

A study into the teaching and learning of English speaking skills at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University from the teachers' and students' perspectives

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Declaration

I hereby declare that the work presented in this thesis is original, and has not been accepted for the award of academic degree heretofore.

Signed: *Sundis Ashreef*

Abstract

This case study provides insight into the teaching and learning of English speaking skills at the Libyan Al Jabal Al Gharbi University as a research context, investigating the teachers' and students' perceptions in terms of the level of adoption of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach in the speaking classes held at the institution. The lens of focus was placed on the main obstacles that might impede the effective adoption of the CLT approach in the study context. The results and the findings of this study will also help to facilitate the university decision makers in their planning and designing of the English language speaking skills curricula.

In order to achieve valid and reliable results, this research adopted a mixed method approach that is represented through the collection of quantitative and qualitative data. A questionnaire was used to collect the quantitative data from students at different years of academic study, while semi-structured interviews were conducted in order to gather the qualitative data from the students and also those lecturers who teach speaking skills in the English language department at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University.

The main findings of this research reveal that traditional approaches and techniques are more frequently employed in the institution to teach speaking skills, whereas CLT-based techniques and activities are limited, although it was also shown that some lecturers of speaking skills are able to apply CLT approaches and techniques, notwithstanding the many obstacles that impede their effective application. Moreover, the findings also highlight that a large number of students hold the belief that utilising communicative approaches to promote the acquisition of speaking skills is beneficial and enhances their language use, although a limited number of students believe that communicative approaches do not always support the development of their speaking competences, arguing that the more traditional approaches of language teaching are more effective in their view. This study also presents a number of obstacles identified by the speaking skills teachers and their students that present challenges in the context of applying the CLT approach.

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Table of Contents

Declaration.....	iii
Abstract.....	iv
Acknowledgments.....	v
Table of Contents	vii
List of Tables	xiv
List of Figures	xvi
1 Chapter One: Introduction	19
1.1 Introduction	19
1.2 Aim of the study	19
1.3 Background of the study	19
1.4 Statement of the problem.....	22
1.5 Rationale for the study	22
1.6 Research question	23
1.7 Research objectives	23
1.8 Research structure	24
1.9 Summary of the chapter	25
2 Chapter Two: Research Context	27
2.1 Introduction	27
2.2 A historic overview of the Libyan context	27
2.3 The educational system in Libya	29
2.4 The Libyan higher education system	30
2.5 The teaching of English as a foreign language	31
2.6 The teaching of English speaking skills	33
2.7 Summary of the chapter	35
3 Chapter Three: Literature Review	37

3.1	Introduction	37
3.2	The spread of English.....	37
3.3	The nature of speaking	38
3.4	The importance of speaking skills.....	39
3.5	Factors related to speaking skills.....	40
3.6	Theories of learning and second language acquisition	42
3.7	Theories of learning.....	42
3.7.1	Behaviourism.....	43
3.7.2	Innatism theory.....	44
3.7.3	Cognitive theories	44
3.7.4	Interactionist theory	46
3.8	Second language acquisition theories.....	46
3.9	The significance of errors	46
3.10	Acquisition / learning hypothesis.....	47
3.11	Interactionist theories on second language acquisition	48
3.12	The different teaching methods.....	49
3.12.1	The Grammar Translation method.....	49
3.12.2	The Direct method.....	50
3.12.3	The Audiolingual method	51
3.12.4	Task-Based Language Teaching approach.....	53
3.13	Teaching speaking skills.....	55
3.14	Methods of teaching speaking skills.....	57
3.15	Direct and indirect approaches of teaching speaking skills	58
3.16	Strategies in teaching speaking skills	59
3.17	Student motivation	62
3.18	Corrective feedback.....	63
3.19	Teachers' and learners' beliefs.....	65

3.20	The theoretical framework of language testing.....	66
3.21	The speaking syllabus.....	68
3.22	Spoken grammar.....	70
3.23	Strategies for acquiring speaking skills	71
3.23.1	Turn-taking.....	71
3.23.2	Child-directed speech and scaffolding	72
3.23.3	Repetition.....	73
3.23.4	Conversational competence.....	73
3.23.5	Cohesion and coherence.....	74
3.23.6	Formulaic language	74
3.23.7	Communicative strategies.....	74
3.24	Speaking subskills.....	75
3.24.1	Pronunciation	75
3.24.2	Fluency and accuracy	77
3.25	Historic background of the CLT approach	78
3.26	The importance of the CLT approach	79
3.27	The strong and the weak form	80
3.28	The main obstacles to applying the CLT approach	81
3.28.1	The lack of teacher training.....	81
3.28.2	The deficiency of communicative practice	81
3.28.3	Using the mother tongue in the classroom.....	82
3.28.4	Students' lack of motivation.....	83
3.28.5	Teacher-centred classrooms.....	83
3.28.6	The lack of using effective learning materials	83
3.28.7	The gender difference	84
3.28.8	Large class size.....	85
3.28.9	Students' anxiety.....	85

3.28.10	Grouping	87
3.29	Conceptual framework	88
	88
3.30	The gap in the research.....	89
3.31	Summary of the chapter	89
4	Chapter Four: Research Methodology and Methods.....	91
4.1	Introduction	91
4.2	Research question and objectives	91
4.3	Methodology.....	92
4.3.1	Research philosophy	92
4.3.2	Ontology and epistemology	93
4.3.3	The positivist philosophy	95
4.3.4	The interpretivist philosophy	96
4.3.5	The justification for the current study's philosophical paradigm ..	97
4.3.6	Research approach	100
4.3.7	Rationale for the survey.....	101
4.3.8	Rationale for the interview.....	101
4.3.9	Case study	102
4.4	The method.....	103
4.4.1	The mixed method.....	103
4.4.2	The sampling strategy and calculating the sample	104
4.4.3	The survey.....	107
4.4.4	The interview.....	111
4.5	Triangulation	114
4.6	Validity and reliability of the questionnaire and interviews	115
4.7	Ethics	116
4.8	Summary of the chapter	117

5	Chapter Five: Data Analysis	119
5.1	Introduction	119
5.2	The analysis of the quantitative data	119
5.3	The demographic data analysis.....	120
5.4	Participants' gender.....	120
5.5	Participants' level of study.....	121
5.6	Participants' background knowledge of learning English.....	122
5.7	Cronbach's alpha	124
5.8	Factor analysis	124
5.8.1	Construct one: class environment.....	130
5.8.2	Construct two: CLT techniques	132
5.8.3	Construct three: the traditional approach	132
5.8.4	Construct four: teachers' feedback	133
5.8.5	Construct seven: students' perceptions towards the traditional approach	134
5.8.6	Construct eight: students' interaction in the classroom	134
5.8.7	Construct five: CLT (tasks and activities assigned by the teacher) 135	
5.8.8	Construct six: CLT (what the student can do according to the approach)	135
5.8.9	Construct nine: CLT (teacher's focus).....	136
5.9	Independent t-test	136
5.10	One-way Anova	137
5.10.1	One-way Anova (year level).....	138
5.10.2	One-way Anova (students' level of experience in learning speaking skills).....	143
5.10.3	One-way Anova (students' level of proficiency in speaking skills) 148	

5.11	Correlation Test	153
5.12	Qualitative data analysis	155
5.12.1	Students' background information	155
5.12.2	Summary of the students' key qualitative themes	156
5.13	The teachers' background information.....	168
5.14	Summary of the teachers' key themes.....	169
5.14.1	The teaching of speaking skills in general	169
5.14.2	The interaction techniques in the classroom	170
5.14.3	Implementation of the CLT approach	171
5.14.4	The use of traditional approaches	172
5.14.5	The main obstacles to applying CLT	174
5.14.6	Overcoming speaking skills and communication problems	177
5.14.7	Speaking evaluation criteria.....	178
5.14.8	University facilities provided.....	180
5.15	Triangulation of the quantitative and qualitative data	181
5.16	Summary of the chapter	185
6	Chapter Six: Discussion	187
6.1	Introduction	187
6.2	Teachers' and students' perceptions towards the current teaching methods used by the teachers of English speaking skills.....	187
6.3	Teachers' and students' perceptions about the extent to which the CLT approach is implemented at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University.....	194
6.4	The obstacles that may impede the effective adoption of the CLT approach according to the teachers' and students' perceptions.....	199
6.5	Summary of the chapter	202
7	Chapter Seven: Conclusion	204
7.1	Introduction	204
7.2	Summary of the key findings	204

7.2.1	Objective one	204
7.2.2	Objective two	205
7.2.3	Objective three.....	206
7.3	Recommendations of the study.....	207
7.3.1	To the university stakeholders and decision makers.....	207
7.3.2	To the English speaking skills teachers.....	208
7.3.3	The study recommendations based on the Anova and t-test results 210	
7.4	Limitations of the study.....	218
7.5	Contribution to knowledge.....	219
7.6	Suggestions for further research	221
7.7	Summary of the chapter	221
	References.....	223
	Appendices.....	248
	Appendix I: Participants' Information Form.....	248
	Appendix II: Consent Form	251
	Appendix III: Students' Questionnaire	253
	Appendix IV: Teachers' Interviews Questions.....	259
	Appendix V: Students' Interviews Questions	261
	Appendix VI: Students' interviews (Arabic Copy)	263
	Appendix VII: Gatekeeper Consent Form.....	265
	Appendix VIII: Correlation	268
	Appendix IX: Post-hoc	275

List of Tables

Table 2.1 The different stages of the Libyan education system.....	29
Table 2.2 Libyan universities	30
Table 4.1: The ontological categories	94
Table 4.2: Positivism and interpretivism: the philosophical implications	97
Table 4.3: The source of the questionnaire questions.....	108
Table 4.4: The statistical parametric tests	110
Table 4.5: Qualitative data analysis: content versus grounded methods	112
Table 5.1: Response rate	120
Table 5.2 participants' level of study (students' percentage in every year)....	121
Table 5.3 The reliability statistics	124
Table 5.4 KMO and Bartlett's test	124
Table 5.5 Communalities test.....	125
Table 5.6 Total variance explained	127
Table 5.7 Rotated component matrix ^a	129
Table 5.8 Factor two: CLT techniques.....	132
Table 5.9 Factor three: the traditional approach	132
Table 5.10 Factor four: teachers' feedback.....	133
Table 5.11 Factor seven: students' perceptions towards the traditional approach	134
Table 5.12 Factor eight: students' interaction in the classroom.....	134
Table 5.13 Factor five: CLT (tasks and activities assigned by teacher)	135
Table 5.14 Factor six: CLT (what the student can do according to the approach).....	135
Table 5.15 Factor nine: CLT (teacher's focus)	136
Table 5.16 Independent-samples' t-test: gender	136
Table 5.17 Test of homogeneity of variances	137
Table 5.18 One-way Anova (year level)	138
Table 5.19 Test of homogeneity of variances (experiences)	142
Table 5.20 One-way Anova (students' level of experience in learning speaking skills).....	143
Table 5.21 Test of homogeneity of variances	148

Table 5.22 One-way Anova (students' level of proficiency in speaking skills)	148
Table 5.23: Correlations.....	153
Table 5.24: correlation of each obstacles separately with rest of factors.....	153
Table 7.1 The study recommendations based on the Anova and t-test results	
.....	210

List of Figures

Figure 3.1 Levels and Fields of Research into Speech and Conversation (Source: Hughes and Reed, 2017, p. 5)	41
Figure 3.2 Communicative competence of communicative language ability in communicative language use (Source: Bachman, 1990, p. 85)	68
Figure 4.1: The most common types of sampling techniques	105
Figure 5.1: Participants' gender	120
Figure 5.2: Participants' level of study (students' percentage annually)	121
Figure 5.3: Participants' level of study (gender percentage annually)	122
Figure 5.4: Participants' background knowledge of learning English	123
Figure 5.5 Participants' background knowledge of learning English	123
Figure 5.6 Scree plot	128
Figure 5.7 Students' interviews: key themes	156
Figure 5.8 Teachers' interviews: key themes	169

List of Abbreviations

CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
LPP	Language planning and policy
EFL	English as a foreign language
ESL	English as a second language
L1	First language
MSA	Modern Standard Arabic
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TBLT	Task-Based Language Teaching

Chapter One: Introduction

1 Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This chapter commences by presenting the aim of the research and the background of the study. It then features a clear discussion regarding the statement of the problem, before proceeding to highlight the rationale for the selection of this study domain and the research objectives. Finally, the structure of the entire thesis concludes the chapter.

1.2 Aim of the study

This study investigates the teaching of English speaking skills at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University. It aims to explore the students' and teachers' perceptions regarding the extent to which teachers at the academic institution adopt Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), as well as identifying any barriers that might affect the effective adoption of this approach.

1.3 Background of the study

The teaching of English language skills has become increasingly important within Libyan universities, given that a considerable number of Libyan students are entitled to scholarships in order to complete their academic studies in universities abroad (ICEF Monitor, 2012). Additionally, multinational firms have invested in Libya, which has subsequently exposed the nation to the forces of globalisation (Davie, 2012). Consequently, with a large number of multinational firms using English as a lingua franca, enhancing English language skills is a key goal for Libya to enable the nation to establish a unique position in the global environment.

Regarding the language planning and policy (LPP) in Libya, the decisions are taken by the top levels of government, and especially by those who dominate the economic and political domains. Thus, the lack of expertise in terms of LPP is apparent (Hamed, 2014). This stance is due to the historical development associated with LPP, whereby Libya has implemented an Arabisation policy since its independence in 1954 so as to exclude the existence of other local and foreign languages, and to ultimately assist in the retention of the Arabic and Islamic identity.

Hence, Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) has been identified within the Libyan Constitution as the national language, representing the only official language for government as well as the medium for teaching, deemed as a “*monoglot ideology*” based on Silverstein’s (1996, p. 8) definition.

Despite the influences of globalisation being manifest (Davie, 2012), the Libyan government remains insistent on the notion of a monolingual society, which has led to a low standard of English teaching coupled with a lack of well-trained English teachers.

With regard to the Libyan oral communication skills, these are still classified as limited, in similarity to many other Arab learners. It has been argued that Libyan English as a foreign language (EFL) learners experience considerable difficulty when communicating orally with others in a foreign language (Diaab, 2016), with this problem being linked to number of reasons, and primarily the language teachers’ over-reliance on traditional approaches of teaching that comprise types of teaching methods that “*emphasize extensive linguistic input rather than communicative output*” (Diaab, 2016, p. 338). According to Wolff (2010, p. 55), the limited use of practice in employing the language communicatively in the classroom results in “*mute English learners*” who lack the confidence to practise speaking freely either within or outside of the classroom. It is therefore imperative that Libyan language learners who study English in non-English speaking settings experience a real communicative environment in the classroom to facilitate the expression of their opinions and views in authentic communication scenarios.

The orientation of the English curriculum is also considered to be less applicable in terms of credibility because there are no fixed curricula in place at the universities (Jha, 2015). For instance, the design of the teaching curricula is the responsibility of the Head of the English Department. In other words, the majority of the faculties at Libyan universities are primarily reliant on the Head of the English Department for the preparation of the pertaining English materials, as well as designing the course structure. Meanwhile, because the lecturers are free to adapt the curriculum, the standards often deteriorate as the instructors tend to filter the chosen curriculum based on their personal preferences, which may result in the exclusion of key themes in the field (Orafi and Borg, 2009; Sawani, 2009). In this respect Vandewalle, 2006, pp. 40-41) argued:

While educational development is still a priority for the government, the educational programmes in Libya suffer from limited and changeable curricula, a lack of qualified teachers (especially Libyan teachers), and a strong tendency to learn by rote rather than by reasoning, a characteristic of Arab education in general. Nonetheless, education is already free at all levels, and students receive a substantial stipend.

As a result, the absence of standardised curricula is evident since these are developed by individual departmental heads as opposed to educational policy makers. This practice of developing the curricula within the universities is unlike that attributed to curricula in schools, which are imposed by the education authorities (Sawani, 2009). Consequently, this inconsistency impacts the teachers' pedagogy as well as their knowledge, due to the non-standard and dissimilar materials (Elabbar, 2011). Moreover, Orafiya and Borg (2009) highlighted the significant differences between an English curriculum's aims and the actual output of the teaching, since teachers have a tendency to retain their long-held beliefs as to the teaching and learning of the English language, which overlap with the fundamentals of the prescribed educational content, so that they filter the prescribed curriculum. Orafiya and Borg's (2009) study also explored the teachers' evaluations regarding the feasibility of such curricula, which were determined according to their own understanding, as well as their students' and the utilised assessment methods. In other words, the desirable outcomes from reforming the curriculum are directly attributed to enhancing the association between the intended curricular reforms and the actual practices of the teachers within the classroom environment.

Despite the Libyan government taking steps to improve the level of education since the 2011 revolution, particularly in respect to teaching and learning English, there are unsatisfactory procedures pertaining to the smooth transition from school to university (Elabbar, 2011). In terms of this transition, the absence of linkage between what students have learnt at school and their learning in the universities is apparent. This stems from the gap between the learning and teaching systems that tend to be prescribed in the schools by the national administration that implements a top-down approach, whilst the learning and teaching styles at universities are individually designed based on the instructors' choices and their preferred teaching approach (Elabbar, 2011).

1.4 Statement of the problem

In the context of Libyan universities, inconsistencies at the level of the English competency achieved by the graduates are evident (Maslen, 2011). This generally increases the need for those who obtain scholarships to study abroad in order to attend English language courses in native English speaking countries prior to commencing their studies to achieve higher degrees. The number of students attending such courses abroad is substantial (Kreiba, 2012), owing to the severely neglected status of the teaching of the English language in Libya (Kreiba, 2012). Including those students who specialise in English at Libyan universities, a recent index of English skills positioned Libyans at the bottom of non-English speaking countries with respect to English proficiency (Educational, 2012).

Soliman (2013) traced the essential issues back to the fact that the syllabi in the universities are commonly created by heads of departments and then developed by instructors, as opposed to having a fixed template, alongside the absence of teacher training programmes as well as the large numbers of students populating the classroom (Orafi and Borg, 2009). Moreover, there are unsatisfactory procedures that hinder the smooth transition from school to universities (Elabbar, 2011). Libyan students' competence in speaking has been found to be particularly weak (Rajendran, 2010), despite this being the skill most highly valued by students and employers (Marginson, 2011).

This study therefore attempts to undertake an investigation into the teaching and learning of English speaking skills at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University, Libya, in order to acquire a deeper understanding of the inherent issues, and to identify possible solutions for any challenges that teachers and learners may be encountering. Moreover, certain teaching approaches such as CLT might facilitate learning through engagement in real communication via either performing meaningful tasks or enhancing the communication between teacher and student, as well as amongst students themselves, which eventually stimulates the learning process (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Therefore, these approaches will be explored in this thesis.

1.5 Rationale for the study

Improving Libyan students' English proficiency and speaking skills in particular has become imperative in today's globalised world (Maslen, 2011), with the production of graduates achieving international standards becoming a significant aim for

Libyan universities. Essentially, this is the target that the Ministry of Higher Education in Libya has been attempting to realise since the end of the Gaddafi's regime. However, considering the status of current language teaching and learning, bringing about such a significant development will undoubtedly take time.

The rationale behind selecting speaking skills in particular as the research focus is three-fold. Firstly, this is the researcher's personal interest and experience as a lecturer of speaking skills, as well as many other modules at this university, while observing the inadequacies of teaching outcomes and low levels of student proficiency compound this motivation to undertake such an investigation. Secondly, it is the researcher's academic interest that led to her realisation that teaching and acquiring speaking skills is still neglected in many Arab countries, and particularly Libya. In addition, limited interest has been given to developing the practice of oral skills through utilising communicative strategies and techniques in the Libyan classroom. Thirdly, and most importantly, this topic was selected due to practical reasons, whereby it is hoped that the findings emerging from this research will provide valuable and fresh insights on the raising of awareness in the domain of how to more effectively teach speaking skills. In addition, the study outcomes will provide pertinent recommendations to teachers and decision makers on the optimum teaching methods and techniques that best suit the Libyan classroom.

1.6 Research question

The research question that underpins this study is as follows:

How do the teachers and students perceive the teaching of English speaking skills at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University?

1.7 Research objectives

The research question leads to the following objectives being explored:

1. To identify the methods employed by the teachers of English speaking skills.
2. To determine the extent to which the CLT approach is implemented by English teachers at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University.
3. To highlight those obstacles that may impede the effective adoption of CLT.

1.8 Research structure

This study is divided into seven chapters, which are outlined as follows:

Chapter One introduces an outline of the structure of the entire thesis. This is presented in terms of the different elements of the research including the background of the study and the statement of the problem, as well as the aim, rationale, objectives and question used to conduct this investigation.

Chapter Two provides a brief background to the context of the study. More specifically, it presents general information about the context of the study with regards to the educational, economic and political systems that are related to this research.

Chapter Three presents a critical review of the relevant literature concerning aspects and arguments that are related to the teaching and acquisition of English speaking skills. The topics explored highlight facets of the nature and importance of speaking skills, as well as those factors that are related to such skills. After that, the chapter provides a clear discussion regarding the main first and second language acquisition (SLA) theories that are related to learning and acquiring the language in general, and speaking skills in particular. Next, topics are explored that relate to either teaching or learning speaking skills such as the methods and strategies for the teaching of speaking skills, student motivation, teachers' and learners' beliefs, spoken grammar, and the speaking syllabus. The final section discusses a range of aspects related to the CLT approach, as well as the main obstacles to its application as reported in the literature.

Chapter Four introduces the methodological framework and methods selected for this research. It also illustrates the various procedures and processes involved in designing the data collection methods and instruments, as well as arguing for the clear justification for their selection. The chapter also discusses the sampling size and techniques used to select the study sample, as well as the statistical analysis and procedures employed to analyse the qualitative and quantitative data collected. Chapter Five provides an interpretation and analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data through employing the SPSS and NVivo software, as well as content analysis.

Chapter Six presents the findings emerging from the quantitative and qualitative data, in the context of the literature explored in Chapter Three.

Chapter Seven comprises the conclusion and summary of the findings drawn from this research, as well as the recommendations, the limitations of the study, the contribution to knowledge and suggestions for further research.

1.9 Summary of the chapter

This chapter began by presenting the aim of research, alongside a brief introduction to the background of the study. Then, an overview of the statement of the problem, and the rationale for this investigation were stated. The concluding sections conveyed the research question and objectives selected for this research, as well as a summary of the structure of the whole thesis. The following chapter presents an overview of the context of the study.

Chapter Two: Research Context

2 Chapter Two: Research Context

2.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the background information in terms of Libya as a research context for this study. It also presents a general overview of the key aspects that are linked directly to this research, while discussing a number of political, social, and economic factors that generally shape the Libyan context and directly affect the language teaching and learning process.

2.2 A historic overview of the Libyan context

Before discussing further details related to this study, it is important to provide a brief overview about Libya, the country where this research has been conducted. Therefore, this section briefly considers the political, social and economic characteristics that both shape the Libyan context, and influence the education system.

Libya is a North African, Islamic country, located on the south coast of the Mediterranean Sea and with an approximate population of 6.5 million (Tamtam et al., 2011). The official language used is Arabic, and the religion of the state is Islam. Before 1960s Libya was one of the poorest countries in the world, with a very limited number of educated citizens, and virtually no schools (Rose, 2015; Masoud, 2016). However, education increased rapidly after 1963, and it has been both free and compulsory for all Libyans ever since.

The Libyan economy, which is near the top of the list of GDP per capita among African countries, is primarily based on oil exports. Despite the country receiving billions of US dollars from its oil revenues, this does not result in a good standard of living, even though there is a relatively small population (Masoud, 2016). Although around 90% of the country's economy is based on oil, little has been allocated towards the development of infrastructure and education (Chivvis and Martini, 2014). Therefore, the standards of educational facilities, equipment, teaching and learning resources, language laboratories or even appropriate teacher-training sessions, are still lacking (Aloreibi and Carey, 2017).

Libya's political situation has also influenced the educational system. Before the 2011 revolution began on the 17th of February, when the Gaddafi's regime still ruled the nation, Libya faced numerous challenges that significantly affected the teaching

and learning of foreign languages. Gaddafi's regime had experienced significant political conflict with the United States (US) and the United Kingdom (UK), where he had been accused of several terrorists acts (Blanchard and Zanotti, 2011). These problems caused many diplomatic ties to sever, which translated into international isolation for a significant period of time. As a reaction from the Libyan government at that time, and under a plan to curb the influence of foreign nations, the Ministry of Higher Education banned the teaching of the English and French languages in all Libyan schools and universities across the whole country. In addition, no access to the internet was allowed before 2002. This lengthy prohibition of using foreign languages and contacting the wider world considerably affected the national standard of English, not to mention the isolation from other cultures around the world.

As a developing country, Libya has faced numerous challenges following the latest revolutionary transformation. These challenges have primarily manifested as internal conflict and civil war, which have had a negative consequence on the society, while aggravating regional instability (Daw, 2017). Some of these challenges were briefly summarised by Obeidi and Obeidi (2013, p. 2) as follows:

The first challenge, as perceived by the post-1969 regime, was to unite the country as one nation. The second was the dual task of undertaking both socio-economic and political changes in an attempt to build a new society. The third was to create a 'new citizen' and a 'new political culture' and to change some of the values, attitudes and patterns of behaviour which Libyans inherited from the previous eras of Ottoman, Italian and monarchical rule.

All of these challenges considerably impacted on the level of education, as well as the quality of teaching and learning methods used to teach English (Najeeb, 2013), and despite many attempts from the government to introduce communicative approaches and methods to the teaching of the language, its application remains very limited. Communicative approaches such as CLT, for example, are still widely ignored, while the roots of the Grammar Translation method are still entrenched in many language teachers (Najeeb, 2013).

2.3 The educational system in Libya

This section discusses the education system in Libya in general, and the changing attitudes to the teaching of the English language over the past years in particular. It is believed that this could help in clarifying the main challenges and constraints that language teachers and students still encounter when utilising communicative approaches in the classroom.

When Libya was an Italian colony (1912 – 1943), access to schools was restricted to the Italian soldiers, bureaucrats, settlers or to the children of influential Libyan families at that time. Because Libyan nationals were not permitted to join these schools, families continued to send their children to religious schools that taught the Holy Quran and mathematics, as well as elementary writing and reading skills. This scenario prevailed until the first and only king of independent Libya (King Idris) came to power in 1951. Then, the education sector began to experience a vast transformation that provided learning opportunities to all Libyans with no discrimination. These changes also included the establishment of a large number of new schools throughout the country (Najeeb, 2013).

The general structure of the education system in Libya is nowadays divided into four stages. The classification starts with 6 years of primary school, followed by 3 years at the elementary level and then another 3 years at the secondary level, before finally concluding with between 4 and 5 years at the university level. Table 2.1 below illustrates the different education stages in Libya.

Table 2.1 The different stages of the Libyan education system

Level	Year	Age	Duration
Primary	1–6	6–12 years	6 years
Middle	7–9	12–15 years	3 years
High School	10–12	15–18 years	3 years
University	13–17	18–22 years	4–5 years, depending on the faculty

(Source: adapted from Elabbar, 2011)

2.4 The Libyan higher education system

The higher education system in Libya plays an important role in the development of social, economic and cultural growth. It focuses extensively on creating highly qualified professionals in different fields, so that they can become reliable human resources that can cope with the international needs of a globalised nation.

The establishment of Libyan universities commenced in the 1950s, with only two main institutions available throughout the entire nation, namely the University of Garyounis and the University of Al-Fatih. Later, these two universities expanded and incorporated different faculties such as Science, Arts, Education, and Law. Because of the increasing number of students registering in the higher education system between during the 1980s and 1990s, a large number of new universities were established. Table 2.2 below indicates the location and population of the 13 Libyan universities now available.

Table 2.2 Libyan universities

University	Total Number of Students	Location
University of Al-Fatih	51,361	Tripoli
University of Garyounis	24,453	Benghazi
University of the Arabs for Medical Science	1,718	Benghazi
University of Umar al- Mukhtar for Agricultural Science	4,072	Al-Bayda
University of Al-Fatih for Medical Science	5,538	Tripoli
University Seventh of April	11,138	Al-Zawiya
University of Western Mountain	6,297	Gharayan

University of Bright Star for Technological Studies	1,101	Burayga
The Open University	15,908	Tripoli
University of Derna	4,427	Derna
University of Sebha	5,890	Sebha
University of Nasir	6,870	Tripoli
University of Gulf Challenge	6,275	Sirte

(Source: Obeidi and Obeidi, 2013, p. 68)

With regards to Al Jabal Al Gharbi University, previously known as the University of Western Mountain, this academic institution was established in 1991. It is located in one of the largest cities in the Northwest of Libya: Gharian. According to Obeidi and Obeidi (2013), the overall population of students enrolled in this university in 2013 was 6,297 students. It represents one of the officially recognised higher educational institutions that offer a wide range of programmes and courses in different fields of study.

2.5 The teaching of English as a foreign language

The teaching and learning of English has never been prioritised in the Libyan education system. Additionally, language teachers have only given limited attention to adopting communicative approaches into their practice. Therefore, language teaching in Libya has passed through different stages of implementation, as described below.

Between the period from 1970 to 1986, the learning of English was mandatory in all Libyan schools and universities. However, between 1986 and 1992 the Ministry of Education in Libya prevented the teaching of foreign languages in all schools and universities (Aloreibi and Carey, 2017). Then, in 1992, the teaching of English was reintroduced to the education system at a late stage for children in year 7, aged 12 years and above (Gheblawi, 2011).

This limited exposure to the English language, as well as the lack of contact with English native speakers from outside the country for more than 6 years, has considerably eroded Libyan's English standards, while contributing to the language

learners' poor proficiency (Najeeb, 2013). Even after the reintroduction of English curricula in schools and universities, the practice of English is limited to the classroom and is rarely employed outside the confines of the classroom walls. Moreover, despite the teachers' continued efforts spent on developing their learners' linguistic knowledge, they have yet to succeed in employing this knowledge in real communicative situations (Diaab, 2016). Furthermore, notwithstanding the government's myriad attempts to develop the quality of language teaching and learning in order to make English the lingua franca in Libyan society, it is still considered as a foreign language as opposed to a second language (Aloreibi and Carey, 2017).

Achieving a good level of proficiency in oral communicative skills has always been an ambition for the majority of EFL learners in Libya (Diaab, 2016). Considering the current teaching and learning practice, it appears that the language teaching in Libya still suffers from many challenges. The English language curricula utilised for teaching between the period from 1992 and 2000 was based on the principles of the Grammar Translation method (Emhamed and Krishnan, 2011). After 2000, the government attempted to introduce the principles of CLT into the school curricula; however, the outcomes of proficiency were not satisfactory due to the non-qualified teachers who taught the syllabi (Aloreibi and Carey, 2017), whereby the majority of teachers who have had to engage with the new curricula still hold the belief of the importance of focusing on grammar and reading skills that they acquired from the extensive teaching history of the Grammar Translation method and teacher-centred pedagogy (Aloreibi and Carey, 2017). Furthermore, these teachers did not receive any training that could prepare them to engage with communicative activities, and student-centred classrooms (Najeeb, 2013).

In this respect, Mohsen (2014) summarised a number of problems that the Libyan education system suffers from in general. These challenges are primarily centred around the lack of well-equipped classrooms that are rich with teaching equipment and facilities. There is also limited use of teaching aids and technology that facilitate the teaching and learning process, as well as direct exposure to the language, while Elzawi (2015) considered that the numbers of students in the Libyan language classroom are considerably high when it comes to language practice.

2.6 The teaching of English speaking skills

As discussed above, the teaching of English speaking skills in Libya is still suffering from many challenges. It has been argued that Libyan students continue to encounter many difficulties in terms of communicating in English or understanding very simple structures (Omar, 2012). Although many attempts have been made by the educational policy makers to include curricula based on communication and the involvement of students in interactive classroom activities, these attempts have remained theoretical and unrealised (Emhamed and Krishnan, 2011).

The current teaching approaches and strategies applied by language teachers in Libya are yet to be influenced by the communicative approaches of language teaching, with the majority of the current teaching practice focused on developing the students' linguistic knowledge, which has failed to enable them to communicate effectively in communicative situations (Diaab, 2016). Teachers do not yet address this skill effectively in their classes, and their students' inability to employ the language properly is evident (Altaieb and Omar, 2015). In Libya, there are many problems facing the teaching of English in general, and the teaching of speaking skills in particular, with the main challenges of teaching and acquiring speaking skills presented in the rest of this section.

The current teaching method and approaches utilised to teach EFL in the higher education of Libya primarily rely on the Grammar Translation and Audiolingual methods (Emhamed and Krishnan, 2011), with the application of these two methods prioritising the explanation of grammatical structures and activities over communication. According to Chang (2011), the over-reliance of drilling, memorisation of fixed structures and dialogues in learning a language do not help learners to develop their level of fluency, which is an important target for the language learner. Additionally, the effectiveness of linguistic knowledge was described by Diaab (2016, p. 339) as being temporary, whereby *"in the long run, the learners may not be able to conduct a simple conversation and express themselves effectively depending only on linguistic elements"*. Accordingly, important oral proficiency elements such as exposure, and sufficient opportunities to employ the language need to be effectively fulfilled in any non-native English speaking setting (Al Hosni, 2014).

Although there were many calls from the Ministry of Education to shift from the Grammar Translation and Audiolingual methods to allow the involvement of more

communication in classrooms, these attempts have proved unsuccessful when it comes to practice (Aloreibi and Carey, 2017). This is traced back to the type of curriculum employed, and the teachers' focus being predominantly on the memorisation of vocabulary or grammatical structures, and the translation of texts (Kenan et al., 2015). Therefore, the majority of classrooms that teach English in Libya primarily rely on teacher-centred classes that do not provide sufficient communication opportunities to students (Najeeb, 2013).

This overdependence on employing these traditional methods of teaching in the speaking classroom has been justified by a number of rationales; for example, some teachers consider that their students lack of motivation and negative attitude towards learning foreign languages in general makes them less interested in engaging with communication in the classroom (Youssef, 2012). Moreover, according to Aloreibi and Carey (2017, p. 10), *"when some Libyan students practice English communicatively, their peers do not take them seriously. It is most often perceived as showing off, so it is therefore socially taboo to use English in public"*. Another key barrier reported by some language teachers is the large class sizes, and thus the insufficient contact time required to involve all students in communication (Diaab, 2016), with some teachers arguing that excessive student numbers in their language classes do not allow them to provide sufficient opportunities for all students to participate in communication. In addition, busy course schedules, as well as the pressure of examinations, do not afford teachers with enough windows to spend long periods of time interacting with students (Omar, 2012). Some teachers rush to complete the curriculum, ignoring the quality of students' understanding and mastering of the taught elements (Diaab, 2016). Some teachers also believe that placing greater attention on developing students' reading and writing skills is more important for language learning than developing speaking and listening skills (Emhamed and Krishnan, 2011), while others argue that speaking and listening skills can be learnt automatically over time. Soliman (2013) also criticised teachers' regular and extensive use of the Arabic language during English speaking classes, as it has been argued that excessive use of the mother tongue in speaking classes leads to insufficient exposure to the target language (Diaab, 2016).

None of the subjects taught at the Libyan universities have a fixed curriculum for teaching, with the teachers designing their own materials that they believe to be suitable for their students, and basing their structure on a pre-prepared course

syllabus designated by the Head of the Department (Aloreibi and Carey, 2017). These course syllabi typically lack the clear determination of objectives and outcomes, with the lecturers being responsible for searching and determining what materials are most suitable for their students (Alahirsh, 2014).

There is more to mastering a language than knowing how it is formed structurally. A language learner needs to have an understanding and practise how it functions. In other words, language learners must use the grammar and vocabulary that they have acquired in meaningful authentic situations so that they can apply them successfully in real situations outside the classroom (Diaab, 2016).

2.7 Summary of the chapter

This chapter began by providing a brief overview of the Libyan context, before presenting a clear explanation of the education system in Libya in general, as well as the status of higher education in particular. The important aspects of teaching EFL were highlighted, and more specifically the teaching of speaking skills. The following chapter critically reviews the literature concerning the teaching and learning of speaking skills.

Chapter Three: Literature Review

3 Chapter Three: Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

This chapter is divided into three main parts. The first presents a critical review of the available literature, and in particular analyses the many aspects surrounding the spread of the English language nature and the importance of speaking skills, as well as a range of other factors that are related to speaking skills. It also includes an in-depth analysis of the theories of learning and SLA that is in line with the research objectives of this study. The second part discusses several methods for the teaching of speaking skills, including approaches and strategies that could be applied in the conversation classroom. Following that, a discussion explores the many facets of speaking such as speaking subskills, teachers' beliefs, motivation, corrective feedback, speaking syllabus, fluency and accuracy, and spoken grammar. The final part of this chapter is related to various issues surrounding the CLT approach, which are considered primarily through the historic background of the CLT approach, the importance of the CLT approach, and the main obstacles to applying the CLT approach. In order to support this study, any gaps that are found in the literature will be identified.

3.2 The spread of English

The teaching of EFL is being made a priority in many countries worldwide (Bailey, 2005; Klimovienė et al., 2016), since English has become the language of international communication, that is, the lingua franca of trading, media, politics and academia (Crystal, 2006). Such a global spread of the English language has resulted in advances in the field of language teaching and, by extension, teacher education worldwide.

Traditionally, researchers of EFL teaching and learning focus on the teaching of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Spoken language, in particular, received the least linguistic attention in comparison to written language (Thornbury and Slade, 2006). However, all of these skills are, metaphorically, like bricks that require mortar to bond them together, with the 'mortar' here likened to classroom communication in the form of speaking. Ideally, classroom oral communication is a two-way process, in which the teacher and students set out to adapt to each other's goals and procedures (Rajab, T., 2013). Meanwhile, 'communication' refers

to the instrument employed to structure our knowledge of a topic, according to which the linguistic output is shaped (Moradian et al., 2017).

3.3 The nature of speaking

The skill of speaking is defined as “*the most common and important means of providing communication among human beings. The key to successful communication is speaking nicely, efficiently and articulately, as well as using effective voice projection*” (Devi, 2015, p. 1). Speaking involves highly complex facets of physiological as well as psychological processes (Thornbury, 2011), being the skill that requires language learners to have the ability to interact with others confidently, to discuss unfamiliar topics, and to strike a balance between accuracy and fluency when speaking in a second language (Lindsay et al., 2006). Bailey and Nunan (2005) described speaking and writing as productive skills, since learners generate the language, in contrast to reading and listening skills where learners receive the language, and which are therefore referred to as receptive skills.

The production of spoken sounds is influenced by a number of cognitive, linguistic and affective factors (Wang, 2014). The cognitive factor refers to the involvement of conceptualisation, formulation and articulation processes, which are essential to the formation of meaning. While conceptualisation signposts the selection of appropriate information that conveys the speaker’s intention, formulation deals with the appropriate selection of vocabulary and grammatical structures necessary to express this meaning. Articulation, on the other hand, indicates the production of speech as a sound by utilising the articulation system (Kormos, 2006). Meanwhile, the linguistics factor refers to the comprehension and use of language forms that include the correct application of pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and intonation (Hughes and Reed, 2017). Knowledge of the language forms does not always result in employing them correctly, and while learners may have a strong understanding of these forms, transferring this awareness into correct speech is highly challenging (Wang, 2014). The final affective factor refers to the student’s anxiety and reluctance to speak in the foreign language, particularly when he/she is not sufficiently prepared and motivated (Wang, 2014).

Meaningful speech sound patterns concentrate primarily on a number of features such as intonation and rhythm, word stress, the correct selection of vocabulary with

regards to the type of audience, and the social setting, as well as the manner in which speakers present their thoughts logically (Nunan, 2003). Carter and Cornbleet (2001) described intonation, rhythm and word stress as representing the main features of speech formation. While intonation is formed by the rising and falling of the speaker's voice to indicate different intentions such as ending the words' syntactic boundaries, or reflecting attitude or disbelief, rhythm, on the other hand, indicates that the formation of a word is created according to the location of stress in the word. Furthermore, language speakers need to carefully consider their ideas, words and use of grammar prior to presenting their productive sentences in the target language (Nematovna, 2016), since speaking is represented as how we communicate our thoughts, emotions and meanings in words (Khoshsiman and Shokri, 2016).

