opportunities to develop MNS. As stated by Johnson (2017), the traditional methods used to teach L2 "not only ignore strategic competence but may actually hinder its development". For instance, improving the skills needed to negotiate meaning may not be developed by exposure to one-way oral output (Abid, 2016). This, however, is not to say that a few teachers use these approaches to introduce vocabulary and for guessing reading lesson content. Thus, more attention is needed to understand the teaching approaches and practices because the effectiveness of teacher-student interaction depends on the teaching style (Luu & Nguyen Thi, 2010).

Although these issues can suggest that CSs can be useful for solving problems and enhancing communication, they might also hinder strategies development and communication. That is, in order to face these difficulties, teacher and students require not only proficiency but also communicative proficiency in communicative language, which represent "the knowledge of the world and strategies necessary to apply language proficiency in a contextualised situation" (Llurda, 2000, p.93).

7.2.5 Key findings of the research

This research mainly aimed to explore the role of the CLT-based Libyan classroom in developing CSs as essential aspects of communicative competence. A lack of communicative competence in this classroom was indicated by different researchers, but CSs have not been investigated in this context hitherto. Moreover, considering the complexity of CSs and the critical issues within previous research in terms of methodological and theoretical considerations, my research investigated CSs in the Libyan EFL secondary classroom from pedagogical perspective, using a mixed methodology research approach. Thus, the understanding of the role of the materials and the teachers and students' perceptions of CSs in their classroom is based on both quantitative and qualitative findings proposed by the two research questions, which were answered in Chapter Four to Six.

The various findings discussed in this chapter seem to suggest that current position of CSs is more closely allied to negative rather than positive possibilities considering that the available guidelines for developing CSs could not be clearly identified in my findings. This research provided an account of the perceived occurrences of strategic behaviour in the teachers and students' language but an explanation of when and how strategies use takes place or how effective this is could not be directly generated from

the data. However, it can be said that the various findings about the classroom helped the researcher to estimate the degree to which the strategies can be used and hence developed.

Moreover, there was no confirmation that the classroom can provide declarative knowledge for students because the teachers' knowledge and materials appear unable to contribute in this regard. This, in turn, suggested that the potential of the direct teaching approaches could not be anticipated. On the other hand, the likelihood that strategies' use and teaching can be unconsciousness seems more likely regarding the theory of strategy transfer from L1, and also since these strategies can serve teaching and learning purposes (Mariani, 2010). Given this, the learners' knowledge may not be explicit. Significantly, the teachers' lack of adequate knowledge of CSs seems to prohibit/limit their ability to produce effective instruction, with respect to their educational and professional background.

Additionally, with respect to benefits of the explicit teaching of strategies, which have been demonstrated empirically (e.g., Cohen & Macaro, 2007; Hall, 2011), including increases in strategy use and oral proficiency (Lam, 2010; Plonsky, 2011) and enabling less successful learners to develop more effective strategic behaviour (Cohen & Macaro, 2007), it may be concluded that a lack of explicit awareness/instructions regarding the strategies might inhibit strategy development and also the effectiveness of using existing, implicit knowledge of CSs.

Moreover, considering that both teachers and students' perceptions implied awareness of strategies, it can be argued that even the indirect instructional aspects approach of CSs was not evident. Thus, it is it important to demonstrate that the educational context of the Libyan classroom seem to restrict the possibilities of using additional instructions by the teachers. This resulted in attention to form by underlining linguistic competence and emphasising accuracy over fluency.

Nonetheless, the various difficulties in the Libyan classroom affecting its teaching and learning processes and outcomes affecting English use and interaction between teachers and students in the classroom and with respect to the available interest in promoting communicativeness, this research seem to lead to a possible conclusion that CSs might be useful in the Libyan classroom in many ways. CSs can fill the gap between linguistic competence and communicative competence (Bialystok & Fröhlich, 1980) not only for students but also for teachers. Thus, strategic competence can enable the effective use of

CSs, specifically paraphrasing, definitions, and description that can produce more language production learning opportunities in the classroom. As claimed by (Canale, 1983b), CSs use in the classroom can offer a rich pedagogy and authentic language input for L2. Therefore, "effective strategy instruction should be part of instructed language learning" (Manchon, 2008, p.225) since various benefit were empirically approved as arising from CSs instruction (e.g. Maleki, 2007; Lam, 2010; Hmaid, 2014; Kongsom, 2016). Additionally, the use of MNS can increase interaction in the classroom in natural ways. The significance of interaction cannot be denied in improving the communicative use of L2 (Long & Porter, 1985), especially for EFL students who lack L2 use outside the classroom. It can be argued that this, in the long-term, can be helpful in fulfilling some of the requirements of CLT.

7.2.6 Reflections on the findings

As clarified in Chapters One and Three, this research attempted to create a general understanding of the aspects of CSs in the Libyan classroom through the use of off-line methods (Schellings, 2011), rather than describing the actual strategic behaviour. This suggests that CSs awareness requires additional investigation, especially related to the teachers. That is, further research might enhance our understanding of perceived teaching reported by Libyan teaches and develop the findings regarding their teachability of CSs, their nature, effectiveness and outcomes. Moreover, the students' understandings of CSs might also be required to validate the questionnaire findings. Since the teachers stated that CSs serve teaching purposes, we need to assess the questionnaires findings that might overlap with learning strategies because the students' perceived uses of CSs may refer to other practices, especially given the lack of evidence about the explicit content and instructions of CSs. This can only be understood by exploring the students' motives leading to the examined behaviour (Gao, 2004).

It must be declared that the quantitative evidence about teaching and awareness of the strategies reflected a degree of ambiguity when analysed alongside the qualitative findings and also the materials' content, instructions and objectives. This is common in MMR and can lead to extra reflection, revised hypotheses, and further research (Lund, 2012). Therefore, the current findings must be treated with caution, since the teachers' backgrounds, with a possible lack of pedagogical and theoretical knowledge of EFL and CLT, seem to be transferred to their own narratives and also classroom behaviour. This means also that their perceptions and conceptualisation of the strategies, including their

questionnaire responses, may not necessarily indicate their actual strategies use. This might also apply to some Libyan learners, who were not made aware of the strategies.

Thus, I join the calls for more CSs research that focuses on the learning context, employing more qualitative methods alongside the established surveys, which should also be modified to suit the context in which they are used (Oxford, 2017; Amerstorfer, 2018), but the overall aims should not be to produce generalised findings:

> Since sociocultural and technological factors influence L2 learning (in addition to many other factors, such as educational policies, the languages spoken in a country or region, and demographic and personal information about individual participants), the design of a study should be adjusted to suit the research context (Amerstorfer, 2018, p.305).

However, we should also consider that my participants might have provided valid answers on the basis that they conduct similar behaviour (skill or processes) due to their limited knowledge of CSs. Second, it is possible that the participants provided answers that are socially desired (Schellings, 2011), especially the teachers, as suggested by Munoz and Ramirez (2015), who referred to their findings, which used "YES/NO" questions. This could be true to some extent, especially for some of the findings, but since the teachers and students reported each other's strategic behaviour suggested that CSs are noticed in the classrooms. However, what the questionnaires are unable to clarify is whether or not this perceived behaviour is strategic. Qualitative interviews were useful in this respect, although the number of teachers surveyed and inability to interview the students caused some limitations.

This investigation clarified that not all English teachers should be expected to develop or at least offer an awareness of CSs prior to exploring their educational background, and that their teaching styles were affected by their personal views, teaching context and the materials provided. Therefore, neglecting the teachers, in CST research seems to be a limitation. The aim here was to highlight the potential of the teachers' language as an aid for learning.

Due to the descriptive nature and limitations of this research, it was unable to provide clear, specific instructional models for teaching the different strategies, but provided general guidance and shed light on problematic aspects of the Libyan classroom which

may be considered for improving CLT in practice. Thus, I join the call by researchers, such as Pawlak & Oxford (2018), for future research to bridge the gaps between the LLS research findings and pedagogical gains to move theory into real practice.

7.3 Research contribution

The current investigation made a key contribution to the literature relevant to CSs by investigating CSs from a wider pedagogical sociocultural perspective through realising the possible role of different EFL classroom constructs in developing psycholinguistic (MES) and interactional-based (MNS) CSs. It emphasises that possible CST approaches (explicit/ implicit) in Libyan CLT classroom can be interrupted by the materials content, educational polices, curriculum plans, classroom settings and teachers' perceptions, attitudes and knowledge of both CLT and CSs.

The uniqueness of this contribution was enhanced by investigating the teachers' perceptions and understanding of CSs, the materials' potential and the students' perceptions in a single study, which shows that CSs might not only be useful for EFL language learners but also for language teaching and interaction in the classroom.

This research seems to be the first to examine CSs in the Libyan context and explore the perceptions of the students and teachers regarding different aspects of CSs (awareness, use and teaching) in a real Libyan classroom. Despite its limitations, my study shows that an understanding of CSs in the EFL classroom cannot be enhanced without exploring the perceptions, materials and contextual considerations within certain classrooms.

It highlights that using mixed methods research approach could explore a variety of aspects related to teaching and learning of CSs in certain educational contexts. My research MMR design could be followed, modified and possibly improved to investigate different classrooms and so increase our understanding of CSs in various contexts and help to identify realistic pedagogical implications for teaching CSs in certain contexts.

This research contributed to the literature on CLT materials' research by providing a reflective analytical framework that can be useful when choosing materials for CST. This framework revealed that CLT-based materials may not be designed explicitly to raise awareness or model all aspects of communicative competence. Thus, it provided an additional understanding to the previous findings, suggesting the possible failure of the Libyan classroom to develop communicative competence through exploring one of

its sub-competences (strategic competence). Neither the teachers nor the students were offered explicit CSs models, references or guidance to learn, notice or teach CSs, which also ignores the interactional MNS, while meaning negotiation is rooted in CLT and SCT.

This research may have contributed towards raising awareness of CSs among Libyan teachers, particularly when the CSs concept was explained during the interviews. This might also apply to the students, which might be enhanced by individuals' effort to build a knowledge of CSs. The teachers networking that is available recently seems to offer more opportunities for researchers like me to offer some reflections on their findings, considering the number of teachers lacking ELT basic knowledge. Plans for this are already in place, as I have created a Facebook group for English language teachers and participate in similar platforms also.

7.4 Challenges, Limitations and Personal Reflections

It should first be indicated that the plans made prior to the data collection were affected by different circumstances; some of these related to the local challenges in Libya which include fighting in some areas causing the closure of several schools or the late start of the new school year from October 2014. The conflict zone, in Eastern Libya, embraces one of the most populated and largest cities in the country: Benghazi. Consequently, the communication interruptions caused by power cuts affected the internet, landlines and mobile networks, so reaching the participants was a big challenge.

The challenges faced during the data collection process affected the sample's characteristics and size; hence, this restricted the statistical analysis procedures and affected the representativeness of the research sample. The sample characteristics in this research imply some restriction, especially the fact that detailed demographic information on the teachers and the students were excluded for ethical reasons due to the political tensions. I am also aware that some of the quantitative data analysis could have been done slightly differently if the previous considerations had been different. The inability to interview the students was difficult for a variety of personal and local reasons.

As a previous teacher in the Libyan classroom and a novice researcher, I should make it clear that my abilities and skills required to conduct the current research, including collecting, analysing, reporting and interpreting the data, may have been affected by my personal experiences and beliefs to some extent. This however was useful in other ways.

My awareness of the context under research and the teachers' different backgrounds, in particular, helped me to conduct the interviews without causing harassment to the participants. I had to be flexible towards the situation by avoiding asking probing questions when the teachers had nothing more to add.

Future research in the Libyan classroom should consider that many Libyan teachers may be unable to provide a theoretical-based explanation about the materials' content and their teaching practices and approaches but can be more informative in reflecting certain behaviour and practices.

7.5 Pedagogical considerations and recommendations

Considering that the teaching materials were introduced over a decade ago according to certain objectives and within certain settings, this suggests that those materials might not necessarily be relevant to the current Libyan classroom, or suit the students' needs, interests and levels. I am aware that the challenges are enormous in this country; however, the need for radical change is obvious in the English classroom, to change the study of English from a subject to a language for communication, and this requires some relevant reforms. Therefore, the educational authorities in Libya may need to carry out evolutional procedures including an assessment of current policies, current curricular of EFL teacher education and the criterion for recruitment of English teachers.

Reforms should be established on the basis that the classroom components should be considered interactive; therefore, the teachers' education should inform them about the nature of CLT and its relationship to communicative competence, which also requires developing an awareness of strategic competence. Because some Libyan teachers may lack essential knowledge and metalinguistic awareness of CLT, the teacher books need to present clear instructions for EFL teachers about CSs, even if they are designed to develop this competence naturally through interactive activities, because the teachers will then be able to provide the learners with the essential declarative knowledge that may enable the learners to notice and develop these strategies. Considering the potential consistency in the implementation of the materials, recurrent and contiguous evolutional strategies for teachers' practices can enable both an understanding of the actual practices available and the learning outcomes.

Teachers need to be provided with guidelines and strategies for dealing with the students' differences in their classrooms. The teaching materials can help by enabling flexibility in their use in a way that suits the different abilities and characteristics of the

learners. The classroom setting requires a reconsideration of the class size and class duration, which seem to be a barrier to classroom interaction and the implementation of communicative activities.

The issues related to the incompatibility of the tasks and activities with the learners' levels, leading to them being skipped by the teachers, could be resolved by offering some flexibility in terms of the tasks' instructions and their required linguistic outcomes, which can encourage fluency. For example, suggesting different alternatives in vocabulary tasks, which can vary from single words to definitions and descriptions, and highlighting this to the students. This can help students who are reluctant to participate due to their anxiety about making errors and those with insufficient competence.

This research has suggested that CSs could be valuable in Libyan EFL classrooms suffering from a lack of L2 use, teacher-centredness, and a lack of confidence amongst the students, which may have been affected by the prolonged use of the traditional teaching methods, represented by a focus on form, accuracy and the overuse of L1 for instruction and interaction. Students in secondary schools with undeveloped communicative competence will be English teachers for the future generations, creating a circulatory movement of learning and teaching obstacles through the different generations unless changes are made.

CSs could possibly be useful for English as a lingua franca, as indicated in the Libyan materials' objectives, which may be needed following the current political changes in Libya. Authentic content in the teaching materials, useful, interesting audio and video communicative content in addition to classroom interaction can be highly valuable.

Also, Libyan students need to be encouraged to take risks when communicating in the classroom by encouraging meaning rather than form, to improve learners' confidence and make their learning more meaningful. However, this expectation should not overlap with the lesson's objectives, because accuracy can be required.

According to its official website, the Ministry of Education is currently, in 2018, introducing some reforms, including establishing assessment criteria for state school teachers, developing teacher training, and introducing English for year 1 (elementary) students, which seem to be promising efforts. It might be beneficial to invite Libyan EFL researchers to cooperate by reflecting on their research findings, to offer a link between theory and practice, and to establish the idea of teacher researchers. My

research recommendations might be valuable to consider when a copy of this thesis is submitted to the Ministry of Education after the successful completion of my PhD.