Speaking skills are described as being different in myriad ways from other language skills. Hatch (1992), for example, specified a number of important features of spoken discourse such as sociability, reduced formality, the production of speech involving less planning and a range of other linguistic characteristics such as hesitation.

3.4 The importance of speaking skills

The responsibility for achieving proficiency in the English language is heavily associated with the students themselves, a significant proportion of whom recognise the importance of speaking English for their career prospects, which thus encourages them to acquire and develop the skill (Roche Couste, 2010). This is justified by the fact that many large employers require excellent oral communication skills. Therefore, certain students deem that the progress of their English speaking proficiency contributes directly by adding greater value than obtaining a university degree (Marginson, 2011).

Enhancing the accuracy of proficiency in spoken English is essential to students' competence, as well as a prerequisite for achieving success in both their academic and social spheres (Andrade, 2006; Marginson, 2011). However, this primacy is not always applied in EFL and English as a second language (ESL) classrooms, since many language modules and syllabi do not sufficiently promote students' oral communication skills, or serve to inspire them to become more communicative in the target language (Klimovienė et al., 2016). The primary focus of most English language teachers is the application of traditional exercises such as dictation and

recitation in order to develop reading, listening and writing competencies, as well as memorising and mastering vocabulary and grammatical roles (Nematovna, 2016). While these skills are important and it is beneficial for learners to be aware of the language rules, but they are not particularly helpful for students in terms of utilising the language for communicative purposes.

3.5 Factors related to speaking skills

Gaining a good level of speaking proficiency is directly influenced by two main elements, which can be categorised into internal and external factors. The internal factors include a number of characteristics related to learners such as personality (in terms of perfectionism), as well as extroversion, professionalism, beliefs, and incentives or motivation. Meanwhile, the external factors are associated with socio-contextual factors such as limited or no contact with English native speakers, alongside the anxiety of engaging in such contact if the encounter manifests publicly in front of others, which may eventually adversely affect their learning ability and the effective implementation of learning ESL. However, personality in terms of perfectionism and extroversion contributes positively in undermining the effects of these socio-contextual factors and barriers that hinder the process of developing speaking skills as a result of the strong correlation between the two components (Kang, 2006).

Hughes and Reed (2017) also identified a combination of different language disciplines that they believe function together to comprise the spoken language, primarily including vocabulary and grammar, semantics and syntax, and phonology and phonetics, as well as other cognitive aspects that are responsible for processing the information in the brain, namely the neurolinguistics and psycholinguistic aspects.

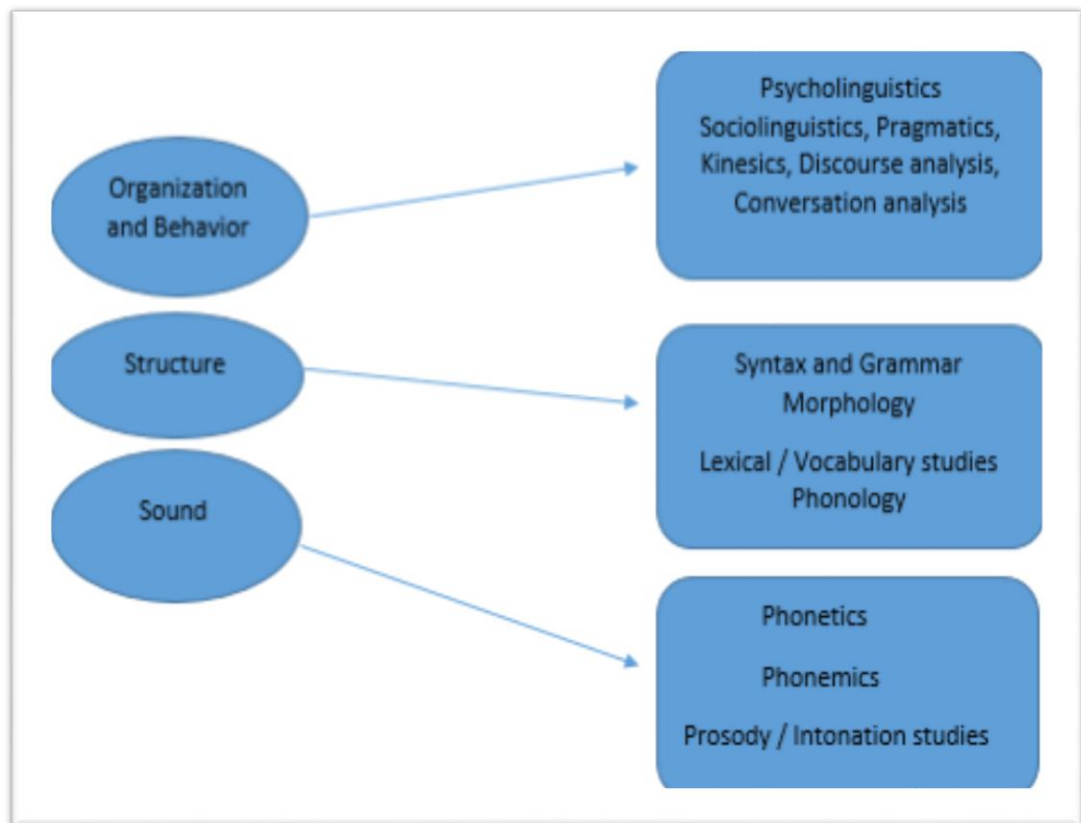


Figure 3.1 Levels and Fields of Research into Speech and Conversation
(Source: Hughes and Reed, 2017, p. 5)

Language learners at advanced levels typically have a good mastery of the language areas; however, using these aspects in a spontaneous real conversation can present a problem (Bailey, 2005). To a certain extent, a proportion of students become anxious when speaking with their native English teachers, and thus favour dealing with non-native English teachers (Kang 2006). The mission of encouraging students to interact must be accomplished by teachers, for as Savignon (2005) underscored, the teacher's role is to provide the optimum conditions for learning, where he/she becomes a 'means to an end'. The premise here is that the greater the confidence the students can develop, the more likely they will be to engage in practising English in order to attain a higher proficiency. What is more, Nunan (1991) and Ellis (1994) asserted that teacher–student interaction is integral to sound methodological practice.

The key element in teacher–student interaction is the process of enabling students to speak the language, even if they produce mistakes. Added to that, EFL teachers who display a negative or disappointed reaction to learners' behaviour reduce the

potential to develop a confident and competent language learner. Evidence has demonstrated that the teacher's demeanour and attitude is one of the key factors that shape learners' attitudes and performance (Long, 1997).

When instructing and teaching a second or foreign language, retaining an appropriate balance between accuracy and fluency is another crucial factor that enhances students' proficiency in terms of speaking skills (Ebsworth, 1999). Similarly, teachers must maintain the required balance between formal instruction to obtain grammatical competence and communicative instruction to develop fluency (Nunan, 1998).

Baiyinna (2011) demonstrated an additional factor influencing speaking proficiency when testing the effects of these components in a Mongolian context, which is the degree of harmony between the teacher and students with respect to acquiring second and third languages. The study findings stress the necessity to harmonise the beliefs held between the teachers' groups and students' groups.

In general, mitigating factors for students when acquiring second languages, and particularly speaking skills, might result from implementing a certain teaching approach such as CLT.

3.6 Theories of learning and second language acquisition

From the long history of second language teaching and learning, a variety of teaching methods and approaches have evolved. However, not all of these have a strong grounding in the research of SLA, despite it being vital to have a link between the SLA research and the pedagogical approaches practised in the classroom (Ellis, 2005).

This section therefore aims to review the main learning and SLA theories related to this study, thus providing a strong theoretical foundation for this research, as well as constructing a link to the second part of this chapter, which is the language acquisition theories employed in classroom practice.

3.7 Theories of learning

In order to understand the SLA research in depth, it is important to attain a broad perspective on certain theories of first language (L1) acquisition and the theories of learning. It is important for language teachers to understand the different processes

in which children acquire their first language, so that they can apply some similar characteristics in their second language teaching. There are some similarities and differences between (L1) and SLA theories, which is useful for a language teacher to consider with their students. (Grugeon et al., 2014, p. 3) emphasised that *“There are several theories of language acquisition, and all theories support the concept that if teachers understand how different aspects of language are acquired, they can better understand the way children learn to use language for communication and to understand the world around them”*.

With this regard, Carroll 1999 (p. 9), for example, defined language acquisition as *“the mental representation of some linguistic features at a given time, and prior to that time the learner has no mental representation which properly encode this information”*. This definition refers to the importance of comprehending the cognitive features and concepts that are linked to the language learning theories that the learner uses in order to process any information. The aim of this section, therefore is to provide a theoretical background of the L1 acquisition theories that are related to this research.

3.7.1 Behaviourism

Behaviourism is considered to be one of the most popular psychological learning theories that deal with human behaviour (Williams and Burden, 1997), and was at its peak during the 1940s and 1950s. Behaviourists at that time believed that *“language learning is the result of imitation, practice, feedback on success and habit formation”* (Lightbown and Spada, 1999, p. 9.). Skinner (1957) was the most renowned linguist to support the behaviourism approach, and he had a significant influence on language teaching in general, and the Audiolingual method in particular, at that time. The main principles of the Audiolingual method are clearly influenced by behaviourist beliefs of the value of imitation, drilling and discouraging errors in the context of language teaching (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

Skinner’s (1957) point of view about behaviour and learning is that both are controlled by environmental reinforcement and stimuli. In other words, every child’s language success is vitally affected by the extent of encouragement he/she receives from others (Ellis, 1997). Although behaviourism has influenced many second/foreign language learning approaches, Chomsky (1959) critically attacked it by arguing that human behaviour is more complex than merely considering it as comprising reactions caused by responses to stimuli. Chomsky (1959) claimed that

humans are confronted by conditions that require different utterances from those fixed responses they memorised in other controlled situations, since people need to discuss, negotiate and express themselves according to the specific scenario in which they find themselves.

3.7.2 Innatism theory

Chomsky's (1959) innatist theory arose in reaction to the behaviourism theory proposed by Skinner (1957), which focuses on imitation and encouragement reward. Chomsky (1959) argued that behaviourists failed to provide an explanation for where children's knowledge of grammatical structures originated from (Brown, 2000). That is, how a child could spontaneously differentiate, for example, between the regular and the irregular forms of the verb and switch correctly according to the context.

The innatism hypothesis of language learning is therefore based on the fact that children's language development is automatically programmed cognitively, regardless of their environmental influence (Cook, 1988). Chomsky (1959) argued that the environment plays only an elementary role in the child's language development and is thus not an essential factor. He assumed that children have a 'language acquisition device', or as it has more recently been termed a Universal Grammar, which enables them to determine the optimum grammatical rule that should be applied (Cook, 1988). This device contains a universal principle of all languages, and children can harness these principles according to the situation they encounter.

3.7.3 Cognitive theories

In contrast to the behaviourist theory, which is solely concerned with the influence of the surrounding environment on the child's learning process, cognitive psychology considers learning to be an active process in the human mind, which constructs and shapes their own knowledge and information (Gary and Macblain, 2015). Cognitive theories are concerned with the internal thought processes that are applied while acquiring knowledge (Williams and Burden, 1997), and focus primarily on the cognition, mental activities, and thoughts that are all involved in the learning process. Cognitive theories have been divided into two categories, as follows.

3.7.3.1 Constructivist theory

Piaget (1936) was one of the first psychologists to influence constructivist theory. He believed that language is merely an instrument employed to attain and enhance thinking, arguing that children begin to think even before utilising the language to express their ideas and understanding (Gary and Macblain, 2015), and therefore they can create their knowledge and experience from practical activities. Richards and Rodgers (2014) also emphasised the importance of children's involvement in their own learning, describing the learning process as a practice that requires cognitive procedures that facilitate in the differentiation of new knowledge from existing knowledge, and a social aspect that enables learners to communicate with each other and share their knowledge.

Piaget (1936) also asserted that while developing his or her behavioural and thought processes, each child passes through a scale of cognitive development termed Sensorimotor, Pre-operational, Concrete Operational and Formal Operational, where each of these stages varies according to the child's age, ranging from birth to 11 years old. Piaget (1936) also concentrated on another important feature referred to as the 'adaption'. This concept includes two other processes: assimilation, which is defined as the process of integrating existing knowledge with new knowledge so that it becomes useful to the learner; and accommodation, which means modifying the existing knowledge so that it can accommodate the new knowledge (Williams and Burden, 1997).

3.7.3.2 Information theory

Information theory is concerned with the brain function while processing the learning activity, as it refers to the manner in which learners select the information, process and then make an appropriate response (Williams and Burden, 1997). It is one of the theories that interested SLA researchers where they placed significant attention on two main aspects: the 'noticing' and 'attention'. The former, according to the theorist Ricard Schmidt (1990), indicates that every component of knowledge the learner perceives is assumed with purpose and consciously, while he presumed that there is no difference between language acquisition and learning. Similarly, attention indicates the procedure of filtering the huge volume of stimuli, as we selectively concentrate on the information that we feel it is of importance for us (Klatzky, 1980).

3.7.4 Interactionist theory

Vygotsky (1978) and Piaget (1932) have been classified as the main psychologists who placed their lens of focus on the importance of the child's interaction with the environment. Although both were supporters of interactionist theory, they held different views regarding knowledge. Piaget (1932) claimed that children's language develops to facilitate their expression of knowledge, while Vygotsky (1978) believed that language is an important instrument that is applied to develop knowledge and learning.

Interactional modification is an important element in the learning process as it improves learners' input and comprehension; however, this component needs to be accompanied with three other main factors, namely input, attention, and output (Loranc-Paszyk, 2015). These elements, which have been specified by Long (1996) in his interaction hypothesis, indicate that

Negotiated interaction in which corrective adjustments are made by native speakers or experts who are more competent than learners, reveals gaps in learners' interlanguage. Furthermore, it leads to the modification of their output in the L2, and thus its adaption to the negotiated form, which facilitates acquisition.

(Loranc-Paszyk, 2015, p. 190)

3.8 Second language acquisition theories

After briefly considering some of the key learning theories that are relevant to this study, it is important to now discuss a number of the theories and concepts related to the field of SLA. Several of the main theories can be categorised in terms of the significance of errors, acquisition/learning hypothesis and the interactionist theory, as presented below.

3.9 The significance of errors

Error correction in SLA research received a noticeable linguist's attention. This approach was very popular in the 1960s; however, it has been widely criticised by many linguists such as Chomsky (1959). Followers of behaviourism theory who supported the Audiolingual method of teaching have criticised errors and described them as student's negative behaviour that does not help them to develop their

language. Furthermore, it has been claimed that students' errors are committed because of the influence of their L1.

Chomsky (1959) argued that whilst teachers practise this approach, they focus exclusively on developing the grammatical competence of their students and their accuracy, rather than concentrating on the learners' use of the language both within and outside the classroom. This is also confirmed by Pawlak and Waniek-Klimczak (2015), who reported that learners' successful development of speaking skills cannot be achieved by solely concentrating on grammatical knowledge, since learners need to consider the pragmatic aspects of the second language in order to avoid any misunderstanding or confusion in the target language. According to Fraser (2010, p. 15), "[w]hen non-native speakers fail to hedge appropriately, they may be perceived as impolite, offensive, arrogant, or simply inappropriate".

Corder (1967) disagreed with the behaviourists' view of errors, and argued that they are evidence of the learner's level of progression and development in the second language. After this opinion and moving forward, the importance of errors shifted from being a negative outcome that must be avoided into a positive and natural aspect that is integral to the development of learning a language. Corder's (1967) views about errors expanded and became associated with another term that frequently appears in the SLA research, 'interlanguage', which refers to the learners' language development in the second language. This means that the interlanguage system exists at a specific point of time between the L1 and the second language.

3.10 Acquisition / learning hypothesis

Language acquisition is defined as "*the process whereby language knowledge is internalized incidentally through experiencing natural language use*" (Thornbury and Slade, 2006, p. 230). Meanwhile, Krashen (1981) argued that although native speakers do not learn the grammatical rules of their native mother language, they still communicate by employing them with fluency, which means acquiring those grammatical structures enables the speakers to use the rules spontaneously. He underscored that despite many non-native language learners acquiring various grammatical rules at different levels of their language acquisition journey, they still find it difficult to apply those rules when they need them in real communication.

Learning, on the other hand, is defined by Richards and Rodgers (2014) as the process that develops a language from being merely a number of conscious rules,

and results in explicit knowledge of that language as well as the verbalisation of this knowledge. It is the formal instructional system that is employed to teach learners how to produce language correctly using formal grammatical rules (El Hannaoui, 2017). According to Richards and Rodgers (2014), teaching and correcting students' errors helps learners to improve their use of language, but based on this theory learning can never result in absolute acquisition.

3.11 Interactionist theories on second language acquisition

Richards and Rodgers (2014, p. 27) described interactional theories as “*the modification of input learners receive when they communicate with more advanced learners or native speakers and the kind of feedback they receive from their interlocutors*”. It is the process whereby learners modify their input in order to facilitate their learning and understanding by utilising different strategies such as using easier grammatical structures, avoiding the use of idioms, speaking slowly, employing stress correctly, and so on and so forth. Long (1981) emphasised that interaction and the negotiation of meaning are the only means of making learners' input comprehensible. Correct feedback and recasting are also believed to be an important characteristic of SLA, with the latter technique being a strategy for correcting students' utterances by modifying the uttered form while retaining the same meaning.

According to Rokita-Jaśkow (2015), interaction is important to make learners' input comprehensible; however, this is not the case when it is used alone to help them differentiate between their L1 and the target language. Therefore, interaction must be combined with another two important aspects: attention and output (Schmidt, 1990). Long (1996) emphasised the importance of the input, attention and output factors in facilitating language acquisition. In his interaction hypothesis, he linked these three aspects with the importance of the negotiation of meaning between language learners and native speakers to facilitate the gaps existing between their L1 and second language.

In discussing learners' output, Swain (2000, p. 99) mentioned that “*it pushes learners to process language more deeply- with more mental effort than does the input*”. It motivates students to produce language that extends from simple to more complicated grammatical structures (Rokita-Jaśkow, 2015). Output hypothesis emphasises the importance of the teacher's role in encouraging learners to produce the language, where the students need to be encouraged by their teachers to

produce their output even if it is a simple production or far from their expected linguistic level. Teachers need to create tasks and activities that stimulate their learners' creativity to develop advanced linguistic levels and more complex linguistic forms and phrases in order to achieve successful communicative competence (Rokita-Jaśkow, 2015).

3.12 The different teaching methods

Having discussed the main learning and second language learning theories in the previous section, it appears that no unified knowledge regarding pedagogical practice exists. It also seems that awareness of how to apply theoretical knowledge to language pedagogical practice still remains unclear. Nevertheless, Ellis (2005) emphasised that using SLA evidence to inform language pedagogical practice is essential, and cannot be ignored. The following sections therefore review a number of the language teaching methods and approaches that are relevant to this study.

3.12.1 The Grammar Translation method

The Grammar Translation method is a foreign language teaching method which was first introduced in the US and Europe in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries (El Hannaoui, 2017). Initially, it was believed that a foreign language could be taught through the memorisation of grammatical structures and translating these into the learners' native language.

Grammar Translation method lessons usually commence with a reading passage in the foreign language. This text is then translated into the students' L1, while its grammatical rules are explained to the students, whereby they are supposed to practise them correctly without any errors made, and the vocabulary are translated into their L1.

Despite the Grammar Translation method facing considerable criticisms in terms of its usefulness, and particularly for the limited opportunities in terms of communicative practice, it is still widely employed in different contexts such as Libya (Diaab, 2016). Stern (1983) and Brown (1994) reported a number of strengths of the Grammar Translation method. Stern (1983), for example, argued that the formal aspects of translation and second language practice encourage learners to become involved in problem-solving situations. Furthermore, Brown (1994)

believed that the method is useful in encouraging students to develop their reading knowledge in a second language.

On the contrary, this method encountered significant criticism in regard to its effectiveness as a teaching method for foreign languages. Rivers (1981), for example, highlighted a number of weaknesses when applying such a method for language teaching, with pronunciation and intonation said to be given less attention by teachers utilising this method (Askeland, 2013). It was also implied that there is limited active use of the language since the students have no opportunities to communicate with each other in order to express their ideas and intentions in the classroom (Celce-Murcia, 2001). Moreover, the students' role in the classroom is more as listeners than active participants in the learning process, and as passive learners their role is reduced to merely memorising grammatical rules and new vocabulary, which they are asked to practise through exercises and other written work (Richards and Rodgers, 2014).

According to Diaab (2016, p. 338), the “*overreliance on traditional methods that emphasize extensive linguistic input rather than communicative output result in 'mute English learners'*”. In other words, extensive focus on grammar while teaching a foreign language leads to learners concentrating their attention on learning about the language itself rather than focusing on the actual application of this language. In addition, Hammerly (1985) criticised the Grammar Translation method by asserting that although a vast number of students are taught through this method, most of them are unable to hold even the most elementary of conversations.

3.12.2 The Direct method

The lack of practice of oral communication skills and the limited attention applied to speaking skills through the Grammar Translation method increased the demand to find another teaching method in order to enhance students' communication skills. Therefore, the majority of teachers rely primarily on the second language and comprehensively avoid using the learners' L1 for explanation (Rivers, 1981).

The Direct method of teaching differs from the Grammar Translation method as it concentrates on the fact that “[n]o translation is allowed” (Larsen-Freeman, 1986, p. 18). Richards and Rodgers (2001) emphasised that the optimum approach to teaching a language is by applying it actively, as opposed to relying on analytical techniques to explore grammar, while they also believed that when learners are

encouraged to use the language directly, they will then instinctively be able to apply its grammatical rules.

The Direct method teacher begins their class with a text in the target language, which represents the main focus of the lesson. Teachers rely on question–answer techniques to check the students’ understanding and to discuss the information available in the text. The students are also asked to read the text aloud with the help of their teacher so that they can improve their pronunciation skills in terms of any new vocabulary.

This method of teaching had limited popularity in public schooling where classes typically included a large number of students. Richards and Rodgers (1986, p. 11) related this weakness to the fact that it “*lacked a thorough methodological basis*”, while Stern (1983) criticised the Direct method as being difficult for teachers to convey meaning to the second language without reliance on the L1, and he believed that this method would not be useful for advanced learners of second languages because it would be unlikely for them to understand every expression or complex lexical item in the target language without reference to their L1.

3.12.3 The Audiolingual method

The Audiolingual method, or as it was known in the 1950s the Aural–Oral method, has its origins in the US (Yoo, 2016). It focuses on the fundamental language skills of listening and speaking, where it shares similarity to the Direct method in terms of its concern for teaching the language with no reference to the learner’s L1 (Qian, 2017). Askeland (2013) indicated that this method was influenced by the American structuralism and behaviourism, where second language learning is considered a case of habit formation and the memorisation of structured patterns.

The Audiolingual method class commences with a dialogue that learners need to practise utilising imitation and repetition, where the teachers’ role in this method is purposefully limited to the observation and direction of the students’ behaviour while they are repeating and memorising the respective language dialogues (Larsen-Freeman, 1986).

According to Celce-Murcia and McIntosh (1979), the main characteristics of the Audiolingual method are the significant dependence on the memorisation of certain phrases as well as the repetitive drills of fixed structures. The authors also explained that this method has a limited focus on unpacking grammatical structures since these are understood inductively as opposed to via deductive analogy.

Similarly, very limited attention is placed on the explanation of new vocabulary and the use of the mother tongue. However, considerable attention is placed on improving the students' pronunciation by correcting their utterances of words (Richards and Rodgers, 2014), while the method also concentrates on enhancing oral skills through employing a number of selected dialogues and sentences patterns, which are repeated and memorised extensively by the learners (Haq, 2014).

The suitability of the Audiolingual method in enhancing students' speaking skills is debated in the literature, with the method strongly criticised by many theorists (Chomsky, 1966), particularly regarding the overdependence on drilling and memorisation techniques to improve students' pronunciation skills, and as such, some consider this method to be unmotivating and offering limited creativity to the students (Rivers, 1981; Richard-Amato, 1988). Similarly, Richards and Rodgers (2001) criticised the manner in which the Audiolingual method involves fixed structures that do not enable the students' to practise the language in real-life situations, or to stimulate their creativity. In addition, whilst this method is focused on developing oral skills, little to no attention is given to developing the learners' written skills (Krashen and Terrell, 1983).

Despite all the above-mentioned weaknesses, this method is still largely employed in different contexts worldwide (Richards and Rodgers, 2014; Hanazaki et al., 2017). A study conducted by Ghofur et al. (2017) that compared the suitability of the Audiolingual method and the CLT approach in enhancing students' speaking skills revealed that the former might be more suited to enhancing learners' language at the early stages, while they found that the CLT approach is more suitable for students at advantage stages when they have already established a basic structure of language for use. In addition, Elabbar (2011) emphasised that the Audiolingual method is still used extensively in teaching EFL in Libya. Meanwhile, some of the advantages of the methods pointed out in the literature are the significant role it plays in enhancing language learners' pronunciation skills, including their intonation, rhyme, and word stress (Qian, 2017). Moreover, the Audiolingual method also enables learners to improve their level of accuracy by encouraging them to learn from their mistakes.

There are number of similarities and differences between the Audiolingual method and the CLT approach, where both concentrate on enhancing the oral and communicative skills of language learners, although they differ in terms of the

procedures for achieving that outcome (Ghofur et al., 2017). The aim of the Audiolingual method, as mentioned above, is to concentrate primarily on the memorisation and drilling of fixed structures and dialogues, ignoring the practice of language in real-life situations (Haq, 2014). Language learners are considered to be receptive to the passive knowledge, with very limited opportunities offered to understand the meaning of the structures they memorise (Qian, 2017). By contrast, the CLT approach concentrates on using the language practically in order to teach learners how to connect the language learnt in the classroom with real practice (Yoo, 2016). Learning the language practically is more effective and beneficial in producing a natural flow of language in real communication (Richards and Rodgers, 2014).

As the literature suggests, the main focus of the Audiolingual method is on drilling and the memorisation of structures, whereas the CLT approach places greater focus on the communicative use of language. It could be argued that Audiolingualism fails to provide students with the tools necessary to cope in real-life situations through developing the appropriate communication skills needed to master the language. The teaching and learning strategies employed to develop language skills utilising the Audiolingual method tend to focus on drilling and repetition, which consequently results in passive learners who will lack the appropriate language skills beyond the confines of the classroom. Conversely, CLT is perceived to be a more effective teaching and learning approach due to its practical stance in encouraging activities for learners to engage in 'hands-on' communication and achieve a positive learning experience.

3.12.4 Task-Based Language Teaching approach

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is another approach that is also rooted in the learning processes of SLA (Van Den Branden et al., 2009). As children acquire their L1 through practising in real life by interacting in their social milieu, the notion behind TBLT was to emphasise social interaction in the classroom that mirrored how students encounter it in their real lives. One of the main features of implementing the TBLT approach for language teaching is that it supports teachers in the use of a communicative syllabus and avoiding the structural counterpart. TBLT is unlike the other traditional teaching approaches such as the Audiolingual method that depend on the teacher's use of structural syllabi that neglect learners' interaction and communication skills. This approach does not concentrate on the

language forms and functions, but rather the learners' use of language and communicative skills, as well as taking into account the students' readiness and choice to practise a particular task (Long, 2007). Therefore, TBLT shifts the focus of learning the language from being "*teacher-dominated, form-oriented second language classroom practice*" (Long and Norris 2000, cited in Van Den Branden, 2006, p. 1) to "*more holistic, learner-driven, and meaning-based activities*" (Van Den Branden et al., 2009, p. 4).

TBLT is defined as an approach for creating challenges and provoking students to interact intensively by developing simulated tasks sourced from their real lives. These are deemed as "*functional tasks*", presuming the utilisation of language in a realistic manner (Long (1985) and Prabhu (1987), cited in Van Den Branden, 2006, p. 1). Equally important, this approach concentrates on the task's output, based on the fundamental principle of TBLT: "*giving learners tasks to transact, rather than items to learn, provides an environment which best promotes the natural language learning process*" (Foster, 1999, p. 69). A task is defined by Nunan (2004, p. 4) as follows:

[A] piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focussed on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. The task should have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, a middle and an end.

The expectation from learners is to have intensive conversation about the learnt tasks, resulting in the acquisition and development of speaking skills, as well as enhancing the establishment of their own agenda (Van Den Branden et al., 2009, p. 4). Generally speaking, the aforementioned approaches might contribute significantly in terms of enhancing the spoken proficiency.

To understand TBLT, it is important to shed some light on the weak and the strong forms. According to Skehan (2003), the strong TBLT form attempts to enhance a communicative approach by acquiring a balance between accuracy and fluency, and through students' use of output that must be more authentic in both spoken and written production.

On the other hand, the weak form slightly differs in that it is more applicable to young learners, where it is sometimes deemed close in function to "activity-based learning" (Techachokwiwat, 2011). This form has four main parts: Firstly, the purpose of the learners' use of language should not be limited to practising the

language in order to learn it. Secondly, the texts should not be irrelevant for the sake of the language use. Thirdly, the purpose and the texts of the language result in the students being capable of integrating into the language. Fourthly, the learning outcome is generated by the activities identified adequately in terms of their purpose (Techachokwiwat, 2011).

Both CLT and TBLT share some similarities: they are deemed 'contemporary communicative approaches'; the classes that are taught through CLT or TBLT consider the locus of the student as being at the centre of the learning process, while the instructor's role is the facilitator; the use of a needs-based approach throughout the content choices; and the emphasis on learning communication by facilitating the interaction in the target language. Both approaches provide real texts to be used in the learning situation; enable the learners to concentrate on both the language and process; they refer to the vital facet of learning a language in terms of the personal experiences of the learner; and they emphasise the connection between the learning of language in the classroom and realistic communication in the outside environment (Nunan, 2004).

3.13 Teaching speaking skills

Many researchers asserted that speaking represents one of the most essential skills, which enhances effective communication (Devi, 2015). It is a skill that must be developed in tandem with the receptive counterpart skill of listening as when students listen appropriately, this means they will speak correctly and as a result be able to communicate more effectively (Morozova, 2013).

Baker and Westrup (2003) identified a number of stages that a successful speaking skills teacher could apply in order to make the task of communication with students or between them more flexible. The study recommended that the new topic and language used are explained in a simple manner, while encouraging questions to be raised and explaining that this is part of the learning process. Meanwhile, the language learnt is frequently revised and recycled during the lesson, as well as applying a variety of different activities that facilitate the learners' understanding of the topic. In addition, Lynch (1996) believed that one of the best strategies to expand students' speaking competence in the classroom is to reduce the teacher's control over the students' interaction and to give them more opportunities to practise free conversation, that is, involving them in occasional activities where they take

responsibility for the interaction without the assistance of their teacher. Students also need to be familiarised with the nuances of speech such as the negotiation of meaning, formal and informal modes of speaking, turn-taking, stress, rhythm and intonation, and idiomatic expressions, as well as the correct use of vocabulary (El Hannaoui, 2017). The teachers need to be aware of the importance of communicative activities' values, and should be prepared to change their beliefs and attitudes if they are incompatible with the principles of the communicative strategies (Doukas, 1996).

Libyan students, like those in many other countries, still encounter difficulties in communicating fluently and confidently in the English language. One of the main reasons pointed out for the students' low proficiency in communicating in a foreign language is the lack of confidence and reluctance of producing errors while speaking (Morozova, 2013). Polat (2009) conducted a study to investigate teachers' and students' preference for teaching and learning by employing traditional methods or CLT/TBLT approaches, where the findings revealed that the teachers and students preferred to use traditional methods of teaching and learning rather than the communicative approaches because of their lack of confidence and anxiety when communicating in the second language.

Another reason is that teachers generally place less emphasis on speaking skills in their classroom practice compared with the other language skills (Islam and Islam, 2012). Similarly, Kayi (2006) confirmed that EFL teachers in some contexts failed to give appropriate attention to the teaching of speaking skills, placing greater focus on drills, memorisation and repetition in the classroom. Dörnyei (2005) highlighted many linguistic and non-linguistic factors that concern the students' readiness to confidently communicate in a foreign language, including students' anxiety to speak, learning strategies and motivation, as well as limited use of vocabulary, correct pronunciation and collocation that have to be considered to strengthen students' oral communicative competencies.

Teachers' feedback is also considered to be an important facet of teaching speaking skills, namely the action of correcting learners' spoken production either implicitly or explicitly. Lynch (1996) believed that the best strategy to correct students' errors is by showing approval or disapproval of their production, or by requesting further clarification from them, which implicitly indicates that there is something that needs to be corrected in their utterance, as opposed to directly

correcting them as this might cause an emotional response in the learner, and therefore might affect their future progress and output.

3.14 Methods of teaching speaking skills

Following the great demand for improving speaking ability in the EFL context, a variety of teaching approaches, methods and strategies have been applied by myriad language teachers worldwide (Khoshsiman and Shokri, 2016). The emergence of language teaching methods and approaches was in the early twentieth century, all of which received different levels of popularity and acceptance (El Hannaoui, 2017).

Sweet (1899, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2014), and many others, shared the same beliefs regarding the appropriate criteria for the selection of a useful teaching approach for foreign languages. All of these principles summarise the importance of increasing teachers' focus on teaching spoken language and phonetics rather than focusing on applying its written form, where he argued that the vocabulary of a language need to be practised within meaningful contexts and not learnt in isolation or as separate elements. Willis and Willis (2007) believed that the most effective method of teaching is to involve learners in real language practice such as through authentic tasks, discussions or games.

In addition, the importance of language practice was also confirmed by Harmer (2007, p. 19) as being a significant aspect of language teaching, where he defined the term 'practice' as "*the rehearsal of certain behaviours with the objective of consolidating learning and improving performance*". Harmer (2007) also stressed that the learning process requires three essential stages: verbalisation, automatisisation and autonomy. The first stage refers to the process of teachers' verbalisation and explanation of the theme of the lesson to their students, for example, by providing an explanation of the title and offering simple information regarding the topic. The second stage indicates that the teachers involve their students in practice while observing their performance and encouraging them to learn from their mistakes until they master the lesson and it becomes automated. The final stage, or the advanced type of practice, indicates the process by which the learners begin to activate what they have learnt in the lesson without the support of their teacher (Khoshsiman and Shokri, 2016).

There are a variety of different teaching strategies such as peer teaching, project work, presentations, and self-assessment checklists among others, which help

teachers to enhance their students' speaking skills. In addition, teachers nowadays tend to employ modern instructional materials that entail the use of technology in their classrooms. The traditional teaching materials are supplemented with others that include the use of the internet, software applications, audio-video materials, flip charts, flash cards and so forth, which simplify the teachers' role while ensuring that the classes are more enjoyable for their students. Khoshsima and Shokri (2016) believed that one of the main useful techniques available to develop learners' fluency is 'group work', which is where learners are divided into groups to practise the activities and share their knowledge and information.

According to Fulcher (2003), there are two main approaches to teaching speaking: the direct and the indirect approach. The direct approach includes teacher-controlled activities such as drills, dialogue and the practice of patterns. This is an approach that does not encourage students to learn spontaneously, but rather through a number of restricted activities that concentrate on improving the students' focus on discourse and language elements (Willis, 2015).

On the other hand, in the indirect approach students are encouraged to learn how to speak through conversational interactions. The indirect approach advocates emphasis on the notion that improving students' speaking skills' competency can only be achieved through participation in communicative activities such as group work, role-play or problem-solving tasks. Hymes (1972) was the one of the main linguists who introduced and emphasised the significance of learning language through the notion of communicative competence. The efficiency of the teaching and learning process primarily relies on the teaching method employed by the teacher, and in order to achieve the outcomes of the lesson plan teachers have to select the most suitable teaching method in terms of themselves and also their students (Wekke and Hamid, 2013). The subsequent sections of this chapter will explain in detail the different teaching methods in general, and will focus primarily on teaching speaking methods in relation to this study.

3.15 Direct and indirect approaches of teaching speaking skills

Following the historic focus on the Grammar Translation method for the teaching of speaking skills, there was great demand for replacing this traditional method of teaching that focuses primarily on understanding literary texts rather than improving speaking ability, with other methods that involve social acts and interaction (Goh

and Burns, 2012). Hence, a strong debate ensued on the optimum teaching approach that could be adopted by teachers to achieve effective communication. Sweet (1899, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2014, p. 10) identified four main principles for the suitable selection of a successful teaching method: *“Careful selection of what is to be taught; imposing limits on what is to be taught; arranging what is to be taught in terms of the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing; grading materials from simple to complex”*. Moreover, since speaking skills are unlike the writing or reading skills, as the student needs to respond instantly in a conversation, good preparation is required so that the speaker does not become anxious or frightened of producing errors (Baker and Westrup, 2003).

The direct approaches are one of the most common in terms of teaching speaking skills utilised by many teachers. They involve utilising a form of structured activity that includes some direct dialogue patterns and drills, while also involving learners in controlled practice that does not encourage the development of free communication skills (Willis, 2015). In addition, the principles of the Grammar Translation method are clearly involved in this approach, whereby students are encouraged to practise pre-planned conversational programmes that do not include real-life tasks or language games (El Hannaoui, 2017).

The indirect approaches, on the other hand, consider that developing speaking skills should involve engaging students in communication and interaction by designing certain tasks and activities such as discussion groups or role-play activities (El Hannaoui, 2017). This approach leans towards the CLT approach, *“in which conversational competence is seen as the product of engaging learners in conversational interaction”* (Celce-Murcia et al., 1997, p. 141). Hymes (1972) was the main advocate of the indirect teaching approaches, where he emphasised the importance of employing the language in real-life scenarios. Hymes (1972) and others stressed that languages cannot be acquired through merely concentrating on the language’s discrete aspects as this does not lead to language and skills’ development (Thornbury, 2011). Learning the language practically, even when there are many mistakes in the spoken production, prepare learners to use the language confidently outside the classroom (Baker and Westrup, 2003).

3.16 Strategies in teaching speaking skills

Research and theories regarding the most effective communicative strategy in developing students’ speaking skills are inconsistent in the literature, with the

majority of studies emphasising that not all the applied strategies are either equally effective in achieving successful communication goals, or practised in the same manner so that language development is guaranteed (Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1994; Ellis, 2008). Furthermore, the teachers' selection of the most suitable teaching strategy relates more to "*individual differences like [the] willingness to communicate and [be] cognitive flexibility*" (Somuncu, 2016, p. 179).

According to Kormos (2006), there are four different approaches that conceptualise the communicative strategies used for learning a language. One of these is the traditional view approach, which indicates that communicative strategies are viewed as verbal and non-verbal devices that learners employ to replace any lack of knowledge about a topic in the foreign language. The second approach is the interactional view approach, which refers to the communicative strategies that are used by language learners when they encounter output production and comprehension challenges when communicating with each other in a foreign language; this is also termed in the literature as the 'negotiation of meaning' (Long, 1983). The extended view approach indicates that the concept of communicative strategies is broadened to include problem-solving mechanisms and all other language problems that speakers might face during their communicative practice, which could involve output production difficulties, techniques used for the negotiation of meaning and communication issues. Finally, there is the cognitive view approach, which concentrates on the psycholinguistic processes, as well as the integration of the communicative strategies' application with the speech production model. This model characterises the different speech production levels (i.e. conceptualisation, sentence formation and articulation) through a series of sequential stages that formulate the learners' output (Pawlak and Waniek-Klimczak, 2015).

In addition, a study conducted in Turkey by Yaman and Özcan (2015) attempted to identify the most frequent oral communication strategy used by teachers in Mersin University. The findings indicated that compensatory strategies and the negotiation of meaning strategies were the most commonly used and were considered to be essential and effective in enhancing students' communication competence, whereas planning strategies and message abandonment strategies were less frequently used in higher education institutions as these were more favoured at the intermediate level.

Baker and Westrup (2003) identified a number of strategies that are important in terms of effectively preparing students for a speaking activity. The study emphasised the importance of involving students in the practice of the target vocabulary and grammar to be used before they start the activity. When students become familiar with these lexical items and structures required for the activity, their confidence and fluency will be more likely to be achieved. Baker and Westrup (2003) also stressed the significance of employing pauses while speaking as a natural and important mechanism that enables learners to review what they have heard, and to then determine how best to respond. In addition, the study considered that rephrasing and hesitation words such as 'err' or 'mmm' are normal and positive fillers that provide some time for the speaker to prepare a good linguistic response and to decrease their hesitation.

One of the most valuable techniques suggested by Lynch (1996) is the video or audio recording of students' spoken presentations, and then sharing these with the rest of the class through a three-stage process. In the first stage, the teacher plays back the recording for the students involved in the performance, and asks them to identify any observations or to highlight any mistakes they might notice from listening to their own speech. At the second stage, the teacher plays the recording a second time and provides an opportunity for the rest of the class to highlight any mistakes or speaking problems that were not raised in the first stage. The teacher's role emerges in the third stage, when he/she plays back the recording for a third time and discusses with the whole class any additional observations or issues that were not addressed by the students in the first two stages.

According to Lynch (1996), the idea behind using this three-stage technique is to differentiate between the learners 'slips' and 'errors' when they speak in a second language. In the first two stages, students are given the chance to identify the slips that they should have realised and self-corrected when they listened to their performance being played back; however, the final stage allows the teacher to highlight and discuss those errors that have not been identified.

On the other hand, Lynch (1996), emphasised the importance of utilising a group work strategy, including working in pairs, to facilitate improvement in students' spoken competency. He believed that working in groups increases the students' opportunities to practise their speaking skills and integrate into negotiations with other students, as well as working in small groups reducing the learners' anxiety and discomfort of performing in public.

3.17 Student motivation

Nowadays, the English language has dominated most other languages as a means of communication to become the language most commonly used in the internet, media and many other aspects of life (Rajab, H., 2013). Since practising speaking skills is not like the skills of reading or writing, where a speaker may not have an immediate idea about the topic, or may not have sufficient time to select the best grammar and vocabulary to apply (Baker and Westrup, 2003), it is important to establish a suitable learning and teaching strategy that helps learners to improve their oral communication skills in particular.

Despite many researchers failing to identify a suitable teaching speaking skills' method, others proposed a number of useful methods with regard to the design of the syllabus used by teachers, teaching techniques, activities and material used, as well as the assessment approach (Morozova, 2013). Accordingly, Khoshsim and Shokri (2016) asserted that when learners are encouraged and engaged in the learning process, their productivity and engagement will also increase. Motivation is one of the key factors that influences the teaching and learning process, with Dörnyei (2001, p. 28) describing motivational strategies as *“techniques [that] promote the individual's goal-related behaviour”*. Motivation can be divided into two main categories: internal (intrinsic) and external (extrinsic) motivation. Internal factors refer to the self-motivation emerging from individuals learners (Logan et al., 2011) that can be exploited to enhance students' learning and interaction. External motivation, on the other hand, is the influence of something or someone to encourage students to learn. It is the action of making activities more stimulating and enjoyable to practise, and it is the teachers' responsibility to stimulate students and pique their interest in the lesson. Teachers need to create an interesting and engaging environment for students to participate in, where they could provide topics and activities that they feel students will be more interested in (Afshar and Asakereh, 2016). Dörnyei (2001, p. 73) classified stimulation strategies that could be applied by teachers into three groups: *“breaking the monotony of learning, making the tasks interesting, and increasing the involvement of students”*. Meanwhile, Dörnyei and Ema (2009) categorised external motivation into four types: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation and integrated regulation. All of these types concentrate on the motivation stemming from an external source such as awards or the teacher's praise in order to

encourage students to participate and interact. Conversely, lack of student motivation in the classroom leads to a negative impact on their behaviour and achievement (Mansfield and Volel, 2013).

Khodadady and Ashrafborji (2013) supported Dörnyei's (2010) belief that motivation is important to enhance EFL students' competence in learning a language, while it also facilitates teachers to improve their interaction and communication skills.

3.18 Corrective feedback

Corrective feedback is defined as *"the provision of negative or positive evidence upon erroneous utterances, which encourages learners' repair involving accuracy and precision, and not only comprehensibility"* (Liskinasih, 2016, p. 60). It refers to the responses of the students' incorrect oral or written second language production (Yang, 2016). Corrective feedback is classified into error correction, which targets students' use of spelling, grammar or vocabulary in a second language; or error feedback, which deals with correcting students' syntax and semantics (Al-Jarrah, 2016).

Metalinguistic, direct and indirect feedback are considered the three main types of channels to provide corrections to students' errors (Bitchener and Storch, 2016). Metalinguistic corrective feedback refers to the comment or information that is typically given to students in the form of elicitation requests or repetitions of the faulty utterance (Rassaei, 2015). Direct corrective feedback indicates referring directly to the error and explicitly correcting it (Moradian et al., 2017), whereas indirect corrective feedback means providing an indication that there is something wrong that needs to be corrected, but leaving the actual corrective action for the students to repair themselves (Ellis et al., 2009).

Lynch (1996) argued that the best approach to correcting students' mistakes is by referring implicitly to the mistake as opposed to directly. Recasting is usually the form in which implicit feedback is made (Ellis et al., 2009), which is defined *"as a teacher's reformulation of a learner's erroneous utterance in a correct form"* (Rassaei, 2015, p. 99). A number of studies emphasised that recasting is considered to be one of the most effective corrective feedback strategies applied in the SLA practice (Goo, 2012; Revesz, 2012), and it is reported to be the most extensively used strategy by many language teachers (Sheen, 2004). Rassaei (2015) claimed that one of the most significant multifunctional advantages of

recasts in comparison to many other types of corrective feedback is that besides helping to correct learners' errors, it also provides an opportunity for learners to understand the message so that they expand their communicative skills. In contrast with this, many other studies criticised recasts by asserting that the technique is ambiguous and does not clearly and directly identify the incorrect form of the utterance (Rassaei, 2013).

Metalinguistic feedback, on the other hand, is considered to be a form of explicit corrective feedback (Rassaei, 2015), defined as the way in which teachers provide an explanation of what caused the student's error (Bitchener and Storch, 2016). Metalinguistic feedback, which is contained within another general type of feedback correction known as prompts, deals with triggering and compelling learners to modify their incorrect output (Rassaei, 2015). Although the field of SLA has intensively discussed the effectiveness of corrective feedback over the last two decades (Yang, 2016), the comparisons between recasts and metalinguistic corrective feedback concerning its usefulness remains inconclusive. Some researchers found that metalinguistic corrective feedback is more effective than recasts in developing learners' second language acquisition (Ellis et al., 2006; Rassaei, 2013), while others argued that recasts can be as useful as metalinguistic corrective feedback in developing the learners' target language (Goo, 2012).

The value of error correction remains under debate in the SLA research. Some researchers believe that corrective feedback has a considerably positive effect on developing students' use of language, as it is a component of the learning process (Ferris, 2002; Lee, 2004; Al-Jarrah, 2016) and "*involves learners in comparing the erroneous parts of their output with the provided WCF so they can grow a more nuanced insight into their developing language system*" (Moradian et al., 2017, p. 408). Corder (1967), for example, asserted that students' errors are an important part of developing their use of the target language, and that they are a natural and positive aspect of the learning process. Moreover, others argued against the efficiency of corrective feedback, believing that it can be offensive and ineffective (Truscott, 2007), as well as failing to ensure that the learners have a deep understanding of the respective knowledge, which therefore leads to superficial understanding of the information in question (Moradian et al., 2017).

Baker and Westrup (2003) claimed that language teachers need to employ certain teaching strategies that assist learners in speaking more confidently and producing fewer errors; for example, teachers could ask students to write down some notes

that they can use when they speak in front of others, and gradually they will build up their confidence and commence speaking more fluently without returning to these notes in the future. The study also added that it is vital to create a positive learning environment that encourages questions to be raised when something is not understood, to allow errors since these are a natural part of the learning process, to motivate and praise students regardless of any unclear speech they may make, and to allow students some time to prepare what they wish to say.

Ellis et al. (2009) and Liskinasih (2016) identified a number of different types of teachers' corrective feedback that they believe is essential to enhancing learners' speaking competence. They added that when students make an erroneous utterance, teachers could either i) recast or reformulate the incorrect sentence with another correct one; ii) make an explicit correction by warning students of the mistake and providing the correct form of the utterance; iii) stop the student when the mistake occurs and ask him/her for clarification; iv) offer metalinguistic feedback, for example by asking students to add a helping verb or an indefinite article to the sentence; or v) elicit the correct form of the utterance or repeat the student's faulty sentence so that he/she can be signposted to the correction him/herself.

Lynch (1996) emphasised the significance of differentiating between students' errors and slips. Slips typically refer to a mistake that students make without intention, whereby they directly realise the issue and correct it themselves, whereas errors usually indicate that the learner has made the mistake without knowing that there is something wrong that needs to be corrected (Lynch, 1996).

3.19 Teachers' and learners' beliefs

During the last two decades, there was an intensive debate around the two interconnected teaching areas of teachers' knowledge and teachers' beliefs (Woods and Çakır, 2011). Woods (2009) argued that these two terms are employed interchangeably in the literature of language teacher cognition, explaining that they do not refer to two different concepts, but rather they refer to two different terms.

Teachers' knowledge is defined as "*the sum of different types of teaching-relevant knowledge and beliefs about knowledge that guide teaching practice*" (Schraw et al., 2017, p. 324). Similarly Fives and Buehl (2008, p. 137) defined the knowledge of the teacher as "*a framework that encompasses all that will assist one in engaging in the practice of teaching*", while Borg (2003, p. 81) reported that teachers'

cognition refers to the “*unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching what teachers know, believe and think*”.

Feng (2013) argued that having a good understanding of the students’ perceptions and attitudes will positively influence teachers’ curriculum selection and the teaching approaches adopted. A large number of studies emphasised that teachers’ beliefs have a significant influence on their classroom practice (Ng and Farrell, 2003), with Dabarera et al. (2014) emphasising that the teaching attitudes and perceptions teachers hold clearly impact and affect the success of the teaching process.

3.20 The theoretical framework of language testing

Language testing research was significantly influenced by the communicative competence theoretical framework established by Canale and Swain (1980), as well as the communicative language ability model proposed by Bachman (1990). Communicative competence is defined by Savignon (1999, cited in Bailey, 2005, p. 264) as “*the ability of language learners to interact with other speakers, to make meaning, as distinct from their ability to perform on discrete-point tests of grammatical knowledge*”. Bachman (1990) further developed this definition to include several new components: language competence (or language knowledge) and strategic competence. These two components were added in order to enable learners to create and interpret the discourse of a language by forming a link between the learners’ utterances and their meanings, as well as enabling learners to “*mobilize their language knowledge effectively for communicative purposes, through goal-setting, planning, and on-line monitoring of the communication*” (Thornbury and Slade, 2006, p. 187). These two frameworks provide conceptual models that are concerned with testing the learners’ knowledge, skills, and learning potential, as well as including implications about language knowledge and use. According to Fulcher and Davison (2007), these two models significantly influenced the construction of the theoretical basis of language assessment and testing.

The theoretical model designed by Canale and Swain (1980) presented a distinction between the learners’ communicative competence and communicative performance. This distinction indicated that language tests must include activities that measure learners’ knowledge of a topic, as well as tasks that emphasise the actual language performance in order to directly assess the learners’ level of competence in employing the language for communicative purposes (Fulcher and

Davison, 2007). This model includes three main aspects: grammatical competence, which indicates the knowledge of grammar, syntax, phonology, lexis, semantics and morphology; sociolinguistic knowledge, which refers to the learners' awareness of the language's socio-cultural rules and discourse; and strategic aspects, which indicate the learner's language competency and knowledge of communication, as well as demonstrating the language performance.

Canal's theoretical model added a significant contribution to the definition of sociolinguistic competence, where the rules of discourse have been included as a new category to the definition. Later on, the definition was amended by Canale (1983, cited in Fulcher and Davison, 2007, p. 41) to mean "*the ability to produce a unified spoken or written text in different genres using cohesion in form and coherence in meaning*". Furthermore, Canal's model also contributed by expanding the definition of strategic competence, which has also been amended to include communicative strategies that promote learners' use of language targeting communicative purposes.

The communicative language ability model shown in Figure 3.2 provides certain criteria for the rationale of second language tests, which include three main aspects: i) the discourse competence, or the learners' language knowledge and how their sentences are connected together, or what is also referred to as coherence (the construction of the text) and cohesion (the lexical and grammatical link between the sentence's parts) (Bailey, 2005); ii) the strategic competence, or the learners' use of strategies in employing the language for communicative purposes, in other words compensating for any gaps in the knowledge and skills that a learner may have in the second language (Bachman, 1990); and iii) the sociolinguistic competence, which indicates the learners' ability to use the language properly, which could include aspects such as "*degrees of formality and informality, appropriate word choice, style shifting, and politeness strategies*" (Bailey, 2005, p. 3).



Figure 3.2 Communicative competence of communicative language ability in communicative language use (Source: Bachman, 1990, p. 85)

3.21 The speaking syllabus

The word ‘syllabus’ has traditionally been defined as *“the form in which linguistic material is specified in a course or method”*, yet this term has been extended to associate with product-centred or process-centred teaching methods (Richards and Rodgers, 2014, p. 30). Richards and Rodgers (2014, p. 30) specified two main criteria that language teaching content is related to: subject matter, meaning *“what to talk about”*, and linguistic matter, meaning *“how to talk [about] it”*.

With regards to the selection of teaching materials, the majority of English language teachers and institutions primarily focus on helping students to pass local and international exams, placing great emphasis on developing writing skills, but giving little to no focus on developing speaking skills (Baker and Westrup, 2003). Many tasks aimed at teaching speaking skills that are adopted for language teaching do not require teaching resources, as the activities applied and methodology used are typically determined by the course book identified for use by the teachers (Thornbury, 2011). However, many researchers agree on the notion that speaking

skills-based teaching materials should consider tasks that represent natural language use and activities that meet the students' different interests. Richards and Rodgers (2014, p. 30), for example, confirmed that "*All methods thus involve overt and covert decisions concerning the selection of language items or features (words, sentence patterns, tenses, constructions, functions, topics, texts, etc.) that are to be used within a course or method*". Meanwhile, McCarthy and O'Keeffe (2004) argued that speaking materials must present models of realistic language use in order to encourage the students to employ and activate new structures and vocabulary, facilitating their comprehension and creating successful turn-taking practice.

Similarly, Burns (2009) believed that utilising fixed conversational scripts does not appear to result in a successful and interactive conversational atmosphere. Willis and Willis (2007) also emphasised that the speaking skills' curriculum should include the realities of the learners' everyday life and needs. Moreover, one of the most pertinent findings revealed by El Hannaoui (2017) is that the students themselves expressed a positive attitude towards learning speaking skills by employing entertaining activities, as well as selecting topics that related directly to their area of interest and daily life.

Negotiation of meaning between learners and/or between learners and their teacher is an important teaching techniques that was highly supported by Lynch (1996), who argued that one of the most effective activities that teachers could employ to encourage students' negotiation of meaning in the classroom is the '*jigsaw speaking activity*', which involves selecting a text and classifying its content into single sentences and then distributing them among learners. After that, the teacher asks the students to memorise the sentences, before collecting them back and asking the students whether they can reassemble the text into the original order without writing down any notes. The idea behind the successful use of this activity is that all learners will contribute with a sentence that concludes with the formation of the full text, which Lynch (1996) asserts will guarantee student interaction and require the negotiation of meaning among students sharing their sentences within their groups.

Goh and Burns (2012) emphasised the notion that teachers need to consider the students' subjective needs before selecting the taught syllabus, as well as focusing on employing a learner-centre syllabus. Participatory models of teaching are unlike the end-means curriculum, where students are given greater opportunities to

collaborate between themselves and/or with the teacher during the learning process (Dickinson, 1992).

The selection of appropriate communicative teaching syllabi is another important issue for every language teacher. El Hannaoui (2017), for example, specified a number of activities that he believes are important and beneficial for teachers to deliver communicative syllabi effectively: asking students to describe a picture of a famous person; watching films and documentaries; providing real-life native speaker patterns; solving the mystery of an unfinished story; making lists of specific things and ranking its main important and why; giving directions; conducting debates and mock interviews; or miming selected situations and asking the students to guess what the action was. All of these activities can be classified as creative and fostering students' imagination and motivation, as well as facilitating their acquaintance with the language function and use (Nematovna, 2016).

Nation and Newton (2009) pointed out that a number of elements could be taken into consideration for the selection of syllabi for the teaching of speaking skills, where some of these principles include the learners' ideas, skills and the language items. In addition, Fulcher (2003) also believed that pronunciation merits focus in the designation of speaking skills' syllabi, arguing that the lack of awareness of the words' phonetic structures might result in the listeners' misunderstanding or confusion of the speakers' meaning.

3.22 Spoken grammar

With the dominance of utilising communicative approaches in the teaching of speaking skills worldwide, language teachers have given spoken grammar less attention in their classroom practice. Burns (2009) emphasised the importance of integrating the teaching grammar into the practice of CLT, as well as ensuring that greater focus is placed on improving teachers' beliefs in terms of teaching grammar implicitly in the communicative classroom.

Studies have proved inconclusive regarding the importance of teaching grammar to EFL students, some of which encouraged the significance of teaching grammar distinct from practice and in a more formal structured manner. Borg and Burns (2008), for example, conducted a study in the University of Arizona which revealed that most teachers believed that the real-life practice of foreign language is more important than practising and analysing grammatical patterns, with their findings revealing that the practice of real-life tasks led students to spontaneously

understand grammatical structures. However, many others supported the notion of teaching grammar explicitly in a formal structured manner. In a study conducted in New York, for example, Ebsworth and Schweers (1997) found that most teachers preferred to teach grammar explicitly, where they held a favourable attitude towards teaching grammar separately from practising the language.

Canale and Swain (1981) proposed a model of communicative competence that focuses exclusively on four essential aspects of skill and knowledge: grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic and discourse competence. Whilst grammatical competence focuses its lens on the linguistic code that is essential for students' understanding and utterances in a language, sociolinguistic competence primarily concerns how appropriately the language is employed in different contexts. Meanwhile, strategic competence addresses the verbal and non-verbal communication techniques that enable students to overcome any barriers that might appear in their communication, while discourse competence refers to the importance of cohesion and coherence in developing speaking and writing contexts (Loranc-Paszylk, 2015).

3.23 Strategies for acquiring speaking skills

The effective application of spoken language must include a clear understanding of the stages of development of speaking during the acquisition of the first and second languages (Thornbury and Slade, 2006).

Before discussing the main speaking subskills of SLA, it is important to shed some light on the main subskills of speaking that are required in the acquisition of the L1. The production of spoken language involves a number of different functional and sociolinguistic competencies, as described below.

3.23.1 Turn-taking

“Turn-taking refers to the process by which people in a conversation decide who is to speak next” (Gorjian and Habibi, 2015, p. 14), and is a useful mechanism utilised by many language teachers in order to balance and control students' talk time and the level of interaction in the classroom (Hall, 2017). It is also a fundamental factor in promoting and exchanging roles between listeners and speakers in a conversation (Nishimoto and Anh, 2016).

“Basic turn taking conventions [involve] reciprocating activity patterns of eye contact, movement and vocalization” (Thornbury and Slade, 2006, p. 188). It also revolves around the speech production model proposed by Garrod and Pickering, in which they clarified the role of the brain oscillations in organising and providing predictions on how speakers and listeners exchange turns in a conversation (Holler et al., 2015). Organised turn-taking in a conversation minimises the overlap between the speakers, as well as permitting a larger number of interlocutors to participate (Levinson, 2016).

Speakers develop turn-taking mechanisms during the acquisition of their first and second language. Thornbury and Slade (2006) argued that infants acquire the skill of turn-taking during the very first weeks of their lives. Children in the early months of their lives do not produce actual meaningful words that express their intentions, but they are able to interact in conversational patterns and exchange responses with their parents, which usually takes the form of eructations or smiles. These communicative devices later develop and take the form of clear conversational features such as requests, the initiation of discussion, or repetition (Thornbury and Slade, 2006).

3.23.2 Child-directed speech and scaffolding

Scaffolding is one of the important elements of acquiring and learning a foreign language. It is defined as the linguistic support that is usually provided to the language learners in order to improve their levels of understanding and interaction of an activity (Richards and Rodgers, 2014). Scaffolding takes the form of language assistance, which is provided by an experienced person such as a teacher or parent to a less experienced learner, such as a student or a child, in order to support and develop their language use (Mann, 2017).

With regards to a child’s directed talk, which generally takes the form of scaffolding, this is represented via the verbal language support that is provided in order to develop his or her language performance (Thornbury and Slade, 2006), meaning that the parents compensate for the child’s immature language and incorrect utterances.

The direct and indirect utterance modification support that is employed to correct or scaffold the child’s or language learner’s linguistic and conversational competencies is represented through facilitating features such as recasts, repetition, questions, comments, raising the voice pitch, slowing the voice speed,

or the replacement of inappropriate vocabulary. It is also concerned with the appropriate selection of topics that pique the child's communication interests, as well as focusing of the spoken content rather than the accuracy of the grammar (Hall, 2017). Scaffolding is thus valuable in terms of developing the child's and learner's interaction and communication skills (Thornbury and Slade, 2006).

3.23.3 Repetition

Repetition is one of the main features of behaviourism theory and the Audiolingual method of teaching (Richards and Rodgers, 2014). It is also considered to be an important element in the development of conversational and interaction competencies when it is linked to the action of engaging in either self-repetition, or the repetition of others ways of speaking (Thornbury and Slade, 2006).

Types of repetition include exactly repeating the same words and rhyme sounds of others' utterances, or approximating by introducing different words that convey the same ideas (McCarthy and Carter, 2014). It may also include immediate repetition or repetition that takes the form of delayed imitation. Children sometimes engage in self-repetition that is represented through rehearsing and manipulating vocabulary and chunks they have previously acquired from songs and stories (Pinter, 2017).

3.23.4 Conversational competence

In order to acquire a clear understanding of the term 'conversation', it is important to realise the distinction presented by Chomsky and Hymes between the grammatical competence and conversational of a language (Gautam and Kumar, 2015). Conversational competence was defined by Chomsky (cited in Thornbury and Slade, 2006, p. 186) as the "*idealized and internalized knowledge of the rules of grammar that native speakers possess, and which allows them to distinguish well-formed from ill-formed sentences*". This definition was later extended by Hymes to include other sociolinguistic resources such as when, where and to whom the utterance was made (Kalou and Smith, 2015).

Communicative competence is concerned with how children interact and respond appropriately to others' questions, requests, suggestions or summons (Ochs and Schieffelin, 2016).

3.23.5 Cohesion and coherence

Conversational coherence is defined as a spoken utterance that is relevant to the interlocutors and to the entire conversational topic (Thornbury and Slade, 2006), whereas cohesion refers to the linguistic devices that connect and relate sentences together in order to form meaning (Pinto et al., 2015).

To assist language learners in achieving a high degree of coherence and cohesion when employing their second language, it is important to understand how the language is structured and used by children when they acquire their L1 (Silva and Cain, 2017). Thornbury and Slade (2006) argued that children begin to engage in independent conversation that is not supported by an adult after the age of three years, where they attempt to develop coherence and cohesion in their conversations.

Some of the successful strategies used to achieve good cohesive spoken language are repetition; ellipsis; adjacency pairs, which include questions and answers, refusal, and suggestions; and so forth.

3.23.6 Formulaic language

Language learners do not generate these chunks of meaningful language immediately while speaking, but rather they are “*learned, stored, retrieved and used as if they were a single lexical item*” (Thornbury and Slade, 2006, p. 220).

Borrowing pre-memorised chunks or phrases of a language plays a critical role in developing language learners’ speaking proficiency and communication skills.

Since available time for planning while speaking is very limited “*these memorized chunks offer speakers islands of reliability where they can settle momentarily while they monitor input and plan subsequent output*” (Thornbury and Slade, 2006, p. 218).

3.23.7 Communicative strategies

Communicative strategies are considered to be a primary element in improving students’ level of fluency when learning a foreign language, referring to the strategies that a learner harnesses to compensate for their linguistic deficiency in second language communication.

Several of the different communicative strategies that are considered useful in compensating for speaking deficiency are circumlocution or approximation techniques. These refer either to i) the strategies that are employed to describe in a simpler manner the word that a learner is experiencing difficulty in producing or recalling, or ii) the process of selecting a suitable alternative lexical item to describe the intended meaning in the target language. Furthermore, the code-switching strategy or using the learner's L1 in order to compensate for a language deficiency in the speaker's lexicon is also considered an important means of conveying meaning. Moreover, there is the time gaining strategy, whereby the learner uses certain words, phrases or expressions such as 'well', 'let me see', or 'in fact' in order to fill any hesitation or pauses that might manifest while interacting with others.

3.24 Speaking subskills

Wang (2014, p. 110) emphasised that *"Speaking occurs spontaneously and transiently in real time, so producing spoken language can be very time-constraint"*. It requires language learners to consider number of speaking subskills that shape and influence their language production. The following section therefore discusses the speaking subskills that are considered essential for EFL learners' oral production.

3.24.1 Pronunciation

Afshar and Asakereh (2016) described speaking in a foreign language as one of the four main language skills that EFL/ESL students must develop to achieve effective communicative ability. It is a skill that is influenced by a variety of linguistic and non-linguistic factors such as vocabulary, grammar, pragmatics, fluency and accuracy (Hojat and Afghari, 2013), and when these factors are harmonised, learners can achieve meaningful oral communicative competency (Afshar and Asakereh, 2016).

Pronunciation is therefore defined as *"one of the most important attributes of language teaching and learning"* (Gilakjani, 2016, p. 315), representing how learners produce sounds in order to form meaning (Yates and Zielinski, 2009, cited in Gilakjani, 2016). The teaching of pronunciation skills during the era of the Grammar Translation method and the Audiolingual method did not receive considerable attention by language teachers (Nair et al., 2017), whose instructional focus at that time was on the importance of sound drilling and articulation, as well

as the extensive emphasis on correcting students' pronunciation mistakes and achieving a native speaker's accent (Gilakjani, 2012). This method was later criticised as it failed to concentrate on supra-segmental speaking components such as rhythm, intonation or the practice of realistic conversations (Fraser, 2000). Between the 1960s and the 1980s the significance of teaching pronunciation skills began to arise, with language teachers starting to realise the challenges of achieving a perfect native speaker's accent without involving students in real language practice (Nair et al., 2017). Therefore, they began to recognise the importance of shifting the instruction of pronunciation skills from being focused on sound patterns and articulation, to integrating the teaching of pronunciation skills along with other language aspects in a realistic communicative manner (Gilakjani, 2012).

It is important for learners to distinguish between pronunciation and speaking skills, which on occasion are incorrectly used interchangeably (Nair et al., 2017). It was asserted that speaking with a good standard of pronunciation skills and limited grammatical structures is more easily understood than having a good mastery of grammar but poor pronunciation (Lardhi et al., 2017). Improving learners' speaking skills does not imply imitating native speakers' accents, but rather attempting to pronounce words in a fashion that presents as clear and understandable to others (Ur, 1996). Therefore, it is pertinent for learners to "*master good pronunciation, not perfect accents*" (Gilakjani, 2012, p. 97).

One of the optimum teaching approaches suggested for the instruction of this overt skill is by focusing on practising models of correct pronunciation, and applying activities that are based on phonemic distinctions (Hughes, 2002). Despite learners of the English language at advanced levels usually having a good mastery of grammatical rules, vocabulary and communicative strategies, developing their level of pronunciation is not always easy (Bailey, 2005). Lardhi et al. (2017) emphasised that considering the limited opportunities to practise speaking skills in and outside the classroom in non-English speaking countries, the majority of Arab learners reach the university level with very limited pronunciation skills. This is compounded by the fact that achieving an advanced level of pronunciation is the most challenging achievement among all facets of speaking, as well as representing the least practised element in the speaking classroom (Nair et al., 2017).

In addition, Gilakjani (2016) argued that acquiring and developing English pronunciation skills is extremely difficult as it is usually affected by a number of

factors such as the learner's age and degree of motivation, as well as the learning context and the amount of exposure the learner has to the foreign language (Yaman and Özcan, 2015). With this regard, Harmer (2007) argued that when learners are given extensive opportunities insofar as is possibly to participate in the different language elements, the more likely it is that they will become autonomous in the use of the language elements, that is, becoming spontaneously fluent and systematic in their language usage. In addition, El Hannaoui (2017) emphasised that learning the vocabulary of a language becomes more effective and better understood when it is practised in authentic situations. Having a good mastery of pronunciation skills is a very important element in terms of enhancing students' communication skills (Gilakjani, 2012).

Focus on the challenges language learners encounter in the context of pronunciation skills has ranged in the literature between students' intonation, production of sounds, stress, aspiration and rhythm (Gilakjani, 2016). Moreover, Liskinasih (2016) claimed that speaking classrooms previously had greater instructional tendencies to focus on improving students' fluency and meaning, as opposed to concentrating solely on accuracy and form, as per the grammar classroom. However, a recent study conducted in Indonesia by Liskinasih (2016) indicated that CLT-focused classrooms are no longer segregating between teaching fluency and grammar, with the author arguing that none of these components should be given greater importance if the teacher is intending to keep the students' effectively engaged in the classroom, with both principles now viewed as being mutually complementary in order to achieve a high degree of speaking competency and interaction.

3.24.2 Fluency and accuracy

One of the main teaching principles of EFL and ESL is assisting the learners to develop their levels of accuracy and fluency in the foreign language. Fluency is defined "*as the capacity to speak fluidly, confidently, and at a rate consistent with the norms of the relevant native speech community*", whereas accuracy "*refers to the ability to speak properly—that is, selecting the correct words and expressions to convey the intended meaning, as well as using the grammatical patterns of English*" (Bailey, 2005, p. 5). The correct application of grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary indicates a good level of accuracy, whereas speaking with only a

small number of pauses and hesitations in the foreign language suggests that the learner has achieved a high standard of fluency (Wang, 2014).

One of the most important strategies employed by many language learners in order to enhance their level of fluency in the spoken language is by relying on “*ready-made or – pre - fabricated- units*” of the language (Thornbury and Slade, 2006, p. 218). This refers to the pre-formulated chunks or phrases that are stored in the learner’s mind, and that are recalled and uttered as a strategy for limiting the instances of pauses they make while speaking, as well as revising their input in order to produce improved output (Thornbury and Slade, 2006).

Although having a good level of fluency when speaking in a foreign language is important (El Hannaoui, 2017), the nature of speaking skills revolves around many other aspects besides fluency, such as accuracy. In acquiring a foreign language, learners need to strike a balance in terms of employing both fluency and accuracy in their normal conversation, since considerable focus on only one of these aspects in real practice might result in a lack of proficiency in the other (Wang, 2014). Traditional examination-based classrooms generally focus on enhancing students’ knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, and therefore teachers expend greater effort on teaching students how to achieve accuracy. However, in the communicative classroom teachers devote the majority of their lessons to practising the use of the language freely in order to promote fluency (Baker and Westrup, 2003).

One of the most beneficial methods utilised to compensate for learners’ linguistic deficiencies in learning a language is using communicative strategies, which means applying techniques such as paraphrasing or circumlocution in order to convey a meaning when the exact words that the speaker wants to express are not cognitively available (Thornbury and Slade, 2006).

3.25 Historic background of the CLT approach

After the unsatisfactory results from applying the Audiolingual method during the 1970s and 1980s, language acquisition researchers realised the importance of developing language teachers’ beliefs about teaching English as a foreign language. Bailey (2005) reported that language acquisition researchers compared the manner in which infants acquire the components of their L1 through the communication and interactions with others around them, with how a second

language needs to be learnt. This increased the demand for the consideration of new teaching approaches that involve interaction as a main learning principle.

Both US and UK EFL schools of thoughts stressed the need to develop a new approach that intended to centralise communicative proficiency as being the key objective of language teaching (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). They also increased their focus on stipulating appropriate techniques for the four language complements (i.e. reading, writing, listening and speaking that recognise the integration of language and communication, which as a result distinguishes the approach known as CLT from the Audiolingual approach (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

CLT was introduced during the 1980s and has led to emphasis being applied to the communicative skills of second and foreign language learners. CLT thus places greater emphasis on linguistic meaning instead of form (Littlewood, 2007), and is defined as an approach that utilises the target language for realistic purposes (Sato and Kleinsasser, 1999).

This approach promotes the learning process by focusing on communication within the classroom in order to deliver the lesson aims in a pertinent context (Christie, 2011). In other words, CLT concentrates firmly on the manner in which language is utilised through a realistic purpose. This was described by Tudor (2001, p. 50) as being *"language from a functional perspective"* that *"symbolises the importance of changing the language from being a linguistic system to a system that fulfils the conditions of the speaker's real life"*. Meanwhile, Ellis (2003, p. 27) defined CLT as an approach that is *"directed at enabling learners to function interactionally and transactionally in an L2"*.

With regard to the aim and objectives of this study, in which the research aim is to explore the utilisation and implementation of CLT as a method of teaching at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University, the above definition from Ellis (2003) would appear to be the most relevant to this study as it involves two main purposes: enabling the learner's ability to use language in real communication contexts, as well as entailing the notion that the language is employed as a means of information exchange.

3.26 The importance of the CLT approach

Oral interaction has widely been considered to be a significant element in the field of second language learning and teaching (Loranc-Paszyk, 2015), while it is consistently suggested that the optimum means of developing learners' speaking skills is by involving them in authentic situations that stimulate discussion and the

negotiation of meaning (Long, 1996). Nunan (2004) summarised the main responses behind considering CLT as a 'communicative approach' as follows: i) the classes that are taught with CLT consider the student as being located at the centre of the learning process, while the instructor's role is as the facilitator; ii) there is a needs-based approach applied throughout the content choices; iii) the focus on learning to communicate is by facilitating interaction in the target language; iv) the CLT approach provides real texts to be engaged with during the learning scenario; v) the learners are able to concentrate on both the language and the process; vi) the vital component of language learning that relates to the learners' personal experiences is involved; and vii) there is emphasis placed on the connection between the learning of language in the classroom and realistic communication in the outside environment.

The application of the CLT approach involves a greater focus on interaction-based activities such as pair and group work, that concentrates on employing communicative strategies as a main component in conveying meaning between the learners (Bailey, 2005).

3.27 The strong and the weak form

There are two main versions of CLT: the strong and the weak form. The strong form of communicative teaching supports the claim that communication is the main mechanism for acquiring language, since it is not only a matter of enhancing the available knowledge in the language, but also of encouraging the activation of the entire language system (Howatt, 1984).

On the contrary the weak form, which has seemed more recently to be standardised, emphasises the critical role of communication between learners of English to improve their proficiency levels. It also encourages teachers to involve the students in communicative activities. It is apparent that if the weak form is referred to as "*learning to use English*", then the strong counterpart would mean "*using English to learn it*" (Howatt, 1984, p. 279).

In brief, CLT is an approach to the teaching of second and foreign languages that emphasises the use of communication or interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of learning a particular language. It is also often referred to as 'a communicative approach to the teaching of foreign languages', or more simply as 'the communicative approach'.

3.28 The main obstacles to applying the CLT approach

There are number of individual factors that significantly affect the application of communicative approaches and the learners' willingness to participate. Some of these aspects such as motivation, the learners' gender, age, and self-confidence are considered to be positive variables that introduce many advantages to the learning process; whereas other aspects such as communication anxiety or pronunciation apprehension are considered to be negative factors (Tavakoli and Zarrinabadi, 2016). Despite the fact that the CLT approach is considered to be one of the important approaches in terms of enhancing the students' level of communication and interaction, in application many obstacles may be encountered that impede its effective application. A number of the global barriers that have been pointed out by many researchers in the literature are summarised in the following sub-sections.

3.28.1 The lack of teacher training

The teachers' lack of training is one of the main obstacles that is discussed in the literature. Not all teachers have sufficient pedagogical knowledge from which to select the best teaching method, nor do they have clear understanding of the application of CLT. Teachers thus need to identify procedures that will enable them to address students' needs and interests (Mustafa, 2010; Coskun, 2011; Diallo, 2014; Shurovi, 2014). Moreover, as some teachers do have a clear understanding of CLT as a principle, when it comes to practice they find themselves experiencing a gap between the theory and practice. Teachers sometimes encounter difficulties in implementing the communicative strategies, despite having a clear understanding of the communicative principles and techniques (Shawer, 2013). Therefore, this leads many researchers to suggest training as a tool to *"bridge the gap between their communicative cognition and classroom behaviour"* (Shawer, 2013, p. 437).

3.28.2 The deficiency of communicative practice

Some English language speaking skills teachers believe that practising speaking in the classroom means students repeating dialogues or pre-prepared sentences (Baker and Westrup, 2003). Ju (2013) and Alharbi (2015) argued that one of the

common obstacles facing EFL learners is their deficiency in communication skills, especially among learner graduates from Arab universities. Meanwhile, most non-native English speaking countries lack opportunities for the real practice of communication skills both within and outside the classroom (Wekke and Hamid, 2013).

Classroom speaking practice means preparing students to employ the language for purposeful outcomes through encouraging them to produce their own utterances and responses as if they were in real-life situations (Baker and Westrup, 2003). When he asked Moroccan EFL students to specify the most interesting and enjoyable classroom activities they preferred to engage in, the findings resulting from research conducted by El Hannaoui (2017) were weighted towards the application of communicative activities. The majority of these students' responses conveyed a negative attitude towards the traditional mediums of language teaching, and showed a highly positive attitude towards liveliness and innovation in their practice, which they exemplified through employing games and competitions, watching films, or making presentations in front of the entire class so that they could actually use the language as opposed to merely learning its grammatical structures.

3.28.3 Using the mother tongue in the classroom

Nearly one-third of English language-related undergraduate degrees in Arab universities are taught through Arabic (Alharbi, 2015). According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), it is possible to clarify the meaning of new vocabulary and to verify students' understanding through the L1, while taking into consideration that translation into the mother tongue should be avoided. Some scholars have criticised the use of the L1 in the classroom as a mechanism of explanation employed by teachers. While this remains a traditional teaching method widely used by many non-native English teachers when they want to explain, discuss or clarify new concepts and vocabulary, the strategy will affect students' motivation to speak in English, even with their peers (Mustafa, 2010; Alharbi, 2015; Al Hosni, 2014).

3.28.4 Students' lack of motivation

Students' lack of motivation also negatively influences the effective adoption of CLT. Unstimulating classrooms and lessons that lack motivation erode students' creativity and reduce their drive to develop their communicative skills. In such cases the role of the students is primarily reduced to listeners and they do not frequently participate as they experience concerns in terms of producing mistakes. According to (Baker and Westrup, 2003), the best way to teach a foreign language is to teach it actively in order to stimulate motivation, rather than focusing on analytical techniques that concentrate on grammar rules. Learners must be stimulated to use natural and spontaneous ways of speaking.

3.28.5 Teacher-centred classrooms

"[The] teacher-centred model that is still prevailing in the foreign language classrooms may be another reason for learners' insufficient degree of speaking English" (Klimovienė et al., 2016, p. 103). The majority of EFL speaking classrooms are more teacher-centred than student-centred; teachers primarily speak, explain and control the learning process, while students are reduced to more passive listeners who only receive the information and rarely have the opportunity to communicate with other students to discuss it. This undoubtedly creates an uncollaborative learning environment, which consequently increases students' hesitation and anxiety in terms of speaking in the foreign language (Drame, 2016). A number of authors argued that the notion of communication utilising the CLT approach demands the maximum participation of the students, as well as reduced teacher talk-time during classroom activities (Mustafa 2010; Kim, 2014; Shurovi 2014; Alharbi, 2015).