7.6 Summary

This chapter integrated and discussed the different research findings and linked them with the research aims. Thus, the teachers and students' perceptions of the different aspects of CSs in their classrooms were revisited and discussed with consideration of the content and implementation of the teaching materials. Then, it provided the main findings, followed by some relevant reflections. After this, the research contributions, limitations and challenges were presented. The chapter concluded with a presentation of several pedagogical reflections and recommendations.

This research provides an overview of various aspects related to the development of CSs in relation to various aspects of the Libyan secondary school EFL classroom, including the possible role of the Libyan CLT teaching materials, potential awareness, uses, and instructions in different classrooms. The main findings were integrated with other useful findings that include some attitudes to the teaching contexts, which were useful for both understanding CSs' development and also providing possible pedagogical recommendations. This research journey was undoubtedly extremely useful for my personal development, both academically and professionally.

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Appendices

Appendix A

A.1 Taxonomies of Communications Strategies

Tarone (1977)	Færch & Kasper (1983)	Bialystok (1983)
Avoidance	Formal reduction	L1- based strategies
Topic avoidance	Phonological	Language switch
Message abandonment	Morphological	Foreignizing
Paraphrase	Syntactic	Transliteration
Approximation	Lexical	L2-based strategies
Word coinage	Functional reduction	Semantic continuity
Circumlocution	Actinal red.	Description
Conscious transfer	Modal red.	Word coinage
Literal translation	Reduction of prepositional content	Non-linguistic strategies
Language switch	-Topic avoidance	
Appeal for assistance	-Message abandonment	
Mime	-Meaning replacement	
	Achievement strategies	
	Compensatory strategies	
	-Code switching	
	-Interlingua transfer	
	-Intralingual transfer	
	IL-based strategies	
	Generalization	
	Paraphrase	
	Word coinage	
	Restructuring	
	-Cooperative strategies	
	-Non-linguistic strategies	
	Retrieval strategies	

A.1 (continued): Taxonomies of Communication strategies

Paribakht (1985)	Willems (1987)	Nijmegen Group (1987)
1-Linguistic approach	Reduction strategies	Conceptual strategies
Semantic contiguity	Formal reduction	Analytic
-Subordinate	-Phonological	Holistic
-Comparison	-Morphological	Linguistic/ Code strategies
Positive comparison	-Syntactic	Morphological creativity
Analogy	-Lexical	transfer
Synonymy	Functional reduction	
Negative comparison	-Message abandonment	
Contrast and opposite	-Meaning replacement	
Antonymy	-Topic avoidance	
Circumlocution	Achievement strategies	
-Physical description	Paralinguistic strategies	
Size, Shape, Colour	Interlingua strategies	
Material Constituent features	-Borrowing/code switching	
Elaborated features	-Literal translation	
-Locational property	-Foreignizing	
-Historical property	Intralingual strategies	
-Other features	-Approximation	
-Functional description	-Word coinage	
Metalinguistic clues	-Paraphrase	
2-Contextual approach	Description	
Linguistic context	Circumlocution	
Use of L2 idioms and proverbs	Exemplification	
Transliteration of L1 language	-Smurfing	
Idioms and proverbs	-Self-repair	
Idiomatic transfer	-Appeals for assistance	
3-Conceptual approach	Explicit	
Demonstration	Implicit	
Exemplification	Checking questions	
Metonymy	-Initiating repair	
Mime		
Replacing verbal output		
Accompanying verbal output		

A.1 (continued): Taxonomies of Communication strategies

Bialystok (1990)	Poulisse (1993)	Dornyei & Scott (1995a, 1995b)
Analysis- based strategies -Circumlocution -Paraphrase -Transliteration -Word coinage -Mime **Control-based strategies** -Language switch -Ostensive definition -Appeal for help -Mime	Substitution strategies Substitution plus strategies Reconceptualization strategies	**Direct Strategies** **Resource deficit-related strategies** -Message abandonment -Message reduction -Message replacement -Circumlocution -Approximation -Use of all-purpose words -Word-coinage -Restructuring -Literal translation -Foreignizing -Code switching -Use of similar sounding words -Mumbling -Omission -Retrieval -Mime **Own-performance problem-related strategies** -Self-rephrasing -Self-repair **Other-performance problem-related strategies** -Another repair **Interactional strategies** **Resource deficit-related strategies** -Appeals for help **Own-performance problem-related strategies** -Comprehension check -Own-accuracy check Other-performance problem-related strategies -Asking for repetition -Asking for clarification -Asking for confirmation -Guessing -Expressing non-understanding -Interpretive summary -Responses Indirect Strategies Processing time pressure-related strategies -Use of fillers -Repetitions Own-performance problem-related strategies -Verbal strategy markers Other-performance problem-related strategies -Feigning understanding

A.1 (continued): Taxonomies of Communication strategies

Rabababah (2001)	Dobao and Martínez'(2007)	Mariani (2010)
A. L1-Based Strategies	Avoidance Strategies	**A-Meaning-Expression Strategies**
1. Literal translation	a) Topic avoidance	1-using an all-purpose word
2. Language Switch	b) Message abandonment	2-using a more general word
a. L1 slips and immediate insertion	c) Semantic avoidance	3-using a synonym or an antonym
b. L1 appeal for help	d) Message reduction	4-using examples instead of general category
c. L1 -optimal meaning strategy	**Achievement Strategies**	
d. Ll- retrieval strategies	**1-Paraphrase**	5-using definitions or descriptions
e. L1 ignorance acknowledgement strategy	a) Approximation	
B. L2-Based Strategies	b) Word coinage	6-using approximations
1.Avoidance Strategies	c) Circumlocution	7- paraphrasing
a. Message abandonment	**2- Conscious transfer**	8-self-correcting, rephrasing, repairing
b. Topic Avoidance	a) Borrowing	**B-Meaning-Negotiation Strategies**
2. Word Coinage	b) Language switch	
3. Circumlocution	**3 Appeal for assistance**	9- asking for help
4. Self -correction/Restructuring	**4 Mime**	10-giving help
5. Approximation		**C-Conversation Management Strategies**
6. Mumbling		
7. L2 appeal for help		11-opening and closing a conversation
8. Self-repetition		12-trying to the conversation open
9. Use of similar-sounding words		13-managing turn-taking
10. Use of all-purpose words		14-avoiding or changing a topic
11. Ignorance Acknowledgement		15-sing tactics to gain time
		D-Para-and extra-linguistic strategies
		16-using intonation patterns, and sounds
		17-using non-verbal language

A.2 The adopted tasks and activities list (Faucette 2001)

Task No	Task Name
1	Dialogues
2	abstract shapes
3	Video/audio tape analysis
4	Spot the difference among similar drawings or objects
5	Jigsaw tasks
6	Simulations
7	Describe the strange gadget, cultural concept or other unfamiliar objects or concepts
8	Crossword puzzles
9	Assembling parts
10	Role-playing
11	Games, riddles, brain-teasers
12	Identify familiar objects
13	Directions/map routes
14	Story telling
15	Assembling tools, LEGO, etc

A.3 Compendium of Empirical research in the past (from Iwai 2005, p.90)

Researcher(s)	Target CSs	Variables/factors	Participants/L2 background
Váradi 1983 (1973)	Indiv/LCS	CS in L1 & L2	19 Hungarian EFL
Tarone 1977	Indiv/LCS	CS & L2 Proficiency	9 ESL (Spanish, Turkish, & Mandarin)
Ervin 1979	Indiv/LCS	CS use in general	14 Americans learners of Russian
Bialystok 1983	Indiv/LCS	CS & L2 proficiency, Effectiveness of CS	30 French learners adult=14 A=10 I=6
Dechert 1983	Discourse	Discourse	1 German ESL learner
Haastrup & Phillipson 1983	Indiv/LCS	Effectiveness of CS	8 Danish ESL
Ellis 1984	Indiv/LCS	CS in L1 & L2	6 child NS, 6 child NNS
Fakhri 1984	Discourse	Discourse	1 American Moroccan Arabic learner
Paribakht 1985	Indiv/LCS	CS & L2 proficiency, CS by NS & NNS	Persian ESL A=25, I=25 NS=25
Hirano 1985	Indiv/LCS	CS & L2 proficiency	10 Japanese EFL H=5 L=5
Labarca & Khanji 1986	Individual / interactional CS	2 teaching methods	53 American learners of French
Bongaerts et al. 1987	Indiv/LCS	CS by NS & NNS	45 Dutch EFL A=25 I=25 B=15
Hirano 1987	Indiv/LCS	CS & L2 proficiency	64 Japanese EFL L=32 H=32
Bongaerts & Poulisse 1989	Indiv/LCS	CS in L1 & L2	45 Dutch EFL A=25 I=25 B=15
Poulisse & Schils 1989	Indiv/LCS	CS & L2 proficiency	45 Dutch EFL A=15 I=15 B=15
Chen 1990	Indiv/LCS	CS & L2 proficiency	Chinese EFL H=6 L=6
Yarmohammadi & Sief 1992	Indiv/LCS	Task effects	51 Iranian EFL
Cohen & Olshtain 1993	Interaction	Speech acts & CS	15 Hebrew EFL
Clennell 1994a, 1994b, 1995	Discourse	Discourse	6 pairs of English NS-NNS
Nakano 1994	Indiv/LCS	CS & L2 proficiency	15 Japanese EFL A=5 I=5 B=5
Iwai 1995	Indiv/LCS	CS & L2 proficiency	32 Japanese EFL H=16 L=16
Abdesslem 1996	Discourse	Discourse	Tunisian EFL learners
Liskin-Gasparro 1996	Indiv/LCS	CS & L2 proficiency	American learners of Spanish (I=17 A=1)
Nakano 1996	Indiv/LCS	Learners having difficulty of language learning	9 Japanese EFL
Iwai 1997	Indiv/LCS	FI/FD and CS	20 Japanese EFL FI/h=5 FI/l=5 FD/h=5 FD/l=5
Rampton 1997	Sociolinguistic	Sociolinguistic	Welsh learners, Punjabi learners
Russell 1997	Indiv/LCS	CS in L1 & L2	21 Japanese in an ESL program
Salomone & Marsal 1997	Indiv/LCS	Teaching circumlocution	24 American learners of French
Wagner & Firth 1997	Interaction	Interaction	Company employees
Williams et al. 1997	Interaction	Interaction	Chinese TAs and American students
Cenoz 1998	Indiv/pause	Pause	15 A & I ESL
Iwai 1999	Interaction	Interaction	6 NS-NS pairs, 6 NS-NNS pairs, 6 NNS-NNS pairs
Ansarin & Syal 1999	Indiv/LCS	CS & L2 proficiency	30 Iranian EFL H=15 L=15
Chimbganda 2000	Indiv/LCS	CS for technical terms	40 ESL in Botswana
Baba 2001	Indiv/LCS	Lexical CS	10 Japanese EFL
Fujio 2001	Indiv/interaction	CS and L1/L2 experience, L2 proficiency	6 Japanese college EFL vs. 6 Japanese adults using English for business
Wongsawang 2001	Indiv/LCS	Culture-specific notions	30 Thai EFL
Iwai & Rinnert 2002	Indiv/pragmatic	Pragmatic CS (apology, request)	100 Japanese EFL, 71 Singapore ESL, 44 Hong Kong EFL, 100 American NS
Iwai 2002	Indiv/pragmatic	Pragmatic CS (comple-ment and request refusal)	135 Japanese EFL
Rinnert & Iwai 2003	Indiv/pragmatic	Pragmatic CS (complaint)	100 Japanese EFL, 71 Singapore ESL, 44 Hong Kong EFL, 100 American NS

N.B.: Indiv/LCS = Individually used lexical CSs,
FI(h/l) = filed independent (high/low), FD(h/l)= field dependent (high/low),
B = beginner, I = intermediate, A = advanced, H = high proficiency, L = low proficiency

A.4 Previous studies on communication strategies teaching modified from Alahmed (2017)

Researcher	Aims	Participants & design	Taught CSs	Data collection methods	Findings
Dörnyei (1995)	To investigate the effect of teaching CSs on -uses of CS -Students' attitudes towards the CS training	109 EFL students in Hungary. -One treatment group -Two control groups -Quasi experimental design	-topic avoidance -circumlocution, -fillers	Pre- and post-tests -a Written test (TOEIC and the C-test) -an oral test (topic description, cartoon description, and definition formulation)	-post tests showed improvement in strategy use both qualitatively and quantitatively. The learners increased their use of fillers and quality of using circumlocution. - Learners developed positive attitudes towards strategy training.
Salomone and Marsal (1997)	To investigate the impact of teaching circumlocution strategy on their ability to circumlocution.	24 intermediate French undergraduate learners. -treatment group - control groups	-circumlocution	Pre- and post-tests -a written circumlocution test: 11 concrete nouns, five	The two groups showed significant developments overtime. However, no significant differences between the two groups in the post-test
Scullen and Jourdain (2000)	To explore the impact of the explicit teaching of oral circumlocution on undergraduate learners studying French as a foreign language in an American university	Two classes -experimental group (n=17) and -comparison group (n=8). - Two sections of fourth-semester French students.	-circumlocution (superordinate terms, analogy, function, and description)	Pre- and post-tests - role play -picture description	Both groups made significant gains over time. However, the between-group difference on the post-test was not significant

(continued)

Researcher	Aims	Participants & design	Taught CSs	Data collection methods	Findings
Rossiter (2003)	To study on the effect of teaching communication strategy on -second language performance -strategy use -task completion	30 adult intermediate ESL learners in Canada. -treatment group -comparison group -Two sections	Paraphrasing -approximation -circumlocution -subordination -analogy -use of all-purpose words	Pre- and post- and delayed post-tests -picture story narratives -object descriptions	-results of post-test suggest a direct impact on a number of strategies employed in the object description task in favour of the treatment group -results showed that strategy training has no impact on learners in terms of task completion on either the narrative or the object description tasks. -results also suggest no difference on gain scores between groups in message abandonment.
Nakatani (2005)	investigated the effect of using explicit instruction of CSs on the development of speaking proficiency -speech rate and use of CSs -awareness of CSs use	65 Japanese female EFL learners -strategy training group -control group - Two intact classes	-appeal for help - clarification request -comprehension checks -maintenance -asking for repetition -using fillers -offering assistance	Pre- and post-tests -role plays -retrospective verbal protocol	-participants in the strategy training group improved their oral proficiency tests significantly more than those in the control group. - the participants' oral performance improvement was attributed to the strategy training that increased the participants' awareness of oral communication strategies in general, and how to use specific strategies, to solve interactional difficulties.
Lam (2006)	To examine the effect of teaching CSs on -strategy use -oral performance	40 EFL Chines secondary school students -experiment group -control group - Two intact classes	-paraphrasing -resourcing -self-repetition -self-correction -fillers -clarification request -asking for repetition -asking for confirmation	Pre- and post-tests -discussion tasks -a questionnaire -stimulated recall interviews -observation of CSs use	The participants of the treatment group generally outperformed the control group on discussion tasks and self-efficacy, whereas no statistically significant differences have been found between the two groups in their oral performance.