3.28.6 The lack of using effective learning materials

Since language learners have limited opportunities to practise speaking skills outside the classroom, there is a need to consider technology such as video and audio devices in order to motivate students and enhance their speaking competency (Yunus et al., 2013).

Loranc-Paszylk (2015, p.191), for example, encouraged employing the videoconferencing learning instrument in the speaking classroom, which he defined

it as a “*system where two or more participants in different locations can interact while both seeing and hearing each other in real time with the help of specialized equipment and a high-speed internet connection*”. The use of effective learning materials such as flash cards, audio recordings or short videos can effectively enhance the learning process (Soliman, 2013). Modern devices like computers, projectors, and electronic whiteboards can also support teachers in delivering lessons more effectively and with greater student engagement (Ju, 2013; Dialoo, 2014; Shurovi, 2014). Many advantages of utilising these instruments have been pointed out by Wekke and Hamid (2013), where interaction enhancement is one that uses these facilities to attract the students’ attention and increase their interest in participating in the lesson, as well as motivating them to learn and become more creative (Ahmed, 2017). These tools also facilitate the students’ role in the lesson, reducing difficulties and increasing the sense of enjoyment. The findings of El Hannaoui (2017) emphasised the significance of teaching speaking lessons through employing instruments such as pictures and videos, which are more effective than merely writing on the wall board or dictating to students. Consequently, speaking lessons will be more effective and filled with innovation, and therefore greater communication will manifest.

3.28.7 The gender difference

The gender difference is another factor that influences the application of the CLT approach. Statistics have shown that differences in gender affect the use of learners’ strategies in improving speaking skills, with female learners utilising different learning strategies than those employed by their male counterparts. Several studies revealed that females learners find social activities more interesting than males (Yaman and Özcan, 2015), while the findings of Li (2010) implied that male learners use fewer communication strategies than those engaged with by females, although Wharton's (2000) study indicated that males applied learning strategies more frequently than females. This could present challenges to the teacher’s mission of achieving a communicative class, as the students may require different learning strategies at the same time due to the gender dynamic (Mistar and Umamah, 2014).

3.28.8 Large class size

One of the major challenges of teaching speaking skills in developing countries is the large class sizes that typically exceed 100 students (Baker and Westrup, 2003). As an example, Ju (2013) argued that the application of CLT in China encounters many challenges, with the large class sizes being one of them. This issue is emphasised by many researchers who stated that the obstacles caused by situational constraints such as class size would impede the effective adoption of CLT (Mustafa, 2010; Coskun, 2011; Kim, 2014; Shurovi, 2014).

3.28.9 Students' anxiety

Anxiety while speaking or preparing to speak is a very common factor that influences students' level of proficiency when communicating in a foreign language (Marzec-Stawiarska, 2015). Studies investigating students' apprehension and tension remain inconclusive in the literature (Marzec-Stawiarska, 2015), with some indicating that the students' level of anxiety reduces when their level of language proficiency advances (Tanaka and Ellis, 2003), while others point out that the higher the level of proficiency, the more likely it is that anxiety will present (Marcos-Llinás and Garau, 2009). Moreover, a number of other studies demonstrated a direct correlation between students' anxiety and their oral performance (Sparks and Ganschow, 2007; Herwitt and Stephenson, 2012).

A number of aspects that influence students' oral production have been described in the literature. Sheen (2008), for example, pointed out that students' fear of producing errors is a critical issue that negatively affects their oral production, whereby the more anxious the student becomes, the more difficulties that will arise in their performance and self-correction, in which their input when they recast information will be consequently affected. The findings of a study conducted by El Hannaoui (2017) revealed that the observation of EFL speaking classes highlighted that the students were not participating in the conversation activities and were avoiding eye contact with their teacher as a strategy to avoid being posed any questions to answer or being encouraged to volunteer for participation activities. Students' hesitation and reluctance to speak in English was justified differently in the literature. Some researchers claimed that students' common hesitation to ask questions or participate in discussions in front of other proficient language speakers is likely to be because "*they come from academic cultures where it is not considered*

polite to question professors" (Bailey, 2005, p. 125). Whereas Woodrow (2006) stated that students' oral presentations and performance in front of their peers can cause a high level of apprehension, which is linked to their belief that uttering errors in front of their peers will result in negative judgements of their speaking ability and underscore their imperfections. Another aspect that seems to influence speaking anxiety was identified by Bekleyen (2009) in his study conducted on the theme of language anxiety in relation to other language skills, where he reported that students' listening anxiety correlates in some way to their language performance when they attempt to recognise spoken forms of certain familiar words, or sentence segmentation.

According to Klimovienė et al. (2016, p. 104), "[t]o overcome learners' unwillingness to communicate in the classroom it is necessary to decrease language anxiety during practical language classes by creating a more relaxed, enjoyable learning environment". In addition, some language learners do not like to be interrupted and corrected when they are attempting to communicate in a foreign language. There is a real danger that the over-use of corrections could lead to embarrassment and loss of confidence for some individuals (Baker and Westrup, 2003). El Hannaoui (2017) emphasised that one of the most beneficial strategies that can be used to reduce the students' level of anxiety and apprehension in the classroom is by addressing topics that are of interest to and enjoyable for the students, as well as avoiding language activities that function as mechanical drilling and thus force students to use the grammatical rules of a language that they do not have sufficient exposure to.

Students' anxiety in the context of speaking in a second language has been categorised into three main components: "*communication apprehension, fear of negative social evaluation and test apprehension*" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 563). These components were described by Marzec-Stawiarska (2015) as scenarios whereby the student does not feel comfortable or experiences anxiety while talking to someone or in front of a group. Whereas the fear of negative social evaluation is the case when students feel hesitant and reluctant through apprehension that their facial expressions might signpost an incompetent or unconfident speaker while speaking in a foreign language. Test apprehension is another component of students' anxiety while speaking, which can manifest when students preoccupy themselves with thoughts of an upcoming examination and their final results. This is also seen as a factor that influences students' performance as they become

fixated that their spoken competency will determine their entire course grades (Marzec-Stawiarska, 2015).

3.28.10 Grouping

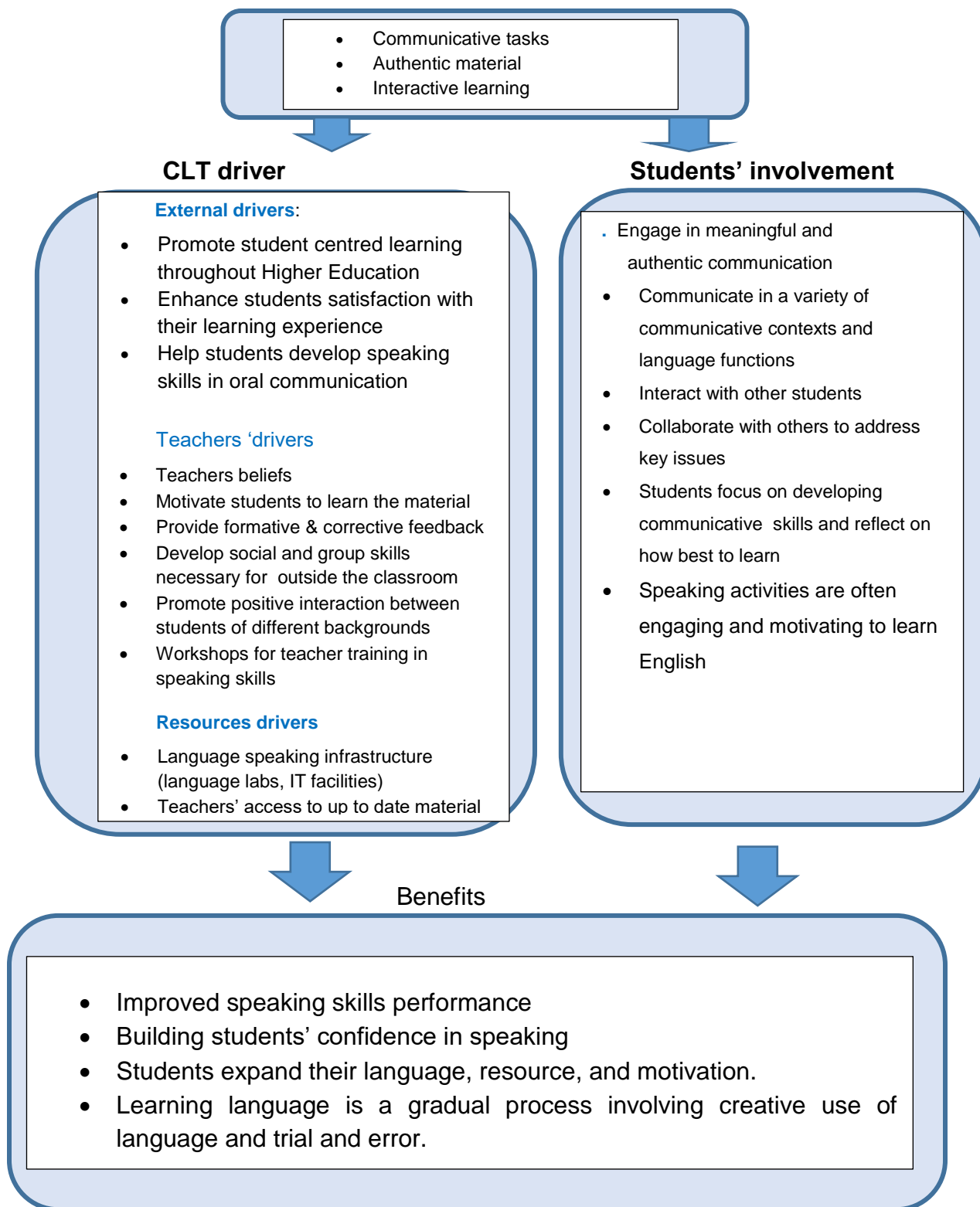
Placing students into groups in order to encourage their communication skills might also represent another obstacle for teachers, with Lynch (1996) arguing that it is not always easy for teachers to decide how to allocate students into equal groups. Students of most speaking classes typically come from the same culture, and utilise the same L1, as well as sharing the same or similar social backgrounds; therefore, teachers may encounter difficulties when setting a communicative speaking activity in terms of placing students into groups where they can discuss and negotiate ideas and information that are new or unexpected with their group or peers. Students also might experience different levels of proficiency when communicating in a foreign language, and this could result in either their rejection of the invitation to collaborate with a weaker partner, or conversely students with low levels of proficiency may not find it easy to engage with higher level students who are interested in communicating to their full extent (Lynch, 1996). On the other hand, Nematovna (2016) strongly encouraged group work activities that primarily promote speaking skills, as well as minimising the potential for any student to be excluded from participation.

Considering the literature presented in the above sections, a large number of studies have been conducted in different countries discussing a range of issues surrounding the teaching of speaking skills using the CLT approach. Some of this research took place in Turkey and the US to investigate the influence of English speaking skills and teachers' attitudes and beliefs towards certain features of CLT application. Meanwhile, other studies examined the main challenges encountered by teachers in applying the CLT approach, such as a study conducted in Malaysia in 2010. Another study took place in Saudi Arabia in 2015 and examined the main reasons why the CLT approach failed to improve some students' speaking skills, although it was applied by their teachers. Whereas other studies discussed the disadvantages of employing the CLT approach as a method of teaching, such as a study conducted in China in 2013.

3.29 Conceptual framework

The following conceptual framework is a summary of the theoretical knowledge which was informed by the literature on English speaking skills and CLT. It links CLT activities to the key influencing drivers for adopting English speaking

Three dynamics of speaking skills



Source: Developed by the researcher

3.30 The gap in the research

Practising speaking skills in the EFL classroom is a fundamental component of the development process; however, this is not always the case in the practice of many English language teachers. It is a topic that has been widely researched, although less attention has been given to the teaching of speaking skills through communicative approaches rather than the traditional approaches in the context of Libyan universities.

The literature has provided fresh insights and a rich foundation for a better grasp of CLT adoption and benefits and outcomes of teaching of speaking skills, however, CLT is more western oriented and many questions remain unanswered and lack practical implications or have not been tested within the Libyan context.

Moreover, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, there is a clear absence of any studies investigating the teaching of speaking realities pertaining to the CLT approach at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University.

3.31 Summary of the chapter

This chapter explored the literature through three main parts. The first provided a critical review of the available literature, and in particular analysed many aspects about the nature and importance of speaking skills, as well as a range of other factors that are related to speaking skills. It also included an in-depth analysis of the theories of learning and SLA that is in line with the research objectives of this study. The second part considered several methods, approaches and strategies for the teaching of speaking skills that could be or have been applied in the conversation classroom. Following that, a range of speaking components such as speaking subskills, teachers' beliefs, motivation, corrective feedback, speaking syllabus, fluency and accuracy, spoken grammar and so forth were presented and explored. Then, the final part related to various issues surrounding the CLT approach, represented primarily through the historical background of the approach, the importance of the approach, and the main obstacles to the application of the CLT approach. Furthermore, gaps were identified in the literature that are used to support this study's focus. The following chapter explores the research methodology and methods applied to gather the data necessary to respond to this study's aim and objectives.

Chapter Four: Research Methodology and Methods

4 Chapter Four: Research Methodology and Methods

4.1 Introduction

This chapter is designated to a discussion the methodology and method, as well as the instruments necessary to gather data to respond to the research question and objectives that underpin this study, while also establishing clear justifications for the selection of the methods, philosophy and design adopted for the research.

The chapter is classified into four main parts. The first reiterates the research question and objectives adopted for this study, whereas the second part presents a rationale for the methodology supported by a detailed description of the philosophy, research approach and design adopted for this research. The next part discusses the methods and instruments used, with clear justification for utilising mixed methods for the data collection. Subsequently, the final part discusses the statistical tests and analyses that were selected for use in this research.

4.2 Research question and objectives

This study is devoted to investigating the teaching of English speaking skills in Al Jabal Al Gharbi University, with the following research question underpinning the investigation:

How do the teachers and students perceive the teaching of English speaking skills at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University?

The following three objectives have been designed to enable the research question to be answered:

1. To identify the methods employed by the teachers of English speaking skills.
2. To determine the extent to which the CLT approach is implemented by English teachers at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University.
3. To highlight those obstacles that may impede the effective adoption of CLT.

4.3 Methodology

The following sections provide a detailed discussion about the approach considered for this research. It provides a clear debate about the main philosophical positions exist, as well as highlighting the main rational behind the selection of the approach employed for this study.

4.3.1 Research philosophy

The majority of educational research design begins by discussing the philosophical and theoretical assumptions that underpin the investigation, since the understanding of the different research philosophies is useful for a range of different reasons (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). It is beneficial since it assists researchers in expanding their knowledge about the research philosophies that exist in the field, so that they can identify those philosophical perspectives that are most applicable for their proposed research, and those which are not appropriate. It is also important to commence a study with an appropriate determination of the philosophical framework, as this will later govern the entire process of selecting the research method and strategy (Hallebone and Priest, 2009). In addition, this awareness helps through improving the credibility of the research results, as well as increasing the grasp that a researcher has on the topic of focus (Saunders et al., 2009).

Many researchers have therefore defined the term 'philosophy' from a variety of different perspectives. The definition offered by Collins and Hussey (2009), for example, refers to the researchers' perceptions and beliefs about a specific phenomenon that manifests in the world, and the nature of knowledge by which the whole research project is guided. In addition, Easterby-Smith et al. (2012) explained that the suitable selection of a research design that fits the nature of the study is an important step in order to ensure that the research questions can be answered and findings be produced that can be disseminated in the literature. With this regard, a competing argument exists within social sciences inquiry concerning the significance and importance of philosophical representations. Some researchers such as Guba and Lincoln (1994), Saunders et al. (2012) and Easterby-Smith et al. (2015) stressed the importance of the research philosophy in clarifying the research design, which is accordingly essential in terms of identifying how the gathering and interpretation of the data will be carried out. Conversely, other opposing views consider the research philosophy to be insignificant, and that a researcher can form good observations or conduct

effective interviews, and make sense of the collected data without having a deep understanding of philosophical assumptions (Patton, 2015).

Despite the above disagreement, this research follows Johnson and Clark's (2006) and Maxwell's (2009) argument that emphasises the need to secure the researcher's beliefs and assumptions through the proper fit of the methodological approach. Maxwell (2009, p. 224) cautioned that trying "*to work within a paradigm (or theory) that doesn't fit your assumptions is like trying to do a physically demanding job in clothes that don't fit*".

Before starting to discuss the different types of philosophies that exist in the field of social sciences research, and in order to avoid any confusion in the study, it is important to mention that the terms 'philosophy' and 'paradigm' are used interchangeably in this work. Examples of the different types of philosophies generally applied in social sciences research are positivism, interpretivism, constructivism, realism and pragmatism (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Each of these philosophies employs different concepts regarding reality and how knowledge can be acquired. They are also analysed within different paradigms such as ontology, which is "*a set of very general philosophical assumptions about the nature of the world*", and epistemology, which is concerned with "*how we can understand it*" (Bickman and Rog, 2009, p. 224). These two assumptions are clearly distinguished and discussed in the following section.

4.3.2 Ontology and epistemology

Most researchers begin their research by creating assumptions about the nature of the reality they are planning to investigate. It is also important to consider the different types of knowledge and philosophies that exist, and how this knowledge is developed in order to fit a research design. In this respect, it is important to take into consideration the two philosophical assumptions of ontology and epistemology. These two Greek philosophical terms refer to the 'knowledge' or belief about a knowledge when conducting research (Gill and Johnson, 2010). It is the researchers' beliefs and assumptions that are typically generated about the nature of the world they wish to investigate (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

Ontology is concerned with the philosophical assumptions surrounding the "*nature of reality*" (Saunders et al., 2009, p. 110), or as many researchers have described it, the knowledge of what is known about the existing real world, and how this knowledge is constructed (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Crotty, 1998;

Neuman, 2011). It is the primary research inquiry of whether a real world exists beyond the existing knowledge, that is, whether there is an existent independent reality in a constant and tangible shape that is located externally from the existing knowledge, or whether reality is shaped from people's perceptions and interaction in a specific context (Saunders et al., 2012). Ontology, in other words, indicates that the researcher considers the social phenomenon as a fact that is both external and beyond his or her control.

The two important ontological aspects are objectivism and subjectivism. Many researchers argued that these two parameters considerably impact on the researcher's thinking and accordingly influence the development of the research process (Saunders et al., 2012). While objectivism indicates that the existence of social entities is external from the social actors, or in other words, the researcher considers the social phenomenon to be a fact that is external and beyond his or her control, subjectivism, on the other hand, indicates that the social actors' perceptions and consequent actions create the social phenomenon (Saunders et al., 2009).

These subjectivism and objectivism assumptions were also linked by Easterby-Smith et al. (2015) to four different parameters, as indicated below in Table 4.1. Burrell and Morgan (1979) connected the above two ontological aspects of objectivism and subjectivism to nominalism and realism, where he argued that objectivism correlates with realism, while subjectivism is more closely related to nominalism.

Table 4.1: The ontological categories

Ontology	Realism	Internal Realism	Relativism	Nominalism
Truth	Single truth	Truth exists, but is obscure.	There are many truths.	There is no truth.
Fact	Facts exist and can be revealed.	Facts are concrete, but cannot be accessed directly.	Facts depend on the viewpoint of the observer.	Facts are all human creation.

(Source: adopted from Easterby-Smith et al., 2015, p. 50)

Epistemology, on the other hand, “*concerns what constitutes acceptable knowledge in a field of study*” (Saunders et al., 2009, p. 112). It refers to the reality, and how knowledge can be obtained (Furlong and Marsh, 2010). More specifically, epistemology deals with inquiry into knowledge, and how people know what they currently know (Crotty, 1998; Easterby-Smith et al., 2015). Hallebone and Priest (2009) emphasised that epistemological stances in social research typically reflect the researchers’ assumptions regarding the process of creating, synthesising and applying the knowledge.

Many researchers arrived at different interpretations of the understanding of knowledge in social sciences research. Woods and Cakir (2011), for example, claimed that knowledge is the understanding of an issue that is usually acquired through experience or education, whereas Schraw (2013, p. 13) debated that “*knowledge is subject to interpretation*”. Knowledge in the research of social science is established depending on either positivist or social constructionist positions (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012), which are considered as the main philosophies that can be conducted for social sciences research. Researchers on occasion may confuse these two terminologies and apply them interchangeably; however, they are distinct and can be further subdivided into strong positivism, positivism, constructionism, or strong constructionism. An understanding of the diversity of these different philosophies can be achieved by reviewing the two main positions of positivism and social constructionism, which are discussed in depth in the following sections. The following sections will also discuss the interpretivism and pragmatism philosophies, which along with positivism are considered to be the main positions that are relevant to this research.

4.3.3 The positivist philosophy

Positivism assumes that the truth and variables related to it can be obtained or discovered objectively and through the creation of hypotheses (Cohen et al., 2011). In other words, positivists believe that the social world is studied as objective data, which are collected independently from the researcher, as well as tested statistically (Punch and Oancea, 2014).

Burrell and Morgan (1979) and Guthrie (2010) argued that in order to clarify and predict what exists in the social world, it is important to investigate the relationship between the events and the regularities being studied and developed through hypotheses testing. Knowledge, according to positivist advocates, is based on testing a theory as well as gathering facts to allow the testing of hypotheses (Saunders et al., 2012). In this case, the perceptions of human beings do not have an influence on the formation of this knowledge.

This research does not rely solely on testing hypothesis or theory, nor considers numbers only in gathering facts about the researched topic. The attitude considered for this research is both subjective and objective, and which therefore it is believed that the best philosophy suits this study is pragmatism.

4.3.4 The interpretivist philosophy

In direct contract to positivism is interpretivism, which *“is concerned with the emphatic understanding of human action rather than with the forces that act on it”* (Bryman and Bell, 2015, p. 28). It refers more specifically to the manner in which people determine their reality and make sense of the world, employing language to share their experiences (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). Unlike positivism, interpretivism is described as being interpretive, that is, the researcher attempts to understand the socially constructed meaning of a topic as well as interpreting people’s social roles, depending on their own meaning (Saunders et al., 2012).

The interpretivists’ view of knowledge is subjective. The researcher does not consider any pre-prepared categories or scientific statistics in collecting the data, but rather they depend directly on their relationships with the respondents (Guthrie, 2010). Furthermore, interpretivists disagree with the belief that researchers need to be objective in terms of measuring the social phenomenon and being independent from what is being researched, believing that the researcher is part of the investigation.

This research considers both subjectivity and objectivity in understanding the view of knowledge. It is therefore believed that the interpretivist philosophy does not fulfil the conditions of this research. Table 4.2 presents the clear implications of the positivist and interpretivist philosophies.

Table 4.2: Positivism and interpretivism: the philosophical implications

	Positivism	Interpretivism
The observer	Must be independent	Is part of what is being observed
Human interests	Should be irrelevant	Are the main drivers of science
Explanations	Must demonstrate causality	Aim to increase general understanding of the situation
Research progresses through	Hypotheses and deductions	Gathering rich data from which ideas are induced
Concepts	Need to be designed so that they can be measured	Should incorporate stakeholder perspectives
Units of analysis	Should be reduced to simplest terms	May include the complexity of whole situations
Generalization through	Statistical probability	Theoretical abstraction
Sampling requires	Large numbers selected randomly	Small numbers of cases chosen for specific reasons

(Source: Easterby-Smith et al., 2015, p. 53)

4.3.5 The justification for the current study's philosophical paradigm

The selection of the pragmatism approach as the optimum research philosophy to apply for this study is based on the nature of the research, as well as the objectives. In order to connect between the research philosophy and the objectives, the first part of this study seeks to investigate how teachers of English speaking skills teach, and to establish the current teaching methods adopted in the classroom. Furthermore, this study measures the extent of adopting the CLT approach, and identifies any potential obstacles that may be faced in terms of its application. The nature of the objectives required the researcher to employ multiple methods of data collection in order to clearly address the problem.

In this study, the selection of the pragmatism paradigm as the ideal philosophy that fits this research is based on a number of different criteria. First and foremost, the researcher's belief about truth follows Robson and McCartan's (2016, p. 28) definition, which assumes that truth can be achieved through "*what works*". This means that the pragmatists' view of the world is not restricted to only one data collection method, but rather multiple approaches can be considered for the collection and analysis of the data (Creswell, 2014). This is true in this research as the researcher employed a mixed methods approach, which comprised of a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews with a large sample of students. Furthermore, semi-structured interviews were also conducted with speaking skills' teachers, in order to better understand their perceptions and preferences toward the proposed method.

In addition, the researcher's ontological beliefs about the real world are neither totally subjective nor objective; therefore, although the researcher holds the belief that the real world is external from the existent knowledge and beyond the researcher's awareness, it is also believed that people's knowledge about reality is limited, and many important aspects of the social world are difficult to uncover. According to Shannon-Baker (2016), pragmatism suggests a balance between the subjective and objective beliefs in conducting research. In this study, these two ontological beliefs are used as a continuum to link each other, as opposed to being separate beliefs. Furthermore, the results obtained from the above methods complemented each other in the data analysis, and none of them dominated, as seen in many other paradigms such as the positivist (quantitative) or interpretivist (qualitative) paradigms (Morgan, 2007; Morgan, 2014).

In addition, the research approach selected for this study is abductive. That is, the researcher utilised deductive and inductive approaches in the process of collecting data. The abductive approach gives the researcher flexibility in terms of navigating between the inductive and deductive approaches in order to compare and contrast the qualitative and quantitative results. This flexibility that the pragmatism paradigm offers will assist the researcher in including different perspectives so that superior results can be obtained (Robson and McCartan, 2016).

The pragmatism philosophy therefore refers to the use of multiple research data collection methods. It is a very practicable philosophical position since it is concerned with aspects that are relevant to the knowledge and learning research (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012).

It is often seen as a compromise position between internal realism and relativism: it does not accept that there are predetermined theories or frameworks that shape knowledge and truth; nor does it accept that people can construct their own truths out of nothing.

(Easterby-Smith et al., 2015, p. 61)

Unlike many other philosophies, pragmatism does not focus on the suitability of the data collection method, but rather it gives primary concern to the research problem and allows all types of approaches to be applied in order to comprehend the problem and purpose (Creswell, 2014). Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) argued that pragmatists believe that neither the research method nor the worldview that lies behind it are more important than the research question when conducting a study. Pragmatism, therefore, can “*open the door to multiple methods, different worldviews, and different assumptions, as well as different forms of data collection and analysis*” (Creswell, 2014, p. 11). Pragmatists focus on inquiries into the ‘how’ and the ‘what’, which includes both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods (Creswell, 2014). Morgan (2007) emphasised the importance of using different approaches in conducting research, and not focusing solely on only one direction when selecting the research approach.

Another important feature of the pragmatism approach is the transferability, which refers to the potential for transposing the research results that emerge from one study into other contexts that share the same features of the researched context (Houghton et al., 2013). In other words, transferability “*allows researchers to investigate the factors that affect whether the knowledge we gain can be transferred to other settings*” (Shannon-Baker, 2016, p. 326).

In order to achieve transferability, one of the important elements that a researcher needs to establish in research is a clear and detailed description of the context. A study should include a concise description of the researched context, as well as a detailed presentation of the data collection methods used and the findings that resulted (Houghton et al., 2013). This could enhance the transferability, and enable other readers to determine whether the findings are transferrable to their contexts or not (Graneheim and Lundman, 2004).

This study does not seek to generalise its findings; therefore, it is more likely that the findings will be able to be transferred into other contexts that share the same characteristics of Al Jabal Al Gharbi University.

4.3.6 Research approach

The research approach refers to the process that guides the collection of the data (Bryman and Bell, 2011). It is the consideration that lies behind the selection of the theory, and by which the selection of the research design is carried out. Inductive and deductive approaches are considered to be the most commonly used approaches for organising the parameters of a research study, and are also sometimes referred to as the qualitative and quantitative approaches (Collins and Hussey, 2009; Creswell, 2014).

While deductive research indicates that the researcher is leaning towards commencing with the designation of a research strategy so that the theory can be tested by collecting quantitative data (Saunders et al., 2012), it is a highly structured approach that requires the researcher to use scientific principles and to be independent of his or her study, as well as concentrating on collecting quantitative data from a large sample to allow for generalisability (Saunders et al., 2012).

The inductive approach, on the other hand, refers to the process of constructing the theory. This means that a study starts by exploring a phenomenon, in order to collect data for the generalisation of theory (Saunders et al., 2009). Inductive researchers collect qualitative data by utilising a flexible structure, and they involve themselves in the research process by acquiring a close understanding of the context and the participants' meanings, as well as giving less attention to the generalisation of the results.

Although the deductive and inductive approaches are seen as useful tools for conducting research, they were criticised for being inaccurate in terms of representing the researcher's actual practice (Robson and McCartan, 2016). This research is neither focused primarily on generalisability or on beginning with theory in order to construct the data collection method, that is, moving from the general to the more specific. Nor is it interested in generating or grounding a theory. Therefore, this study is navigating between these two approaches mutually in order to identify suitable solutions for the research problem.

The abductive approach, therefore, seems to be the most suitable approach for the fulfilment of the purpose of this research. It is defined as the *“process that instead of just moving from theory to the observation (as in deduction), or from observation to theory (as in induction), cycles between the two”* (Robson and McCartan, 2016, p. 37).

This type of approaches gives the researcher flexibility to move back and forth between quantitative and qualitative data, in order to reach the depth of the problem and have a clear understanding of the phenomenon being investigated. [This transaction between approaches means] inductive results from a qualitative approach can serve as inputs to the deductive goals of a quantitative approach, and vice versa.

(Morgan, 2007, p. 71)

4.3.7 Rationale for the survey

Mackey and Gass (2005) argued that survey research allows researchers to gather data about opinions, facts, beliefs, motivation, attitudes, activities, and reactions to behavioural events. They defined questionnaires as *“[w]ritten instruments that present all participants with the same series of questions or statements, which the participants then react to either through providing written answers, marking Likert-style judgments or selecting options from a series of statements”* (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 148).

There are a number of advantages to collecting data via a questionnaire. For example, a large volume of information can easily be gathered from a large number of participants in a limited period of time, which enables the researcher to generalise the findings, provided that the sample is representative (Bryman, 2012). In addition, the questionnaire is deemed to be easy and flexible in terms of its administration, as well as the analysis of quantitative data being more numeric and therefore more objective than any other forms of qualitative data (Dörnyei, 2010).

4.3.8 Rationale for the interview

Interviews are considered to be one of the most commonly employed methods of data collection (Denscombe, 2010), representing an important and flexible qualitative data collection method applied in many studies. Some researchers have debated whether using questionnaires only as a data collection instrument is sufficient to approach the depth of a topic, with Bryman and Bell (2011) arguing that research could become more valuable if more than one method is used for the data collection, which could increase the degree of validity and reliability of the results. Similarly, Richards (2003, p. 50) emphasised that *“in qualitative inquiry we need to go deeper, to pursue understanding in all its complex, elusive and shifting forms; and to achieve this we need to establish a relationship with people that enables us to share in their perception of the world”*.

Hence, taking into consideration several factors, it was decided that the best approach to answering the research question and gaining a clearer picture of the phenomenon of this study would be to also conduct interviews with the students, followed by interviews with their teachers.

Therefore, a series of semi-structured interviews were conducted with students at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University in order to gain a deeper understanding of the problem and acquire better insight into the students' perceptions. Following the students' interviews, further in-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted with speaking skills teachers who either currently or previously had taught speaking classes at the target university.

4.3.9 Case study

Case study research is defined as the type of research that *"involves the study of an issue explored through one or more cases within a bounded system (i.e., a setting, a context)"* (Creswell, 2007, p. 73). It is considered useful when the researcher is interested in acquiring an in-depth understanding of a phenomenon, or comparisons of several cases (Yin, 2014).

There are different arguments with regards to what constitutes case study research. Ragin and Becker (1992, p. 3), for example, argued that a case study *"may be theoretical or empirical or both; it may be a relatively bounded object or a process; and may be generic and universal or specific in some way"*. In other words, the term 'case study' could refer to the study of a single unit such as a group of individuals or an organisation, or it might refer to a specific physical, social or political construct (Patton, 2015).

There are also different views with regards to the selection of either a single case study, or a multiple case study in a research project. The single case study (which is the type selected for this research) refers to the exploration of one particular phenomenon in one particular case (Creswell, 2007), whereas the multiple case study implies conducting a study on more than one group in an attempt to compare their similarities and differences (Robson and McCartan, 2016). According to Easterby-Smith et al. (2015), the selection of studying a single case or multiple cases is usually linked with the research philosophy chosen: *"Advocates of single cases generally come from a constructionist epistemology whilst those who advocate multiple cases usually fit with a more positivist epistemology"* (Easterby-Smith et al., 2015, p. 54).

There are a number of strengths and weakness of employing case study research. The main advantage is that it typically focuses on answering 'how' and the 'why' type of questions, so that researchers can deliver rich, phenomenal and contextual data (Creswell, 2009). It is also considered useful since it requires a detailed investigation of a particular set of individuals, organisations or groups (Cassell and Symon, 2004), so that an enhanced understanding of the phenomenon can be achieved.

On the contrary, some of the disadvantages of case study research pointed out by Yin (2014) are that it lacks rigour concerning the scientific designs. In addition, it is also claimed that this method does not allow for the generalisability of the results obtained to a wider population (Fisher and Ziviani, 2004). Limited opportunities for generalisation are considered to be a major shortcoming for this type of research. Furthermore, critics also have been highlighted that the interpretation of the findings of case study research are more likely to be biased (Easterby-Smith et al., 2015). *"This criticism is based on the conventional understanding of case studies as descriptive and explorative research techniques, designed not to inform populations but to understand unique systems"* (Fisher and Ziviani, 2004, p. 185). Having considering the aim of this research, which is investigating the teaching of speaking skills at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University only, and not any other contexts, this study thus follows the case study design in its structure.

4.4 The method

This section presents a discussion about the method used for collecting and analysing data used for this research. It also provides a clear assessment of the trustworthiness of the mixed method approach that is selected for this study.

4.4.1 The mixed method

The research design refers to the overall plan that reflects the research objectives and responds to the research question. It is defined by Saunders et al. (2012, p. 860) as the *"framework for the collection and analysis of data to answer the research questions and meet research objectives providing reasoned justification for the choice of data sources, collection methods and analysis techniques"*.

In the current study, based on the nature of the research, as well as the research purpose and objectives, a mixed method comprising of a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews was selected, collecting both quantitative and qualitative data, respectively. Some of the main advantages of utilising the mixed method for data

collection are the richness of the data gathered and the additional evidence that could complement a study (Kumar, 2014). In addition, Creswell (2014) emphasised the advantages of employing this method in terms of increasing the validity and reliability of the results.

Creswell (2014) summarised the main types of mixed method designs as follows. 'The convergent parallel design' is a type of mixed method research that is utilised to analyse qualitative and quantitative data, where both types of data are collected and analysed separately, but given the same priority, and their findings are compared so that comprehensive interpretation is achieved. 'The explanatory sequential design' is one of the most popular designs used in educational studies, which involves the collection and analysis of quantitative data first, then followed by the qualitative data. The results obtained from the quantitative data that are prioritised, are then refined by the results emerging from the qualitative data. Both data samples must be the same or nearly identical as the main thrust of this design is that the qualitative data defines the results of the quantitative data in greater detail. 'The exploratory sequential design' is the direct opposite of the explanatory sequential design, whereby the collection and analysis of the qualitative data are given priority, followed by the quantitative data. This type of design involves developing a suitable measurement for a small qualitative sample, and to then evaluate if this small sample can be generalised. 'The embedded design' is another type of mixed method design that entails the collection of quantitative and qualitative data simultaneously, although one of them supports the results of the other; usually the quantitative data are the primary source, with the qualitative data used to refine the results.

As this study is adopting a survey to collect the quantitative data, followed by semi-structured interviews as the qualitative data collection instrument, this research follows the embedded mixed methods design.

4.4.2 The sampling strategy and calculating the sample

Selecting an appropriate sampling technique is an important stage for any research project. It is defined as *"the deliberate choice of a number of units (companies, departments, people) who are to provide the researcher with the required data to draw the findings of the study"* (Jankowicz, 2005, p. 144).

There are number of different sampling strategies that can be applied for the proper selection of a sample in terms of the size. These strategies include probabilistic

sampling and non-probabilistic sampling. Probability sampling refers to the random selection of a sample from a specific population, and is considered useful as it increases the researcher's degree of precision in drawing inferences, which can be generalised to a specific population (Brick, 2015). Probability sampling can be divided into a number of other subtypes: simple random sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling (Collins and Hussey, 2009). Non-probability sampling, on the other hand, involves the non-random selection of the sample (Easterby-Smith et al., 2015). *“This implies that some units in the population are more likely to be selected than others”* (Bryman, 2012, p. 187). The approach also includes several subtypes: convenience sampling, quota sampling and purposive sampling. Figure 4.1 illustrates the most common sampling techniques applied.

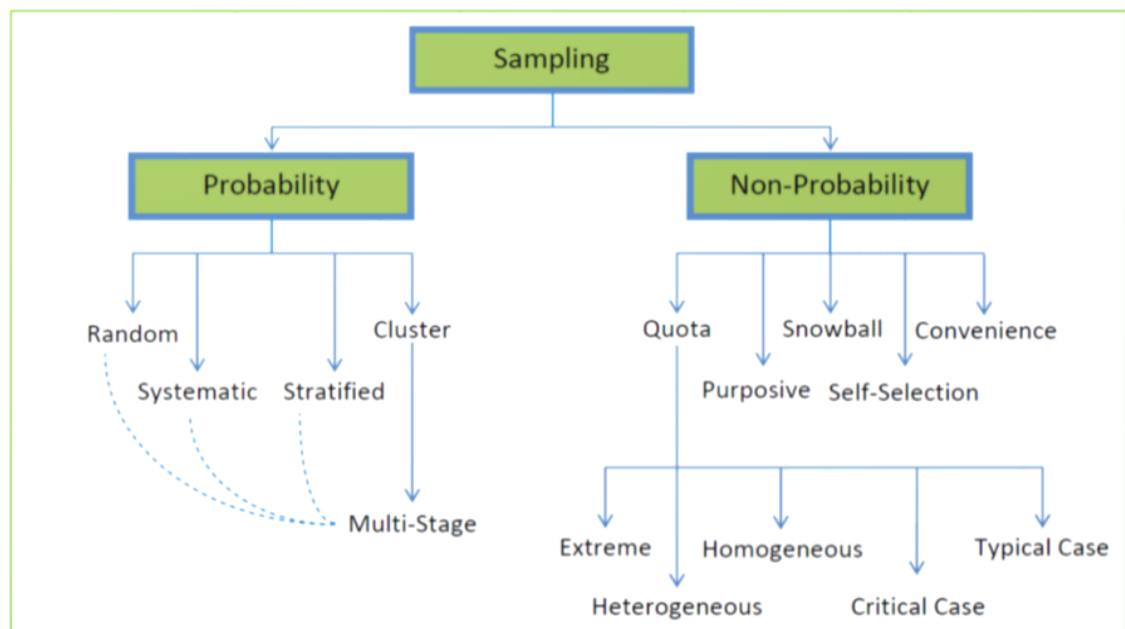


Figure 4.1: The most common types of sampling techniques

(Source: Saunders et al., 2009, p. 213)

The participants who participated in the current study were classified into two categories: students from different academic years participated in both the quantitative and qualitative data collection, whereas the teachers only took part in the qualitative data collection. Different sampling strategies were used for selecting the participants for the qualitative and quantitative data collection as follows.

Patton (2015) emphasised the significance of consistency between the research sampling in terms of the design and the methodological selections. Consequently, probability stratified random sampling was deemed to be in line with the objectives

of this study. Employing stratifying sampling means that *“the population is split into groups that may be representative of it according to a theory being tested (e.g. class, gender, ethnicity) and participants chosen randomly within them”* (Greener, 2011, p. 202). The main rationale for selecting this strategy is that it enables the researcher to categorise the sample into groups, as well as ensuring their random selection.

The first sample comprised those students who were attending speaking classes in Al Jabal Al Gharbi University at the time of the data collection. According to the university database, the total number of students in the English department required to attend speaking classes was 1,200 students, and therefore this was the population targeted for the study. The minimum number of participants requested to complete the questionnaire in this study was determined by applying Yamane's (1967, p. 886) formula (see below), which indicated that the minimum sample size was 300 students.

The Yamane formula

$$\begin{aligned} n &= 1200 / 1 + 1200 (.05)^2 \\ n &= 1200 / 1 + 1200 * .0025 \\ &= 1200 / 1 + 3 \\ &= 300 \text{ questionnaires to be allocated} \end{aligned}$$

With regards to the qualitative data collection, unlike the quantitative phase where the researcher is guided by pre-prepared considerations for selecting the sample size such as numerical size, in qualitative inquiry the researcher's main concern is with reaching a good level of saturation. Saturation indicates the point at which the researcher feels that no more useful information is being added to the data collection stage (Kumar, 2014).

The sampling selection strategy that was deemed to be most appropriate for selecting the students for the interviews was convenience sampling. Those students who participated in the interviews were selected from the first, second, third and fourth years of academic study. All of the students were invited to take part; however, only ten students expressed a willingness to participate. These students were given the option to participate in the interview via audio, video recording or by e-mail. Only four students chose the audio recording interviews option, whereas the remaining six students preferred to conduct this by e-mail. The main purpose of conducting these interviews with the students was to explore in further detail the findings emerging from the analysis of the questionnaire.

With regards to teachers, the ten members of staff who are currently teaching English speaking skills in the university were invited to take part in the interview. Since the entire population was targeted, no sampling strategy was used to select the participants for this phase. The teachers were approached via e-mail to obtain primary consent, and to provide them with a brief summary of the current study. Afterwards, a formal consent form was given to the participants who agreed to participate. Seven teachers among the whole population expressed a willingness to participate in the study. Three of the interviews were audio recorded, while the other four participants preferred to conduct the interview by e-mail.

4.4.3 The survey

Having discussed the approach selected for collecting the quantitative and qualitative data employed for this research, this section will now present the survey in terms of designation, distribution and analysis of the questionnaire.

4.4.3.1 Designing / adapting the questionnaire

The questionnaire used for this study was adapted from a number of studies, where the questions were adapted and amended in order to meet the context of this study and the objectives used. The researcher employed closed-ended questions for the structure of the questionnaire, that is, the form of questions that are followed by either scales to rank or boxes to tick. This type of questions was selected as they are easily administrated, answered and coded. The questionnaire consists of 52 questions, which were varied into three main dimensions (see Appendix 3). A five-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' was adopted, and also to remain parallel within the five-point scale, the researcher adopted the unforced scale which means adding the 'do not know' option in order to enhance the accuracy of the findings.

The questions were classified into five main sections to help the researcher achieve answers to the research objectives designated for this study. Question 1 in section 3 was adapted from Shurovi (2014), and this question helped to achieve objective 3 in terms of identifying the main obstacles facing the students in practising the CLT approach. Question 2 in section 3 was adapted from Heaslip et al. (2013) and Shurovi (2014), and was intended to answer objective 1, namely establishing the current teaching method employed by English language teachers in their

conversation classes. Questions 3 and 4 in section 3 were adapted from Kim (2014) and Shawer (2013), and were structured to achieve a response to objective 2, which is determining the extent to which the CLT approach is implemented by teachers in their conversation classes. Finally, question 5 in section 3 was adapted from Doukas (1996), and supported the answering of objectives 1 and 2. The questionnaire was adapted from several validated articles, as shown in the Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: The source of the questionnaire questions

Question Number	Objective	Source
Section 3, question 1	Designed to achieve objective 3, which is identifying the main obstacles facing the students in terms of practising the CLT approach.	Adapted from: Shurovi (2014)
Section 3, question 2	Question designed to achieve objective 1, namely establishing the current teaching method used by the English language teachers in their conversation classes.	Adapted from: Heaslip et al. (2013) and Shurovi (2014)
Section 3, questions 3 and 4	Questions designed to achieve objective 2, which is determining the extent to which the CLT approach is implemented by teachers in their conversation classes.	Adapted from: Kim (2014) and Shawer (2013)

Section 3, question 5	Question designed to achieve objectives 1 and 2, as described above.	Adapted from: Doukas (1996)
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4.4.3.2 Distributing / administering the questionnaire

A pilot study was conducted to test the validity and feasibility of the questions adapted in the questionnaire, and to avoid any deficiency that presented in the pilot study from being included in the main data collection phase. All the key amendments that arose in the pilot study were taken into consideration in the collection of the primary data. The validity and reliability were ensured by relying on numerous procedures, such as content validity, linguistic validity, check questions, and a number of statistical tests such as Cronbach's alpha.

Considering the challenges of traveling to Libya in terms of both security and safety, the method used to distribute the questionnaire was via e-mail. The number of participants required to answer the questionnaire in the main study was determined using the Yamane formula as 300. A word document version of the questionnaire was thus sent to a member of staff in the university, who printed out hard copies and was responsible for distributing and administering the questionnaire during the students' classes.

A number of ethical measures needed to be conducted before the collection of any data could begin, some of which were receiving a signed consent form from each potential participant before starting the collection of the data. This form (see Appendix 2) assured the participants of the voluntary nature of the participation and their anonymity, as well as confirming that the information they provided would be treated in the strictest confidence. After collecting the completed questionnaires, a member of staff helped in passing the completed instruments to a close friend of the researcher, who was responsible for bringing the raw data to the UK in the form of the physical completed questionnaires. This friend was trusted in handing back the questionnaires because he was a previous PhD student` who studied here in the UK, and was fully aware of the sensitivity and privacy of the data.

4.4.3.3 Handling and analysing the quantitative data

Determining the most suitable statistical tests for the data in a study is crucial, since the proper selection of tests will eventually lead to an accurate and rich conclusion. The statistical tests used for the quantitative data emerging from this study are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: The statistical parametric tests

Statistical test	Reasons for using the particular test
Cronbach's alpha	Reliability test for the entire questionnaire
Cronbach's alpha	Reliability test for each factor
Homogeneity of variances test	Validity test of whether the data have homogeneity
Descriptive analysis	Used to determine the trend of responses (mean)
Factor analysis	Used to classify the questions in order to ensure the analysis is more effective and more easily understood
Independent t-test	Used to compare answers between gender
Anova test	Used to compare answers based on the year of academic study, level of experience and level of proficiency
Post-hoc	Used to specify the place of difference that resulted from the answers in the Anova test

All of these tests were selected according to the nature and the number of variables employed for this study. The first test performed was the Cronbach's alpha, which was used to test for the reliability of all the questions first, and then re-run to ensure the reliability for each factor. The second test applied was the homogeneity of variances. This validity test was performed by employing the Levene's test in order

to ensure that the significance of the results was greater than .05, which accordingly indicates that the assumption of the homogeneity of variances has been met.

The third check was descriptive analysis, which was used in order to assess the trend of responses or the mean. The fourth test was factor analysis, which was applied in order to classify the questions so that the analysis would become more effective and more easily understood. The fifth test employed was the independent sample t-test, which was used in order to compare answers between two groups based on the gender. The sixth test was the Anova test, which was used in order to compare answers among more than two groups based on the year, the level of experience and the level of proficiency. The seventh check was the post-hoc test, which was run to specify the place of difference that resulted from the answers in the Anova test.

4.4.4 The interview

The following section discusses the qualitative data in relation to the collection and analysis of the interviews. It also provides a clear illustration of the different stages of the content analysis process used to analyse the qualitative data.

4.4.4.1 Conducting the interview

The medium of some of the interviews was face to face and audio recorded, whereas the some other participants preferred conducting the interviews by e-mail. As aforementioned, the researcher had originally intended to travel to Libya to conduct the data collection in person; however, due to the security situation at that time, the interviews were conducted online via the Skype video communication application, or via e-mails for those who have a limited access to the internet.

The interviewees were given the option of conducting the interview in either the English or the Arabic language, depending on which they found to be more convenient. Consequently, two of the participants used the Arabic language in their interviews, whereas the other interviewees preferred the English language. These interviews were conducted after the class if applicable, or set at another time that suited the participants who were inside the university campus. The duration of the interview lasted for approximately one hour, and a transcript was produced for each that enabled the researcher to analyse the data effectively by utilising the NVivo software and content analysis.

4.4.4.2 Data analysis

The data analysis process refers to the management, categorisation, and presentation of a meaningful report (Quinlan, 2011). It refers to the process of “organizing the data, conducting a preliminary read-through of the database, coding and organizing themes, representing the data, and forming an interpretation of them” (Creswell, 2013. p, 179). The application of this type of analysis extends beyond the description of a specific phenomenon, but rather it involves the thought process as a key element in establishing a fundamental relationship between the different aspects of a particular situation (Anderson, 2013).

There are many different types of analytical methods that can be employed for qualitative data. In order to offer a simple explanation of the complexity of the qualitative data analysis, Easterby-Smith et al. (2015) provided a simplified comparison between the two qualitative analytical extremes, as shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Qualitative data analysis: content versus grounded methods

<i>Content Analysis</i>	<i>Grounded Theory</i>
<i>Searching for content</i>	<i>Understanding of context and time</i>
<i>Causally linked concepts and ideas structure analysis</i>	<i>Holistic association guides analysis</i>
<i>Objective / subjective</i>	<i>Faithful to views of respondents</i>
<i>More deductive</i>	<i>More inductive</i>
<i>Aims for clarity and unity</i>	<i>Preserve ambiguity and contradiction</i>

(Source: Adopted from Easterby-Smith et al., 2015, p. 191)

Qualitative data can be analysed in a variety of different ways. It can either be processed using a set of pre-designated items that is generally referred to as ‘content analysis’, or by allowing the entire research to be guided by the data, as per ‘grounded theory’. There is also another important type of analysis that is typically located between the two above-mentioned extremes, namely ‘template analysis’. Then, discourse analysis is a useful language-oriented approach that is usually applied in order to derive meaning from spoken or written discourse (Symon and Cassell, 2012). Curtis and Curtis (2011) emphasised that the discourse

analysis method shares many similarities with the conversation analysis and narrative analysis methods. All of the last three mentioned methods aim to establish an extensive account of the participant's experience and to analyse it in a narrative manner.

This research employed content analysis in order to interpret the qualitative data. Content analysis was defined by Easterby-Smith et al. (2015, p. 188) as an *“approach that aims at drawing systematic inferences from qualitative data that have been structured by a set of ideas or concepts”*. The following section will explain in detail the different stages that were applied in order to analyse the qualitative data utilising the content analysis procedure.

4.4.4.3 Content analysis

The process of content analysis involved a number of different stages. When the researcher reached a satisfactory level of saturation after conducting interviews with the ten student and seven teacher participants, the data analysis process commenced by following a number of structured steps.

The first stage involved transcribing the Skype-collected data from each interview into a separate file, in preparation for the analysis. The e-mailed interviews were already transcribed, and therefore no further work was required. According to the teacher participants' preferences, all the interviews were conducted in English except for two, who preferred for the interview to be conducted in Arabic. These two interviews were translated into English and then transcribed along with all of the other interviews. Subsequently, these transcripts were given anonymous symbols known only to the researcher.

The second stage involved a general reading through the entire transcripts iteratively before commencing the analysis process. At this stage, the researcher was attempting to acquire a general understanding of the ideas that the informants were trying to convey, as well as becoming more familiar with the text of the transcripts. Creswell (2013, p. 191) emphasised the significance of obtaining *“a general sense of the information and to reflect on its overall meaning”*. This stage also included making notes in the margins of the transcript so that the researcher's general thoughts were recorded.

In the third stage, the researcher began the detailed analysis utilising a manual coding process. Coding is the process of *“taking text data or pictures, segmenting sentences (or paragraph) or images into categories, and labelling those categories*

with a term, often a term based on the actual language of the participants" (Creswell, 2003, p. 192). This stage was helpful in organising the data into segments or chunks, so that a general sense of the whole body of material could be developed (Creswell and Creswell, 2017). Each transcript was read carefully, and codes were added at the end of every segment. Similar codes after that were gathered in separate columns and given a specific category.

At stage four, the researcher began seeking themes that had emerged from the coding process. The codes were grouped according to their similarity in the same column, whereas different codes were recorded on a separate sheet. This process enabled the researcher to refine, change and verify the themes before arriving at a final set of themes. Some themes were merged together into individual themes, whereas others were subdivided into sub-themes.

Finally, the last stage involved gaining a clear interpretation of the emergent themes, with Creswell (2013, p. 187) describing Interpretation as the process of *"abstracting out beyond the codes and themes to the larger meaning of the data"*. Chapter Five exemplifies how the data were interpreted.

4.5 Triangulation

Triangulation is defined as *"the use of two or more independent sources of data or data-collection methods within one study"* (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 683). It refers to the use of multiple methods of data collection to arrive at an enhanced understanding of a phenomenon, or to compare the findings arising from different sources (Houghton et al., 2013).

The argument concerning the main purposes of employing triangulation in research varies. Some researchers explained that triangulation is beneficial in facilitating an in-depth and broad understanding of the research phenomenon (Hussein, 2015), whereas others argued that triangulation is considered to be a validity measure that is usually utilised in order to increase the accuracy of research (Carter et al., 2014). Denzin, (1978, cited in Carter et al., 2014, p. 545) identified a number of different types of triangulation approaches: *"method triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation, and data source triangulation"*. Method triangulation involves the use of more than one data collection method to collect the data; investigator triangulation refers to the involvement of more than one researcher in the same research study in order to come up with the same or more than one observation and conclusion (Denzin, 1978); theory triangulation indicates employing different

types of theories and hypotheses in the analysis and interpretation of the research data, so that the results can either be supported or refuted; and data source triangulation refers to the collection of data from different types of participants in order to validate the data and gain multiple perspectives.

Since this study utilised two different data collection methods, namely, the questionnaire and interviews, it was decided that this research employ the method triangulation type.

4.6 Validity and reliability of the questionnaire and interviews

According to Bryman (2012, p. 47), validity is “*concerned with the integrity of the conclusions that are generated from a piece of research*”. It is the strategy that is applied to measure the accuracy of the data collection method used in a study, and whether the research findings have achieved what they had intended to (Saunders et al., 2012). In other words, and as described by Woodrow (2014, p. 26), validity “*refers to the overall quality of the project*”.

According to Bryman (2012, p. 46) reliability is “*concerned with the question of whether the results of a study are repeatable. The term is commonly used in relation to the question of whether the measures that are devised for concepts in the social sciences are consistent*”. Reliability is the extent to which the findings obtained from the data collection are consistent or not (Saunders et al., 2012). Saunders et al. (2009) pointed out a number of factors that the researcher should take into account while checking the reliability of the study data, including participant errors, participant bias and observer bias.

In this research, a number of factors have been taken into consideration to help in assessing the validity and reliability of the questionnaire used in this study. These are described as follows:

- Content validity was one of the main principles applied by the researcher while collecting the data for this research. The researcher asked a number of experts in the field to assess and evaluate the questions adopted for the questionnaire, so as to verify that they were robust and reflected the research question and objectives being investigated (Saunders et al., 2009). The researcher also considered all the amendments and adjustments recommended by her supervisors and the speaking skills teachers during the process of developing the questionnaire.

- Linguist validity was sought, whereby the research questions were checked and evaluated by a group of individuals specialised in linguistics, who assisted in assessing the semantics of the questions and ensuring that each would be clear and understandable to the respondents.
- A pilot study was undertaken to ensure that the questionnaire questions were measuring what they were intended to measure and that they were achieving validity, reliability and consistency in every item, before the main instrument was deployed for data collection.

Moreover, several aspects were considered to ensure the validity of the qualitative data. Some of these were determined by Cohen et al. (2011) such as the notion that the researcher, who is part of the research world, is a key component of the entire research, and not merely a tool as determined in other types of research. The focus of the researcher while collecting the data was placed on the process rather than the outcomes, and on the meaning and intentions of the respondents, with Gray (2014) emphasising that the validity of qualitative data can be achieved when the researcher avoids imposing any effect or influence on the participants' answers.

4.7 Ethics

Saunders et al. (2009) defined research ethics as the appropriateness of the procedures implemented in the study, as well as the participants' rights with regards to formulating the research question(s), obtaining access, and collecting, analysing and storing the data.

Many ethical aspects were considered before collecting the data for both the pilot and the main study. An important milestone was gaining ethical approval for the study from the ethics committee at Liverpool John Moores University before starting the data collection process, since gaining this approval was paramount to increasing the credibility and the reliability of the research, as well as enhancing the level of trust between the researcher and the respondents (Saunders et al., 2009).

A signed consent form was obtained from every participant before commencing the collection of data, with this form ensuring the voluntary participation and anonymity, as well as confirming that the information provided would be treated in the strictest

confidence. The researcher ensured that the participants would not be embarrassed, discomforted or harmed in any way (Gray, 2014). In addition, the researcher informed the participants about the nature of the study, and they were given the right to withdraw their consent at any time without needing to offer the reason, regardless of whether they had signed the form.

4.8 Summary of the chapter

This chapter discussed the methodology and the method, as well as the data collection instruments developed to gather data in order to respond to the research question that underpins this study. It also included clear justifications for the selection of the methods, philosophy and design of the research.

The chapter was classified into four main parts. The first reiterated the research question and objectives adopted for this study, whereas the second part included the rationale for the methodology with a detailed description of the philosophy, research approach and design adopted for this study. The next part discussed the methods and instruments used, with clear justification for using the mixed methods approach for the data collection. Subsequently, the final section presented the statistical tests and analyses, which were applied to the data collected for this research. In the next chapter, the data analysis is presented.

Chapter Five: Data Analysis

5 Chapter Five: Data Analysis

5.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to present the results obtained from the quantitative and qualitative data analysed for this study. The main purposes of the data analysis process are to identify the trends that emerge and to describe the realities of how the students and teachers perceive that speaking is being taught at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University. It also highlights the relationships among the employed variables, which in turn facilitates the researcher in terms of answering the research question of this study.

This chapter is divided into three main parts. The first illustrates the results of the analysis of the questionnaire data, in order to identify the students' perceptions regarding the teaching of English speaking skills. Meanwhile, the second part presents the main themes and results emerging from the analysis of the semi-structured interviews with the students and lecturers who participated in this study, before the final part presents a triangulation of the quantitative and qualitative findings obtained for this case study research.

5.2 The analysis of the quantitative data

In this study, a questionnaire was employed as an instrument for collecting quantitative data. This questionnaire was distributed to students attending English speaking classes, so as to elicit their perceptions in terms of how English speaking skills are being taught in their classrooms.

The questionnaire consisted of 52 closed-ended questions, where a five-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' was adopted. Parallel within the five-point scale, the researcher adopted the unforced scale through including a 'do not know' option that served to enhance the accuracy of the findings by not compelling the respondents to respond to a question if they were confused, uncertain or did not know the answer. This category was treated as a missing answer when analysing the data.

As shown in Table 5.1, the number of questionnaires administrated to the first, second, third and fourth year students at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University was three hundred and fifty in total, while the total number of validated questionnaires returned was three hundred and six, with forty-four incomplete questionnaires.

Therefore, the minimum threshold of 300 completed questions as calculated through the Yamane formula in section 4.4.2 was reached.

Table 5.1: Response rate

Number of Questionnaires Administrated	Validated Questionnaires	Incomplete Questionnaires
350	306	44

5.3 The demographic data analysis

The first part of the questionnaire concentrated on the participants' demographic data, which included their gender and university year, as well as background information about their level of proficiency in the English language in general, and of their speaking skills specifically. The following sections presents charts illustrating the participant students' demographic data.

5.4 Participants' gender

As indicated in Table 5.1, the total number of validated questionnaires was three hundred and six instruments. These were comprised of two hundred and twenty eight female participants (74.5%), and seventy-eight male participants (25.5%). This result highlights that the majority of the respondents of this data collection phase were female, and therefore indicates that the data are representative due to both gender percentages in the actual population as the female students occupy approximately 75% of the entire student population in the university.

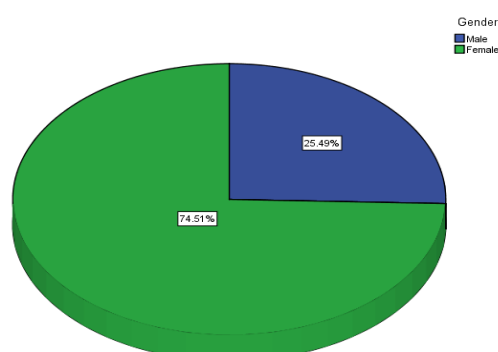


Figure 5.1: Participants' gender

5.5 Participants' level of study

Figure 5.2 illustrates the students' level of study at the university, indicating in percentage values the level of students who participated in this study from each year. Among the three hundred and six students, there were forty-nine students (16%) participating from year one, sixty-two (20.2%) from the second year, eighty-two (26.8%) from year three, and the greatest number of participants were from year four, comprising one hundred and thirteen (36.9%) students. This high participation rate of final year students might be justified based on the fact they were close to graduation and thus more interested in taking a part in a study exploring their speaking skills compared to the other lower years. Moreover, the majority of the speaking classes at the university are designed by the syllabi for third and fourth year students.

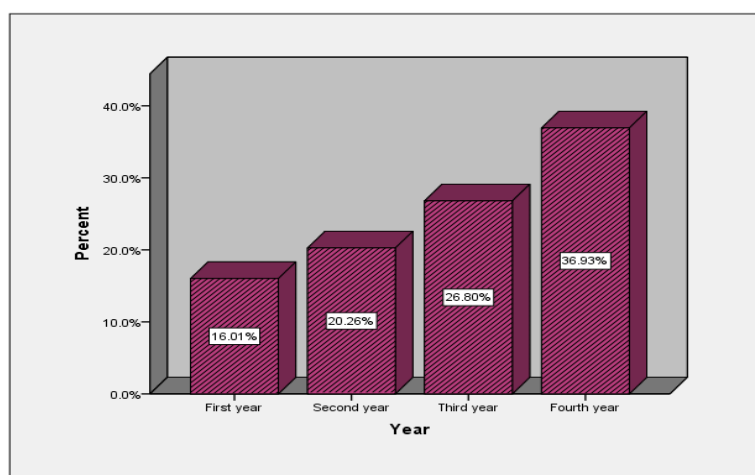


Figure 5.2: Participants' level of study (students' percentage annually)

Table 5.2 participants' level of study (students' percentage in every year)

		Year			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	First year	49	16.0	16.0	16.0
	Second year	62	20.3	20.3	36.3
	Third year	82	26.8	26.8	63.1
	Fourth year	113	36.9	36.9	100.0
	Total	306	100.0	100.0	

Figure 5.3 breaks down the percentage of gender in every year who took part in this study. The approximate average of male participants that participated from the university was 20–30%, whereas the overall female percentage that took part was in the 70–80% range. The largest percentage of the population were female, which therefore indicates that the data are representative for the following reasons: first, the majority of population in the whole university are female; and second, as shown in Figure 5.3 below, the results are similar between male and female over the four years, with no years presenting with a male participation rate higher than the female, which accordingly is representative of the status of the population.

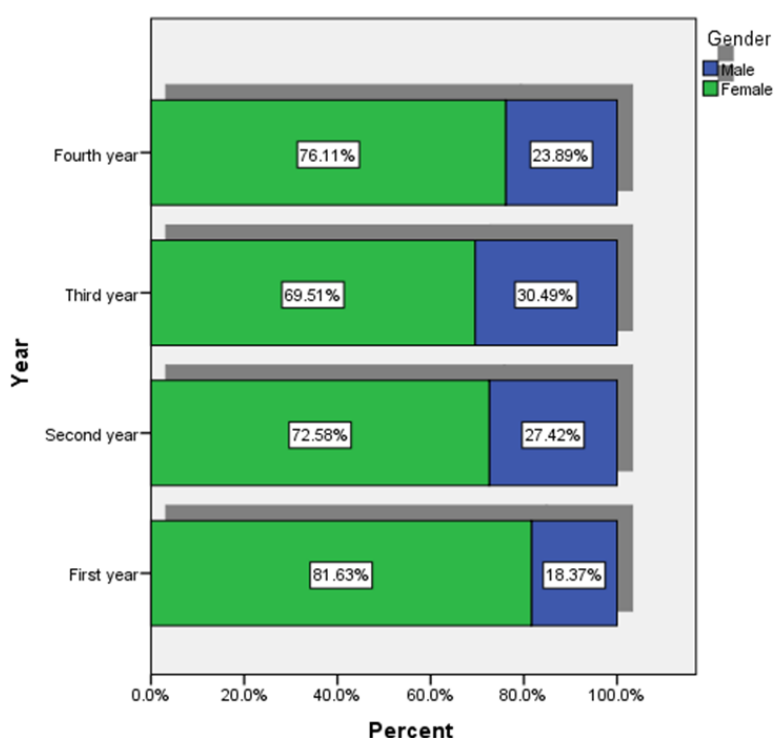


Figure 5.3: Participants' level of study (gender percentage annually)

5.6 Participants' background knowledge of learning English

Figure 5.4 demonstrates in percentage terms the students' background experience of learning English through indicating when the students first began to study English. The highest percentage in the sample was 58.8% of the participants who commenced learning English in their primary school years. The second highest percentage of 17.7% was for those students who started learning English when

they were in secondary school. The next band was 10.8% for those students who first began to learn English when they were in kindergarten. The fourth highest percentage of 9.5% was for students who started learning English in the intermediate level, while only 3.3% from the sampled population commenced learning English when they entered the university. This result reveals that the majority of the respondents had been learning English for a considerable proportion of their lives, and therefore their responses and evaluations could be said to be more reliable nuanced.

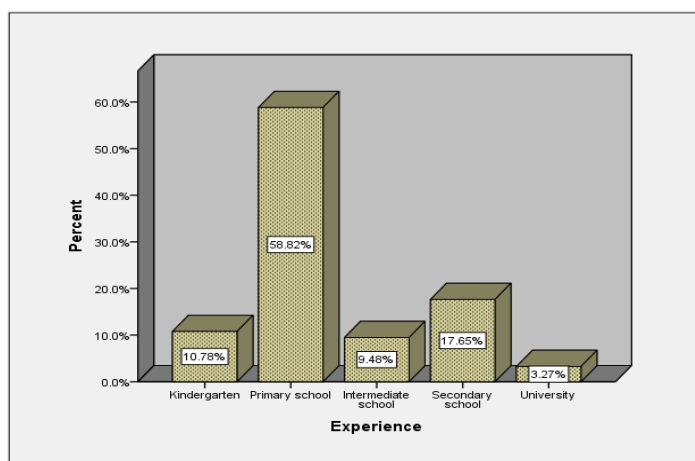


Figure 5.4: Participants' background knowledge of learning English

Figure 5.5 below indicates the different levels of background knowledge of learning for the English students among the whole sample, broken down into the participants' current year of university study. The highest percentage within the respondents was for the fourth year students, who first started learning English in their primary school (23.2%), while the lowest percentages (0.7–1%) were those students who started learning English when they began their university study.

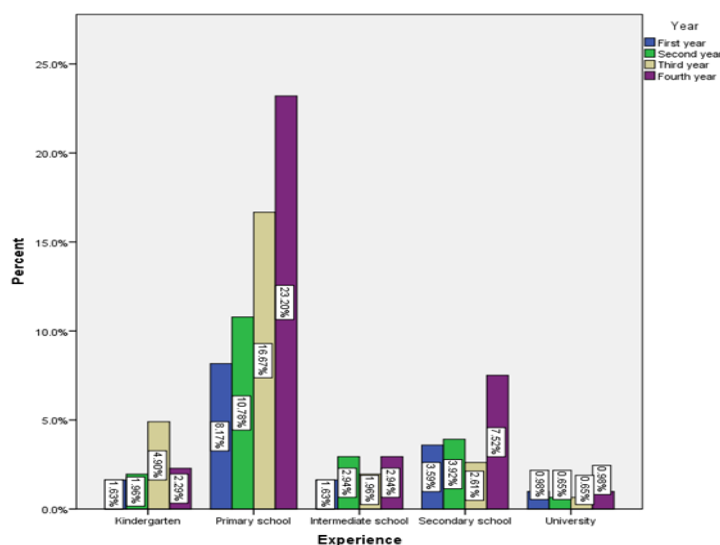


Figure 5.5 Participants' background knowledge of learning English

5.7 Cronbach's alpha

The questionnaire was distributed to three hundred and six first, second, third and fourth year students. The SPSS reliability test indicated that the overall Cronbach's alpha score was found to be .848, which indicates that the overall reliability was higher than 0.70, and therefore the results are reliable and the data scales are consistent, as shown in Table 5.3 below. In addition, it can therefore be assumed that the researcher can conduct the subsequent parametric tests as required.

Table 5.3 The reliability statistics

Cronbach's alpha	N of items
.848	52

5.8 Factor analysis

Principle component analysis was conducted using Varimax rotation options as it is the most common used rotation options, in order to validate the questionnaire and divided questions into several variables that is more easy to be analysed and digested.

As shown in Table 5.3 The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (that test the accuracy of the sample for PCA) compute is .871 that is grand. Bartlett's test for sphericity χ^2 (990) = 17648.583, $p < .000$, indicated the data is adequate for conducting PCA and that associations among variables were adequately great for PCA, as shown also in the correlation matrix in Appendix 5 (Field, 2009).

Table 5.4 KMO and Bartlett's test

Kaiser_Meyer_Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.871
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	17648.583
	Df	990
	Sig.	.000

Moreover, the suitability of data for PAC was exactly constant as the average communality exceed .7 for the 51 items as shown in Table 5.4, which is more than

the acceptable level particularly with this big sample. Regarding eigenvalues value, the total variances explained 84.492 that represent nine factors that their eigenvalues higher than the excluded factors as shown in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Communalities test

Communalities		
	Initial	Extraction
1. There are sufficient conversation classes on my English course.	1.000	.866
2. My anxiety level when speaking in English is high.	1.000	.847
3. My speaking classes are usually teacher-centred.	1.000	.887
4. There are sufficient activities which encourage me to practise my speaking skills.	1.000	.855
5. The relationship between teachers and students creates a positive learning environment.	1.000	.750
6. The class size gives me enough opportunities to speak English.	1.000	.823
7. Teachers encourage students to practise their speaking skills outside the class.	1.000	.933
8. In the class, teachers use real-life tasks (i.e., finding a building on a map, reserving a room in a hotel, making stories based on pictures) to teach speaking.	1.000	.839
9. Shyness prevents me from communicating in English in large groups.	1.000	.753
10. Classroom desks and chairs are arranged in a way that permits students to work in pairs or in small groups.	1.000	.877
11. The course modules used discourage me from using spoken English most of the time.	1.000	.912
12. The contact hours (teaching time) are sufficient for me to improve my speaking skills.	1.000	.748
13. There are a variety of English language activities in my English speaking classes.	1.000	.602
14. I often interact with the teacher in class.	1.000	.934
15. I am engaged in the class.	1.000	.933
16. Students provide their opinions to questions from the teacher during the class.	1.000	.919
18. Students can assess their understanding in the course with respect to other students during the conversation class.	1.000	.956
19. Content	1.000	.901
20. Communicating ideas confidently	1.000	.849
21. Pronunciation	1.000	.724
22. Grammar	1.000	.638
23. Use of vocabulary	1.000	.741

25. Group discussion	1.000	.864
28. Listening to tapes/CDs	1.000	.792
29. Mock interviews	1.000	.746
30. Role-play	1.000	.795
32. Watching videos	1.000	.729
33. Using visual aids	1.000	.813
34. Memorising conversations/dialogues	1.000	.768
35. Language games	1.000	.813
36. The teacher frequently corrects my grammar.	1.000	.865
37. The teacher frequently assigns work activities to groups.	1.000	.874
38. The teacher allows us to suggest what the content of the lesson should be or what activities are useful for us.	1.000	.896
39. The teacher helps us how to learn independently.	1.000	.809
40. The teacher's feedback focuses on the appropriateness and not the linguistic form of our responses.	1.000	.945
41. The teacher organises group work that allows us to explore problems for ourselves.	1.000	.892
42. The teacher corrects all the grammatical errors students make.	1.000	.909
43. The teacher cannot create a communicative environment in the classroom because of the large number of students.	1.000	.769
44. The teacher focuses most on improving our knowledge of the rules of English language.	1.000	.928
45. Group work activities are a waste of time.	1.000	.964
47. The teacher focuses on fluency more than the accuracy of spoken language.	1.000	.927
48. By mastering grammatical rules, I will become fully capable of communicating in English.	1.000	.964
49. The teacher tries to adapt tasks to suit us.	1.000	.859
50. I do my best when taught as a whole class.	1.000	.904
51. The teacher does not prevent us from using our mother tongue.	1.000	.908
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.		

Table 5.6 Total variance explained

Component (Factor)	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.819	21.820	21.820	9.819	21.820	21.820	7.907	17.570	17.570
2	7.157	15.904	37.724	7.157	15.904	37.724	6.223	13.829	31.400
3	6.311	14.025	51.749	6.311	14.025	51.749	5.987	13.304	44.704
4	4.757	10.571	62.319	4.757	10.571	62.319	3.959	8.798	53.501
5	2.915	6.479	68.798	2.915	6.479	68.798	3.620	8.044	61.546
6	2.385	5.300	74.099	2.385	5.300	74.099	3.525	7.833	69.378
7	1.795	3.989	78.087	1.795	3.989	78.087	2.872	6.381	75.760
8	1.712	3.805	81.892	1.712	3.805	81.892	2.005	4.456	80.216
9	1.170	2.600	84.492	1.170	2.600	84.492	1.924	4.276	84.492
10	.705	1.567	86.059						
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.									

The retained factors are also justified based on the scree plot below in figure 5.6 that are spreaded vertically above the elbow of the line chart depicted below. The result of this plot is consistent with Kaiser result based on rotated matrix.

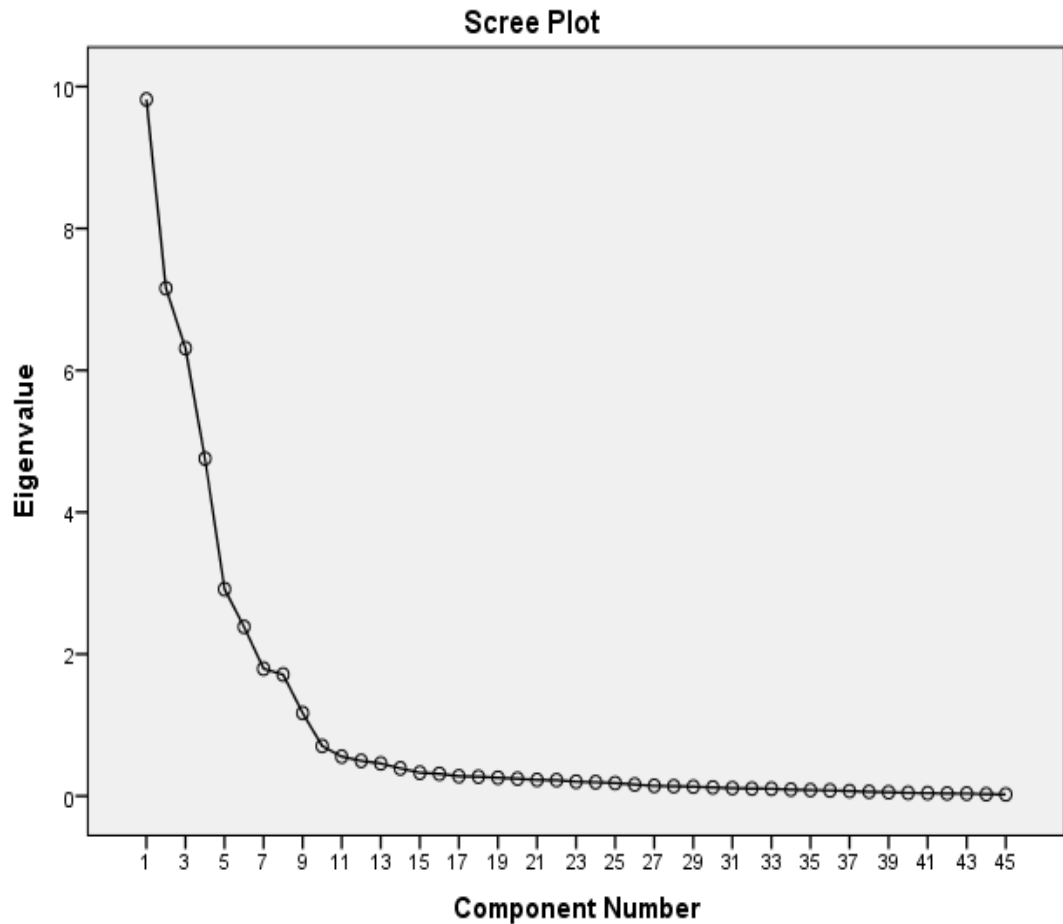


Figure 5.6 Scree plot

The rotated matrix relied mainly on loading of factors that was specified to be above .6 due to the number of participants in the sample of study. Moreover, the surplus point of loading factors was selected on conservative way to be as high as possible to present accurate results based on the sample size of this study. It is obvious that nine factors were loaded as illustrated in Table 5.6. Furthermore, alpha score for testing reliability was obtained for each factor separately as shown at the end of Table 5.6. Cronbach alpha shown that all factors was internally consistent and reliable especially that alpha exceed .9 for all factors that is deemed higher than the acceptable level which is .7. The classifications and explanations of all factors are presented below in the form of construct for each factor.

Table 5.7 Rotated component matrix^a

	Component								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Q.11	.937								
Q.4	.902								
Q.6	.899								
Q.10	.890								
Q.2	.859								
Q.1	.846								
Q.12	.839								
Q.9	.804								
Q.5	.799								
Q.13	.762								
Q.25		.924							
Q.35		.898							
Q.33		.898							
Q.30		.881							
Q.28		.875							
Q.29		.855							
Q.32		.850							
Q.34		.776							
Q.44			.959						
Q.42			.943						
Q.51			.943						
Q.3			.937						
Q.36			.918						
Q.39			.877						
Q.43			.857						
Q.19				.858					
Q.20				.847					
Q.23				.801					

Q.21				.786					
Q.22				.709					
Q.37					.900				
Q.41					.892				
Q.8					.885				
Q.49					.880				
Q.38						.908			
Q.18						.898			
Q.16						.885			
Q.7						.804			
Q.48							.975		
Q.45							.975		
Q.50							.943		
Q.15								.951	
Q.14								.947	
Q.47									.868
Q.40									.855
Alpha Score	.967	.954	.969	.921	.937	.957	.967	.944	.953
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.									
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.									
The results of Cronbach's alpha are reported in the last row for each resultant factor.									

5.8.1 Construct one: class environment

As illustrated in Table 5.7, the first factor of the questionnaire consists of ten statements, all of which provide the students' perceptions about the main issues that influence the effective adoption of the CLT approach in the conversation classroom.