(continued)

Researcher	Aims	Participants & design	Taught CSs	Data collection methods	Findings
Maleki (2007)	To examine the teachability of CSs and the feasibility of incorporating them into school syllabi.	60 intermediates Iranian EFL learners -strategy training class -control class -Two intact classes	-approximation -circumlocution -word coinage -appeal for help -foreignizing -time stalling devices	Pre- and post-tests -Cambridge ESOL speaking test -achievement written test	The results showed that strategy instruction class gained higher scores than the class without strategy instruction on both the Cambridge ESOL test and achievement test.
Kongsom (2009)	To investigate the effects of teaching CSs on -strategy use -speaking skill	62 Thai EFL learners -one group only	-word-coinage -circumlocution -approximation -appeal for help -self-repair -confirmation check -comprehension check -clarification request -pause fillers -hesitation devices.	Pre- and post-tests -speaking tasks -strategy questionnaire -attitudinal questionnaire -retrospective protocols	-explicit instruction of CSs raised students' awareness of strategy use and promoted the greater use of targeted CSs -The results of the retrospective reports suggested that the participants tended to be more aware of the taught CSs after intervention - participants showed a positive feelings and attitudes towards the CSs teaching
Alibakhshi and Padiz (2011)	To investigate the impact of explicit instruction of specific CSs on speaking performance	60 Iranian EFL learners -experimental group -control group	-avoidance -approximation -restructuring -language switch -word coinage -appeal for assistance -circumlocution -self-repetition -self-repair	Pre-, post and delayed post-tests Three oral tasks: -group discussion -story retelling, -picture description.	-Teaching CSs might have a positive effect on enhancing learners' oral performance. -the immediate post-test showed that experimental group outperformed the control group in seven out of nine CSs. -the results of the delayed post-test showed a stable effect of teaching CSs for only three strategies after a long interval.
Tavakoli et. al (2011)	To investigate the effect of explicit strategy training on learners' oral production in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency.	40 homogenous intermediate EFL learners -experimental group -control group	-circumlocution -approximation -all-purpose words -lexicalized fillers	Pre- and post-tests -oral interview	-strategy training is beneficial for promoting oral performance and the experimental group learners developed a greater level of complexity, accuracy, and fluency - the results showed that enhancing communication strategies may have a positive impact on second language learners' strategic competence

A.5 Findings from previous CST studies adapted from Iwai (2006, p. 133)

Studies (tested skills)	Participants	TCS formats &CSs taught	Training length &tasks	Data collection methods	Tested variables	Main Results
1-Dornei, 1995 (speaking)	109 Hungarian EFL learners	-Explicit instructions to -Topic voidance, topic replacment, circomlocution, fillers	-6 weeks (3 lessons/week, wek, about 20-40 minutes each) -Formulatic expressions, awareness- raising discussion and feedback; Comparing dictionary definitions, objects describtion, abstract noun, interactive games	- pre and post teasts-Topic escribtion, cartoon describtion, defintion formulation	-Qulaity of circum -Frequency of para and fillers -speech rate - proficiency (by TOEIC) -Perceptions of and attitude toward TCS	1-Quality of circum imporoved 2-amount of utterance in fiillers and circum 3-No substantial speed improved on;ly in fillers; 4-no substantial change in linguistic competence; 5 CSs trainuing well-acepted by the students.
2-Dadour& Robins, 1996 (speaking)	Study 1: 122 Egyptian EFL college Study 2: 50 Japaneese EFL at two universities	-Explicit instrcurtion to E -No distinction of LLS and CSs -Awareness raising discssions/practice/lectures of CSs use	Study 1 -15 weekly, three hours sessions -Direct mode (instruction on what skills are needed for speaking and how to practice them) and indirect mode (Commuincative activities of Role-play, drama, and problem solving) Study 2 3 month	Study 1 pre and post-tests-speaking skills queationnires -Oral proficency exams -Oxfords (1990) SILL -Queastionire to analyse learning styles Stusy 2 Semester interim survey -Queationnire about percived usefulness of the instuctions	Study 1 -Students spekinag ability and strtaegy use Study 2 -Students' reaction to strtaegies training	Study 1 -better performance in speaking 2-better oral performance scores 3-No diffrence in one of the groups 4-large gender diffrence in speaking performance; no gender diffrence in leraning startaegy use Study 2 -instruction was percived well
3-Senda, 1996 (speaking)	45 Japanese huigh school EFL students	-Explicit instruction to E -paraphrase, appleal for assistance	-10 classes (15-20 minutes in each 50- minute class) -practic of formulaic expressions; practice of paraphrasing unknown words, practic of appealing for assistance	-Post and post- tests -Picture desecibtion, story telling	Frequency of para CSs/ appeal/para formulas -Quality of para -Speech rate - Fluency -Efforts of delivery	1-more frequent use of formuliac expressions; 2-no improvement in utterance quality; 3-paraphrasing practice did not facilitate learners' active beahviour of CSs use

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(continued)

4-Kitajima, 1997 (speaking)	15 J apanese college EFL students	-Explicit istruction in one E and implicit in another E; form focused in C -message reduction, lexical strtaegies (meaning focused)	-11 weeks -commuicative interaction excersises via story telling, discusiion, and picture describtion	-Pre and post-tests - Picture describtion, storry telling -Restrospective interview	-Kinds and frequency -CSs used - Commuincative performance	1-No post test diffrence between the two gropus; 2-More achivements in E groups 3-overall, effective performance of E after CST 4-Incresea of grammatical and lexical knolwedge is undetectable
5-Salomone &Marsal, 1997 (speaking)	24 American-born French learners	-Explicit instruction to E - Circomlocution	- one acadenic quarter in an A merican university -Formulaic expression, expressions, circomlocution examples and onsite instructor intervention for circomlocution throughout the quarter	-Pre and post-teasts -Written circomlocution teast with 11 concrete nouns, 5 abstract nouns, and 4 shapes	- Kinds and frequency of CSs use - Quality of Circomlocution	1-no statistical diffrence between the two groups; 2-both groups improved quality; 3-But qualitative analysis shows that E group was better in circomlocution quality and they were less willing to guess
6-Iwai, 1998 (speaking)	20 japanese high school EFL students	-Explicit instructuion to E -HOCO, ANCO, asking for help, fillers	- 12 Weeks (20 classes) -Practice of formulaic expressions; object describtion, role play, picture describtion,	-pre and post - tests -Cartoon story describtion, object finding -Retrospective interview	-Length of silence - Frequency of CSs use -commuincative success -quality and amonut of information - Descriptive forms -Fluency	1-students liked the CSs training and they became more willing to commuincate in English; 2-E group learners achived more frequent strategies use (all CSs), better performance, more comprehensible output,more information delivery, and better fluency

(continued)

Nakatani, 2005 (speaking)	62 Japanese female college EFL	explicit instruction to E - Several types of strtaegies, including interaction strtaegies, time- gaining strtaegies, and self- solving strtaegies	-12 week (90 minutes/week) -Use of CSs sheet, srtaegy diary, five-phase strtaegy training (review, presentaion, rehearsal, performance, evaluation), several commuincative activities	- pre- and posts tests - Oral commuincation task in a role play format (5 minutes preparation before role playing)	Quality of speech production -kinds and frequency of CSs used	1-strtaegy training was effective in improving oral test scores(test of the authors invention), make longer unternces and more achievment, and fewer reduction; 3-no invistigation into learners' linguistic forms.
7- Chimbaganda, 2000 (writing)	40 English Leraners in biology class	-Risk taking, risk avoidance, L2 based strtaegies (circomlocution, generlaisation)	Taught in a regular writing class	Open-ended writing questions in EAP classes	-Frequency of CsS USE -Academic achievmnet in EAP	1- CSs use did not lead to better classs grades; 2-accurate and precise L2 knolwedge is necessary for success in EAP 2-However, avoidance beghaviour resulted in poorer classe grades; 3-High risk-takers achieved better.

Appendix B

B.1 Sheffield Hallam Ethical Approval

Sheffield Hallam University

Our Ref   AM/SW/ 41-ABD

24th March 2015

Mrs S Abdelati
39 Kenninghall View
Norfolk Park
Sheffield
S2 3WX

Dear Sumia

Request for Ethical Approval of Research Project

Your research project entitled " Communication Strategies in the Libyan Classroom: the English Syllabus, Teachers and learners' perceptions and Teaching Practices " has been submitted to the Faculty's reviewers and I am pleased to confirm that they have approved your project.

I wish you every success with your research project.

Yours sincerely

Professor A Macaskill
Chair
Faculty Research Ethics Committee

Office address :
Business Support Team
Faculty of Development & Society
Sheffield Hallam University
Unit 4, Sheffield Science Park
Howard Street, Sheffield, S1 1WB
Tel: 0114-225 3308
E-mail: DS-ResearchEthics@shu.ac.uk

B.2 Overall permission to conduct the research in The Libyan secondary schools

Libyan Embassy

Cultural Attaché - London

سفارة ليبيا

الملحقية الثقافية – لندن

وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي
Ministry of Higher Education & Scientific Research

To Sheffield Hallam University
Faculty Of Development And Society

Date: 07/10/2014
Ref: 10692

Fname / Surname	Passport No	Children
Mrs Sumia G. R. Abdelati	481375	0

We confirm that the above student is a Libyan sponsored student and that the Cultural Attaché Dept. at the Libyan Embassy in London is responsible for her tuition fees relating to her studies in the UK.

As the student sponsor ,we have contacted the Scholarship Department at the Ministry of Higher Education &Scientific Research in Libya ,to contact the relevant agencies to facilitate the collection of data and information related to her Phd scientific research . Therefore ,your Ethical Approval for her field study would by highly appreciated .

This statement was given to her at her request to be used as authorized by law and is considered official when the signed and sealed .

Thank you for your co-operation in this matter.

Yours faithfully

Dr. Abdelbasit Gadour
Cultural Attaché

Printed On: 07/10/2014

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B.3 Advertisement for Teachers to Participate in the Research

Dear Sir/ Madam

My Name is Sumia Abdelati, and I am a Libyan PhD student. I am currently in the UK and conducting research at Sheffield Hallam University/Faculty of Development and Society. My research will examine the Libyan course books for secondary schools (English for Libya). I will also need teachers of these books to participate in my research in order to reach the intended targets of the study. The overall aim of this investigation is to contribute to the knowledge about the communicative English language teaching in general and to the communicative English language teaching in Libya more specifically. It will take into account the needs of both Libyan teachers and their students and some relevant issues in the current syllabus.

Hereby, I am writing to invite you to take part in this research by filling in a questionnaire (max 30 minutes) and also to possibly have an interview with me (40-60 minutes). If you agree, please let me know using the contact details below and I will send you a letter of information and consent.

Kind Regards

Sumia Abdelati,
PhD Education/ TESOL student
Unite 9, Science Park
Faculty of Development and Society
University of Sheffield Hallam
Sheffield S1 1WB
Email: SUMI80_ENG@YAHOO.COM

B.4 Information and Consent form for the Teachers' Interview piloting

Thank you for filling in the questionnaire and agreeing to be interviewed.

As you have read the information letter long time ago, I will remind you with the general targets and nature of the research. I am conducting a research study about teaching the **English for Libya** syllabus. It is hoped that this study will contribute to the overall knowledge in English language teaching and will help providing new ideas to teachers and to syllabus designers in overcoming the Libyan learners' communicative difficulties.

Your involvement in this study is voluntary, and you may choose not to participate or to stop your participation at any time. However, the researcher would prefer to be informed about two weeks before withdrawal. Your participation is anonymous; your name will not appear in any presentations or publications that are released from this study. There are no risks in participating in this study, and as a teacher you may benefit from the results of this study. A copy of the summary of the results will be available if you are interested.

All information you provide will remain strictly confidential and secured in my computers by a password and will be disposed of after obtaining my degree.

This interview is intended for piloting which will help the researcher to identify any issues that may affect the quality of the data collected. I would be grateful if you can reflect on this experience by identifying any problems regarding the questions, setting, or the researcher interviewing skills. It will take (40-60 minutes) and will be audio recorded. You can request to see the transcript of your interview to agree to its content.

I certify that I have read all of the information above and agree to take part in an interview as part of the specified study ☐

Signature………………. **Date**………………………

Sumia Abdelati
PhD Education/ TESOI student
Unite 9, Science Park
University of Sheffield Hallam
Sheffield / S1 1WB
Email: SUMI80_ENG@YAHOO.COM

B.5 Information and Consent form for the Teachers' Main Interviews

Thank you for filling in the questionnaire and agreeing to be interviewed.

As you have read the information letter long time ago, I will remind you with the general targets and nature of the research. I am conducting a research study about teaching the **English for Libya** syllabus. It is hoped that this study will contribute to the overall knowledge in English language teaching and will help providing new ideas to teachers and to syllabus designers in overcoming the Libyan learners' communicative difficulties.

Your involvement in this study is voluntary, and you may choose not to participate or to stop your participation at any time. However, the researcher would prefer to be informed about two weeks before withdrawal. Your participation is anonymous; your name will not appear in any presentations or publications that are released from this study. There are no risks in participating in this study, and as a teacher you may benefit from the results of this study. A copy of the summary of the results will be available if you are interested.

All information you provide will remain strictly confidential and secured in my computers by a password and will be disposed of after obtaining my degree.

The interview will take (40-60 minutes) and will be audio recorded. You can request to see the transcript of your interview to agree to its content.

I certify that I have read all of the information above and agree to take part in an interview as part of the specified study ☐

Signature………………. **Date**………………………

Sumia Abdelati

PhD Education/ TESOI student

Unite 9, Science Park

University of Sheffield Hallam

Sheffield / S1 1WB

Email: SUMI80_ENG@YAHOO.COM

B.6 Head teachers as loco parents

- Information letter and Consent for the Head Teachers as loco parentis

Dear Sir/ Madam

My Name is Sumia Abdelati and I am a Libyan PhD student. I am currently in the UK and conducting research at Sheffield Hallam University/Faculty of Development and Society. I have obtained an official permission to conduct the research and all the educational authorities were contacted by the Ministry of Higher education who is funding my research. My research will examine the Libyan course books for secondary schools (English for Libya). In addition to English teachers, I will also need students to participate in my research in order to reach the intended targets of the study. The overall aim of this investigation is to contribute to the knowledge about the communicative English language teaching in general and to the communicative English language teaching in Libya more specifically. It will take into account the needs of both Libyan teachers and their students and some relevant issues in the current syllabus.

Hereby, you are being invited to sign in loco parentis and give permission for the students for participation in this research by filling in (10-15 minutes) questionnaires. Their participation will be voluntary, and they may withdraw from the study at any time without giving reasons. The students' anonymity will be guaranteed. Students will not be asked to give their names or any other private information. All the obtained information will be treated in strictest confidence and will be used for an academic purpose only. I will attach all of this information to the questionnaire as information and consent form and will be translated in Arabic. The school will not be identifiable in any written reports about the study and a summary of the findings will be made available on the school's request. For more information, please use the contact details provided at the bottom of this sheet.

My name is …………………………, and I certify that I have read all of the information and agree to sign as loco parentis, giving the permission to the students to respond to questionnaires.