Table 5.7 Factor one: obstacles that impede the adoption of CLT

Number	Question	Mean score
1	There are sufficient conversation classes on my English course.	2.68
2	My anxiety level when speaking in English is high.	2.54
4	There are sufficient activities which encourage me to practise my speaking skills.	2.83
5	The relationship between teachers and students creates a positive learning environment.	2.64
6	The class size gives me enough opportunities to speak English.	2.79
9	Shyness prevents me from communicating in English in large groups.	2.51
10	Classroom desks and chairs are arranged in a way that permits students to work in pairs or in small groups.	2.72
11	The course modules used discourage me from using spoken English most of the time.	2.76
12	The contact hours (teaching time) are sufficient for me to improve my speaking skills	2.97
13	There are a variety of English language activities in my English speaking classes.	2.84
Total	Factor one: obstacles that impede the adoption of CLT	2.7268

According to the students' responses, the overall mean score of the whole factor is found to be 2.7268, which is below the average of 3.00. This indicates that there is general agreement among the student participants that they do have a number of obstacles that hinder their practice of the CLT approach, given that some of the questions were reverse coded. By reviewing the items, it is revealed that the majority share similar scores, except statement 12 that points towards an average level of satisfaction regarding the contact hours specified for the teaching of speaking skills. Moreover, statements 2 and 9 highlighted that the students' psychological status (shyness and anxiety) when they practise speaking skills may hinder their effective adoption of the CLT approach to a greater extent than the rest of the items.

5.8.2 Construct two: CLT techniques

Table 5.8 Factor two: CLT techniques

Number	Question	Mean score
25	Group discussion	1.69
28	Listening to tapes/CDs	1.75
29	Mock interviews	1.76
30	Role-play	1.76
32	Watching videos	1.76
33	Using visual aids	1.74
34	Memorising conversations/dialogues	1.95
35	Language games	1.74
Total	Factor two: CLT techniques	1.76

In Table 5.8, all the statements produced a similar score regarding the most frequently employed teaching technique in the conversation classrooms, with all techniques reporting nearly the same level of adoption of 1.76. This mean score indicates a low level of adopting CLT techniques, except for statement 34 (employing conversations/dialogues to teach speaking skills), which presented as the highest adopted technique amongst the others with a mean score of 1.95, despite this being significantly below the average level of adoption.

5.8.3 Construct three: the traditional approach

Table 5.9 Factor three: the traditional approach

Number	Question	Mean score
3	My speaking classes are usually teacher-centred.	3.62
36	The teacher frequently corrects my grammar.	3.95
39	The teacher helps us how to learn independently.	3.26
43	The teacher cannot create a communicative environment in the classroom because of the large number of students.	4.01

42	The teacher corrects all the grammatical errors students make.	3.93
44	The teacher focuses most on improving our knowledge of the rules of the English language.	3.81
51	The teacher does not prevent us from using our mother tongue.	3.83
Total	Factor three: the traditional approach	3.7750

Construct three as specified in Table 5.9 shows the students' perceptions about the traditional approach concepts pertaining to the teaching of speaking skills by employing the traditional approach. The overall mean score for this whole factor was 3.7750. with the students' perceptions indicating that there was a high level of traditional approaches being applied in the classroom, but broadly speaking the highest-level scores among all the statements were for items 36 and 42, which inquired about the teacher's frequently of grammar correction.

5.8.4 Construct four: teachers' feedback

Table 5.10 Factor four: teachers' feedback

Number	Question	Mean score
19	Content	2.36
20	Communicating ideas confidently	2.4
21	Pronunciation	2.54
22	Grammar	3.53
23	Use of vocabulary	2.48
Total	Factor four: teacher's feedback	2.6595

The overall mean score of construct four that explored teachers' feedback was 2.6595 (Table 5.10), which indicates that the students' responses showed disagreement in terms of the teachers' feedback in items 19–23. The mean scores for all items are similar, except for item 22 with a mean score of 3.53, which reveals that the students' expressed a high level of agreement about the grammar item. This indicates that the majority of the teachers' feedback concentrates on grammatical structures.

5.8.5 Construct seven: students' perceptions towards the traditional approach

Table 5.11 Factor seven: students' perceptions towards the traditional approach

Number	Question	Mean score
45	Group work activities are a waste of time.	2.47
48	By mastering grammatical rules, I will become fully capable of communicating in English.	2.45
50	I do my best when taught as a whole class.	3.03
Total	Factor seven: Students' perceptions towards the traditional approach	2.6525

The results in Table 5.11 indicate that the students reported a low level of agreement regarding their preference for utilising traditional approaches for the teaching of speaking skills. The majority of the responses agreed that working in groups without excessive focus on grammar accuracy is more important for enhancing speaking skills as this approach is more closely related to communication skills compared to the rest of the items that merely focused on the traditional approach.

5.8.6 Construct eight: students' interaction in the classroom

Table 5.12 Factor eight: students' interaction in the classroom

Number	Question	Mean score
14	I often interact with the teacher in class.	2.20
15	I am engaged in the class.	2.35
Total	Factor eight: Student interaction (attention) in the classroom	2.2729

As illustrated in Table 5.12, the students expressed a low level of interaction with the teacher in the speaking class, with all of the responses indicating that students' have limited opportunities of interaction in this class. The overall mean score for

this construct is 2.2729.

5.8.7 Construct five: CLT (tasks and activities assigned by the teacher)

Table 5.13 Factor five: CLT (tasks and activities assigned by teacher)

Number	Question	Mean score
8	In the class, teachers use real-life tasks (i.e., finding a building on a map, reserving a room in a hotel, making stories based on pictures) to teach speaking.	1.48
37	The teacher frequently assigns work activities to groups.	1.82
41	The teacher organises group work that allows us to explore problems for ourselves.	1.55
49	The teacher tries to adapt tasks to suit us.	2.08
Total	Factor five: CLT (tasks and activities assigned by teacher)	1.7328

As is apparent from Table 5.13, the overall mean score of the factor that investigated CLT tasks and activities is significantly low at 1.7328. Most of the students reported a low level of using real-life tasks or group work activities in their teachers' practice in the classroom.

5.8.8 Construct six: CLT (what the student can do according to the approach)

Table 5.14 Factor six: CLT (what the student can do according to the approach)

Number	Question	Mean score
7	Teachers encourage students to practise their speaking skills outside the class.	2.95
16	Students provide their opinions to questions from the teacher during the class.	2.72
18	Students can assess their understanding in the course with respect to other students during the conversation class.	2.68
38	The teacher allows us to suggest what the content of the lesson should be or what activities are useful for us.	2.84
Total	Factor six: CLT (what the student can do according to the approach)	2.7958

As clearly presented in Table 5.14 above, the students reported nearly the same level of agreement about the statements that examined their attitude towards their level of willingness to apply CLT strategies in the classroom, with the majority of the responses expressing a readiness to practise different types of activities related to the CLT approach.

5.8.9 Construct nine: CLT (teacher's focus)

Table 5.15 Factor nine: CLT (teacher's focus)

Number	Question	Mean score
40	The teacher's feedback focuses on the appropriateness and not the linguistic form of our responses.	2.66
47	The teacher focuses on fluency more than the accuracy of spoken language.	2.49
Total	Factor nine: CLT (teacher's focus)	2.5768

With reference to the results shown in Table 5.15, the overall mean score of the entire construct is 2.5768, which reveals the students reporting that their teachers focused less on oral practice. The mean score for the statement investigating whether the teacher's primary focus was on appropriateness as opposed to linguistic forms is 2.16, whereas the mean score for the teacher focusing on fluency to a greater extent than accuracy in students' speaking practice is 2.49.

5.9 Independent t-test

Table 5.16 Independent-samples' t-test: gender

Factor		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		Independent t-test					
				Mean score		t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
		F	Sig.	Male	Female				
Class environment (obstacles)	Equal variances assumed	.395	.530	2.7564	2.7167	.402	304	.688	.03974

CLT techniques	Equal variances assumed	.035	.852	1.7885	1.7610	.349	304	.727	.02750
Level of adopting traditional approach	Equal variances assumed	.817	.367	3.7051	3.7989	-.745	304	.457	-.09374
Feedback	Equal variances assumed	.001	.979	2.5846	2.6851	-.834	304	.405	-.10047
CLT (tasks assigned by teacher)	Equal variances assumed	.445	.505	1.7436	1.7292	.150	304	.881	.01442
CLT (what the student can do according to CLT)	Equal variances assumed	.262	.609	2.8109	2.7906	.160	304	.873	.02033
Students' perceptions towards traditional approaches	Equal variances assumed	.086	.770	2.7350	2.6243	.835	304	.405	.11077
Interaction in the classroom	Equal variances assumed	1.283	.258	2.3590	2.2434	1.074	304	.284	.11555
CLT (teacher focus)	Equal variances assumed	.016	.900	2.6731	2.5439	.959	304	.338	.12922

The results of the t-test in Table 5.16 indicate that the two groups (male/female) reported similar points of views in their responses, with all the factors tested. The majority of the participants' answers regarding the Levene's test were above 5%, which accordingly indicates that the data is homogeneous to perform the t-test.

5.10 One-way Anova

Table 5.17 Test of homogeneity of variances

Test of Homogeneity of Variances				
	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Obst	4.995	3	302	.002
Tech	1.040	3	302	.375
Trid	1.885	3	302	.132

Feed	5.092	3	302	.002
CLTT	2.062	3	302	.105
CLTS	.880	3	302	.452
SP	1.919	3	302	.127
SI	.280	3	302	.840
CLTF	.380	3	302	.768

As shown in Table 5.17, the students' responses for all factors are statistically insignificant, except for two factors where the results of the Levene's test show that the significance is more than .05 for all factors except the first and fourth factors. This indicates that the homogeneity of variances' assumptions has been met, which indicates that the data are more robust for parametric testing through Anova based on the year level category.

5.10.1 One-way Anova (year level)

Table 5.18 One-way Anova (year level)

Factor	Mean		Rank within factor	Rank among factors	DF	F	Sig.
	Group	Mean					
Class environment (obstacles)	First year	1.9122	4	3	302	58.277	.000
	Second year	2.4839	3				
	Third year	2.7195	2				
	Fourth year	3.2186	1				
	Total	2.7268					
CLT techniques	First year	1.6709	3	8	302	6.230	.000
	Second year	1.9456	1				
	Third year	1.8994	2				
	Fourth year	1.6173	4				
	Total	1.7680					

Level of adopting the traditional approach	First year	3.6822	4	1	3	302	.396	.756
	Second year	3.8180	2					
	Third year	3.8467	1					
	Fourth year	3.7396	3					
	Total	3.7750						
Feedback	First year	4.0122	1	4	3	302	236.254	.000
	Second year	3.3000	2					
	Third year	2.3463	3					
	Fourth year	1.9487	4					
	Total	2.6595						
CLT (tasks assigned by teacher)	First year	1.6531	2	9	3	302	2.459	.063
	Second year	1.6371	4					
	Third year	1.6494	3					
	Fourth year	1.8805	4					
	Total	1.7328						
CLT (what the student can do according to CLT)	First year	2.7500	3	2	3	302	2.343	.073
	Second year	2.7742	2					
	Third year	2.6037	4					
	Fourth year	2.9668	1					
	Total	2.7958						
Student's perception towards traditional approaches	First year	2.6463	3	5	3	302	3.732	.012
	Second year	2.8226	2					
	Third year	2.8496	1					
	Fourth year	2.4189	4					

	Total	2.6525					
Interaction in the classroom	First year	2.2143	3	7	3	11.944	.000
	Second year	1.7742	4				
	Third year	2.3963	2				
	Fourth year	2.4823	1				
	Total	2.2729					
CLT (teacher focus)	First year	2.2347	4	6	3	2.460	.063
	Second year	2.7419	1				
	Third year	2.5976	3				
	Fourth year	2.6195	2				
	Total	2.5768					

Table 5.18 illustrates the perceptions of the respondents based on their year of academic study, and listed based on the rank of the factor, whereby the highest level of perception gave the factors a higher ranking than the factors that show a low level of perception.

The factor that obtained the first rank regarding the respondents' perceptions was the level of adoption of the traditional approach, with an overall mean score of 3.775. The results of the Anova indicated that the respondents' perceptions based on the academic year were not different from each other (3,302; $F_{.396}.ns$).

Although the results show that there were no differences in the four categories (i.e. the first, second, third and fourth years), the third year occupies the first rank among the other categories, while the first year is positioned bottom compared to the others.

The second rank is occupied by the factor that measures what students can do according to CLT, with the overall mean score for this factor being 2.7958. The results of this factor indicate that the students' responses are not significantly different based on their year level (3,302; $F_{.2.343}.ns$). Since these results are not significant, the post-hoc analysis through LCD is not required.

The third factor shows a significant difference between the students' responses among the year groups regarding the classroom environment. The mean score for this factor is 2.7268, with the Anova results yielding the responses with regards to the year level amongst all groups (3,302; $F.6.230, <.01$). The post-hoc test reveal that no results are similar among all factors, except for the results obtained from the second year and the third year, which do not differ significantly.

The fourth highest rank among the factors were the statements that inquired about the teachers' feedback, with the Anova results showing that the students do not agree about the statements for this factor, and their answers are significant (3,302; $F.236.254, <.01$). The results of the post-hoc test reveal that the response rate across the whole sample differs. The overall mean score for the whole factor is 2.6595; however, the mean score of the fourth year is significantly high at 4.0122 when compared to the other years, such as the second year (3.3000), the third year (2.3463) and the first year (1.9487), which is the lowest among the respondents sampled.

The factor used to inquire about the students' perceptions towards the use of the traditional approach represents the fifth highest rank among all factors. The mean score for this factor is 2.6525, and the students' level of responses on these statements is significant (3,302; $F.3.732, <.01$), which accordingly required a post-hoc test to identify the place that leads to the differences among the groups. The results of this test indicate that all years were different in their answers amongst the four categories.

The statements that inquired about the teachers' focus on the CLT approach ranked sixth highest. The mean score for this factor was found to be 2.5768, while the Anova results show that the students' perceptions based on year level do not differ (3,302; $F.2.460.ns$).

The students' responses were similar among the four years; however, it appears that the second year represents the highest rank among all groups, whereas the responses obtained from the first year respondents are considered the lowest.

The seventh highest rank was recorded for the factor that inquires about the level of interaction in the classroom. The mean score is 2.2729, whereas the Anova test findings indicate that the respondents' perceptions are significant and different from

each other (3,302; F.11.944, <.01). The results emerging from the post-hoc test show that most years were different in their answers.

The 'CLT techniques' factor ranked eighth highest with an overall mean score of 1.7680, whereas the Anova test results indicate that the responses are not similar (3,302; F.6.230, <.01). After conducting the post-hoc test, the results show that the majority of the respondents differed from each other depending on their year of study.

The least highest rank was occupied by the factor that explored the CLT tasks assigned by the teachers in the classroom. The mean score was found to be 1.7328, and the students' results indicate that their answers are not significant or similar (3,302; F.2.459.*ns*).

Although not all these results differed from each other amongst the four categories, the fourth year was positioned at the first rank, while the second year was located bottom compared to the other years.

Table 5.19 Test of homogeneity of variances (experiences)

	Levene's Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Obst	.956	4	301	.432
Tech	2.778	4	301	.027
Trid	1.216	4	301	.304
Feed	3.738	4	301	.006
CLT T	.476	4	301	.753
CLT S	1.318	4	301	.263
SP	.333	4	301	.855
SI	2.786	4	301	.027
CLT F	.938	4	301	.442

Table 5.19 reveals that the students' level of responses on the second, fourth and eighth factors are statistically significant. Given that, the results of the Levene's test show that the significance is more than .05 for all factors except the second, fourth and eighth. This indicates that the homogeneity of variances' assumptions has

been met, which makes the data more robust for parametric testing through Anova based on the students' level of experience in the learning English category.

5.10.2 One-way Anova (students' level of experience in learning speaking skills)

Table 5.20 One-way Anova (students' level of experience in learning speaking skills)

Factor	Mean		Rank within factor	Rank among factors	DF	F	Sig.
	Group	Mean					
Class environment (obstacles)	Kindergarten	2.6697	3	3	4	1.483	.207
	Primary school	2.7611	2		301		
	Intermediate school	2.9034	1				
	Secondary school	2.6259	4				
	University	2.3300	5				
	Total	2.7268					
CLT techniques	Kindergarten	1.8182	1	8	4	.254	.907
	Primary school	1.7785	3		301		
	Intermediate school	1.7845	2				
	Secondary school	1.7014	5				
	University	1.7250	4				
	Total	1.7680					
Level of adopting traditional approach	Kindergarten	3.8442	1	1	4	.477	.753
	Primary school	3.7952	2		301		
	Intermediate school	3.6552	4				

	Secondary school	3.7910	3				
	University	3.4429	5				
	Total	3.7750					
Feedback	Kindergarten	2.6182	4	4	4 301	.942	.440
	Primary school	2.6044	5				
	Intermediate school	2.9310	1				
	Secondary school	2.6852	3				
	University	2.8600	2				
	Total	2.6595					
CLT (tasks assigned by teacher)	Kindergarten	1.5227	5	9	4 301	1.627	.167
	Primary school	1.7194	3				
	Intermediate school	1.7328	2				
	Secondary school	1.9213	1				
	University	1.6500	4				
	Total	1.7328					
CLT (what the student can do according to CLT)	Kindergarten	2.7197	5	2	4 301	.745	.562
	Primary school	2.7403	4				
	Intermediate school	2.8793	3				
	Secondary school	2.9259	2				
	University	3.1000	1				
	Total	2.7958					
	Kindergarten	2.8283	3	5	4	1.733	.143

Student's perceptions towards the traditional approach	Primary school	2.5833	4		301		
	Intermediate school	2.8851	2				
	Secondary school	2.5494	5				
	University	3.2000	1				
	Total	2.6525					
Interaction in the classroom	Kindergarten	2.5152	1	7	4 301	1.817	.125
	Primary school	2.2250	4				
	Intermediate school	2.4655	2				
	Secondary school	2.2500	3				
	University	1.9000	5				
	Total	2.2729					
CLT (teacher focus)	Kindergarten	2.2576	5	6	4 301	2.484	.044
	Primary school	2.5083	4				
	Intermediate school	2.7931	2				
	Secondary school	2.8704	1				
	University	2.6500	3				
	Total	2.5768					

Table 5.20 presents the perceptions of the respondents based on their level of experience in learning English. This illustration is listed based on the rank of the factor, where the highest level of perception gave the factors a higher rank than the factors that show a low level of perception.

The first highest factor among all factors was the inquiry about the level of adoption of the traditional approach, with an overall mean score of 3.7750. The Anova test results indicate that the students' response rate based on their level of experience are not significant from one another (4,301; $F.477.ns$); however, those students who began learning the English language from the kindergarten level have the highest rank of response rate compared to those students who started learning English at the university level, who received the lowest rank.

The second highest rank according to the students' level of experience in learning English was associated with the factor that explored what students can do according to CLT. The mean score of this factor is 2.7958, while the Anova test resulted in significant similarity among the students' level of response (4,301; $F.745.ns$).

Despite the fact that the students' responses are not significant, those participants who started learning English at the university level came first in the rank, whereas those students who began learning English at kindergarten were positioned at the lowest rank.

The factor that obtained the third rank was the class environment obstacles' factor, with an overall mean score of 2.7268, while the Anova test results indicate that the respondents' answers do not differ from each other (4,301; $F.1.483.ns$).

Despite the results showing that there were no differences among the five categories, the intermediate level occupied the first position, while the university level was ranked bottom compared to the others.

The factor that obtained the fourth rank among the factors was the teachers' level of providing feedback to students' participation, where the total mean score for this factor is 2.6595 and the Anova test results show that the students' answers based on their level of experience are not significant from one another (4,301; $F.942.ns$). Those students who started learning English at the intermediate level obtained the highest rank of response rate, while the lowest rank was recorded for those students who started learning English at the primary school level.

The 'students' perceptions towards the traditional approach' factor was ranked fifth among the nine factors. The mean score is 2.6525, and after performing the Anova test, the results reveal that all of the students' responses are similar across the five categories. Although all students' answers were similar to one another according

to their level of experience of learning English, the highest rank was positioned for those learners who started learning English at the university level, while the lowest rank was for those students who began learning English at the secondary school level.

The sixth highest rank is occupied by the factor that inquired about CLT as the teachers' focus, with a mean score of 2.5768 and the students' results indicating that their answers are not significant or similar (4,301; $F.2.484.ns$).

Although not all these results are significantly different from each other amongst the five categories, the secondary year level of experience is positioned at the first rank, while the kindergarten level is located lowest compared to the others.

The students' level of interaction factor was considered seventh in the ranking among all other factors with a total mean score of 2.2729, with the Anova test resulting in the students' insignificant answers amongst one another (4,301; $F.1.817.ns$). All the respondents' answers were similar; however, the highest rank among these is for those students who commenced learning English at kindergarten, whereas the university students' category experienced the lowest level of response across all categories.

The eighth highest rank was allocated to the factor that investigated the type of CLT techniques employed in the classroom. The mean score for this factor is 1.7680, while the Anova results demonstrate that the students' answers are not significant (4,301; $F.254.ns$); however, the highest rank was recorded for the kindergarten category and the lowest for those students who began learning English at the secondary school level.

The least highest rank according to the students' level of experience in learning English was recorded for the factor that explored the CLT tasks assigned by teachers. The mean score for this factor is 1.7328, while the Anova test resulted in significant similarity among the students' level of response (4,301; $F.1.627.ns$).

Despite the fact that the students' responses rate is not significant, those participants who commenced learning English at the secondary school are first in rank, whereas those students' who started learning English at kindergarten were positioned lowest.

Table 5.21 Test of homogeneity of variances

	Levene's Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Obst	2.485	4	301	.044
Tech	.158	4	301	.959
Trid	1.819	4	301	.125
Feed	7.562	4	301	.000
CLTT	1.451	4	301	.217
CLTS	8.160	4	301	.000
SP	1.278	4	301	.279
SI	1.220	4	301	.302
CLTF	3.161	4	301	.014

As indicated in Table 5.21, the students' levels of response on all factors are statistically insignificant except for the first, fourth, sixth and ninth factors. Given that, the results of the Levene's test reveal that the significance is greater than .05 for the second, third, fifth, seventh and eighth factors, indicating that the homogeneity of variances assumptions have been met, this makes the data more robust for parametric testing through Anova based on the students' level of speaking skills.

5.10.3 One-way Anova (students' level of proficiency in speaking skills)

Table 5.22 One-way Anova (students' level of proficiency in speaking skills)

Factor	Mean		Rank within factor	Rank among factors	DF	F	Sig.
	Group	Mean					
Class environment (obstacles)	Very poor	2.4125	5	3	4	1.936	.104
	2	2.7597	3				
	3	2.6784	4				
	4	2.9571	1				
	Very strong	2.8375	2				
	Total	2.7268					

CLT techniques	Very poor	1.5990	5	8	4 301	.952	.434
	2	1.8213	1				
	3	1.7564	2				
	4	1.6741	4				
	Very strong	1.7500	3				
	Total	1.7680					
Level of adopting the traditional approach	Very poor	3.7560	2	1	4 301	3.539	.008
	2	3.9300	1				
	3	3.7158	3				
	4	3.2296	5				
	Very strong	3.5714	4				
	Total	3.7750					
Feedback	Very poor	3.1333	1	4	4 301	2.695	.031
	2	2.5973	3				
	3	2.7320	2				
	4	2.3786	5				
	Very strong	2.5000	4				
	Total	2.6595					
CLT (tasks assigned by teacher)	Very poor	1.8229	2	9	4 301	2.782	.027
	2	1.8221	3				
	3	1.6031	4				
	4	1.5089	5				
	Very strong	2.1563	1				
	Total	1.7328					
	Very poor	3.2604	2	2	4 301	5.815	.000
	2	2.7450	3				

CLT (what the student can do according to CLT)	3	2.5799	5				
	4	3.4018	1				
	Very strong	2.8438	4				
	Total	2.7958					
Student's perceptions towards the traditional approach	Very poor	2.4028	5	5	4	6.787	.000
	2	2.6667	3				
	3	2.4330	4				
	4	3.2262	2				
	Very strong	3.7917	1				
	Total	2.6525					
Interaction in the classroom	Very poor	1.6458	5	7	4	20.427	.000
	2	2.0638	4				
	3	2.5000	3				
	4	2.7143	2				
	Very strong	3.7500	1				
	Total	2.2729					
CLT (teacher focus)	Very poor	3.1458	1	6	4	3.979	.004
	2	2.5940	4				
	3	2.3299	5				
	4	2.7143	3				
	Very strong	3.0625	2				
	Total	2.5768					

Table 5.22 demonstrates the perceptions of the respondents based on their level of proficiency in speaking skills. The illustrations are ordered based on the factor

ranking, where the highest level of perception ranked higher than those factors that reflected a lower level of perception.

The first rank is occupied by the factor that measured the level of adoption of traditional approaches in the speaking classroom. The overall mean score for this factor is 3.7750, with the results from this factor indicating that the students' responses are significant, and that their perceptions differ from each other among the five categories provided (4,301; $F.3.539, <.01$). Since these results are significant, post-hoc analysis via LCD is required.

The results emerging from the post-hoc test indicate that all categories are not significantly different from each other except for those respondents who reported as being strong in their speaking skills, whereas this category differs from the remaining categories excluding the very strong category, which is similar in terms of the perceptions toward the traditional approach.

The second highest rank was recorded for the factor that inquired about what students can achieve according to CLT. The total mean score here is 2.7958, while the results obtained from the Anova test reveal that the students' responses are significantly different from one another (4,301; $F.5.815, <.01$).

The results emerging from the post-hoc test indicate that the students' responses are significantly different from each other, except for the very strong category. Moreover, there is similarity in the students' answers between the very poor and the very strong categories, as well as between the poor and neutral categories.

The factor that obtained the third rank regarding the respondents' perceptions is the class environment factor, with a mean score of 2.7268, and the results of the Anova test indicate that the respondents' perceptions based on their level of proficiency in speaking skills do not differ (4,301; $F.1.936.ns$).

Although the results reveal no difference in the students' answers among the five categories, the strong category occupies the first rank among the other categories, while the very poor category is positioned lowest compared to the others.

The feedback factor achieved the fourth highest rank among all the factors with an overall mean score of 2.6595. The Anova test shows that the students' level of response significantly is different among the respondents (4,301; $F.2.782, <.01$). This result requires the post-hoc test to be undertaken in order to specify the place of difference within the five categories.

The results emerging from the post-hoc test point towards a significant difference between all the students' answers, except the neutral category that is similar to all

the other categories. In addition, the students' responses are also similar between the very strong and the very poor categories.

The fifth highest rank was recorded for the factor that investigated the students' perceptions towards the traditional approach. The total mean score was found to be 2.6525, while the Anova results reveal that the students' perceptions according to this factor are significant (4,301; $F. 6.787, <.01$), and therefore post-hoc analysis is required in order to identify the place of significance among the five categories.

The post-hoc results show that the majority of the students' answers in all categories are not significantly different from one another. However, the only responses that present some differences are from the poor and very poor categories.

The factor of the CLT teachers' focus came sixth highest in the ranking. The overall mean score is 2.5768, but the Anova test results indicate that the responses are significantly different (4,301; $F.3.979, <.01$).

The seventh highest rank was listed to the factor that investigated the level of interaction in the classroom, with a mean score of 2.2729, and the Anova results demonstrating that students' answers are not similar to one another (4,301; $F.20.427, <.01$).

By performing the post-hoc test as shown Appendix 8, the results indicate that the majority of the students' responses among all the categories are significantly different from one another, except for those responses obtained from the neutral and strong categories, which are almost the same answers.

The CLT techniques factor came eighth in the ranking with a mean score of 1.7680, while the Anova results show that all the students' response rates are not significant (4,301; $F.952.ns$). Among the five categories specified, the students who classified themselves as poor in terms of their level of proficiency in speaking skills are the highest in the ranking, with the lowest rank recorded for those students who considered themselves as being very poor in their speaking proficiency.

The factor that obtained the ninth rank regarding the respondents' perceptions was the CLT task assigned by teachers. The overall mean score is 2.1563, while the Anova results reveal that the students' perceptions based on their level of speaking proficiency are significant (4,301; $F.2.782, <.01$).

5.11 Correlation Test

In terms of correlation between obstacles and CLT, traditional approaches, and student interaction. As illustrated in Table 5.22, the obstacles influence only the student interactions. This results also confirmed by regression test.

Table 5.23: Correlations

		Obst	Tech	Trid	CLTT	CLTS	CLTF	SI
Obst	Pearson Correlation	1	.014	.013	.057	.084	.073	.163**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.808	.824	.324	.141	.202	.004
	N	306	306	306	306	306	306	306
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).								
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).								

By taking each obstacle separately and test its effect on the adoption of CLT, traditional, and student interactions. Only student interaction was influenced by all obstacles. However, the way of arranging the chairs and disks in the classroom that permit the work in either pair or group was the only obstacle influence the adoption of CLT as presented in Table 5.24 below.

Table 5.24: correlation of each obstacles separately with rest of factors

		Tech	Tri d	CLTT	CLT S	CLTF	SI
1. There are sufficient conversation classes on my English course.	Pearson Correlation	- .068 -	.02 2	.040	.124*	.095	.228**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.234	.69 9	.487	.030	.097	.000
	N	306	30 6	306	306	306	306
2. My anxiety level when speaking in English is high.	Pearson Correlation	- .055 -	.04 3	.056	.087	.074	.184**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.340	.45 5	.333	.128	.196	.001

	N	306	30 6	306	306	306	306
4. There are sufficient activities which encourage me to practise my speaking skills.	Pearson Correlation	.075	.00 2	.010	.065	.014	.148**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.191	.96 8	.865	.259	.812	.009
	N	306	30 6	306	306	306	306
5. The relationship between teachers and students creates a positive learning environment.	Pearson Correlation	- .011 -	.04 8	.074	.079	.061	.225**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.850	.40 3	.196	.170	.287	.000
	N	306	30 6	306	306	306	306
6. The class size gives me enough opportunities to speak English.	Pearson Correlation	.073	- .00 3-	.042	.095	.086	.083
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.205	.95 3	.463	.096	.135	.149
	N	306	30 6	306	306	306	306
9. Shyness prevents me from communicating in English in large groups.	Pearson Correlation	- .035 -	.00 6	.073	.079	.080	.192**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.543	.91 1	.200	.169	.165	.001
	N	306	30 6	306	306	306	306
10. Classroom desks and chairs are arranged in a way that permits students to work in pairs or in small groups.	Pearson Correlation	- .036 -	- .01 9-	.080	.135*	.120*	.182**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.528	.74 6	.163	.018	.036	.001
	N	306	30 6	306	306	306	306
11. The course modules used discourage me from using spoken English most of the time.	Pearson Correlation	.034	.02 0	.066	.090	.105	.102
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.558	.72 1	.250	.117	.068	.073
	N	306	30 6	306	306	306	306

13. There are a variety of English language activities in my English speaking classes.	Pearson Correlation	.073	.020	-.017-	-.026-	-.044-	.074
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.202	.728	.766	.651	.445	.195
	N	306	306	306	306	306	306
12. The contact hours (teaching time) are sufficient for me to improve my speaking skills.	Pearson Correlation	.088	-.026-	.077	.002	.049	-.003-
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.126	.649	.176	.977	.393	.963
	N	306	306	306	306	306	306

5.12 Qualitative data analysis

5.12.1 Students' background information

Table 5.25 Students' interviews: demographic data

Participant	Gender	Nationality	Year
S1	Female	Libyan	Year 2
S2	Male	Libyan	Year 4
S3	Female	Libyan	Year 3
S4	Female	Libyan	Year 2
S5	Male	Libyan	Year 4
S6	Female	Libyan	Year 3
S7	Female	Libyan	Year 2
S8	Male	Libyan	Year 4
S9	Female	Libyan	Year 1
S10	Female	Libyan	Year 1

Table 5.25 illustrates the demographic data for the students who participated in the interviews for this study. Out of the ten participants, eight were female Libyan students who studied in different levels, while the three male Libyan students all studied at year four.

5.12.2 Summary of the students' key qualitative themes

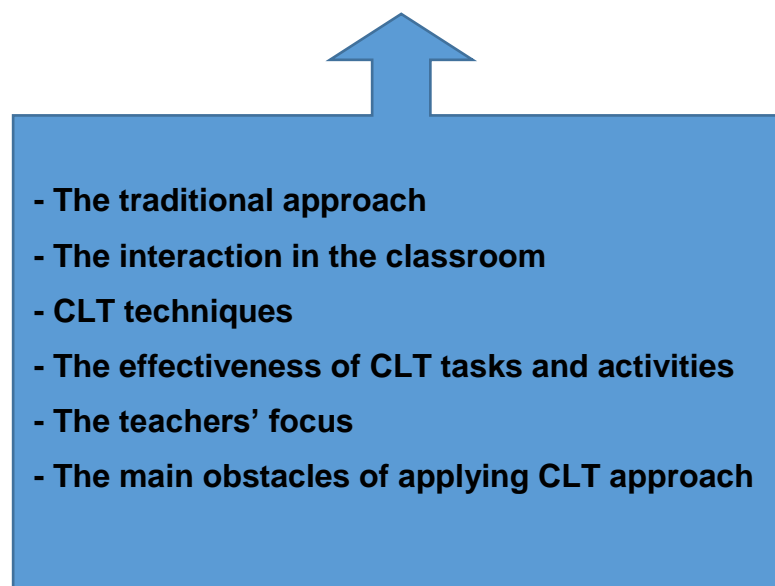


Figure 5.7 Students' interviews: key themes

5.12.2.1 The traditional approach

In response to the statement that discussed the frequent correction of students' grammar and pronunciation skills, five students emphasised that this feedback is helpful in developing their speaking skills.

"It is something good. I believe that students cannot learn by their own, they need help from the teacher." (S1)

In contrast to that, another two students emphasised that they find the frequent correction of their errors unhelpful, arguing that the continuous correction of their grammatical and pronunciation errors confuses them and negatively affects their confidence.

"It is not a proper way to improve my speaking because it makes me anxious and not able to speak spontaneously. My teacher keeps correcting every mistake I make, and I feel that this does not encourage me to participate the next time." (S2)

Only one student among all the student participants stressed that his teacher practises only limited correction of his grammatical mistakes, provided that the content and the flow of ideas is correct. He emphasised that his teacher has greater concern for promoting the communication of ideas, as well as the clarity or meaning of the speech.

“My teacher does not correct grammatical mistakes; he focus more on the ideas. He keep saying that when someone speaks with a native speaker, he/she does not keep correcting the grammar, he just focus on the meaning and the idea that the speaker is trying to convey.” (S8)

When the students were asked about their preference with regards to teacher-centred or student-centred classes, half of the participants interviewed agreed that student-centred classrooms are more effective in terms of enhancing their speaking competences. They cited different justifications for why they believed that teacher-centred classes are not useful.

“Of course, students-centred. This is because it gives me more comfortable atmosphere to speak with my classmate without having the feeling that I am rulled by others.” (S5)

“I prefer students’-centred class because when students direct the classroom, they will share their ideas and participate effectively instead of being only listeners.” (S3)

“I prefer student-centred classes because this approach gives learners the opportunity to use the language. I like when my teacher facilitates my activity but not to controlling everything.” (S4)

In direct contrast to the above responses, the other five students believed that teacher-centred classes are more effective and supportive in enhancing their speaking skills. The reasons behind their preference were primarily concerns over producing errors, as well as having the impression that learning from a professional with significant experience is more effective than learning from a classmate who would likely have approximately the same level of experience.

“The anxiety of making errors. I want my teachers to talk all the time so that I avoid making errors.” (S8)

“Teacher centred, because it is better to learn from more experienced educated and more professional person.” (S7)

5.12.2.2 Interaction in the classroom

The responses surrounding the classroom activities employed to enhance the students’ communication skills in the classroom revealed limited use of communication. The majority of the students reported that most of the activities practised in the classroom include frequent pronunciation drills, asking students to

respond to direct questions that require short and direct answers, or the reading of pre-prepared dialogues.

“Teachers usually direct their finger towards the student and ask him/her direct question where the question is answered in a very simple way which does not exceed one or two words only.” (S5)

“Most of the time they assign reading activities in order to improve our pronunciation skills. They rarely use large group discussions or role-play. These activities make the class very noisy, therefore my teacher prefer not to use it.” (S3)

According to these students, they experienced few communicative activities in their conversation classes, with the most frequently practised activities being discussions, role-play, debates, competitions about a specific topic, or gap completion tasks in written activities.

“My teacher sometimes try to interact with students using discussion topics and involve argument between us.” (S4)

“My teacher try hard to organise competitions about an interesting topic. They also sometimes use role play activities.” (S6)

The responses surrounding classroom communication and the types of activities used expanded further and led the researcher to ask the students why they believed that their teacher did not assign more communicative activities to their classes. The replies to this question were that this is because of the students' unwillingness to participate, as the students are not accustomed to having these types of interactions in most of their other classes.

“It might be due to the weakness of students in interacting with the teachers and their colleagues in a given topic. Most of the teachers really struggle to encourage students to speak, they usually prefer to listen and get the information directly from the teacher.” (S3)

Another possible reason given was the limited knowledge of the communicative activities and their value in enhancing speaking proficiency, with more than half of the students believing that some teachers did not have a clear understanding of how and when to effectively use communication.

“My teacher do not use that huge effort to encourage communication. There is not a wide variety of tasks and strategies applied. For me this means she definitely do not know much about that.” (S9)

When the students were asked about the reasons behind their limited participation and interactions in the speaking class, despite the teachers' occasional attempts to engage them in communication, they cited different problems. Four of the interviewees emphasised that timidity and anxiety about producing errors is their most pressing challenge.

“The fear of making mistakes in grammar and pronunciation, and shyness are my major problems.” (S6)

The second major problem reported by the interviewees concerned the type of activities and topics applied, where according to two of the students, the majority of these topics and activities are uninteresting and discourage motivation.

“Most of the topics are not interesting to talk about, or complicated. I do not have much background about the given topics in the speaking class. My teachers do not prepare me to the topic I want to talk about, it is very hard to speak instantly about a topic which is not familiar to me.” (S7)

Only two students mentioned class size as a main barrier. They emphasised that due to the large number of students in every class, only limited chances are made available for them in order to practise their speaking skills.

“It depends on the class size actually. Student in small class size have a better opportunities to participate. However in big class size classes, students have very limited chances to participate as the class is very busy.” (S8)

The last two students stated a number of other obstacles such as the classroom desks and chairs being arranged in a layout that does not permit students to work in pairs or in small groups. In addition, another barrier centred on the formal relationship between the teachers and students that does seem not to create a positive learning environment, with the teachers failing to create a supportive atmosphere in which the students can feel comfortable.

“Seating arrangement in my class do not help me speak freely with my classmates.” (S2)

“Some students require only one or two times of repetition, whereas others require longer time and bigger efforts to understand. Some of my teachers feel lazy of applying effective teaching procedures that suits students’ different needs.” (S1)

Concerning the statement that explored how students perceive learning English as a whole class, six students considered practising speaking skills collectively as a class to be an interesting and effective approach to enhancing their speaking skills. They emphasised the significance of listening to different opinions and views in order to become more knowledgeable about the topic, while also referring to the potential reduction in anxiety and concern in terms of producing errors if they practise communication more frequently.

“Learning as a whole class is useful. Is interesting to listen to different information from the teacher so that I understand the information easily, and not much time is wasted.” (S9)

In contrast to the above views, only two students expressed a different opinion regarding the usefulness of learning the language as a whole class, pointing out that learning as a whole class is highly stressful and not beneficial in developing their speaking proficiencies.

“I do not find it useful, for me it is a little bit boring. I just keep listening to the teacher, and do not interact with my classmates. This is particularly because it is a speaking class not math or grammar.” (S5)

Meanwhile, one student believed that this strategy could be useful if employed occasionally in the speaking class, but no more frequently than that. She also mentioned that the teachers need to bear in mind the students’ different proficiencies, and consider those students who require more attention and patience. The student elaborated further and explained that some low proficiency students require longer and more encouragement to participate.

“Some students require only one or two times of repetition and explanations, whereas others require longer time and bigger efforts to understand.” (S1)

In response to the question that inquired about the engagement strategies utilised by the teachers in the speaking class, almost all the participants shared the same or similar opinion, with eight out of the ten interviewees agreeing that the teachers do not use a wide range of strategies that encourage communication. Most of the strategies reported to be in use are posing direct questions to students, discussing a specific topic in general, reading texts, or ten minute presentations.