Signature: ……………………   **date:** ………………

Appendix C

C.1 Communication Strategies Found in Surveyed Texts (Faucette 2001, p38)

Textbook	Recommended Strategies to Teach				Possibly Recommended		Not Recommended to Teach				
	Approximation	Circumlocution/ Paraphrasing	Word Coinage	Appeal for assistance	Foreignizing	Time-Stalling Devices	Topic Avoidance	Message Replacement	Message Abandonment	Non-Verbal's	Borrowing
Breaking the Ice											
Functions of American English											
Impact: Words & Phrases											
Interchange 2											
Interchange 3											
Learning to Learn English											
Mosaic One											
Nice Talking with You											
Springboard to Success											
Total (out of 9 texts)	1	7	1	6	1	3	0	0	2	0	0

C.2 Communication Strategies Found in Surveyed Teachers' Resource Books (Faucette 200, p39)

Recommended Strategies to Teach　　Possibly Recommended　　Not Recommended to Teach

Teachers' Resource Book	Approximation	Circumlocution/ Paraphrasing	Word Coinage	Appeal for assistance	Foreignizing	Time-Stalling Devices	Topic Avoidance	Message Replacement	Message Abandonment	Non-Verbal's	Borrowing
Conversation											
Conversation and Dialogues in Action											
Conversation Strategies											
Gambits: Responders, Closers & Inventory											
Keep Talking											
New Ways in Teaching Listening											
New Ways in Teaching Speaking											
New Ways in Teaching Vocabulary											
Total (out of 8)	4	7	1	8	0	5	1	0	0	3	1

C.3 Meaning Expression strategies checklist (main study)

Type of CSs	Book			Unit	Lesson		Page/ Line	Explicit	Implicit	Actual text	Total
	C	W	T		No	Name					
all purpose											
General word											
synonym or antonym											
using example											
definition or description											
- general word + relative clause											
Phrases instead of adjectives describing qualities											
Structure											
purpose or function											
context or situation											
approximations											
Paraphrasing											
self-correction											
Total											

C.4 Meaning Negotiation Strategies' analysis checklist (main study)

Type of CSs	Book			Unit	Lesson		Page/Line	Explicit	Implicit	Actual text	Total
	C	W	T		No	Name					
9. asking for help:											
• telling one's interlocutor that one cannot say or understand something:											
• asking one's interlocutor to:											
slow down, spell or write something											
repeating											
explain, clarify, give an example											
say something in the L2											
confirm that one has used the correct or appropriate language											
confirm that one has been understood											
• repeating, summarizing,											
paraphrasing what one has heard and asking one's interlocutor to confirm											
• guessing meaning and asking for Confirmation											
10. giving help, by doing what the "helping" interlocutor does in 9., e.g.											
Total											

C.5 Tasks and activities' analysis checklist

Tasks and Activities	Book		Lesson		Task No	Page	Explicit	Implicit	Task definition	Task instruction	Resources	objectives	Target group	Total
			No	Name										
Dialogues														
abstract shapes														
video/audio tape analysis														
spot the difference among similar drawings or objects														
jigsaw tasks														
Simulations														
describe the strange gadget, cultural concept or other unfamiliar objects or concepts														
crossword puzzles														
assembling parts														
role-playing														
games, riddles, brain-teasers														
identify familiar objects														
directions/map routes														
story telling														
assembling tools														
Total														

C.6 Course Summary (Techers book/Year 2: Literary Section)

Speaking One lesson	Writing One lesson	Listening One lesson	Specialization Four lessons
Responding to situations.	A story of emergencies.	Predicting the topic. Listening for key events.	The first stories Aesop's fables The Thousand and One Nights Theatre
Giving opinions.	Paragraphs with topic sentences.	Listening for key information.	Man and his environment Man and shelter More about caves A home in space
A debate.	Supporting your opinions.	Listening for detail.	Making a good school better The Ambrosia file A problem in the oil industry And what's the solution?
Talking about present actions.	E-mails.	Developing listening skills.	Ancient disasters The question of global warming The effects of global warming The changes that we've seen
Starting conversations.	Working from notes.	Identifying falling intonation.	A very strange festival A letter from OTV The first sociologist The first professor of sociology
Apologizing, explaining and forgiving.	Summary writing.	Listening for key words and numbers.	What sort of person are you? Dress and social behaviour Heredity and environment Employment – what would you like to do?
Describing and identifying objects.	Sections of a report.	Listening to complete notes. Listening for the topic and main ideas.	Planning a tour Leptis Magna Egyptian and Libyan agriculture A tour of the Roman baths
Asking questions politely and responding.	Writing a report.	Listening in a conference setting.	Young people's leisure activities Finding out what people want Planning and using a questionnaire Preparing a presentation

C.7 Course Summary (Teachers book /Year3: Literary Section)

Course Summary

	Reading Two lessons	**Vocabulary**	**Grammar** Three lessons
Unit 1 Puzzles and mysteries	The mystery of the Nazca lines (Predicting content).	Certainty and uncertainty.	Subject and object questions. Talking about the past with *must, may, might* and *can't.*
Unit 2 Weather and climate	Hot and cold (Taking notes).	Adjective + preposition.	Adjectives with *so, enough* and *too.* Order of adjectives.
Unit 3 Facts and figures	Just a minute! (Scanning for specific information).	*Until, by* and future time phrases.	The future perfect and the future continuous. The infinitive with future meaning.
Unit 4 Great failures	Great failures (Reading to retell information).	Verb collocations.	How things could be different. The future in the past.
Unit 5 Literature	Two novel extracts (Identifying styles of writing).	Nouns and adjectives ending with –ing.	Adjectives, noun and question words followed by the infinitive. –ing or infinitive?
Unit 6 The world of sport	Fair play? (Identifying topic sentences).	Connecting words.	Verbs for reporting speech. Time phrases and questions in reported speech.
Unit 7 Health and first aid	The World Health Organization (Reading for specific information).	The body and first aid.	The passive – review. The passive – continuous tenses and *have* + object + past participle.
Unit 8 English in the world	English in the world (Understanding gist).	Review.	Review – sentence patterns. Review – the passive and conditionals.

C.8 Course Summary (Techers book Year 2: Science section)

Speaking	Writing	Listening	Specialization
One lesson	**One lesson**	**One lesson**	**Four lessons**
Responding to situations.	A story of emergencies.	Predicting the topic. Listening for key events.	Dangerous animals Treating snakebites Classification Famous doctors
Giving opinions.	Paragraphs with topic sentences.	Listening for key information.	Searching the skies The galaxy Earth and space quiz Famous astronomers
A debate.	Supporting your opinions.	Listening for detail.	Pollution and energy Links to Khadra Transport links The greenhouse effect
Talking about present actions.	E-mails.	Developing listening skills.	Computers Robots-science or science fiction? Changes in science Letter writing
Starting conversations.	Working from notes.	Identifying falling intonation.	Rocks Definitions Famous names in science Fossils
Apologizing, explaining and forgiving.	Summary writing.	Listening for key words and numbers.	Diseases Viruses and bacteria Fighting germs Staying healthy
Describing and identifying objects.	Sections of a report.	Listening to complete notes. Listening for the topic and main ideas.	Why do we need dams? Plastics Metals Properties of materials
Asking questions politely and responding.	Writing a report.	Listening in a conference setting.	A career in science Science at work Ask a scientist Job satisfaction

Appendix D

D.1 Comparisons of strategy-assessment types (Oxford 1996, p.38)

Type of assessment	Appropriate uses	Limitations of use
Strategy questionnaires	Identify "typical" strategies used by an individual; can be aggregated into group results; wide array of strategies can be measured by questionnaires	Not useful for identifying specific strategies on a given language task at a given time
Observations	Identify strategies that are readily observable for specific tasks	Not useful for unobservable strategies (e.g., reasoning, analysing, mental self-talk) or for identifying "typical" strategies
Interviews	Identify strategies used on specific tasks over a given time period or more "typically" used strategies; usually more oriented toward task-specific rather than "typical" strategies of an individual; depends on how interview questions are asked	Usually less useful for identifying "typical" strategies because of how interviews are conducted, but could be used for either task-specific or "typical" strategies
Dialogue journals, diaries	Identify strategies used on specific tasks over a given time period	Less useful for identifying "typical" strategies used more generally
Recollective narratives (language learning histories)	Identify "typical" strategies used in specific settings in the past	Not intended for current strategies; depends on memory of learner
Think-aloud protocols	Identify in-depth the strategies used in a given, ongoing task	Not useful for identifying "typical" strategies used more generally
Strategy checklists	Identify strategies used on a just-completed task	Not useful for identifying "typical" strategies used more generally

D.2 Final Libyan Teachers Questionnaire

Introduction to the Survey

This questionnaire is part of a doctoral degree research study about teaching the English for Libya syllabus. It is hoped that this study will contribute to the overall knowledge in English language teaching and will help providing new ideas to teachers and to syllabus designers in developing the Libyan learners' communicative abilities in English. Teachers will be asked to fill in this questionnaire and they can be selected for interviews if they agree to do so.

Please answer the 10 questions. There are no right or wrong answers to the questions, so please be as honest as possible in giving your responses. This should not take more than 20 Minutes, and all your data will be anonymous and secured.
 Filling in this section shows your agreement for using the data you provided. It also shows that your participation is voluntary and that you are aware of your rights including withdrawal from the research at any point, and that you are sure of confidentiality, privacy and anonymity of all of your data.

Name

……………………………………………………………………………………………

Date

……………………………………………………………………………………………...

If you agree to be interviewed, please tick the right box.

Yes, I agree to be interviewed if I am chosen and arrangements will be made to suits my circumstances ……………

No, I am not interested in interviews

Contact information: (for example your email). These will only be used by the researcher to contact you in case there are any issues related to your data and to contact those selected for the interviews
………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………

Communication strategies: these are techniques that people use to solve any problems during speaking

The following statements (1-10) refer to the use of meaning expression strategies. People may use these if they do not know an English word, cannot remember it or the other person does not understand us. Please consider your use of the following strategies in your own speaking in the classroom and your explicit instructions in answering the following questions (A-D).

For each item**, if** you answer **'YES'** to question **'A',** please also choose answers in the other columns **(B to D).**

	A - Do you know about it?		B - Do you use it in the classroom?		C - Do you teach it to your students? Was it useful?		D - Do you hear your students using it?
Using a general word, like "thing" or "stuff".	Yes, I know about it		Yes, I use it		Yes, and it is useful		Yes, they use it
	No, I don't know about it		No, I don't use it		Yes, and it is not useful		No, they don't use it
	I am not sure		I am not sure		No, I do not		I am not sure
					I am not sure		
Using a word that is roughly the same meaning, like" boat" instead of "ship".	Yes, I know about it		Yes, I use it		Yes, and it is useful		Yes, they use it
	No, I don't know about it		No, I don't use it		Yes, and it is not useful		No, they don't use it
	I am not sure		I am not sure		No, I do not		I am not sure
					I am not sure		
Using a word with the same meaning, like "worried" for "concerned".	Yes, I know about it		Yes, I use it		Yes, and it is useful		Yes, they use it
	No, I don't know about it		No, I don't use it		Yes, and it is not useful		No, they don't use it
	I am not sure		I am not sure		No, I do not		I am not sure
					I am not sure		

Follow

	A - Do you know about it?		B - Do you use it in the classroom?		C - Do you teach it to your students? Was it useful?		D - Do you hear your students using it?	
Using an opposite word, like "not large" for "small".		Yes, I know about it		Yes, I use it		Yes, and it is useful		Yes, they use it
		No, I don't know about it		No, I don't use it		Yes, and it is not useful		No, they don't use it
		I am not sure		I am not sure		No, I do not		I am not sure
						I am not sure		
Using an example of the general word, like "shirt" for "clothing".		Yes, I know about it		Yes, I use it		Yes, and it is useful		Yes, they use it
		No, I don't know about it		No, I don't use it		Yes, and it is not useful		No, they don't use it
		I am not sure		I am not sure		No, I do not		I am not sure
						I am not sure		
Using a definition of the word, like "a hair dresser" ... "is the person who cuts your hair".		Yes, I know about it		Yes, I use it		Yes, and it is useful		Yes, they use it
		No, I don't know about it		No, I don't use it		Yes, and it is not useful		No, they don't use it
		I am not sure		I am not sure		No, I do not		I am not sure
						I am not sure		

Follow

	A - Do you know about it?		B - Do you use it in the classroom?		C - Do you teach it to your students? Was it useful?		D - Do you hear your students using it?	
Using a description of the word, like it contains... it has...its colour is.		Yes, I know about it		Yes, I use it		Yes, and it is useful		Yes, they use it
		No, I don't know about it		No, I don't use it		Yes, and it is not useful		No, they don't use it
		I am not sure		I am not sure		No, I do not		I am not sure
						I am not sure		
Expressing the similarity in the meaning, like "it is like a very tall building" for "skyscraper".		Yes, I know about it		Yes, I use it		Yes, and it is useful		Yes, they use it
		No, I don't know about it		No, I don't use it		Yes, and it is not useful		No, they don't use it
		I am not sure		I am not sure		No, I do not		I am not sure
						I am not sure		
Repeating a sentence in a different way , like "I did not expect her call" for "her call surprised me".		Yes, I know about it		Yes, I use it		Yes, and it is useful		Yes, they use it
		No, I don't know about it		No, I don't use it		Yes, and it is not useful		No, they don't use it
		I am not sure		I am not sure		No, I do not		I am not sure
						I am not sure		
Correcting myself when make a mistake like "it is in the front" ....no it is in the back".		Yes, I know about it		Yes, I use it		Yes, and it is useful		Yes, they use it

3. Communication strategies: These are techniques that people use to solve any problems during speaking.

The statements from (1-9) refer to the use of meaning negotiation strategies. These are used during speaking when one tries to solve problems of misunderstanding. For example, you can ask the person to repeat or slow down.