“The most frequently used strategies are asking questions, memorisation of dialogues, reading passages, making a presentation about a specific topic.” (S6)

“We just listen to the teacher, and if we participate, it is by nomination.” (S2)

The two remaining student participants emphasised the teachers’ use of a good variety of communicative strategies and activities in the speaking class, which varied between effective teaching materials, discussions, role-play, storytelling and so forth.

“By using effective materials such as visual aids, pictures, listening to native speakers’ accent, considering in that the whole class without exceptions. They also use turn taking activities, body language in order to catch students’ attention.” (S4)

5.12.2.3 CLT techniques

The focus on the communicative strategies expanded, and the researcher asked the participants about the memorisation of dialogues, as it appeared to be the most frequently applied technique. When the students were asked about the frequent application of activities involving the memorisation of pre-prepared conversations, half of them emphasised its usefulness in enhancing their speaking proficiency. Justifications about its effectiveness were divided between the activity increasing their range of vocabulary, and their ability to use them in practice. In addition, the technique conserved their time and effort in searching for words when involved in communication. They also believed that the memorisation of conversations safeguards them from embarrassment and anxiety since they practise pre-prepared dialogues, as opposed to something they have created.

“I think memorisation of dialogues and conversations is very useful. It saves my time thinking of an answer that could be

incorrect, and therefore this leads to embarrassment in front of my classmates. Ready dialogues help me to stop thinking while speaking, and just focus on remembering what I have memorised.” (S9)

“Repeating the same phrases and vocabulary, help me using them in different situations. I find speaking using fixed structures easier as it saves my time and effort think of new expressions and ideas when I practice. I like when I receive the information ready from dialogues, rather than keep embarrassed and hesitated how to speak instantly.” (S7)

In direct contrast to the above views, five of the student interviewees declared that excessive dependence on this strategy is not beneficial in terms of enhancing speaking skills if used too frequently. The students thus emphasised that while limited engagement with this technique could be beneficial, the application of the language freely is more important.

“It might work in some ways but not always. Memorising prepared dialogues does not mean that the student understands what he/she is talking about. The benefit from speaking is to get the student involved in the lesson or the topic, practising the vocabularies they learnt and apply them in a proper way.” (S6)

All of the interviewees except three stressed the usefulness of communicative techniques such as visual aids and language games in facilitating their understanding and use of the language. Three of the interviewees elaborated that although teachers do not use these techniques with frequency, they still enjoy engaging with them as they add entertainment and enjoyment to the lesson.

“They are very useful. These techniques facilitate my learning and make it interesting and fun. Besides, these techniques improve my retention and facilitate my learning. We really lack these facilities a lot; my teachers do not use them a lot.” (S2)

On the other hand, three students claimed that they do not find communicative techniques helpful in enhancing their speaking skills, arguing that this type of technique is not an effective use of the time available and does not provide a lot of information. They also believed that these techniques could be more useful to younger learners or children, but not adults.

“I do not find them useful. They do not give me a lot of information so that I can develop my speaking. Besides that, they waste a lot of time to prepare. They could be suitable more to kids.” (S9)

With regards to the question that inquired about the students' opinions of the practice of real-life tasks in order to improve their speaking competences, the majority of the responses strongly supported the use of this type of activity. Despite these participants confirming their limited use of these tasks, they expressed their awareness of their usefulness and importance in enhancing their language ability. These eight students used different terminologies to describe the practice of real-life tasks, with some of their explanations including the terms 'motivational', 'interesting', 'good practice for real situations in life', among others.

"It is very useful. The main purpose of learning speaking is to be able to communicate with others. Hence, it is undisputed that involving students in real activities will pave the way for them to communicate in real situations in their everyday lives." (S4)

"It is very interesting because I can practice the language freely without constraints. It is also helpful to me as we talk about familiar and interesting topics that we already have interesting information about." (S10)

In contrast, another three students argued differently with regards to the usefulness of real-life tasks, believing that this type of activity requires significant time to practice, while their speaking classes are limited and do not exceed four hours in total per week.

"These tasks require a lot of time to do. I do not find them useful as our conversation class runs only four hours a week. And such activities require longer time classes." (S9)

They also argued that improving their grammar and pronunciation skills are more important than practising free communication filled with grammatical and pronunciation errors. According to these students, their speaking skills improve more effectively when they place greater focus on the grammatical structures and pronunciation skills.

"I find focusing on improving my grammar and pronunciation skills are much more important in developing my speaking skills. Practicing real life tasks make me commit many mistakes, which is not corrected frequently, and therefore I do not know what mistake I did so that I avoid in the future." (S7)

5.12.2.4 The effectiveness of CLT tasks and activities

When students were asked about the effectiveness of group work activities and how useful they believe them to be in enhancing their speaking skills, seven of the interviewees expressed a positive attitude towards them. The majority of the students emphasised the importance of practising the language in pairs or in groups, rather than individually. According to these participants, group work activities are important in terms of enhancing their confidence and their ability to share knowledge, as well as for increasing motivation.

“Yes, I do. They are useful because we have large classes in Libya and this activity seems the most appropriate in this situation. This kind of activities help me interact with other students and learn from them. It is also very effective in enhancing my confidence.” (S2)

Only three students among the sample of participants expressed their dissatisfaction about the practice of speaking skills through utilising group work activities, with two of these elaborating that they preferred to learn from the teacher as opposed to listening to other non-experienced speakers.

“I do not like practicing speaking with other classmates. I find myself more interested when I listen to my teacher’s way of speaking as he is more professional than my classmates.” (S7)

Only one student argued that group work activities could be useful if the teachers consider the students’ different levels of proficiency. She explained that sometimes when they practise group work activities in the class, the higher-level speaking students participate while the lower level students remain passive and only listen.

“It is not useful because students will depend on others as they might have lower levels of proficiency. Students might over depend on the other students who is probably higher than her/his in the level of proficiency.” (S5)

5.12.2.5 Teachers’ focus

The responses surrounding the teachers’ focus on developing the students’ linguistic form rather than their appropriateness was controversial, with the opinions divided into two types. Six students asserted that the teachers’ excessive focus on developing their linguistic form without paying sufficient attention to how appropriate the language actually is does not tend to enhance their speaking skills. Some of the

students expanded further and emphasised how important they feel it is to develop the fluency level of their language rather than merely their accuracy. The majority of these students expressed dissatisfaction with their teachers' considerable concern with developing accuracy rather than fluency.

"I believe that students should be given an opportunity to use the language without much focus on accuracy. Overemphasizing on accuracy may cause students to become anxious and only focus on producing accurate structures rather than communicating ideas." (S2)

In contrast to the above opinion, the remaining four students agreed that focusing on accuracy to improve their language proficiency is more essential than focusing on their fluency. Some of these interviewees emphasised that if the speakers' grammatical structures are not accurate, the ability to be understood by others is compromised.

"In my point of view they accuracy is important. When I speak to a native speaker, if I make too many mistakes in using tenses or grammar, it is going to be very hard to him/her to understand." (S4)

"Concentrating on the linguistic forms is important to form a good structure or a sentence. The best way to speak a foreign language is to have all grammatical structures correct." (S9)

5.12.2.6 The main obstacles to applying the CLT approach

In response to the question that investigated the usefulness of practising speaking skills within small groups, the majority of the responses concurred that working in small groups can be very helpful. Most of these students complained of the issues of shyness and hesitation when they work within large groups for the purposes of language practice. They underscored that considering the large number of students in each class, the majority of them do not have sufficient opportunities to participate and practise their language skills. Therefore, this type of activity would be very effective.

"Working in small groups gives me more room to practise English and exchange roles with different partners. Bigger groups make me more anxious and constantly worried of making mistakes." (S2)

Three of the interviewees argued that anxiety and nervousness when speaking in English is not related to the type of group. They elaborated further that they feel very anxious regardless of whether they are communicating in small or large groups.

"I still feel anxious even if I practice the language within small groups. Although I keep trying very hard to cope with that, but it is not working most of the times." (S10)

The topic expanded further and led the researcher to investigate in greater depth the main reasons that lead the students to feel stressed and uncomfortable when communicating in English. The majority of the responses emphasised their lack of confidence, and the anticipatory anxiety of producing pronunciation and grammar errors as the main barrier. Therefore, they expressed their preference of concentrating on producing accurate grammatical structures so that they become more easily understood.

"My anxiousness is usually caused by my grammar knowledge. In other words, the grammar rules I have learnt at school and university act like a monitor, which sometimes affects my fluency in a negative way. Unfortunately, most of my teachers at school and university used to correct all my grammar mistakes which, consequently, made me terribly conscious of speaking correct English." (S2)

Another two students asserted that motivation is one of their major problems when employing speaking skills. They explained that they receive limited motivation from their teachers in terms of practice, and that it is usually the students' own choices of whether to participate in communication or not.

"I do feel anxious because I do not have that big motivation to speak in English. My teacher do not give me plenty of encouragement to participate or speak about interesting topics." (S3)

Some students also cited their teachers' feedback on their productive speaking as the main barrier. These students elaborated that their teachers do not tolerate mistakes, and that they expect the students to produce proper English with no or very limited mistakes.

"I usually feel anxious because of my teacher's feedback. My teacher do not often give me a positive and constructive feedback if I spoke in a good way. She rather became impatient and keep criticising my way of speaking. I do not feel much confident to speak in the next time." (S9)

Regarding the question of how to overcome these problems, the students seemed to rely on different strategies in order to surpass their anxiety issues. Some of the participants emphasised the importance of thoroughly preparing for the topic they want to discuss, as therefore their fluency level increases since they become more confident with the flow of their ideas.

“In fact, in order to avoid the feeling anxious, I usually make a lot of practice before I get into the classroom.” (S8)

Another two student interviewees explained that they attempt to calm themselves before practising with their classroom peers. They also avoid thinking of errors and how negatively this might affect their fluency, preferring to enjoy the experience and engage as much as possible.

“I try to avoid thinking of errors that make me feel anxious. I keep convincing myself that everyone makes mistakes and it is part of the learning process.” (S7)

Three of the participants mentioned strategies that they tend to employ in order to minimise their level of stress, which varied between speaking slowly so that they can concentrate more closely on their grammatical structures and use of vocabulary, and attempting to develop their pronunciation and vocabulary by listening to English language songs and watching television channels. This helps them to become more confident and fluent when it comes to practise.

“I sometimes listen to English songs and read their lyrics simultaneously. This not only increases my confidence but also improves my pronunciation and fluency in the classroom.” (S2)

Two of the student participants identified a number of techniques applied by their teachers in order to enhance their confidence and encourage participation. Some of these techniques are as follows:

“A- My teacher depend on gaining sufficiency information about the lesson from the students so that I get some preparation of what to speak about.

B- Using aids like papers with pictures and explanation on it.

C- Using Internet.

D- Considering students level difference.

E- Working in pairs or in groups, trying to discuss the answers together.

F- Asking us to sit in proper way facing each other because it support the participant.

G- Catching our attention by using body language and clear voice.” (S4)

Only one student admitted offering only short answers during the class in order to minimise his nervousness when speaking in English. He clarified further that practising speaking within small groups is the only strategy that helps him to decrease his anxiety levels and enjoy the participation, before asserting that it is the teacher's role to calm students down and encourage them to overcome their speaking concerns.

"Sometimes I try be absent form that class, unless if we have a small groups of discussions or working in pairs. For me overcoming these problems is a step that must be taken by the teacher or the education system, not the student." (S5)

5.13 The teachers' background information

Table 5.26 Teachers' interviews: demographic data

Participant	Age	Gender	Nationality	Qualification	Teaching level	Teaching experience
T1	40	Female	Libyan	PhD	2 nd and 3 rd years	20 years
T2	51	Male	Libyan	PhD	1 st , 2 nd , 3 rd and 4 th years	25 years
T3	31	Female	Libyan	MA	4 th year	2 years
T4	38	Female	Libyan	PhD	1 st , 2 nd , 3 rd and 4 th years	8 years
T5	40	Male	Libyan	MA	1 st and 2 nd years	17 years
T6	40	Female	Libyan	PhD	1 st , 2 nd , 3 rd and 4 th years	13 years
T7	49	Male	Libyan	PhD	3 rd and 4 th years	23 years

Table 5.26 illustrates the background information for the teacher participants who took part in the interviews. The total number of participants was seven (four females and three males), of which five hold a PhD degree, while two hold a master's degree. All of the participants were Libyan nationals, with the majority having an extensive history of teaching where their experience ranged between 2 and 25 years.

5.14 Summary of the teachers' key themes

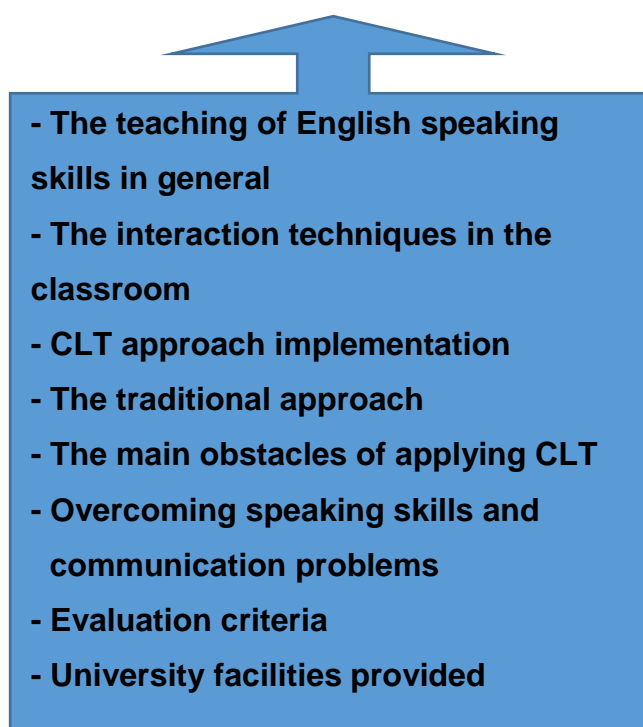


Figure 5.8 Teachers' interviews: key themes

5.14.1 The teaching of speaking skills in general

The teachers' responses to the statement that discussed their enjoyment of teaching skills differed depending on the interviewee. Some agreed that they enjoy teaching the skill of speaking and find it particularly useful because the students themselves have a more enjoyable experience with less formality than learning other skills.

"Actually, I enjoy teaching speaking skills because students are more active and they find it useful and enjoyable. I believe that my students also find speaking skills lessons more amusing and pleasant to them compared to other subjects which require more structured way of teaching." (T3)

However, most of the other interviewees believed that the teaching of speaking skills is highly stressful and challenging due to the different obstacles that present.

The barriers cited include the large number of students in the classroom that ranged from between 40 and 80 throughout the whole university; the students' hesitation and unwillingness to participate; and the teachers' obligation to follow the English department's pre-prepared syllabus that usually concentrates on writing and reading skills, despite the class being dedicated to developing speaking skills.

"I did not enjoy teaching speaking skills as it was very stressing. It is quite difficult to give a chance to all the students to practice. This is because of the crowded classrooms where there is more than 80 students in each class." (T6)

"I usually do enjoy teaching speaking skills and find it very useful; however, I do face many obstacles that make its application more difficult and requires much more time and efforts. Some of the major problems that I have is the huge class size in every class which exceeds 60, insufficient contact time as well as students reluctant and hesitation to participate." (T7)

"I do not enjoy teaching speaking skills, as I have to follow the university syllabus that focus on the writing and reading skills even in the speaking module." (T4)

5.14.2 The interaction techniques in the classroom

The interviewees' responses to the different strategies they employ to encourage the students to engage in communication differed from one to one another. Some of the lecturers reported that they do their utmost to apply communicative activities and procedures in the classroom, despite the number of obstacles that hinder this such as the large class sizes and the L1 interference in the students' conversations.

"I try to put them in groups. Although it is difficult because of the large number of students in the class, but for me it is the only way that can involve most of the students, so that I put them into groups of 4 or 5 student, and give them a topic to talk about and encourage them to speak in English as much as possible. Each time I ask one student from each group to talk about all what they know about the topic, or what did the whole group chatted about. Because of the big number of students in every class it is not easy at all to put them into groups, but usually it is better than leaving them and try to communicate with them one by one, I do not think even third of the whole class will take part and get involved in the discussion." (T1)

"I usually make group work or role-play activities. Although sometimes I find applying these activities are very difficult because of some obstacles like the large number of students in each class, or student's preference to talk in Arabic instead

of English. That is why I sometimes tend to use more controlled activities than the communicative ones.” (T3)

“There are different activities that can encourage students speaking. I usually try to use solving problems exercises, debate controversial issues (living in the city is better than living in the country: debate). Other activities are simulations based on interesting stories, as dramatization helps and encourages learners to talk without inhibition. Language games helps as well.” (T5)

Another two lecturers reported on different type of techniques, despite these also facing a number of barriers in terms of their application. The techniques ranged from targeting students specifically with their names and asking them direct questions because of their unwillingness to participate, to having discussions with the students about their personal lives and real events that they have experienced.

“Most of the time students hate to participate with the teacher when I ask a general question to the whole class. That actually forces me to ask direct questions to every student in particular, like for example ‘Huda, can you speak about this?’, ‘or tell me about your daily life?’” (T3)

“I try every class if I have more time to chat with them in English about real life events related to their personal experience and I find it useful in encouraging them to use the language.” (T4)

“I try to have debates about topics they enjoy discussing, and do not correct their errors at any stage of the lesson.” (T5)

5.14.3 Implementation of the CLT approach

More than half of the teachers expressed similar responses to the question of how the students respond to communicative activities. Their views emphasised that their students do not enjoy practising communicative activities for a number of different reasons. One of those reasons specified was the students’ habit of relying on their teachers to explain everything during the lesson, since they are accustomed to being in teacher-centred classrooms and do not find interaction or student-centred activities of interest.

“I find that students are not very fond of communicative activities because these activities are more student centred than teacher centred. Students in Libya are not accustomed to this type of activity they usually rely on the teacher to teach them and to be honest the circumstances of large class size and insufficient resources do not encourage the use of such activities.” (T6)

Another reason specified by one interviewee was the students' unwillingness to collaborate with other students who they are not familiar with, preferring to sit with their friends so that they can speak about a common theme they all know, and then after their discussion they tend to switch from English into the Arabic language.

"Normally students do not like to work in groups and when I want to conduct group work, they want to be with their friends, which ends up in chatting using L1. And when I choose the members of the groups they do not like this and keep the verbal interaction at minimum." (T4)

A third reason mentioned by a lecturer was the students' hesitation and unwillingness to participate because of their shyness, lack of vocabulary and discomfort when speaking in the communicative activities.

"Usually when I use simple activities, students like and enjoy it, but sometime when I tend to use more complicated tasks they avoid participating and prefer not to speak. They avoid talking because they feel shy, unconfident, and most of the time they have a lack of vocabulary problems that they always complain of." (T3)

On the other hand, another three lecturers reported different opinions, emphasising the students' enjoyment and satisfaction in terms of engaging with those tasks that encourage communication. They emphasised that they find ways to motivate interaction, even when there are many obstacles that make the application challenging.

"Students respond to the communicative activities are positive, because these activities have a real purpose. They are either to find information about a particular topic, break down barriers, talk about themselves, or to learn about different culture. I think the more benefits takes place when students are engaged in tasks with dynamic learning environment rather than in traditional teacher-led class." (T5)

"Students enjoy the communicative activities more than the controlled ones. They find communication and group discussions less formal and more enjoyable for them to practice. Students usually seem excited when I use activities that allow them talking to each other or start moving from group into another in the class. Their existence in the class is not only limited to just listening to the teacher." (T7)

5.14.4 The use of traditional approaches

The majority the lecturers' responses to the question that inquired about the typical balance between controlled activities and less controlled activities were the same, except two. Almost all of the lecturers admitted employing very high degrees of

control in their classroom activities as opposed to applying CLT-based activities during speaking-focused tuition. One lecturer, for example, emphasised her reluctance to employ greater interaction and communication due to the cacophony that emerges from the large number of students in the classroom when conducting an activity that involves communication.

“To be honest, I use much controlled activities because it allows me to have a better control on the classroom. I use activities like answering some questions about a specific topic or a dialogue. But again because of the huge number of students in every class as it make my classroom very noisy, and lack of facilities I do my best to conduct less controlled activities. The percentage is about 35% communicative activities, and the rest is more controlled activities.” (T1)

Another lecturer specified a different reason for his limited use of communicative activities in the conversation classroom, citing that the students appear to be accustomed to teacher-centred classes since this is the most common approach to teaching that most of the teachers apply in other subjects. This lecturer believed that it is very difficult to change the students' perceptions of effective practice and to convince them to accept involvement in discussions or interactive communication.

“Although I believe that communicative activities are more useful to enhance students' interaction and communications, but I find its application is hard and not always feasible. Students always have the impression that classes in this university needs to be teachers-centre, as this is the most commonly used way of teaching by many teachers. I find it very difficult to change students' impressions about this fact. My balance to applying communicative activities is very limited which does not exceed 25%.” (T5)

Another lecturer expressed the challenges behind ensuring sufficient conversation contact time, explaining that communicative activities require extensive practice, and according to the provided university teaching programme this additional time is not allocated.

“Actually, I use about 10% only of the less controlled activities, whereas I use much more controlled activities. I prefer to use less communication in the classroom because of many reasons and the insufficient contact time is the main one. Communicative activities take longer time than the controlled activities, and sometimes I do not have enough time to finish all the tasks that I prepared to make. In addition, sometimes students feel anxious and shy to participate.” (T3)

On the other hand, two lecturers reported the more widespread application of communicative activities, where they confirmed that they can integrate students into large discussion groups or in pairs, and involve them in communication even when the class become somewhat noisy.

“Around 65% communicative activities and about 35% more controlled activities.” (T7)

When discussing whether the teachers think that there is sufficient time available in speaking classes in order to involve all of the students in communication, the responses indicated that the majority of the lecturers considered that there is insufficient speaking skills’ contact time, with their main complaints being centred on the large number of students in each class that require more time to allow all of them to participate within the limited hours available.

“Time of course is not enough, especially because I teach large number classes which exceeds 60 students. I always raise the issue of splitting the number of students to teach small number in speaking classes but it was impossible because of the huge number and the class time specified by the English department.” (T4)

Another lecturer elaborated further on this point.

“Not at all, time is not even enough to involve half the students especially because of the big number of students in each class, and because classroom communication require limited number of students. Students need much more time so that they can practice more and have bigger chances to participate.” (T1)

Nevertheless, two of the interviewees held a different view about teaching time, with one emphasising that the time allocated for speaking classes could be enough if the teachers manage it effectively, explaining that utilising the student-centred technique is important to achieve improved time management.

“I think it would be enough if it were managed well. The first step in order to achieve that is to reduce teacher-talking time. The second step is the common way of doing this by dividing students into pairs or groups work and monitoring their speech and correcting it either there or in a follow-up stage.” (T5)

5.14.5 The main obstacles to applying CLT

When the interviewees were asked about the main obstacles that they believe hinder the teaching of speaking skills in general, they stated a range of challenges. Two lecturers agreed on the issues of the excessive class sizes and the issue of unmotivated students that are common throughout

their classrooms. These interviewees believed that CLT techniques and activities require a limited number of students as well as motivation in order to achieve the specified goals, with these two criteria being the main barrier to the application of CLT in this institution.

“There are many problems that I have in teaching speaking skills. I believe that the large class size, which exceeds 70 in every classroom, as well as unmotivated students are my main problems. Such huge number of students alongside with students’ unwillingness to participate most of the time make applying communicative activities very difficult.” (T6)

In addition, another two lecturers highlighted the importance of teacher training sessions, which are both vital and effective at improving and developing teachers’ awareness and the use of communication in the classroom.

“There are many obstacles that I have every day in teaching speaking skills. Besides the main problem, which is the huge class size in every class, the teachers’ insufficient knowledge of using communicative strategies and techniques is also a very important issue. I always feel that I need teaching materials, and much more training on applying communicative activities and techniques. Sometimes I find myself repeating the same limited type of activities, or incapable of using effective techniques in order of achieve successful communication.” (T1)

As confirmed by two of the participant lecturers, the university lacks a number of facilities, which can be added to the main obstacles that hinder the teaching of speaking skills. These necessary but unavailable facilities were defined as effective language laboratories where the students can practise more language and listen to appropriate English pronunciation from native speakers. Moreover, complaints were raised regarding access to the internet, and the type of resources and books available in the university library, with the latter being dated and not sufficiently diversified to meet the students’ needs.

“There are many external problems which represented on the institutional context that does not provide the adequate support to teach speaking skills. English language department does not provide teachers with modern English language labs, which is very helpful in teaching speaking skills. Moreover, the university library lacks new and effective books that can help students improve their general English so that their speaking skills is improved as well. In addition there is very limited workstations were students can meet and get in touch with each other in order to improve their language competences.” (T6)

When lecturers were asked about the problems that students encounter when they are asked to speak in English, the participants reported different problems. Three stated that the students’ anxiety and reluctance to speak in English in front of their

classroom peers present as a main and common barrier, as well as a lack of confidence due to concerns over making errors, as the students feel that their peers would ridicule any incorrect production of speech.

“Students lack confidence and motivation. They do not have the confidence to speak because they feel that if they make a mistake their classmates will laugh at them. They are not confident enough to even try so that I can know if they can speak or not.” (T6)

“Mainly students’ lack of self-confidence as they normally shy from incorrect pronunciation and low oral fluency.” (T2)

According to the teachers’ perceptions, besides the students’ timidity and reluctance to participate in the conversation classrooms, their limited use of vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar mistakes also seem to present as real obstacles. Four interviewees mentioned that the majority of their students complain about their limited use of vocabulary and inappropriate pronunciation, which leads to their hesitancy and preference for avoiding to speak.

“I think each learner has his own issue in language learning but the most common that I felt in my students when they speak: Lack of vocabulary (repeating the same limited number of words), grammar errors, mistakes in pronunciations, and hesitation in speaking in general.” (T5)

One lecturer reported that most of her students, including those with reasonable speaking competences, prefer not to speak, and only engage in speaking when they are called by their names and asked directly.

“Students usually have many problems when they use English language. Some of these problems is their shyness and hesitation to participate; they keep silent and prefer not to speak only when I call every student individually with his/her name. Even my good speaking levels students, they speak well and express themselves confidently in English, but when I request a voluntary participation, rarely when they accept.” (T7)

Another two interviewees considered that the insufficient time available for students to practise their speaking skills resulted in them speaking less, as they know that they will not be given sufficient opportunities to participate.

“My Students have many problems. First, is the limited speaking time given to every student to participate, they always feel they have limited chances to take part. Second, students’ lack of vocabulary also make them keep switching from English into English [Arabic] all the time when they do not know the correct equivalent in English.” (T1)

One interviewee emphasised that L1 interference is one of the main problems facing Arabic students in terms of their speaking practice, with some students

continuing to switch between the English and Arabic language when their instructions are to only speak in English when practising any activity.

“Students keep switching from English into Arabic when they cannot find the correct word they are looking for in English.” (T4)

5.14.6 Overcoming speaking skills and communication problems

Concerning the question of how the teachers overcome the students' speaking problems, the responses indicated that the teachers employ different strategies to develop their students' speaking skills. Some of these techniques comprised of encouraging the students to develop their overall language skills through reading different newspapers and/or watching English language television channels and cartoons.

“The solutions can be as follows: (1) to improve vocabulary, students are recommended to read English language Newspapers. Reading habit will improve not only vocabulary but also the structure of making sentences. (2) Grammar is not essential to learn a language but it is very basic to correct your language. Therefore, a grammar book will be very helpful to improve speaking skill. (3) Listening to an English channel will improve pronunciation skills. In addition, some English cartoons are very helpful due to pace of speaking in them. (4) Speak and speak is the rule to address this issue.” (T5)

Others stated that they keep encouraging students to speak regardless of the mistakes that they make. As a form of encouragement, one teacher consistently emphasises to his students that their mistakes will not be repaired the instant they are uttered.

“I try to give students enough chance to speak and I do not correct their pronunciation straightway. I also keep telling them that making mistakes is normal as it is not their mother tongue and they should be proud they can speak and understand a new language. Mistakes are part of the learning process.” (T2)

On the other hand, another lecturer reported that she tends to write new vocabulary that is relevant to the topic on the board so that the students can use this in their conversations.

“I always try to write on the blackboard, vocabulary relevant to the topic we are talking about. I also try to direct the student who is speaking and help them as best as I could in order to help build their confidence.” (T5)

A further lecturer emphasised utilising different types of activities such as language games and dialogue memorisation, through which he believes that the students' use of vocabulary and grammar are improved.

"I usually keep encouraging them to speak whatever mistakes they make. I also try to teach them different types of activities such as dialogues memorisation and language games, in which it helps in developing students' use of grammar and vocabulary. I also try as much as possible to use different listening and video activities in order to help students know the correct pronunciation for native speakers." (T7)

5.14.7 Speaking evaluation criteria

The responses surrounding the teachers' speaking activities' evaluation revealed different evaluation approaches among the lecturers, with two describing pre-designated criteria that they use to evaluate the students' conversation. These criteria focus on the students' use of vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation skills and fluency, as well as other aspects. Nevertheless, these two lecturers confirmed that applying this type of evaluation is onerous considering the large class size and insufficient contact time.

"I usually try to use evaluation criteria that concentrates on students' use of vocabulary and the way in which they pronounce the words correctly. I can say that I focus mostly on both fluency and accuracy. I also consider speed of their speaking and use of grammar. However this type of evaluation is frustrating because of the number of obstacles I mentioned earlier, such as class size and time management." (T3)

On the contrary, another four interviewees commented that considering the many limitations such as the large class sizes and students' unwillingness to participate, they lean towards the use of more controlled activities that result in written tasks. They elaborated further that they strive to conduct communicative activities in their classes, and while they believe that this is the most effective strategy for improving the learners' speaking competencies, the application is never easy.

"I do believe that communicative oral activities is the best way in improve students speaking skills, but unfortunately this is not the type of activities that I usually use inside my classroom. As I mentioned before, considering the huge number of students and their continues hesitation to participate, I tend to use much more written tasks. I use more written activities so that I do not have to listen to every students' way of speaking individually." (T4)

One interviewee stated that although she has a large number of students in every class, and applying individual evaluation for each of them is challenging, she makes every effort to assess her students' manner of speaking by employing certain criteria.

"Although the number of students is very high in my class, but I still try to listen to all of them and encourage them to talk in English, I concentrate on their fluency rather than accuracy, and I also tend not to focus much on their mistakes so that they do not lack confidence when they speak. I also focus on intonation, or on helping them to express themselves, besides trying to give them encouraging positive feedback for any answers they give."

(T1)

In response to the statement inquiring about the importance of using real-life tasks for developing speaking skills' activities, only two of the lecturers welcomed utilising these types of activities and confirmed their usefulness. They emphasised the importance of employing real-life tasks in enhancing students' speaking skills as these involve real events and situations that have either involved the students, or that they are aware of in general. The interviewees also emphasised that the students themselves prefer this type of activities and find it more realistic and enjoyable than other more structured tasks.

"Using real life tasks is a good way to do to teach speaking skills. When students talk about real events of situations they have already experienced, they talk about that freely, they just say it, and they do not need to imagine or think of what they need to say. Their way of thinking is fluent because the topic is realistic, such as going to a restaurant or carpark or any other topics."

(T1)

Another lecturer confirmed the importance of linking the learner's real-life events with the tasks they practise in the classroom, believing that developing the students' language and communication proficiency in the classroom will have a positive impact on their manner of spoken production in real situations outside the classroom.

"In my opinion, the main goal of teaching speaking is to improve students' communicative skills so that students can express themselves in real life situations. It is undoubtedly essential to link all speaking skill tasks to situations from real life." (T5)

In contrast to the above responses, four of the interviewees expressed that they rarely use real-life tasks in their practice. They emphasised utilising controlled activities only in terms of teaching speaking skills, as they believed that due to the

number of aforementioned obstacles this does not encourage them to apply such a type of activities. The interviewees also stated that they are expected to use and follow the pre-planned teaching syllabus that the university's English language department designs. According to these participants, the syllabus is examination based, which does not encourage or reward the use of CLT principles and techniques.

"I rarely have the chance to use real-life tasks activities in my speaking classes. Considering the problems I mentioned earlier (large class size, time, unmotivated students... etc), I find myself forced to use more controlled activities so that I can keep students under control. Moreover, the university teaching syllabus does not demand this type of activities." (T2)

5.14.8 University facilities provided

The responses to the question that explored the type of facilities the university provides to facilitate the teachers' development of the learners' speaking skills were not generally different, with all of them criticising the very limited facilities that the university provides in order to develop the students' speaking skills. Four of these teachers clearly confirmed that there are not any of the mentioned facilities available in this university that they could use.

"Unfortunately, there is nothing that the university provides to teachers to teach any skill not only speaking skills. The university really lack many facilities that help teachers as well students to improve speaking skills." (T1)

Another two lecturers complained about the lack of facilities in general; however, they mentioned that the only facility provided by the institution is the language laboratory, which they believe is helpful, although it is not modern and always requires technicians to address faults and repairs.

"Very limited, most of them provide language lab language lab [laboratory] however, they are useless as they not modern ones and we lack technician to deal with them. I depend on myself on providing the limited teaching facilities that I use in my classrooms, such as flash cards, pictures or maps." (T2)

A further interviewee cited the significant lack of facilities that the university provides in general, emphasising that he designs all the teaching activities and resources he uses in his classes because of this deficiency.

"Unfortunately, our university does not provide any kind of facilities that help me as a teacher better develop my teaching

practice. All the activities and facilities that I use are self-provided, and depends on the teachers own Padgett.” (T7)

When the interviewees were asked about the type of training they had received in order to teach speaking skills, the majority of the responses confirmed clearly that they had never received any type of formal training at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University that could enhance their approach to the teaching of speaking skills at the institution. One of these lecturers further elaborated that this university does not provide any kind of training to teach any skill, not only speaking skills. They also emphasised that their teaching pedagogy is influenced by either their own experience or online searching.

“Unfortunately no, I always depend on my own search on google to know what is the best way to teach. Universities does not provide any type of trainings to teach any other skill not only speaking skills.” (T3)

“I have had no training at all. I read and I consult with other colleagues in order to choose what best suits the students’ levels.” (T6)

In a slightly different vein, while also confirming that they have not had the opportunity to participate in any type of training at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University, two lecturers stated that they have managed to develop their teaching practice and communicative teaching strategies and techniques through a number of training sessions and workshops they have attended outside the university.

“Although I have never had the chance to attend any training in my university, yet I have had different workshops in privet sectors from which I was trained on different techniques that I can use to help my students with their speaking skills. The training was specifically focused on working in pairs, group work, warmers and controlled and less controlled practices.” (T5)

5.15 Triangulation of the quantitative and qualitative data

The following table presents the triangulation of the qualitative and quantitative findings discussed in the previous sections of this chapter. This triangulation is employed in order to provide a clear and precise view of the teaching of English speaking skills in this context by linking certain results to more than one data source.

Table 5.27 Triangulation of the data

Theme	Students' Quantitative Findings	Students' Qualitative Findings	Teachers' Qualitative Findings
CLT techniques	Limited use of CLT techniques.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Half of the students believe that CLT techniques are useful in enhancing speaking skills. - The other half do not find CLT techniques helpful in enhancing their speaking skills. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Some teachers are striving to apply communicative techniques, although there are many barriers to the application. - Other teachers do not use a variety of communicative techniques.
Traditional approach	Traditional approaches are more frequently employed.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Some students believe that traditional approaches are more effective in terms of developing their speaking competencies. - Other students believe that traditional approaches are not helpful in developing their speaking skills. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Some teachers apply traditional methods of teaching more frequently. - Some lecturers apply communicative activities more frequently.
Teachers' feedback	- Most of the teachers'	- Most of the students believe	- Some teachers use pre-

	<p>strongest focus is on grammar and pronunciation skills.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Some teachers focus on fluency and appropriateness. 	<p>that focusing on fluency when providing feedback is more important than accuracy.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Four students argue that providing feedback on accuracy is more effective than feedback on fluency. 	<p>designated assessment criteria.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Other teachers use controlled activities and written tasks.
Students' perceptions towards the traditional approach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Some students are interested in communication. - Others find traditional approaches more useful. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Some students believe that traditional approaches are more helpful. - Others believe that traditional approaches are not helpful. 	<p>Some students prefer traditional approaches of teaching, whereas others find the communicative activities more enjoyable.</p>
Interaction in the classroom	<p>There are limited opportunities for interaction.</p>	<p>Reasons vary between:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Not accustomed to interacting in other classes - Limited knowledge of the usefulness of communicative activities - Unstimulating activities - Shyness and anxiety 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Most of the teachers use teacher-centred classes due to the many obstacles that exist. - Other teachers use students-centred classes despite the many obstacles.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Class size - Seating arrangement - Teachers' formal relationship 	
CLT activities	Limited use of CLT tasks and activities.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Frequent use of drilling, direct questioning, pronunciation activities, and reading dialogues. - Occasional use of role-play, debates, competitions, gap fill activities, and storytelling. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Usually controlled activities are used. - Sometimes less controlled activities are used.
What students can do according to CLT	Positive attitude towards practising communicative approaches.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Some students can engage with CLT with some difficulty. - Others find the application of CLT to be very difficult and stressful. 	Some students enjoy CLT tasks and activities, whereas others prefer to be passive learners.
Teachers' focus	Real concern given to students' linguistic forms and accuracy over fluency.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Some believe that the focus on accuracy over fluency is more effective. - Others belief that prioritising fluency 	<p>Some teachers focus on the students' linguistic knowledge.</p> <p>Others focus on the fluency and appropriateness.</p>

		over accuracy enhances their speaking skills.	
The main obstacles to applying the CLT approach	Shyness, anxiety and the formal relationship between teachers and their students are the most pressing problems.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Hesitation and shyness - Lack of confidence - Anxiety of making pronunciation or grammar errors - Motivation - Teachers' feedback 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Class size - Unmotivated students - Students' anxiety and hesitation - Students' limited use of vocabulary - Students' pronunciation and grammar mistakes - L1 interference - Training sessions - Lack of facilities

5.16 Summary of the chapter

This chapter presented the qualitative and quantitative findings emerging from the data collection and analysis in this case study research. The chapter began by presenting the quantitative findings obtained from the students' questionnaire, which were analysed statistically. The second part included the qualitative data resulting from the semi-structured interviews with the students and their lecturers, while the final section presented a triangulation summary of all the quantitative and qualitative findings obtained from the data.

The subsequent chapter provides a comprehensive discussion of the results that have been presented in this analysis chapter. It illustrates a clear interpretation of the qualitative and qualitative findings, while linking them to the literature presented in the literature review chapter.

Chapter Six: Discussion

6 Chapter Six: Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a discussion of the quantitative and qualitative findings in line with the research aim and objectives that underpin this study, with the intention to link the current research findings with the prior studies considered in the literature review presented in Chapter Two.

6.2 Teachers' and students' perceptions towards the current teaching methods used by the teachers of English speaking skills

The students' perceptions regarding the level of employing traditional approaches in teaching speaking skills were considerably high, with the majority agreeing or strongly agreeing that most of their teachers seem to struggle to create a communicative environment in the classroom for a number of different reasons. This result is in line with the literature, with the findings of the studies conducted by Coskun (2011), Altaieb and Omar (2015), Drame (2016) also concluding that a high level of grammar-based practice was applied in a speaking skills classroom.

The main reasons for this result are the large number of students that populate every class. According to (Baker and Westrup, 2003) Mustafa (2010) and Coskun (2011), the language teacher sometimes needs to work with students individually according to their needs; however, due to the large number of students in the case study's university's speaking skills' classes that exceeds 80 in some contexts, this is clearly not an easy task to achieve.