 Read the statements and answer the questions from **A-D**. **If** you answer with (**Yes**) to question 1, then please also choose answers in the other columns **(B to D).**

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	A - Do you know about it?		**B** - Do you use it in the classroom?		**C** - Do you teach it to your students? Was it useful?		**D** - Do you hear your students using it?
Telling the other person, I cannot understand.," **Sorry**, **I can't follow you**"		**Yes, I know about it**		**Yes, I use it**		**Yes, and it is useful**		**Yes, they use it**
		No, I don't know about it		**No, I don't use it**		**Yes, and it is not useful**		**No, they don't use it**
		I am not sure		**I am not sure**		**No, I do not**		**I am not sure**
						I am not sure		
Asking the person to repeat, e.g., **Could you say that again, please**?"		**Yes, I know about it**		**Yes, I use it**		**Yes, and it is useful**		**Yes, they use it**
		No, I don't know about it		**No, I don't use it**		**Yes, and it is not useful**		**No, they don't use it**
		I am not sure		**I am not sure**		**No, I do not**		**I am not sure**
						I am not sure		

Follow

	A - Do you know about it?		B - Do you use it in the classroom?		C - Do you teach it to your students? Was it useful?		D - Do you hear your students using it?
Asking the person to slow down, spell or write something, e.g., " **Can you speak slowly, please**?"		**Yes, I know about it**		**Yes, I use it**		**Yes, and it is useful**		**Yes, they use it**
		No, I don't know about it		**No, I don't use it**		**Yes, and it is not useful**		**No, they don't use it**
		I am not sure		**I am not sure**		**No, I do not**		**I am not sure**
						I am not sure		
Asking the person to say something in English, e.g., **"How do you pronounce**...?		**Yes, I know about it**		**Yes, I use it**		**Yes, and it is useful**		**Yes, they use it**
		No, I don't know about it		**No, I don't use it**		**Yes, and it is not useful**		**No, they don't use it**
		I am not sure		**I am not sure**		**No, I do not**		**I am not sure**
						I am not sure		
Giving an example, e.g., ask the person to clarify. , " **What do you mean by...?"**		**Yes, I know about it**		**Yes, I use it**		**Yes, and it is useful**		**Yes, they use it**
		No, I don't know about it		**No, I don't use it**		**Yes, and it is not useful**		**No, they don't use it**
		I am not sure		**I am not sure**		**No, I do not**		**I am not sure**
						I am not sure		
Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is understood, e.g., " **Did you get it**?"		**Yes, I know about it**		**Yes, I use it**		**Yes, and it is useful**		**Yes, they use it**
		No, I don't know about it		**No, I don't use it**		**Yes, and it is not useful**		**No, they don't use it**
		I am not sure		**I am not sure**		**No, I do not**		**I am not sure**
						I am not sure		

Follow

	A - Do you know about it?		**B** - Do you use it in the classroom?		**C** - Do you teach it to your students? Was it useful?		**D** - Do you hear your students using it?	
Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is correct, e.g., " **Is this correct?"**	**Yes, I know about it**		**Yes, I use it**		**Yes, and it is useful**		**Yes, they use it**	
	No, I don't know about it		**No, I don't use it**		**Yes, and it is not useful**		**No, they don't use it**	
	I am not sure		**I am not sure**		**No, I do not**		**I am not sure**	
					I am not sure			
Repeating, summarize or paraphrase what I have heard and ask the person to confirm, e.g., " **So you are saying that ....is that right?"**	**Yes, I know about it**		**Yes, I use it**		**Yes, and it is useful**		**Yes, they use it**	
	No, I don't know about it		**No, I don't use it**		**Yes, and it is not useful**		**No, they don't use it**	
	I am not sure		**I am not sure**		**No, I do not**		**I am not sure**	
					I am not sure			
Guessing the meaning and ask the person to confirm e.g., " **Is it a dishwasher? yes**?"	**Yes, I know about it**		**Yes, I use it**		**Yes, and it is useful**		**Yes, they use it**	
	No, I don't know about it		**No, I don't use it**		**Yes, and it is not useful**		**No, they don't use it**	
	I am not sure		**I am not sure**		**No, I do not**		**I am not sure**	
					I am not sure			

4. Tasks and activities in the classroom: these refer to what happened in the classroom.

 How often do you think your students do the following? Please choose one option for each statement (1- 12):

	Very often	sometimes	Rarely	Never
Students look at different objects or concepts and explain any differences in English				
Students practice the role play activities in pairs and in front of the class				
Students tell stories in front of the class and in pairs				
Students guess the meaning of a reading passages by looking at titles or pictures in do that in English				
Students describe unfamiliar objects or concepts in English				
Students look at conversations and transcripts to see how people deal with problems during speaking, e.g. "misunderstanding or difficulty to recognise words.				
My students use English to express their ideas				
My students use Arabic to ask me about difficult words or instructions				
My students use the workbook for more practice				
Students can express their ideas better in writing than in speaking activities				
The students like speaking activities and are motivated to practice them				
My students express their idea in different ways rather than leaving or ending the conversation.				

D.3 Students Questionnaire (Arabic version)

أولا :- مقدمة

الاخوة والاخوات الطلبة

هذا الاستبيان هو جزء من دراسة بحثية حول تدريس المنهج الحالي للغة الإنجليزية في المدارس الثانوية الليبية . يؤمل ان هذه الدراسة ستسهم في المعرفة الشاملة في تعليم اللغة الإنجليزية ، وسوف تساعد فى تقديم أفكار جديدة للمعلمين ومصممي المناهج في تطوير قدرات التخاطب باللغة الانجليزية للطلاب الليبيين. باعتبارك طالب في هذه المدارس، فأن مشاركتك قيمة جدا مشاركتك تطوعية تماما ويمكنك الانسحاب في أي وقت ،كما ان جميع البيانات الخاصة بك. وهويتك سوف تكون سرية ومؤمنة ولن يتم نشرها ولا مشاركتها خارج نطاق البحث.

ملئ هذا الاستبيان لن يستغرق اكثر من 15 دقيقة كما أنه لا توجد إجابات صحيحة أو خاطئة على الأسئلة .

تعبة هذا الجزء يؤكد انك علي علم بكل شروط وتفاصيل المشاركة التطوعية وانك تعلم انه يمكنك الانسحاب في أي وقت ,كما انه تم التأكيد علي خصوصيه هويتك واي بيانات تقدمها في الاستبيان وانها سوف لن يتم نشرها او مشاركتها خارج نطاق البحث الحالي والتي سوف يتم اتلافها بعد انتهاء فترة دراستي .

التاريخ :- ....

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Communication strategies   (استراتيجيات التخاطب)

التعريفات التالية (1-10) تشير إلى استخدام استراتيجيات التعبير عن المعني وهي وسائل قد يستخدمها الناس أثناء التحدث إذا كانوا لا يعرفون كلمة إنجليزية، لا يمكنهم تذكرها اثناء الحديث أو   عندما لا يفهم الشخص الاخر ما نقول

لكل عبارة (1 : 10) ، إذا أجبت بنعم على السؤال (أ) ، الرجاء الإجابة عن الأسئلة الأخرى في هذا الصف

د - هل تسمع معلمك يستخدمها في الفصل الدراسي؟		ج - هل تم تدرسيك هذه الاستراتيجية؟ وهل هي مفيدة؟		ب - هل تستخدمها في الفصول الدراسية؟		أ – هل تعلم شيئ عن هذا		
نعم المعلم يستعملها		نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة		نعم		نعم		استخدام كلمة المعاكسة :
لا المعلم لا يستعملها		نعم و لم تكن مفيدة		لا		لا		
أنا غير متأكد		لا لم أدرسها		أنا غير متأكد		أنا غير متأكد		
		أنا غير متأكد						"not large" for "small"
نعم المعلم يستعملها		نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة		نعم		نعم		باستخدام مثال من الكلمة العامة:
لا المعلم لا يستعملها		نعم و لم تكن مفيدة		لا		لا		
أنا غير متأكد		لا لم أدرسها		أنا غير متأكد		أنا غير متأكد		"shirt" for "clothing"
		أنا غير متأكد						
نعم المعلم يستعملها		نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة		نعم		نعم		باستخدام تعريف كلمة :
لا المعلم لا يستعملها		نعم و لم تكن مفيدة		لا		لا		a hair dresser" ... "is the person who cuts
أنا غير متأكد		لا لم أدرسها		أنا غير متأكد		أنا غير متأكد		"your hair
		أنا غير متأكد						

Follow

د - هل تسمع معلمك يستخدمها في الفصل الدراسي؟		ج - هل تم تدريسيك هذه الاستراتيجية؟ وهل هي مفيدة؟		ب - هل تستخدمها في الفصول الدراسية؟		أ — هل تعلم شيئ عن هذا		
نعم المعلم يستعملها		نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة		نعم		نعم		استخدام كلمة عامة مثل "شيء" أو "الاشياء :
لا المعلم لا يستعملها		نعم و لم تكن مفيدة		لا		لا		
أنا غير متأكد		لا لم أدرسها		أنا غير متأكد		أنا غير متأكد		"thing or stuff"
		أنا غير متأكد						
نعم المعلم يستعملها		نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة		نعم		نعم		باستخدام الكلمة مشابهة في المعنى :
لا المعلم لا يستعملها		نعم و لم تكن مفيدة		لا		لا		
أنا غير متأكد		لا لم أدرسها		أنا غير متأكد		أنا غير متأكد		" "boat" instead of "ship
		أنا غير متأكد						
نعم المعلم يستعملها		نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة		نعم		نعم		استخدام كلمة بنفس المعنى:
لا المعلم لا يستعملها		نعم و لم تكن مفيدة		لا		لا		
أنا غير متأكد		لا لم أدرسها		أنا غير متأكد		أنا غير متأكد		"worried" for "concerned"
		أنا غير متأكد						

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Follow

	أ — هل تعلم شيئ عن هذا	ب - هل تستخدمها في الفصول الدراسية؟	ج - هل تم تدريسيك هذه الاستراتيجية؟ وهل هي مفيدة؟	د - هل تسمع معلمك يستخدمها في الفصل الدراسي؟
استخدام وصف للكلمة it contains... it has...its colour is	نعم	نعم	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة	نعم المعلم يستعملها
	لا	لا	نعم و لم تكن مفيدة	لا المعلم لا يستعملها
	أنا غير متأكد	أنا غير متأكد	لا لم أدرسها	أنا غير متأكد
			أنا غير متأكد	
التعبير عن التشابه في المعنى "it is like a very tall building" for skyscraper	نعم	نعم	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة	نعم المعلم يستعملها
	لا	لا	نعم و لم تكن مفيدة	لا المعلم لا يستعملها
	أنا غير متأكد	أنا غير متأكد	لا لم أدرسها	أنا غير متأكد
			أنا غير متأكد	
تكرار الجملة بطريقة مختلفة I did not expect her call" for "her call surprised me	نعم	نعم	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة	نعم المعلم يستعملها
	لا	لا	نعم و لم تكن مفيدة	لا المعلم لا يستعملها
	أنا غير متأكد	أنا غير متأكد	لا لم أدرسها	أنا غير متأكد
			أنا غير متأكد	

Follow

استخدام وصف للكلمة : it contains... it has...its colour is	أ — هل تعلم شيئ عن هذا	ب - هل تستخدمها في الفصول الدراسية؟	ج - هل تم تدرسيك هذه الاستراتيجية؟ وهل هي مفيدة؟	د - هل تسمع معلمك يستخدمها في الفصل الدراسي؟
	نعم	نعم	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة	نعم المعلم يستعملها
	لا	لا	نعم و لم تكن مفيدة	لا المعلم لا يستعملها
	أنا غير متأكد	أنا غير متأكد	لا لم أدرسها	أنا غير متأكد
			أنا غير متأكد	
التعبير عن التشابه في المعنى "it is like a very tall building" for skyscraper	نعم	نعم	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة	نعم المعلم يستعملها
	لا	لا	نعم و لم تكن مفيدة	لا المعلم لا يستعملها
	أنا غير متأكد	أنا غير متأكد	لا لم أدرسها	أنا غير متأكد
			أنا غير متأكد	
تكرار الجملة بطريقة مختلفة I did not expect her call" for "her call surprised me	نعم	نعم	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة	نعم المعلم يستعملها
	لا	لا	نعم و لم تكن مفيدة	لا المعلم لا يستعملها
	أنا غير متأكد	أنا غير متأكد	لا لم أدرسها	أنا غير متأكد
			أنا غير متأكد	
تصحيح نفسي عندما اخطأ "it is in the front" ....no, it is in the back	نعم	نعم	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة	نعم المعلم يستعملها
	لا	لا	نعم و لم تكن مفيدة	لا المعلم لا يستعملها
	أنا غير متأكد	أنا غير متأكد	لا لم أدرسها	أنا غير متأكد
			أنا غير متأكد	

Communication strategies   (استراتيجيات التخاطب)

استراتيجيات التناقش او التجادل المعاني: التعريفات التالية تشير إلى استخدام استراتيجيات التفاوض او التناقش وتستخدم هذه التقنيات خلال المحادثلة عندما يحاول الشخص حل المشاكل مثل سوء الفهم , على سبيل المثال يمكنك أن تطلب من شخص تكرار ما قاله أو ان يتحدث ببطئ .

لكل عبارة (1 : 9) ، **إذا** أجبت **بنعم** على السؤال **(أ)** ،الرجاء الإجابة عن الأسئلة الأخرى في هذا الصف :

	أ — هل تعلم شيئ عن هذا	ب - هل تستخدمها في الفصول الدراسية؟	ج - هل تم تدريسيك هذه الاستراتيجية؟ وهل هي مفيدة؟	د - هل تسمع معلمك يستخدمها في الفصل الدراسي؟
أقول الشخص الآخر لا أستطيع أن أفهم، على سبيل المثال، "عذرا، لا أستطيع أن أتبعك" "Sorry, I can't follow you"	نعم	نعم	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة	نعم المعلم يستعملها
	لا	لا	نعم و لم تكن مفيدة	لا المعلم لا يستعملها
	أنا غير متأكد	أنا غير متأكد	لا لم أدرسها	أنا غير متأكد
			أنا غير متأكد	
أطلب من الشخص تكرار ما قاله مثلا .. "هل تستطيع اعادة ما قلته من فضلك Could you repeat that please	نعم	نعم	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة	نعم المعلم يستعملها
	لا	لا	نعم و لم تكن مفيدة	لا المعلم لا يستعملها
	أنا غير متأكد	أنا غير متأكد	لا لم أدرسها	أنا غير متأكد
			أنا غير متأكد	

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Follow

	أ – هل تعلم شيئ عن هذا	ب - هل تستخدمها في الفصول الدراسية؟	ج - هل تم تدريسك هذه الاستراتيجية؟ وهل هي مفيدة؟	د - هل تسمع معلمك يستخدمها في الفصل الدراسي؟
أطلب من شخص ابطاء حديثه، ان يملئ الكلمة أو ان يكتب ما قاله ، مثلا "هل يمكنك التحدث ببطء، من فضلك؟ Could you slow down please?	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة نعم و لم تكن مفيدة لا لم أدرسها أنا غير متأكد	نعم المعلم يستعملها لا المعلم لا يستعملها أنا غير متأكد
أطلب من الشخص أن أقول شيئا باللغة الإنجليزية، مثلا كيف تنطق هذه, How do you pronounce it?	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة نعم و لم تكن مفيدة لا لم أدرسها أنا غير متأكد	نعم المعلم يستعملها لا المعلم لا يستعملها أنا غير متأكد
أطلب من شخص لتوضيح. مثلا : ماذا تقصد بـ ... ؟ "What do you mean by...?"	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة نعم و لم تكن مفيدة لا لم أدرسها أنا غير متأكد	نعم المعلم يستعملها لا المعلم لا يستعملها أنا غير متأكد

Follow

د ـ هل تسمع معلمك يستخدمها في الفصل الدراسي؟	ج ـ هل تم تدرسيك هذه الاستراتيجية؟ وهل هي مفيدة؟	ب ـ هل تستخدمها في الفصول الدراسية؟	أ ــ هل تعلم شيئ عن هذا	
نعم المعلم يستعملها لا المعلم لا يستعملها أنا غير متأكد	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة نعم و لم تكن مفيدة لا لم أدرسها أنا غير متأكد	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	أطلب من شخص لتأكيد أن ما أقوله مفهوم . مثلا: هل فهمتها Did you get it?"
نعم المعلم يستعملها لا المعلم لا يستعملها أنا غير متأكد	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة نعم و لم تكن مفيدة لا لم أدرسها أنا غير متأكد	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	أطلب من شخص لتأكيد أن ما أقوله هو الصحيح ،مثلا، "هل هذا صحيح؟: "Is this correct?"
نعم المعلم يستعملها لا المعلم لا يستعملها أنا غير متأكد	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة نعم و لم تكن مفيدة لا لم أدرسها أنا غير متأكد	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	تلخيص أو إعادة صياغة ما سمعت وتطلب من شخص تأكيد، مثلا ، "أنت تقول أن .... هل هذا صحيح؟ "So, you are saying that ...is that right?"
نعم المعلم يستعملها لا المعلم لا يستعملها أنا غير متأكد	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة نعم و لم تكن مفيدة لا لم أدرسها أنا غير متأكد	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	أخمن المعنى واطلب من الشخص تأكيد ،،مثلا، "هل هي غسالة الصحون ؟ نعم؟ "Is it a dishwasher? Yes?"

Communication strategies (استراتيجيات التخاطب)

استراتيجيات التناقش او التجادل المعاني: التعريفات التالية تشير إلى استخدام استراتيجيات التفاوض او التناقش وتستخدم هذه التقنيات خلال المحادثة عندما يحاول الشخص حل المشاكل مثل سوء الفهم , على سبيل المثال يمكنك أن تطلب من شخص تكرار ما قاله أو ان يتحدث ببطئ .

لكل عبارة (1 : 9) ، إذا أجبت بنعم على السؤال (أ) ،الرجاء الإجابة عن الأسئلة الأخرى في هذا الصف :

د - هل تسمع معلمك يستخدمها في الفصل الدراسي؟	ج - هل تم تدريسك هذه الاستراتيجية؟ وهل هي مفيدة؟	ب - هل تستخدمها في الفصول الدراسية؟	أ – هل تعلم شيئ عن هذا	
نعم المعلم يستعملها	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة	نعم	نعم	أقول الشخص الآخر لا أستطيع أن أفهم، على سبيل المثال،
لا المعلم لا يستعملها	نعم و لم تكن مفيدة	لا	لا	"عذرا، لا أستطيع أن أتبعك"
أنا غير متأكد	لا لم أدرسها	أنا غير متأكد	أنا غير متأكد	
	أنا غير متأكد			"Sorry, I can't follow you "
نعم المعلم يستعملها	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة	نعم	نعم	أطلب من الشخص تكرار ما قاله مثلا .. "هل تستطيع اعادة
لا المعلم لا يستعملها	نعم و لم تكن مفيدة	لا	لا	ما قلته من فضلك
أنا غير متأكد	لا لم أدرسها	أنا غير متأكد	أنا غير متأكد	
	أنا غير متأكد			Could you repeat that please
نعم المعلم يستعملها	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة	نعم	نعم	أطلب من شخص ابطاء حديثه، ان يملئ الكلمة أو ان يكتب
لا المعلم لا يستعملها	نعم و لم تكن مفيدة	لا	لا	ما قاله ، مثلا "هل يمكنك التحدث ببطء، من فضلك؟
أنا غير متأكد	لا لم أدرسها	أنا غير متأكد	أنا غير متأكد	Could you slow down please
	أنا غير متأكد			

Follow

د - هل تسمع معلمك يستخدمها في الفصل الدراسي؟	ج - هل تم تدرسيك هذه الاستراتيجية؟ وهل هي مفيدة؟	ب - هل تستخدمها في الفصول الدراسية؟	أ — هل تعلم شيئ عن هذا	
نعم المعلم يستعملها	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة	نعم	نعم	أطلب من الشخص أن أقول شيئا باللغة الإنجليزية، مثلا كيف تنطق هذه:
لا المعلم لا يستعملها	نعم و لم تكن مفيدة	لا	لا	
أنا غير متأكد	لا لم أدرسها	أنا غير متأكد	أنا غير متأكد	
	أنا غير متأكد			How do you pronounce it?
نعم المعلم يستعملها	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة	نعم	نعم	أطلب من شخص لتوضيح. مثلا : ماذا تقصد بــ ... ؟
لا المعلم لا يستعملها	نعم و لم تكن مفيدة	لا	لا	
أنا غير متأكد	لا لم أدرسها	أنا غير متأكد	أنا غير متأكد	
	أنا غير متأكد			"What do you mean by...?"
نعم المعلم يستعملها	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة	نعم	نعم	أطلب من شخص لتأكيد أن ما أقوله مفهوم . مثلا: هل فهمتها :
لا المعلم لا يستعملها	نعم و لم تكن مفيدة	لا	لا	
أنا غير متأكد	لا لم أدرسها	أنا غير متأكد	أنا غير متأكد	
	أنا غير متأكد			Did you get it?"
نعم المعلم يستعملها	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة	نعم	نعم	أطلب من شخص لتأكيد أن ما أقوله هو الصحيح ،مثلا، "هل هذا صحيح؟":
لا المعلم لا يستعملها	نعم و لم تكن مفيدة	لا	لا	
أنا غير متأكد	لا لم أدرسها	أنا غير متأكد	أنا غير متأكد	
	أنا غير متأكد			"Is this correct?"

Follow

د - هل تسمع معلمك يستخدمها في الفصل الدراسي؟	ج - هل تم تدريسك هذه الاستراتيجية؟ وهل هي مفيدة؟	ب - هل تستخدمها في الفصول الدراسية؟	أ — هل تعلم شيئ عن هذا	
نعم المعلم يستعملها لا المعلم لا يستعملها أنا غير متأكد	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة نعم و لم تكن مفيدة لا لم أدرسها أنا غير متأكد	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	أطلب من شخص لتأكيد أن ما أقوله هو الصحيح ،مثلا.، "هل هذا صحيح؟": "Is this correct?"
نعم المعلم يستعملها لا المعلم لا يستعملها أنا غير متأكد	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة نعم و لم تكن مفيدة لا لم أدرسها أنا غير متأكد	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	تلخيص أو إعادة صياغة ما سمعت وتطلب من شخص تأكيد، مثلا ، "أنت تقول أن .... هل هذا صحيح؟ "So, you are saying that ....is that right?"
نعم المعلم يستعملها لا المعلم لا يستعملها أنا غير متأكد	نعم درستها و كانت مفيدة نعم و لم تكن مفيدة لا لم أدرسها أنا غير متأكد	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	نعم لا أنا غير متأكد	أخمن المعنى واطلب من الشخص تأكيد ه،مثلا، "هل هي غسالة الصحون ؟ نعم؟ "Is it a dishwasher? Yes?"

Tasks and Activities (النشاطات والتمارين)

هذا الجزء يتعلق بكيفية التعامل مع النشاطات والمهام المختلفة التي قد تقومون بها داخل حصص اللغة الانجليزية

ما مدي تكرار قيامك بالنشاطات التالية في الفصول الدراسية. يرجى وضع **علامة** علي **خيار واحد فقط**

Never أبدا	Rarely نادرا	Sometimes أحيانا	Very often بشكل متكرر	(النشاطات والتمارين) Tasks and Activities	
				أنظر إلى الأشياء أو كلمات مختلفة وأقوم بشرح الاختلافات بينها باللغة الإنجليزية	
				أتخيل موقف معين والعب دورا مع طالب او طلاب اخرين داخل الصف. على سبيل المثال، واحد طبيب والآخر مريض	
				أقوم برواية القصص امام الصف واتدرب مع زملائ علي القيام بذلك	
				اخمن معنى القطع في دروش القراءة من خلال النظر الي الصور الموجودة واقوم ذلك باللغة الإنجليزية.	
				اخمن معنى قراءة مقاطع من خلال النظر في عناوين قراءة الفقرات وفعل ذلك في اللغة الإنجليزية	
				اقوم بوصف اشكال غير مألوفة او مفردات جديدة باللغة الإنجليزية	
				اتفحص المحادثات او المحادثات المكتوبة لأري كيف يتعامل الناس مع المشاكل المختلفة أثناء محادثاتهم	

Follow

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Very often	(النشاطات والتمارين) **Tasks and Activities**	
أبدا	نادرا	أحيانا	بشكل متكرر		
				اعبر عن أفكاري بطرق مختلفة بدلا من أنهاء المحادثة أو قول لا أدري	
				أستخدم اللغة الأنجليزية لأسال المعلم عن الأشياء التي لاأفهمها	
				أستخدم اللغة الغربية اذا لم افهم تعليمات المدرس	
				أشارك في نشاطات دروس المحادثة	
				أستطيع التعبير عن نفسي بشكل جيد في نشاطات المحادثة	
				أستطيع التعبير عن نفسي بشكل جيد في أنشطة الكتابة	
				اجازف و اتحدث باللغة الانجليزية حتى لو اذا كنت غير متأكدا من ما أتحدث عنه	
				نستخدم الا قراص المدمجة في الفصول الدراسية لنستمع للطرق المختلفة التي يتعامل بها المتحدثون مع الصعوبات اثناء الحديث	
				المعلم يساعدني اذا واجهت اي صعوبات أثناء القيام بالمحادثات داخل الفصل	
				المعلم يسألني عن قدراتي على حل الصعوبات أثناء التحدث	

الرجاء الإجابة على الأسئلة التالية بالتفصيل

هل تعتقد أن المواد التعليمية (كتاب الفصل وكتاب الواجب) مفيدة لتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية؟ لماذا ؟

....
....
....
....

هل تحب الطريقة التي يتعامل بها معلمك او معلمتك والطلاب الآخرين في مساعدتكم اثناء ممارسة انشطة المحادثات ؟لماذا؟ ولما لا؟

....
....
....
....

هل تعتقد أن المواد التعليمية (كتاب الفصل وكتاب الواجب) مفيدة في تشجيع الطلاب على التحدث في الصف؟ لماذا ا؟ لما لا؟

....
....
....
....

ماهو جنسك؟ (ذكر ....   /   أنثى ....)

في اي سنة تدرس؟ ....

شكرا جزيلا على المشاركة في هذا البحث لك. يرجى استخدام تفاصيل الاتصال بي لأية استفسارات، أو إذا كنت ترغب في إلغاء مشاركتك

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D.4 The results of teachers' questionnaires analysis

A-Do you know about it ?	Yes, I know about it	No, I don't know about it	I am not sure	Total
1- Using a general word, like "thing" or " stuff".	87.27% 48	7.27% 4	5.45% 3	55
2- Using a word that is roughly the same meaning, like" boat" instead of "ship".	87.27% 48	9.09% 5	3.64% 2	55
3- Using a word with the same meaning, like "worried" for "concerned".	83.64% 46	5.45% 3	10.91% 6	55
4- Using an opposite word, like "not large" for "small".	83.64% 46	10.91% 6	5.45% 3	55
5- Using an example of the general word, like "shirt" for "clothing".	75.93% 41	9.26% 5	14.81% 8	54
6- Using a definition of the word, like "a hair dresser" ... "is the person who cuts your hair".	83.33% 45	7.41% 4	9.26% 5	54
7- Using a description of the word, like it contains... it has...its colour is.	79.63% 43	11.11% 6	9.26% 5	54
8- Expressing the similarity in the meaning, like "it is like a very tall building" for "skyscraper".	75.93% 41	9.26% 5	14.81% 8	54
9- Repeating a sentence in a different way, like "I did not expect her call" for "her call surprised me".	74.07% 40	9.26% 5	16.67% 9	54
10-Correcting myself when make a mistake, like "it is in the front" ....no it is in the back".	79.63% 43	9.26% 5	11.11% 6	54

B- Do you use it in the classroom?	Yes, I use it	No, I do not use it	I am not sure	Total
1- Using a general word, like "thing" or " stuff".	83.64% 46	12.73% 7	3.64% 2	55
2- Using a word that is roughly the same meaning, like" boat" instead of "ship".	53.70% 29	27.78% 15	18.52% 10	54
3- Using a word with the same meaning, like "worried" for "concerned".	73.58% 39	16.98% 9	9.43% 5	53
4- Using an opposite word, like "not large" for "small".	68.52% 37	29.63% 16	1.85% 1	54
5- Using an example of the general word, like "shirt" for "clothing".	64.71% 33	31.37% 16	3.92% 2	51
6- Using a definition of the word, like "a hair dresser" ... "is the person who cuts your hair".	77.78% 42	16.67% 9	5.56% 3	54
7- Using a description of the word, like it contains... it has...its colour is.	75.47% 40	13.21% 7	11.32% 6	53
8- Expressing the similarity in the meaning, like "it is like a very tall building" for "skyscraper".	69.81% 37	13.21% 7	16.98% 9	53
9- Repeating a sentence in a different way, like "I did not expect her call" for "her call surprised me".	60.38% 32	26.42% 14	13.21% 7	53
10-Correcting myself when make a mistake, like "it is in the front" ....no it is in the back".	75.47% 40	11.32% 6	13.21% 7	53

C-Do you teach it to your students? is it useful?	Yes, and it is useful	Yes, and it is not useful	No, I don't teach it	I am not sure	Total
1- Telling the other person I can not understand, e.g.," Sorry, I can't follow you"	64.15% 34	3.77% 2	20.75% 11	11.32% 6	53
2- Asking the person to repeat, e,g., Could you say that again, please?"	83.33% 45	3.70% 2	5.56% 3	7.41% 4	54
3- Asking the person to slow down, spell or write something, e,g., " Can you speak slowly, please?"	70.37% 38	3.70% 2	20.37% 11	5.56% 3	54
4- Asking the person to say something in English, e,g., "How do you pronounce....?	70.37% 38	1.85% 1	18.52% 10	9.26% 5	54
5- Giving an example, e,g., ask the person to clarify., " What do you mean by...?"	72.22% 39	3.70% 2	14.81% 8	9.26% 5	54
6- Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is understood, e,g., " Did you get it?"	75.93% 41	0.00% 0	16.67% 9	7.41% 4	54
7- Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is correct, e,g., " Is this correct?"	61.11% 33	7.41% 4	16.67% 9	14.81%8	54
8- Repeating, summarize or paraphrase what I have heard and ask the person to confirm, e,g., " So you are saying that ....is that right?"	60.38% 32	7.55% 4	11.32% 6	20.75% 11	53
9- Guessing the meaning and ask the person to confirm e,g., " Is it a dishwasher? yes?"	65.38% 34	3.85% 2	9.62% 5	21.15% 11	52

D- Do you hear your students using it?	Yes, they use it	No, they don't	I am not sure	Total
1- Telling the other person I can not understand, e.g.," Sorry, I can't follow you"	45.28% 24	37.74% 20	16.98% 9	53
2- Asking the person to repeat, e,g., Could you say that again, please?"	72.22% 39	14.81% 8	12.96% 7	54
3- Asking the person to slow down, spell or write something, e,g., " Can you speak slowly, please?"	57.41% 31	31.48% 17	11.11% 6	54
4- Asking the person to say something in English, e,g., "How do you pronounce....?	52.83% 28	24.53% 13	22.64% 12	53
5- Giving an example, e,g., ask the person to clarify., " What do you mean by...?"	55.56% 30	12.96% 7	31.48% 17	54
6- Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is understood, e,g., " Did you get it?"	40.74% 22	29.63% 16	29.63% 16	54
7- Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is correct, e,g., " Is this correct?"	37.04% 20	44.44% 24	18.52% 10	54
8- Repeating, summarize or paraphrase what I have heard and ask the person to confirm, e,g., " So you are saying that ....is that right?"	39.62% 21	24.53% 13	35.85% 19	53
9- Guessing the meaning and ask the person to confirm e,g., " Is it a dishwasher? yes?"	55.77% 29	21.15% 11	23.08% 12	52

asks and activities	Very often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total	Mean	Std. Deviation
1- Students look at different objects or concepts and explain any differences in English	3.64% 2	56.36% 31	36.36% 20	3.64% 2	55	2.4000	0.62657
2- Students practice the role play activities in pairs and in front of the class	18.18% 10	27.27% 15	36.36% 20	18.18% 10	55	2.5455	0.99663
3- Students tell stories in front of the class and in pairs	14.55% 8	23.64% 13	32.73% 18	29.09% 16	55	2.7636	1.03573
4- Students guess the meaning of a reading passages by looking at titles or pictures in do that in English	12.96% 7	53.70% 29	29.63% 16	3.70% 2	54	2.2407	0.72516
5- Students describe unfamiliar objects or concepts in English	5.56% 3	38.89% 21	42.59% 23	12.96% 7	54	2.6296	0.78419
6- Students look at conversations and transcripts to see how people deal with problems during speaking, e.g " misunderstanding or difficulty to recognise words.	16.98% 9	32.08% 17	32.08% 17	18.87% 10	53	2.5283	0.99235
7- My students use English to express their ideas	5.56% 3	48.15% 26	35.19% 19	11.11% 6	54	2.5185 .	0.77071
8- My students use Arabic to ask me about difficult words or instructions	72.73% 40	21.82% 12	3.64% 2	1.82% 1	55	1.3455	0.64458
9- My students use the work book for more practice	52.83% 28	26.42% 14	18.87% 10	1.89% 1	53	1.6981	0.84546
10- Students can express their ideas better in writing than in speaking activities	46.30% 25	25.93% 14	20.37% 11	7.41% 4	54	1.8889	0.98415
11- The students like speaking activities and are motivated to practice them	35.19% 19	25.93% 14	33.33% 18	5.56% 3	54	2.0926	0.95697
12- My students express their idea in different ways rather than leaving or ending the conversation	9.26% 5	53.70% 29	22.22% 12	14.81% 8	54	2.4259	0.86005

A- Do you know about it?	Yes, I know about it	No, I do not know about it	I am not sure	Total
1- Telling the other person I can not understand, e.g.," Sorry, I can't follow you"	77.78% 42	12.96% 7	9.26% 5	54
2- Asking the person to repeat, e,g., Could you say that again, please?"	90.74% 49	5.56% 3	3.70% 2	54
3- Asking the person to slow down, spell or write something, e,g., " Can you speak slowly, please?"	85.19% 46	5.56% 3	9.26% 5	54
4- Asking the person to say something in English, e,g., "How do you pronounce....?	88.89% 48	3.70% 2	7.41% 4	54
5- Giving an example, e,g., ask the person to clarify., " What do you mean by...?"	88.89% 48	1.85% 1	9.26% 5	54
6- Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is understood, e,g., " Did you get it?"	88.89% 48	5.56% 3	5.56% 3	54
7- Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is correct, e,g., " Is this correct?"	83.33% 45	11.11% 6	5.56% 3	54
8- Repeating, summarize or paraphrase what I have heard and ask the person to confirm, e,g., " So you are saying that ....is that right?"	81.48% 44	12.96% 7	5.56% 3	54
9- Guessing the meaning and ask the person to confirm e,g., " Is it a dishwasher? yes?"	79.63% 43	11.11% 6	9.26% 5	54

B- Do you use it in the classroom?	Yes, I use it	No, I don't use it	I am not sure	Total
1- Telling the other person I can not understand,e.g.," Sorry, I can't follow you"	73.58% 39	16.98% 9	9.43% 5	53
2- Asking the person to repeat, e,g., Could you say that again, please?"	85.19% 46	11.11% 6	3.70% 2	54
3- Asking the person to slow down, spell or write something, e,g., " Can you speak slowly, please?"	74.07% 40	24.07% 13	1.85% 1	54
4- Asking the person to say something in English, e,g., "How do you pronounce....?	81.48% 44	12.96% 7	5.56% 3	54
5- Giving an example, e,g., ask the person to clarify., " What do you mean by...?"	83.33% 45	11.11% 6	5.56% 3	54
6- Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is understood, e,g., " Did you get it?"	81.48% 44	5.56% 3	12.96% 7	54
7- Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is correct, e,g., " Is this correct?"	74.07% 40	22.22% 12	3.70% 2	54
8- Repeating, summarize or paraphrase what I have heard and ask the person to confirm, e,g., " So you are saying that ....is that right?"	69.81% 37	15.09% 8	15.09% 8	53
9- Guessing the meaning and ask the person to confirm e,g., " Is it a dishwasher? yes?"	76.92% 40	9.62% 5	13.46% 7	52

C-Do you teach it to your students? was it useful?	Yes, and it is useful	Yes, and it is not useful	No, I don't	I am not sure	Total
1- Using a general word, like "thing" or " stuff".	56.36% 31	3.64% 2	21.82% 12	18.18% 10	55
2- Using a word that is roughly the same meaning, like" boat" instead of "ship".	51.85% 28	7.41% 4	20.37% 11	20.37% 11	54
3- Using a word with the same meaning, like "worried" for "concerned".	64.15% 34	5.66% 3	15.09% 8	15.09% 8	53
4- Using an opposite word, like "not large" for "small".	61.11% 33	7.41% 4	22.22% 12	9.26% 5	54
5- Using an example of the general word, like "shirt" for "clothing".	52.94% 27	5.88% 3	25.49% 13	15.69% 8	51
6- Using a definition of the word, like "a hair dresser" ... "is the person who cuts your hair".	68.52% 37	3.70% 2	14.81% 8	12.96% 7	54
7- Using a description of the word, like it contains... it has...its colour is.	67.92% 36	3.77% 2	7.55% 4	20.75% 11	53
8- Expressing the similarity in the meaning, like "it is like a very tall building" for "skyscraper".	54.72% 29	1.89% 1	13.21% 7	30.19% 16	53
9- Repeating a sentence in a different way, like "I did not expect her call" for "her call surprised me".	60.38% 32	3.77% 2	24.53% 13	11.32% 6	53
10-Correcting myself when make a mistake ,like "it is in the front" ....no it is in the back".	58.49% 31	5.66% 3	13.21% 7	22.64% 12	53

D-Do you hear your students using it?	Yes, they use it	No, they don't use it	I am not sure	Total
1- Using a general word, like "thing" or " stuff".	58.49% 31	20.75% 11	20.75% 11	53
2- Using a word that is roughly the same meaning, like" boat" instead of "ship".	42.31% 22	30.77% 16	26.92% 14	52
3- Using a word with the same meaning, like "worried" for "concerned".	46.15% 24	28.85% 15	25.00% 13	52
4- Using an opposite word, like "not large" for "small".	52.83% 28	24.53% 13	22.64% 12	53
5- Using an example of the general word, like "shirt" for "clothing".	41.18% 21	29.41% 15	29.41% 15	51
6- Using a definition of the word, like "a hair dresser" ... "is the person who cuts your hair".	50.00% 27	29.63% 16	20.37% 11	54
7- Using a description of the word, like it contains... it has...its colour is.	56.60% 30	20.75% 11	22.64% 12	53
8- Expressing the similarity in the meaning, like "it is like a very tall building" for "skyscraper".	41.51% 22	26.42% 14	32.08% 17	53
9- Repeating a sentence in a different way, like "I did not expect her call" for "her call surprised me".	28.30% 15	37.74% 20	33.96% 18	53
10-Correcting myself when make a mistake, like "it is in the front" ....no it is in the back".	47.17% 25	18.87% 10	33.96% 18	53

D.5 The results of students questionnaires analysis

A-Do you know about it ?	Yes, I do	No, I do not	I am not sure	Total
1-Using a general word like "thing" or " stuff".	90.38% 47	7.69% 4	1.92% 1	52
2-Using a word that is roughly the same meaning , e.g., " boat" instead of "ship".	76.92% 40	17.31% 9	5.77% 3	52
3- Using a word with the same meaning. ("worried" for "concerned")	63.46% 33	26.92% 14	9.62% 5	52
4- Using an opposite word ("not large" for "small"	88.46% 46	11.54% 6	0.00% 0	52
5- Using an example of the general word ("shirt" for "clothing")	80.77% 42	11.54% 6	7.69% 4	52
6- Using a definition of the word ("a hair dresser" ... "is the person who cuts your hair")	67.31% 35	21.15% 11	11.54% 6	52
7- Using a description of the word (e.g., it contains... it has...its colour is)	74.51% 38	21.57% 11	3.92% 2	51
8- Expressing the similarity in the meaning ("it is like a very tall building" for "skyscraper")	80.39% 41	17.65% 9	1.96% 1	51
9- Repeating a sentence in a different way (e,g., "I did not expect her call" for "her call surprised me")	62.75% 32	31.37% 16	5.88% 3	51
10- Correcting myself when I make a mistake (e,g., "it is in the front" ....no it is in the back")	62.75% 32	31.37% 16	5.88% 3	51

B- Do you use it in the classroom?	Yes, I use it	No, I do not use it	I am not use it	Total
1-Using a general word like "thing" or " stuff".	80.00% 40	16.00% 8	4.00% 2	50
2-Using a word that is roughly the same meaning , e.g., " boat" instead of "ship".	53.06% 26	34.69% 17	12.24% 6	49
3- Using a word with the same meaning. ("worried" for "concerned")	38.78% 19	34.69% 17	26.53% 13	49
4- Using an opposite word ("not large" for "small"	65.31% 32	30.61% 15	4.08% 2	49
5- Using an example of the general word ("shirt" for "clothing")	63.27% 31	30.61% 15	6.12% 3	49
6- Using a definition of the word ("a hair dresser" ... "is the person who cuts your hair")	50.00% 25	36.00% 18	14.00% 7	50
7- Using a description of the word (e.g., it contains... it has...its colour is)	60.42% 29	29.17% 14	10.42% 5	48
8- Expressing the similarity in the meaning ("it is like a very tall building" for "skyscraper")	62.50% 30	33.33% 16	4.17% 2	48
9- Repeating a sentence in a different way (e,g., "I did not expect her call" for "her call surprised me")	43.75% 21	37.50% 18	18.75% 9	48
10- Correcting myself when I make a mistake (e,g., "it is in the front" ....no it is in the back")	43.75% 21	41.67% 20	14.58% 7	48

C- Have you been taught this strategy? Is it useful?	Yes, and it is useful	Yes, and it is not useful	No, I have not	I am not sure	Total
1-Using a general word like "thing" or " stuff".	66.67% 32	6.25% 3	12.50% 6	14.58% 7	48
2-Using a word that is roughly the same meaning , e.g., " boat" instead of "ship".	54.00% 27	20.00% 10	4.00% 2	22.00% 11	50
3- Using a word with the same meaning. ("worried" for "concerned")	44.90% 22	6.12% 3	20.41% 10	28.57% 14	49
4- Using an opposite word ("not large" for "small"	67.35% 33	12.24% 6	6.12% 3	14.29% 7	49
5- Using an example of the general word ("shirt" for "clothing")	64.00% 32	6.00% 3	22.00% 11	8.00% 4	50
6- Using a definition of the word ("a hair dresser" ... "is the person who cuts your hair")	44.90% 22	12.24% 6	24.49% 12	18.37% 9	49
7- Using a description of the word (e.g., it contains... it has...its colour is)	56.25% 27	8.33% 4	14.58% 7	20.83% 10	48
8- Expressing the similarity in the meaning ("it is like a very tall building" for "skyscraper")	58.33% 28	4.17% 2	29.17% 14	8.33% 4	48
9- Repeating a sentence in a different way (e,g., "I did not expect her call" for "her call surprised me")	39.58% 19	4.17% 2	29.17% 14	27.08% 13	48
10- Correcting myself when I make a mistake (e,g., "it is in the front" ....no it is in the back")	35.42% 17	10.42% 5	33.33% 16	20.83% 10	48

E- Do you hear your teacher using it in the classroom?	Yes, my teacher uses it	No , my teacher doesn't	I am not sure	Total
1-Using a general word like "thing" or " stuff".	75.51% 37	8.16% 4	16.33% 8	49
2-Using a word that is roughly the same meaning , e.g., " boat" instead of "ship".	51.02% 25	26.53% 13	22.45% 11	49
3- Using a word with the same meaning. ("worried" for "concerned")	34.00% 17	30.00% 15	36.00% 18	50
4- Using an opposite word ("not large" for "small"	65.31% 32	24.49% 12	10.20% 5	49
5- Using an example of the general word ("shirt" for "clothing")	53.06% 26	28.57% 14	18.37% 9	49
6- Using a definition of the word ("a hair dresser" ... "is the person who cuts your hair")	42.86% 21	30.61% 15	26.53% 13	49
7- Using a description of the word (e.g., it contains... it has...its colour is)	48.94% 23	27.66% 13	23.40% 11	47
8- Expressing the similarity in the meaning ("it is like a very tall building" for "skyscraper")	45.83% 22	27.08% 13	27.08% 13	48
9- Repeating a sentence in a different way (e,g., "I did not expect her call" for "her call surprised me")	31.25% 15	33.33% 16	35.42% 17	48
10- Correcting myself when I make a mistake (e,g., "it is in the front" ....no it is in the back")	37.50% 18	31.25% 15	31.25% 15	48

A- Do you know about it?	Yes, I do	No, I do not	I am not sure	Total
1- Telling the other person I can not understand, e.g., " Sorry, I can't follow you"	80.39% 41	15.69% 8	3.92% 2	51
2- Asking the person to repeat, e,g., Could you say that again, please?"	84.31% 43	15.69% 8	0.00% 0	51
3- Asking the person to slow down, spell or write something, e,g., " Can you speak slowly, please?"	86.27% 44	11.76% 6	1.96% 1	51
4- Asking the person to say something in English, e,g., "How do you pronounce....?	68.63% 35	21.57% 11	9.80% 5	51
5- Giving an example, e,g., ask the person to clarify., " What do you mean by...?"	88.24% 45	11.76% 6	0.00% 0	51
6- Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is understood, e,g., " Did you get it?"	84.31% 43	13.73% 7	1.96% 1	51
7- Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is correct, e,g., " Is this correct?"	78.43% 40	15.69% 8	5.88% 3	51
8- Repeating, summarize or paraphrase what I have heard and ask the person to confirm, e,g., " So you are saying that ....is that right?"	56.86% 29	31.37% 16	11.76% 6	51
9- Guessing the meaning and ask the person to confirm e,g., " Is it a dishwasher? yes?"	76.47% 39	13.73% 7	9.80% 5	51

B- Do you use it in the classroom?	Yes, I do	No, I do not	I am not sure	Total
1- Telling the other person I can not understand, e.g., " Sorry, I can't follow you"	45.83% 22	45.83% 22	8.33% 4	48
2- Asking the person to repeat, e,g., Could you say that again, please?"	54.17% 26	35.42% 17	10.42% 5	48
3- Asking the person to slow down, spell or write something, e,g., " Can you speak slowly, please?"	66.67% 32	22.92% 11	10.42% 5	48
4- Asking the person to say something in English, e,g., "How do you pronounce....?	58.33% 28	31.25% 15	10.42% 5	48
5- Giving an example, e,g., ask the person to clarify., " What do you mean by...?"	60.42% 29	31.25% 15	8.33% 4	48
6- Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is understood, e,g., " Did you get it?"	52.08% 25	35.42% 17	12.50% 6	48
7- Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is correct, e,g., " Is this correct?"	62.50% 30	27.08% 13	10.42% 5	48
8- Repeating, summarize or paraphrase what I have heard and ask the person to confirm, e,g., " So you are saying that ....is that right?"	33.33% 16	47.92% 23	18.75% 9	48
9- Guessing the meaning and ask the person to confirm e,g., " Is it a dishwasher? yes?"	62.50% 30	31.25% 15	6.25% 3	48

C- Have you been taught this ?was it useful?	Yes, I have, and it was useful	yes, I have, and it wasn't useful	No, I have not	I am not sure	Total
1- Telling the other person I can not understand, e.g., " Sorry, I can't follow you"	43.75% 21	6.25% 3	35.42% 17	14.58% 7	48
2- Asking the person to repeat, e,g., Could you say that again, please?"	60.42% 29	2.08% 1	25.00% 12	12.50% 6	48
3- Asking the person to slow down, spell or write something, e,g., " Can you speak slowly, please?"	68.75% 33	6.25% 3	16.67% 8	8.33% 4	48
4- Asking the person to say something in English, e,g., "How do you pronounce....?	58.33% 28	0.00% 0	33.33% 16	8.33% 4	48
5- Giving an example, e,g., ask the person to clarify., " What do you mean by...?"	62.50% 30	10.42% 5	16.67% 8	10.42% 5	48
6- Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is understood, e,g., " Did you get it?"	47.92% 23	6.25% 3	27.08% 13	18.75% 9	48
7- Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is correct, e,g., " Is this correct?"	58.33% 28	4.17% 2	27.08% 13	10.42% 5	48
8- Repeating, summarize or paraphrase what I have heard and ask the person to confirm, e,g., " So you are saying that ....is that right?"	35.42% 17	4.17% 2	37.50% 18	22.92% 11	48
9- Guessing the meaning and ask the person to confirm e,g., " Is it a dishwasher? yes?"	47.92% 23	8.33% 4	39.58% 19	4.17% 2	48

D-Do you hear your teacher using it?	Yes, the teacher does	No, the teacher does not	I am not sure	Total
1- Telling the other person I can not understand, e.g., " Sorry, I can't follow you"	50.00% 24	31.25% 15	18.75% 9	48
2- Asking the person to repeat, e,g., Could you say that again, please?"	64.58% 31	22.92% 11	12.50% 6	48
3- Asking the person to slow down, spell or write something, e,g., " Can you speak slowly, please?"	56.25% 27	25.00% 12	18.75% 9	48
4- Asking the person to say something in English, e,g., "How do you pronounce....?	50.00% 24	35.42% 17	14.58% 7	48
5- Giving an example, e,g., ask the person to clarify., " What do you mean by...?"	60.42% 29	18.75% 9	20.83% 10	48
6- Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is understood, e,g., " Did you get it?"	52.08% 25	25.00% 12	22.92% 11	48
7- Asking the person to confirm that what I am saying is correct, e,g., " Is this correct?"	58.33% 28	25.00% 12	16.67% 8	48
8- Repeating, summarize or paraphrase what I have heard and ask the person to confirm, e,g., " So you are saying that ....is that right?"	31.25% 15	43.75% 21	25.00% 12	48
9- Guessing the meaning and ask the person to confirm e,g., " Is it a dishwasher? yes?"	50.00% 24	35.42% 17	14.58% 7	48

Tasks and activities	Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total	Mean	Std. Deviation
1- I look at different objects or concepts and explain any differences in English	21.15% 11	32.69% 17	23.08% 12	23.08% 12	52	2.48	1.07540
2- I pretend a situation and play a role with other students in the class. For example, one is a doctor and the other is a patient	9.62% 5	26.92% 14	36.54% 19	26.92% 14	52	2.81	0.95051
3- I tell stories in front of the class and practice in pairs.	19.23% 10	23.08% 12	23.08% 12	34.62% 18	52	2.73	1.13958
4- I guess the meaning of reading passages by looking at pictures and do that in English.	28.85% 15	46.15% 24	7.69% 4	17.31% 9	52	2.13	1.02954
5- I guess the meaning of a reading passages by looking at titles of reading paragraphs and do that in English	41.18% 21	43.14% 22	7.84% 4	7.84% 4	51	1.82	0. 88783
6- I describe unfamiliar objects or unfamiliar vocabulary in English	21.15% 11	34.62% 18	21.15% 11	23.08% 12	52	2.46	1.07487
7- I look at conversations and transcripts to see how people deal with problems during speaking	31.37% 16	27.45% 14	13.73% 7	27.45% 14	51	2.37	1.19935
8- I express my ideas in different ways rather than leaving or ending the conversation or saying I do not know	25.00% 13	36.54% 19	15.38% 8	23.08% 12	52	2.37	1.10309
9- I use English to ask the teacher if I cannot understand something in the books	25.00% 13	28.85% 15	28.85% 15	17.31% 9	52	2.38	1.05075
10- I use Arabic to ask about difficult instructions	43.14% 22	25.49% 13	9.80% 5	21.57% 11	51	2.10	1.18752

Followed

Tasks and activities	Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total	Mean	Std. Deviation
11- I take part in the speaking activities	50.00% 26	30.77% 16	5.77% 3	13.46% 7	52	1.83	1.04264
12- I express myself well in speaking activities	32.69% 17	38.46% 20	17.31% 9	11.54% 6	52	2.08	0.98710
13- express myself well in writing activities	33.33% 17	45.10% 23	13.73% 7	7.84% 4	51	1.96	0.89355
14- I take risks in speaking even if I am not sure about what I am saying	36.54% 19	32.69% 17	19.23% 10	11.54% 6	52	2.06	1.01775
15- We use the listening materials (CDs) in classroom to learn different ways people deal with speaking difficulties in their conversations	9.80% 5	21.57% 11	13.73% 7	54.90% 28	51	3.14	1.07740
16- The teacher helps me with any difficulties while doing a speaking activity	52.94% 27	31.37% 16	3.92% 2	11.76% 6	51	1.75	0.99686
17- The teacher asks me about my abilities of managing difficulties in the speaking activities	26.92% 14	28.85% 15	19.23% 10	25.00% 13	52	2.42	1.14354

Appendix E

E.1 Pilot Interview questions with Arabic translation

Q1- What is your understanding of the term communication strategies?

<div dir="rtl">

1- ما هو مفهومك لمصطلح استراتيجيات التخاطب؟

</div>

Q2- Do you think that most Libyan teachers know about communication strategies? What is their source of this knowledge?

<div dir="rtl">

2-هل تعتقد أن معظم المعلمين الليبيين يعرفون استراتيجيات التخاطب ؟ ما هو مصدر هذه المعرفة؟

</div>

Q3-Do you think that Libyan students know about CSs? What is the source of this knowledge?

<div dir="rtl">

3-هل تعتقد أن الطلبة الليبيين يعرفون "حول استراتيجيات التخاطب ؟ ما هو مصدر هذه المعرفة؟

</div>

Q4-Do you believe that teaching communication strategies in the Libyan classroom is possible? Why? Why not?

<div dir="rtl">

4- هل تعتقد أن تعليم استراتيجيات الاتصال في الفصل الدراسي الليبي ممكن؟ لماذا؟ لما لا؟

</div>

Q5- Is there any need to develop the understanding of CSs and their use among teachers? why? why not?

<div dir="rtl">

5- هل هناك أي حاجة لتطوير لمفهوم واستخدام استراتيجيات التخاطب بين المعلمين؟ لماذا؟ لما لا؟

</div>

Q6-Is there any need to develop the understanding of CSs and their use among the students? why? why not?

<div dir="rtl">

6- هل هناك أي حاجة لتطوير لمفهوم واستخدام استراتيجيات التخاطب بين الطلاب؟ لماذا؟ لما لا؟

</div>

Q7-What benefits do you think that the students will get from teaching or awareness raising of the CSs?

<div dir="rtl">

7- ما هي الفوائد التي تعتقد أن الطالب سيتحصل عليها من تدريس أو نشر الوعي حول استراتيجيات التخاطب ؟

</div>

Q8-What types of communication problems do most of your students often face or report when performing a communicative activity?

<div dir="rtl">

8- ما هي اكثر المشاكل التي يواجهها او يشتكي منها معظم الطلاب عند ادائهم للمحادثات او المهام التخاطبية؟

</div>

Q9- What do your students usually do if they do not know a word or cannot remember it during a speaking activity?

<div dir="rtl">

9- ماذا يفعل طلابك عادةا إذا كانوا لا يعرفون كلمة أو لا يمكنهم تذكرها خلال حديثهم؟

</div>

Q10- If one of your students is performing a speaking task and stops because of facing a difficulty? What do you do?

<div dir="rtl">

10- ماذا تفعل عندما يقوم أحد الطلاب بأداء مهمة تتطلب اداء تخاطبي وتوقف بسبب صعوبة؟

</div>

Q11- Are there any other ways that you use to encourage your students to continue a conversation when a problem occurs?

11- هل هناك أي وسائل أخرى تستخدمها لتشجيع الطلاب لمتابعة محادثة عند مواجهتهم لمشكلة؟

Q12- Do you usually follow the instructions in the teachers' book? why? why not?

12- هل تقوم عادة باتباع الأرشادات الموجودة في كتاب المعلم؟ لماذا؟ لما لا؟

Q13- How do you introduce new vocabulary, such as those included in the reading passages, to your students?

13- كيف تقوم بتدريس المفردات الجديدة، مثل التي ترد في دروس القراءة؟

Q-14 Many tasks in the course book materials are related to vocabulary learning. for example, the ones that ask the learners to match words to their meaning? how do you deal with these tasks? how do your students often perform these tasks?

14- العديد من المهام في المنهج تتعلق بتعليم المفردات. على سبيل المثال، التي تطلب ايجاد او ملائمة الكلمة لمعناها؟ كيف تتعامل مع هذه المهام؟ ماهي استجابة الطلاب لهذه المهام؟

Q15-In some tasks, the students are asked to explain phrases, sentences or words in their own words? do you use this activity? in what ways do your student respond to it?

15- بعض المهام تتطلب ان يقوم الطلاب بشرح العبارات والجمل أو الكلمات بطريقتهم الخاصة؟ هل تمارسون هذا التمرين؟ كيف يستجيب الطالب لذلك؟

Q16-Can you think of any examples of tasks included in the course book materials that help the students to develop problem solving behaviour needed for successful communication?

16- هل تستطيع ان تذكر أي أمثلة على المهام الواردة في المنهج والتي تساعد الطلاب على تطوير مهارة حل المشكلات المتعلقة بالتخاطب باللغة الانجليزية؟

Q17- Some of the answers given by the teachers and the students in the questionnaires contradict. For example, 80 % of the students' state that they use communication strategies while the teachers' percentage for their students is only 58%? why do you think there is a difference?

17- بعض الاجابات التي قدمت من قبل المعلمين والطلاب في الاستبيانات تناقض. على سبيل المثال 80٪ من"الطلبة صرحو انهم يستخدمون استراتيجيات التخاطب بينما كانت نسبة المعلمين لاستخدام الطلبة 58 ٪ فقط؟ لماذا تعتقد أن هناك اختلاف في الاجابات ؟

Q 18- In some other cases, teachers' percentages of their own use of strategies are higher than those reported by their students? do you have an explanation of this?

18- في بعض الحالات الأخرى، نسب المعلمين حول استخدام الاستراتيجيات هي أعلى من تلك التي ذكرت من قبل طلابهم؟ هل لديك تفسير لذلك؟

Q19- Is there anything that you would like to add?

19- هل تود بأضافة اي شئ اخر قبل انهاء المقابلة

E.2 Main interview Questions

Q1- What is your understanding of the term CSs?

Q2- Do you think that most Libyan teachers know about CSs? What is their source of this knowledge? FOR EXAMPLE, L1?

> *What particular strategies you think would be useful to teach?*

Q3-Do you think that Libyan students know about CSs? What is the source of this knowledge?

Q4-Do you believe that teaching CSs in the Libyan classroom is possible? Why? Why not?

Q5- Is there any need to develop the understanding of CSs and their use among teachers? why? why not?

Q6-Is there any need to develop the understanding of CSs and their use among the students? why? why not?

Q7-What benefits do you think that the students will get from teaching or awareness raising of the CSs? (self-confidence/ communicative competence)?

Q8-What types of communication problems do your students often face or report when performing a communicative activity?

Q9- What do your students usually do if they do not know a word or cannot remember it during a speaking activity?

Q10- If one of your students is performing a speaking task and stops because of facing a difficulty? What do you do?

Q11- Are there any other ways that you use to encourage your students to continue a conversation when a problem occurs?

Q12- Do you usually follow the instructions in the teachers' book? why? why not?

> *is there anything missing from the teachers' book. When are the instructions particularly useful, for which activities? for which skills?*

Q13- How do you introduce new vocabulary, such as those included in the reading passages, to your students?

Q-14 Many tasks in the course book materials are related to vocabulary learning. for example, the ones that ask the learners to match words to their meaning? how do you deal with these tasks? how do your students often perform these tasks?

Q15-In some tasks, the students are asked to explain phrases, sentences or words in their own words? do you use this activity? in what ways do your student respond to it?

Q16-Can you think of any examples of tasks included in the course book materials that help the students to develop problem solving behaviour needed for successful communication?

What about the following tasks:

1- Students look at different objects or concepts and explain any differences in English

2- Students practice the role play activities in pairs and in front of the class

3- Students tell stories in front of the class and in pairs

4- Students guess the meaning of a reading passages by looking at titles or pictures in do that in English

5- Students describe unfamiliar objects or concepts in English

6- Students look at conversations and transcripts to see how people deal with problems during speaking, e.g "misunderstanding or difficulty to recognise words.

Q17- Some of the answers given by the teachers and the students in the questionnaires contradict. For example, 80 % of the students' state that they use communication strategies while the teachers' percentage for their students is only 58%? why do you think there is a difference?

Q 18- In some other cases, teachers' percentages of their own use of strategies are higher than those reported by their students? do you have an explanation of this?

Q19- Is there anything that you would like to add?