In harmony with this result, most of the lecturers also clearly emphasised the class size as being a major barrier to the effective adoption of the CLT approach. This finding was not surprising as it concurs with the literature in terms of the findings resulting from Mustafa (2010), Coskun (2011), Kim (2014) and Shurovi (2014), who also found that despite most of the teachers having a good understanding and use of communication, the large number of students in every class represented a significant barrier to the implementation of CLT.

Surprisingly, among all the participants, two lecturers emphasised that notwithstanding the many obstacles that prevent CLT application, they still find it applicable and are able to carry out successful spoken communication in their classrooms. These lecturers elaborated that they do not consider the current

classroom barriers to be a problem that would prevent the students' interaction. They argued that it is their responsibility to find a way to convince the students to engage in interaction so far possible. Two of these lecturers emphasised that although they did not have any type of trainings at Al Jabal Al Gharbi that could help them develop their communicative practice, they managed to join some trainings in the private sector. They were responsible for gathering the information they needed to develop their understanding of communicative strategies and activities in their classrooms. They stressed that a good teacher need to use what is available in order to carry out a successful communicative practice.

According to this result which is unlike most of existing literature Drame (2016), Altaieb and Omar (2015) and (Diaab (2016), it could be speculated that teachers beliefs could play a critical role in the selection of teaching methods used. Although these two teachers have the same obstacle that their colleges have in the speaking classroom, but they still managed to apply a good use of communication in their classes. This result corresponds with the findings of a study conducted by Shawer (2013), who also concluded that a limited number of instructors could put CLT theory into practice, despite the many obstacles present in the classroom environment.

The teachers also placed real concern on correcting the students' grammatical mistakes and enhancing their knowledge of language rules, as opposed to concentrating on developing their flow of language and ideas. The over-reliance on correcting students' grammatical structures, as well as the extensive focus on linguistic input over communication, results in students' limited use of language (Diaab, 2016). This fact was also confirmed by many of the teachers when asked about their primary focus in the conversation class. This finding agrees with another study conducted in Turkey by Coskun (2011, p. 19), who also found that the teachers focused excessively on enhancing the students' grammatical knowledge over fluency in the communicative classroom, with the study revealing that the teachers applied a *"zero tolerance approach"* in dealing with their students' errors in the communicative classroom. This means that most of the teachers usually correct the students' errors immediately, and do not provide the opportunity for the students to realise their mistakes and try to repair them independently.

Most of the teachers justified their limited use of communication, and their focus on grammatical structures and developing students' knowledge of linguistic forms through a number of obstacles such as the large class sizes, time pressure, and

lack of training, amongst others. These obstacles are echoed in the literature with the findings resulting from Altaieb and Omar (2015), Y Kim (2014) and Shurovi (2014), who also found that the constraints such as time management, motivation, and teacher training should be taken into consideration in order to increase the effectiveness of the teaching and learning of speaking.

Surprisingly, some of the students and their teachers underscored the usefulness of the frequent correction of grammar in terms of enhancing speaking skills. It was argued that it is important to continue to remind students of their errors so that they avoid repeating them in the future. In contrast to this, only two lecturers stressed their limited correction of students' grammar in favour of focusing on developing their fluency level. These two interviewees emphasised that grammatical errors are merely part of the learning process and should thus be given minor attention.

In addition, despite Alonso (2014, p. 155), like many other researchers, highlighting the importance and benefit of using the learners' target language in the communicative classroom, and claiming that *"if students do not receive sufficient exposure to input, their speaking will not improve adequately"*, the findings of this study reveal the students' limited use of English language in their practice. The quantitative data show that the students believe that the majority of their teachers do not frequently encourage them to utilise the English language in the classroom, appearing to be unconcerned when students use their mother tongue during the conversation activities. This result corresponds with the findings of a study conducted by Shurovi (2014) in Bangladesh and Al Hosni, (2014) in Oman, who reported that the English language teachers did not use the English language sufficiently in their classrooms.

The teachers' responses to these statements were slightly different from those offered by the students, with the majority of the teachers underscoring their continued attempts to encourage their students to employ the English language both within and outside the classroom, irrespective of these attempts being unsuccessful most of the time. The teachers emphasised that limited use of the learners' L1 can sometimes be important in the foreign language classroom, since they believed that students usually fail to grasp the meaning of certain words or concepts in English, in which case the provision of the Arabic counterpart could prove useful. The teachers cited a number of justifications, which ranged from the students' unwillingness to speak in English to L1 interference. This result was not surprising as it echoes the findings from a study in the same country conducted by

Diaab (2016), which also reported the teachers' extensive use of the learners' mother tongue in an EFL speaking class.

The quantitative results also indicated that some students generally agreed that the speaking classes they attend are mostly teacher centred, with the students emphasising their limited chances to interact or to become involved in participation. This result is linked in the literature with Shurovi's (2014) findings, who also found that most of the speaking classes he tested were more teacher centred. The significance of communication in enhancing the students' speaking skills was evident in Shower's (2013, p. 456) results, which concluded that "*[c]ommunicative classroom practices help students develop their communicative competence and four skills; whereas no communicative classroom practices hardly help students develop them*".

Some of the lecturers, on the other hand, stated that despite their continued attempts to involve their student in interaction activities and communication, these efforts usually fail to achieve their goals. This was mainly justified by the examination-based pre-prepared syllabi, which are typically designed by the English language department, and are expected to be followed by all the teachers in the institution during their teaching. These syllabi tend to focus on developing the students' knowledge of grammar, as opposed to encouraging communicative language principles and techniques. The teachers also cited the students' hesitation and unwillingness to participate in the communicative activities due to their lack of confidence and limited vocabulary.

When the students were asked their opinion about student-centred classes, some of them highlighted their usefulness and importance in enhancing their speaking skills; however, some other students surprisingly criticised the notion of student-centred classes, and confirmed that they find learning directly from an experienced person such as their teacher to be more effective in terms of enhancing their speaking competencies than learning from an unexperienced and less proficient person such as their peer in the classroom. These students argued that they find that the drilling of dialogues and conversations helps them to remember chunks of speech when they want to engage in speaking in real situations. They also confirmed that their attention and understanding is reduced when the classroom become animated and everyone is interacting. This result was surprising at it contradicts a number of studies that confirmed the students' enjoyment and interest in using communicative activities to a greater extent than the controlled ones

(Diaab, 2016), (Gautam and Kumar, 2015) and Shower (2016). According to this result, it could be argued that *“there is no given set of learning strategies that works for everyone”* (Rivera-Mills and Plonsky, 2007, p. 543). It could be speculated that communicative activities are not always useful to all different types of students. Students sometimes have a degree of philosophy and consciousness of how the language should be learned, and which teachers should consider in their teaching practice Abraham and Vann (1987). According to Rivera-Mills and Plonsky (2007) *“A strong connection has been found between students’ beliefs and their language learning behaviours”*. Number of studies in the literature Horwitz’s (1988), Truscott (1999) and Rivera-Mills and Plonsky (2007) in line with this finding, as they confirmed that some of the students they examined prefer to learn the language using communicative activities, whereas many others who were in the same classes prefer using other different non communicative activities.

With regards to the group work activities and involvement in interaction, the questionnaire results show that the teachers do not appear to be effectively encouraging their students to work in groups. Although most of the teachers underscored their clear understanding of the importance of communication and interaction as key principles in developing the learners’ language use, the majority of their application revealed huge concern to encourage students’ independent and passive learning.

Considering all of the above, the responses of the students across all levels based on gender, year level, and level of experience did not differ from each other, whereas their responses with regards to their level of proficiency did differ. Although the students’ perceptions according to their level of proficiency were different, the majority of the students who agreed that traditional approaches are more frequently applied were those who classified themselves as being poor in terms of their level of speaking skills.

In response to the factor that inquired about the students’ perceptions towards the use of traditional approaches in the classroom, some of the students were in general agreement that their optimum learning is when they are taught as a whole class. Their responses about the usefulness of learning the language without interaction with others involved different opinions. Some of the students expressed their excitement and satisfaction about group work activities and how important it is to discuss topics with others and to share ideas, whereas some others surprisingly emphasised their preference for learning the language without actually

practising it with others. These students elaborated further that shyness and anxiety of producing errors in front of others means that learning with others is seen as stressful and not beneficial. Similarly, this perception was evident in the students' responses, where a number of them expressed agreement with the statement that assumes mastering grammatical rules to be an important factor in enhancing communication skills. This result contradicted with many studies in the literature Nishimoto and Anh (2016) and (Hall (2017), which claimed that communicative activities are useful and beneficial to all of the students in enhancing their learning skills. It seems that not all of the students in the classroom find communicative tasks and activities interesting and facilitate their learning. It could be argued here that the usefulness of such type of activities depends of the students' needs and beliefs about the best way that suit his/her learning. It could be suggested that different type of activities suits some type of students but not all. This result is in line with another study conducted by Garrett and Shortall (2002) in Brazil, which found that a large number of EFL students did not find significant differences between communicative activities and less communicative activities in their classroom.

The lecturers that participated in this study had their own views about the students' level of interaction and willingness to participate. Four of the interviewees highlighted that despite many students enjoying the communicative activities and finding them more interesting than any other types of activities, there are number of factors that make them very hesitant and too diffident to participate. These issues ranged from the students' habit of total reliance on the teachers to guide the whole lesson, or their lack of confidence and limited ability in terms of vocabulary and grammar.

The quantitative data associated with the above factor did not differ with regards to the gender and level of experience; however, the responses were different with regards to the respondents' year level and level of proficiency. Those students who classified themselves as very strong in their speaking skills, were the vast majority of those who considered that the traditional approach is not the optimum teaching method for enhancing their speaking competence.

The 'teachers' focus' factor revealed that the majority of the students disagreed that the teachers concentrate on the appropriateness of their speech when they provide feedback, as they reported that greater concern is given to improving the linguistic forms of the language. In addition, the students also believed that the majority of

the teachers focus on the accuracy of the students' spoken language to a greater extent than concentrating on their fluency. This finding is in line with the those from the study conducted by Coskun (2011), albeit in a different context, while Alonso (2014, p. 154) underscored the significance of enhancing learners' speaking fluency over accuracy and highlighted that “[f]luency does not simply indicate the ability to link elements but also the ability to use language in a natural way”.

With regards to the teachers' perceptions about their main focus when evaluating the students' speaking skills, more than half of them admitted their attention to controlled activities in order to evaluate their students' speaking skills. Although most of these lecturers stressed their clear awareness that promoting communication and focusing on enhancing the students' fluency and flow of ideas are very significant aspects in the teaching of speaking skills, they still give these techniques and strategies very minor attention in their practice. This result concurs with Shower (2013), Alonso (2014) and Kim (2014), who also found that instructors did not employ appropriate evaluation and assessment criteria in their communicative classrooms. The lecturers in the current study argued that the large class sizes that usually exceed 80 students make practising communication or listening to everyone's conversation within the same lecture theatre an impossible objective. In addition, the students' continued hesitation and unwillingness to participate due to their anxiety of making errors and their limited use of vocabulary and grammar significantly discourage the teachers from involving them in oral practice. Shurovi's (2014) findings correspond with this result, whereby he also indicated that most of the students did not respond and participate in the speaking class.

Unexpectedly, some of the teachers emphasised their awareness of the importance of focusing on fluency over accuracy, and confirmed their successful attempts of developing the students' use of language. These lecturers elaborated that although there are many obstacles that make this outcome difficult to achieve, they still find ways to concentrate on fluency insofar as is possible. Some of the strategies that they employ pre-designated criteria with which to grade the students' conversations, which focuses on the students' use of vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation skills and fluency, among other aspects. The lecturers highlighted that despite the application of this type of evaluation being very onerous considering the large class sizes and insufficient contact time, they nevertheless apply the criteria as much as possible in their classes. They also emphasised the

application of some strategies that is believed to be important in developing students' level of fluency. Some of these strategies is the concentration on the significance of involving students into real life practice with their classmates. One of the lecturers mentioned, *"It is important, as students feel very enthusiastic and interested when I ask them to talk about real life events related to them or anything related to their personal experience.* It is also important to gain confidence to speak as most of students do not have enough presentation skills".

This result agrees with the findings of research conducted by Alonso (2014), who also found that some of the teachers who taught speaking skills prioritised fluency over accuracy, whereas others applied the opposite emphasis.

The students' responses across all levels based on gender and year level did not differ, whereas their responses with regards to their level of experience and proficiency in learning English were different. Those students who found themselves to be more competent in their speaking skills were the majority of those who believed that their teachers' feedback is concentrated on their linguistic forms rather than focusing on their level of fluency.

6.3 Teachers' and students' perceptions about the extent to which the CLT approach is implemented at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University

With regards to the students' perceptions about the most frequently applied CLT technique, the responses were almost unanimous. Most of the students underscored that group discussions, visual aids and language game techniques are the least commonly used when compared to all the possible techniques, whereas the memorisation of conversations/dialogues was considered to be the most frequently used in the classroom. Concerning the other techniques provided, such as role-plays or watching videos, they were considered to be the second most important techniques teachers use in the conversation lessons, followed by listening to audiotapes and CDs. This result confirms the findings reported in a number of studies conducted in Turkey (Coskun, 2011), Spain (Alonso, 2014) and Libya Altaieb and Omar (2015) , which also revealed that the teachers usually ignored those tasks and activities that encourage communication and focused more on grammar-controlled activities and guided instruction activities.

The lecturers' responses, on the other hand, did not differ from the students with regards to the communicative activities applied in the conversation classroom. The majority of the teachers confirmed the students' view and emphasised their use of

controlled activities as a main teaching strategy. This result is slightly different from the findings of the study conducted by Coskun (2011), which highlighted the teachers' discrepancy between their attitudes and their actual practice with regards to the activities and tasks applied. Although the teachers continued to stress their practice of communicative activities, their reported practice reveals that the majority of the exercises focus on grammar-based knowledge, as well as omitting fluency-focused activities. They justified this limited use of communicative tasks and activities due to the examination-based syllabi that they are expected to apply within their classrooms, which has not been designed to encourage CLT principles and techniques.

The responses to the above statements with regards to gender, level of experience and degree of proficiency in speaking skills were similar; however, their perceptions in terms of their level of academic study were different, with limited use of CLT techniques was more strongly confirmed by the second year students.

The students' responses to the teachers' feedback factor indicated that the teachers focus primarily on their grammatical structures and pronunciation skills, followed by their attention to the use of vocabulary and the content of the spoken language. However, their lowest concern was given to the confident communication of the students' ideas when they speak. This result is in line with a number of other studies conducted by Coskun (2011) and Shawer (2013), who also found that some teachers placed greater focus on the development of their students' use of grammar rather than their fluency. In contrast, this result contradicts with the study conducted by Shurovi (2014), which indicated that the teachers seemed to have a higher concern for developing the students' level of fluency and pronunciation skills, with the results indicating that the students gave a minor fluency and pronunciation problems.

When the teachers were asked about their typical balance between controlled and less controlled activities in the classroom, most of their responses echoed the students' perceptions. Almost all of the lecturers' responses admitted utilising a very high level of controlled activities that exceeded 80% of their overall practice, at the expense of applying CLT-based activities. One lecturer, for example, underscored her inability to use more interaction and communication due to the significant disruption that resulted from the large number of students in the classroom when conducting an activity that involved communication. Furthermore, another two lecturers elaborated further that it is very difficult to change the

students' impressions and to convince them to accept involvement in discussions or communication, since they are accustomed to following teacher-centred classes. They emphasised that this teacher-led approach is the most common method of teaching that the majority of the teachers apply in the other subjects in the university. This result confirms the findings of Coskun (2011), who also found that the majority of the teachers' CLT practice focused on grammar-based knowledge, with the very limited presence of fluency focus.

On the contrary, a very limited number of teachers confirmed that around 70% of their teaching time is student-centred. This result was unexpected as it contradicts the literature, as well as the other lecturers who took part in this study. Despite these interviewees sharing the same communication obstacles as all the other participant teachers, they manage to apply a high degree of communication in their classes. It could be speculated here that applying communication in the ESL classroom when there are limited facilities is difficult, but it is not impossible. The last interviewees confirmed their ability of applying successful communicative activities using flash cards, pictures, basic language games that they design themselves and not provided by the university. One of these lecturers elaborated, *"I should not blame the university for my deficient use of communicative practice, I am the leader in the classroom, and innovation and creativity is mainly controlled by my skills and not by what is provided by the university."* In addition, another lecturer stressed that *"there are many facilities that is provided by many universities in other contexts, but the teachers in those classrooms still use traditional approaches in their classroom."*

The quantitative responses to this factor with regards to the gender and students' level of experience in learning speaking did not differ, but the responses with regard to the year level and level of proficiency in speaking skills were different, with the students who believe that the teachers' main concern when providing their feedback is on the use of grammatical structures and linguistic forms being students from the very poor speaking competency category.

Concerning the factor that inquired about the students' level of interaction in the classroom, the majority of the responses revealed that the students' level of interaction is considerably low. The lecturers also confirmed this fact when they traced the problem back to the students' lack of confidence and continued hesitation to participate. The teachers claimed that their students always complain about their limited use of vocabulary and grammatical mistakes, which leads them

to feel anxious about uttering errors in front of their classroom peers. This result is consistent with Kim (2014), who also found that the students lacked the motivation to participate and preferred not to take part in communication activities, despite the teachers' attempts try to involve them. In addition, most of the students' responses strongly agreed that they are considerably unengaged in the classroom, and are not given enough chances to participate.

On the other hand, although most of the teachers did not deny this phenomenon, and they admitted that the students had limited practice of communicative interactions in their classrooms because of a number of different reasons, some of the lecturers did not consider the current classroom barriers to be a problem that would prevent the students' interaction. These teachers believed that it is their responsibility to find a way to convince the students to engage in interaction, and to help them to enjoy it. This result was not expected as it contradicts a number of other studies which concluded that CLT is applicable in those contexts that have no application problems Kim (2014), Marzec-Stawiarska (2015) and Altaieb and Omar (2015).

The students' perceptions about this factor with regard to their gender were similar; however, their perceptions considering their year level, level of experience and proficiency in learning speaking skills differed. The very limited competency students were the vast majority who believed that their level of interaction with the classroom activities is very low.

Most of the responses to the inquiry about the CLT tasks and activities assigned by the teachers did not reflect the extensive existence of CLT-based tasks and techniques, with the majority of the students strongly agreeing that the teachers use a limited variety of tasks and activities that encourage communication and interaction. For example, the results revealed that the teachers apply the very limited use of real-life tasks or problem-solving activities with their students, with Alonso (2014, p. 155) cautioning that the "*[I]ack of exposure to the second language not only leads to poor output but in the long run it can also lead to a lack of motivation*".

The teachers' interviews also revealed similar results where four of the lecturers showed unfamiliarity in terms of employing real-life tasks in their practice. Instead, they highlighted using controlled activities only when teaching speaking skills, as they believed that considering the number of obstacles previously mentioned, communicative activities are not applicable due to the high number of constraints.

This finding is in accordance with the findings from a study conducted by Rashtchi and Keyvanfar (2012), who also found that a limited number of real-life tasks were used in the context they explored.

In addition, the organisation of group work activities that allow for the exploration of a problem or encourage the students' flow of ideas was only marginally applied. These communicative activities are clearly being replaced with other types of tasks that lean towards grammar-based activities, and a teacher-centred focus.

Only two lecturers welcomed utilising this type of activities and confirmed its usefulness in enhancing the students' speaking proficiency, in contrast to their colleagues who work in the same university and do not pay much attention to attempting to stimulate communication. Nevertheless, these two lecturers confirmed their frequent and successful application of interactive activities and real-life tasks in their practice. They justified this approach by explaining that a successful communicative classroom depends primarily on the teachers themselves and their strategies for creating a communicative environment, as opposed to the facilities they may or may not have, or the obstacles they may face. These lecturers did not deny the obstacles that the other lecturers cited, but they underscored that these challenges do not prevent them from promoting successful communication in the classroom. The usefulness of communicative activities as an essential tool in enhancing students learning skills was evident in the literature with number of studies such as (Ahmed, 2017).

The quantitative perceptions based on gender, year level, and level of experience in learning English did not differ; however, according to the students' level of proficiency in speaking skills their perceptions were different, with the majority of those who believed that CLT tasks and activities are not frequently used being students from the very strong proficiency category.

The results obtained from the factor that investigated what students can accomplish according to the CLT approach indicated that the students have a positive attitude towards the fact that their teachers keep encouraging them to practise speaking skills outside the classroom. The teachers also expressed the same opinion, where the majority of them emphasised their continued encouragement for the development of their students' overall language skills through reading different newspapers and/or watching English language television channels and documentaries.

In contrast, most of the students generally agreed that they are not given the opportunity to suggest the content of their lessons or what activities they might prefer to engage with. In addition, the teachers seem to be giving slightly less concern to allowing the students to provide their opinion or assessment of their understanding of the conversation lessons. This fact was conceded by most of the teachers when they admitted their frequent use of controlled activities within their practice. They directly explained that considering the number of obstacles that are presented, primarily in the context of the large class sizes, limited available teaching time, and the rigid course structure designed by the English department, they are restricted to applying very limited use of communication, with greater focus on grammar-based activities.

The responses based on gender, year level, and students' level of experience in learning English were similar; however, their responses were different with regards to their level of proficiency, whereby the very strong category were the overwhelming majority who believed that they are not given noticeable opportunities to be involved in selecting the activities or topics they want to study.

6.4 The obstacles that may impede the effective adoption of the CLT approach according to the teachers' and students' perceptions

The majority of the students' and teachers' responses agreed or strongly agreed that there are certain CLT application problems that affect their speaking practice. Most of these obstacles are in line with the findings resulting from Al Hosni, (2014), Kim (2014), Marzec-Stawiarska (2015), Altaieb and Omar (2015). The most severe problems reported involve the students' shyness levels and anxiety of communicating in English in large groups. The majority of the students highlighted that their lack of confidence in expressing themselves in front of their classroom peers is a main barrier that prevents their speaking practice. Although this issue was not the most severe according to their lecturers, they also underscored the students' limited participation and continued hesitation for fear of making errors while speaking. The results indicated that the students do not seem to be satisfied with the formal relationship they have with their teachers in the classroom, believing that this kind of formality does not encourage the creation of a positive learning environment.

In addition, the teachers' and students' responses concurred that the insufficient number of conversation classes specified for the speaking skills course is a main

barrier. The teachers cited this limited number of speaking class opportunities, which does not exceed four hours per week, as well as the limited chances they can provide to their students, particularly given the large number of students in each class. Similarly, the students also confirmed this fact when they emphasised their limited interaction and opportunities for communication. This finding was anticipated as it agrees with a number of other studies such as Kim (2014) and Shurovi (2014), who also considered the limited teaching time allocated for speaking and listening skills as being unsatisfactory.

Besides the lesson frequency and student numbers, the classroom furniture was also criticised in terms of the desks and chairs, which are causing a significant barrier as they are not arranged in layouts that permit group work activities or working in pairs. The results also indicated that the speaking skills' course modules specified by the teachers do not seem to be effectively encouraging the students' communication. Both the students and their teachers agreed that the course modules identified by the English language department have not been designed in a way that encourages the application of communicative activities or promotes interaction in the classroom, with the majority of the modules focused on developing the students' reading and writing skills, even though they are in a speaking class. This finding is in line with those emerging from the study conducted by Coskun (2011), who also found that one of the major teaching-of-speaking-skills obstacles in that context was the focus of the syllabus being grammar examination based, which is far removed from the principles of CLT.

Additionally, grammar seems to be the teachers' primary focus as they are placing the greatest attention on developing the students' accuracy and pronunciation skills as opposed to encouraging fluency, provided that the learners' message is being clearly conveyed.

According to the lecturers' responses, the large class size is the most extreme issue that discourages their application of speaking practice activities. Both the teachers and the students believed that it is particularly challenging to provide sufficient speaking opportunities to all students when such a large number of students are attending the class. This result is not surprising as it concurs with many of the studies reported in the literature such as Coskun (2011), Kim (2014), Baker and Westrup (2003) and Ju (2013). Furthermore, the majority of the students disagreed that the type of activities applied by their teachers positively encourages them to practise their speaking skills, and although they generally agreed that their teachers

usually try to employ a variety of activities within their practice, this range still does not successfully achieve the desired level of communication. This finding corresponds with the teachers' responses, where most of them confirmed their limited use of communicative activities, and concentrating more on other controlled activities that focus on developing the students' reading and writing skills.

On the other hand, the students were slightly more satisfied with the contact time specified for the teaching of speaking skills, although this perception is not in agreement with their teachers, where all but one of these interviewees highlighted their dissatisfaction with the available speaking skills contact time, and that their large class sizes require longer lesson periods so that they can involve everyone in communication. This outcome is in alignment with the finding obtained from Coskun (2011), while Kim (2014, p. 343) pointed out that the limited speaking classes scheduled were "*not enough to visibly improve students' language proficiency*". Only one lecturer held a different view about the available teaching time, stating that the current contact period could be enough if the teachers were to use a student-centred technique in their teaching, which would result in improved time management.

All of the lecturers complained about the limited facilities provided by the university in order to improve the teaching and learning of English speaking skills. The majority of these interviewees underscored the shortage of teacher training as a main barrier, and emphasised that they have never received any training that could help them develop their teaching practice or to become informed about new teaching methods and approaches that could be applied.

A positive outcome resulted from a study conducted by Weshah and Tomok (2011), who measured the usefulness of teaching trainings in terms of enhancing the language teachers' speaking and writing skills. Their findings showed that training had a significant influence on these teachers' performance, and considerably influenced their classroom practice and diversity in teaching strategies, as well as having a positive impact on their lesson planning. The findings of the current research, on the other hand, indicate that most of the teachers highlighted their dependence on their own experience and personal research in terms of their awareness and understanding of what best suits their classrooms practice. Almost all of the teachers recognised the need to develop their teaching practice, and to become more familiar with the new communicative approaches and methods for language teaching. The importance of training for language teachers in developing

their communicative skills was evident in many of the studies explored in the literature review (e.g. Doukas, 1996; Shawer, 2013; Shurovi, 2014).

Two lecturers held a different approach regarding the lack of teaching training sessions. These lecturers, as per all the other interviewees, confirmed that they have never engaged in any teaching training sessions at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University; however, the two have managed to develop their teaching practice outside the university. They found their own ways to develop their teaching practice, and attended training sessions offered by the private sector. It could be argued that a language teacher generally has the resources and capability to find solutions for the problems they might encounter in their practice. It is not surprising that these teachers took the initiative and did not wait for the university decision makers to provide suitable teaching support that would meet their needs. Instead, they managed to develop skills that seem effective and successful in their classrooms. They elaborated that the trainings they attended concentrated on the involvement of interaction and communicative skills in the classroom.

Almost all of the teachers stressed the lack of teaching and learning facilities such as the internet, teaching materials, language laboratories, modern library resources, and so forth, which they assured are useful in enhancing their teaching practice. These teachers also complained of the lack of workstations outside the classrooms where students can meet and practise their communicative skills in real situations. This result is in line with (Mustafa, 2010; Coskun, 2011; Diallo, 2014; Shurovi, 2014, Shurovi, 2014; Soliman, 2013), who also found that university decision makers must give greater attention to the teachers' training and facilities. None of the responses to this factor with regards to their gender, students' levels of experience and proficiency in learning English differed; however, their answers were different considering their year level, with the fourth year students experiencing more challenges in comparison to the other three years.

6.5 Summary of the chapter

This chapter presented a discussion of the quantitative and qualitative findings in line with the research objectives selected for this study. It also provided links between the current research findings and those studies considered in the literature review in Chapter Two. In the next and final chapter, the study's conclusions, recommendations, limitations, contribution to knowledge and suggestions for future work can be found.

Chapter Seven: Conclusion

7 Chapter Seven: Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the overall conclusion of this study, including a summary of the findings that emerged in the previous chapter, and discussing them with regards to the research aim and objectives presented in Chapter One.

Accordingly, this chapter is divided into six sections. The first part presents the key findings in relation to the research objectives discussed in Chapter Two. Subsequently, the second section offers recommendations that would contribute to the teaching of English speaking skills at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University. The next section highlights the contribution to knowledge made by this study, followed by an outline of the research limitations. The final section of this chapter presents a number of suggestions for further research.

7.2 Summary of the key findings

Based on the findings presented in Chapter Five and discussed in Chapter Six, the following section summaries the key findings of the current research by discussing how these findings fulfil and support the research objectives presented in Chapter One.

7.2.1 Objective one

The first objective aimed at identifying the current teaching methods employed to teach speaking skills at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University. The key findings related to this objective revealed that the majority of the teachers apply the frequent use of traditional methods in their speaking skills classes, with minor attention given to the use of communication and student interaction in their classes.

Most of the findings revealed that speaking skills' teachers seemed to be focusing primarily on developing the students' linguistic input and knowledge of grammar as opposed to their communication. These teachers reported minor attention to the importance of developing the learners' use of language and fluency, with greater focus on the extensive correction of the students' grammatical errors, ignoring the fact that errors themselves are part of the learning process (Ferris, 2002; Lee, 2004; Al-Jarrah, 2016). The findings also revealed that the students have limited exposure to the English language in the communicative classroom, with some

classroom environments allowing the students to fall back on their mother tongue during the speaking skills activities. In addition, the speaking skills lessons are more teacher-centred classes with insufficient student involvement opportunities provided.

Most of the teachers seemed to struggle to create authentic English communication in their classes for number of different reasons, which varied from the large class sizes, time management, and lack of on-going professional training, to the examination-based syllabi provided by the English language department. According to the students and teachers, the most pressing issue is the large class sizes.

Results also showed that limited number of teachers emphasised that notwithstanding the many obstacles that prevent CLT application, they still find it applicable and are able to carry out successful spoken communication in their classrooms.

7.2.2 Objective two

The second objective in the current research sought to determine the extent to which the CLT approach is implemented by English speaking skills teachers at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University. In this respect, the findings related to this objective indicate that the teachers tend to primarily rely on uncommunicative techniques in the speaking skills classroom. Most of these teachers' practice showed only the limited use of communicative techniques such as group discussions, language games, visual aids or role-play. In contrast, techniques such as the memorisation of dialogues or conversations were the most frequently used by the majority of the teachers. In addition, there was a strong reliance on controlled activities that do not encourage free communication, and leave the students as passive as opposed to interactive language learners. The teachers also focused on the development of the students' knowledge of grammar, pronunciation skills and accuracy, whereas minor attention was given to the development of the students' flow of ideas and fluency.

With regards to the students' level of interaction in the speaking class, the results revealed that this is considerably low. Both the students and their teachers emphasised that there is a limited variety of tasks and activities. Real-life tasks or problem-solving activities, for example, are not frequently practised compared to other controlled activities, while group work activities and tasks that involve the

exploration of ideas or problems are only slightly applied. Instead, these activities tend to be replaced by grammar-based tasks that require a teacher-centred focus. Results also showed that although a large number of students highlighted the usefulness and importance of communicative activities and students-centred classes in enhancing their speaking skills; some other students surprisingly criticised the communicative activities and the notion of student-centred classes, and argued the controlled activities are more effective in developing their speaking competencies.

7.2.3 Objective three

This objective was aimed at highlighting the main obstacles that impede the effective adoption of the CLT approach in the speaking classroom. The findings related to this objective showed that the students and their teachers identified a number of different obstacles that they believe are the main reasons for why the CLT approach is not widely applied in their classrooms.

The results revealed that both the students and their teachers believe that the students' lack of confidence and reserve are the main obstacles that prevent their participation in the speaking class. Students' high level of anxiety in terms of producing errors in front of their classroom peers, and their shyness of speaking in a foreign language with others, make them hesitate to get involved in frequent interactions. The findings also highlighted that there are insufficient conversation classes allocated to the teaching of speaking skills, which do not exceed four hours a week in total. According to the participants, this limited exposure to the foreign language, as well as the insufficient interaction opportunities, discourage them from practising the language freely.

It is also apparent that the distribution of seating in the classroom is not supporting the learning process, where it seems that the desks and chairs are not arranged in a layout that permits easy and effective interaction among the students. Furthermore, the course modules provided by the English department do not seem to be effectively encouraging the students' communication. Most of the modules have been designed based on examination-based syllabi that focus on the development of reading and writing skills, despite the classes of focus in this case study being speaking classes.

Additionally, the findings revealed that the teachers place an excessive focus on providing feedback on the development of grammatical knowledge and accuracy

over fluency, while the large class size is one of the most prominent problems that discourages the practice of communication in the speaking classes. Both the teachers and the students highlighted that it is a significant challenge to provide sufficient speaking opportunities to all students with such a large number of individuals attending the class.

The results also showed that there is a shortage of facilities provided by the university in order to help improve the teaching and learning of English speaking skills. Facilities such as teacher training were the most frequently mentioned by the language teachers, with all of the lecturers emphasising that they have never received any type of training at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University. The provision of such training would help the teachers develop their teaching practice and become informed about those teaching methods and approaches that encourage communication.

There are also number of other facilities that the students and their lecturers believe are missing from their institution, which include teaching and learning facilities such as language laboratories, teaching materials, robust internet access or modern library resources.

7.3 Recommendations of the study

Based on the findings and the literature related to this study, a number of recommendations can now be suggested to the decision makers and key stakeholders at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University. It is believed that following these recommendations will contribute towards the improvement of the instruction of English speaking skills at the institution, as well as the development of the teaching and learning environment in general.

7.3.1 To the university stakeholders and decision makers

This study found that the first and most important recommendation is to provide the English speaking skills teachers with high-quality professional training through which their teaching practice can be developed. It was found that the language teachers need to improve their teaching practice and to increase their knowledge regarding the communicative methods and approaches for language teaching. It is also necessary for the English language department to organise workshops and/or seminars on regular bases in order to allow the lecturers to meet and articulate their

actual and potential challenges, as well as discussing suggestions on how to overcome these issues.

Improved attention must also be paid to the development of the curricula and the syllabi designated by the university stakeholders. The current syllabi must be changed from examination based in order to focus on the enhancement of grammatical knowledge and accuracy, into a more communicative orientation. The syllabi must also reflect understanding of the learners' and lecturers' challenges encountered in the classroom. Additionally, it should provide proper guidance on how the potential challenges can be overcome.

The university infrastructure in general must be improved in terms of the classrooms, language laboratories and other facilities such as the libraries. Classroom size, for example, is a major obstacle restricting the application of communicative approaches in the conversation classes. Furthermore, reducing the number of students in every group would facilitate the lecturers' role in terms of involving the students more frequently in interaction. In addition, providing well-equipped language laboratories is also a necessity in this university. The languages department should give greater attention to the improvement of these laboratories as they lack basic equipment. Improved development is also required for the libraries, where the resources are not regularly updated, and lack internet facilities where students can search online for material and literature that may be unavailable in the library. Having exposure to different publications, and engaging with the internet facilities to communicate and collaborate with people from different parts of the world will help the students to improve their language proficiency and extend their lexical provision.

7.3.2 To the English speaking skills teachers

For the teachers, this study has resulted in a number of suggestions that must be taken into consideration in order to develop the teaching of speaking skills, and make its practice more effective and less daunting. The first and most essential aspect is the teaching style, which predominantly takes the form of lecturing or 'spoon-feeding' the information. The current approaches and methods that seem to be focused primarily on enhancing the students' accuracy and grammatical knowledge must be replaced by other communicative approaches such as CLT.

It is also important to minimise the focus on using traditional approaches and methods of language teaching that create passive learners and result in a

demotivating learning environment. These approaches need to be replaced by communicative approaches that involve the students' interactions, while enhancing their language use and function. The participants were also unsatisfied with the current teaching contact time, and the insufficient number of speaking classes provided to teach speaking skills. These classes must be increased in order to provide more opportunities for students to take part and practise the language. The teachers' practice must also be shifted from teacher-centred classes that focus on controlled types of activities, to students-centred classes where more opportunities can be given for the students to practise the language.

Teachers also must consider students' beliefs in the selection of the appropriate learning strategies and activities they use. This could be achieved by organising ongoing discussions with students' through the course about the best learning style they recommend, or by developing a simple questionnaire at the beginning of every term, and according to that, they can identify and evaluate students' needs and beliefs. This could enable instructors to potentially bridge the gaps in students' needs, and match them appropriately with their instruction strategies. It could also help in directing students' attention to more communicative strategies.

In addition, the teachers need to increase their focus on enhancing student interaction and participation in the communicative class. Dividing the students into small and large groups should help them to enhance their communicative competences, and to learn from their peers. Those students who have a high level of anxiety could find participating in small groups or pairs less stressful. It is also necessary to have greater focus on the selection of activities and tasks applied. Diversifying the types of activities used, as well concentrating on those topics that will stimulate the students' interests, are essential in the communicative classroom.

It is also useful to rely on real-life tasks in motivating students and encouraging their flow of ideas. Promoting the students to speak regardless of the mistakes they may make is also very important, while the frequent correction of students' errors and the excessive focus on accuracy over fluency leads to students' lack of confidence and anxiety in employing the foreign language, and thus such intense real-time correction should be avoided. There must be a continued emphasis on the fact that mistakes are part of the learning process, and as such are something that can be improved on through practice.

It is also apparent that there is a clear lack of utilising effective learning materials in the speaking classrooms. Those lecturers who teach English in general and

speaking skills in particular must update their teaching aids and make use of technology in order to make learning more effective, enjoyable and interesting.

Table 7.1 presents the study's recommendations, based on the comparative information derived from the Anova and the t-test results. These recommendations have been categorised into groups for each factor of the study.

7.3.3 The study recommendations based on the Anova and t-test results

Table 7.1 The study recommendations based on the Anova and t-test results

Factor	Year level	Level of experiences	Proficiency in speaking	Gender
Class environment (obstacles)	The obstacles decrease with the academic progression as they are more apparent in the initial years compared to the later years. Hence, more consideration must be given to minimising these obstacles in the initial years of university study.	Obstacles were found similarly by all groups. Thus, no priorities or more consideration are given. These obstacles must be minimised and treated equally across groups.	Obstacles were found similarly by all groups. Thus, no priorities or more consideration are given. These obstacles must be minimised and treated equally across groups.	Obstacles were found similarly by all groups. Thus, no priorities or more consideration are given. These obstacles must be minimised and treated equally across groups.
CLT techniques	The adoption was limited	The adoption was limited	The adoption was limited	The adoption was limited

	across all years. Hence, it must be boosted for all years, and particularly the first and fourth years where the adoption was the least.	across all groups. Hence, it must be boosted for all groups.	across all groups. Hence, it must be boosted for all groups, especially the very poor and the very strong, where the adoption was the least.	across all groups. Hence, it must be boosted for all groups.
Level of adopting the traditional approach	The adoption of the traditional approach was very high across all groups, and particularly for grammars rules, which implies the reduced adoption of CLT. Hence, teachers must place greater focus on fluency to strike a balance between accuracy and	The adoption of the traditional approach was very high across all groups, and particularly for grammars rules, which implies the reduced adoption of CLT. Hence, teachers must place greater focus on fluency to strike a balance between accuracy and	The adoption of the traditional approach was very high across all groups, and particularly for grammars rules, which implies the reduced adoption of CLT. Hence, teachers must place greater focus on fluency to strike a balance between accuracy and	The adoption of the traditional approach was very high across all groups, and particularly for grammars rules, which implies the reduced adoption of CLT. Hence, teachers must place greater focus on fluency to strike a balance between accuracy and

	fluency and increase the level of CLT usage.	fluency and increase the level of CLT usage.	fluency and increase the level of CLT usage, particularly for those participants described to have less than strong proficiency since the use of the traditional approach, especially grammar rules, was found to be more prevalent in these groups.	fluency and increase the level of CLT usage.
Feedback	There was a high level of feedback given to those belonging to the first and second years, while it was low for those belonging to years three and four.	The feedback given to all groups was modest and tended towards being low. Hence, it must be provided to all groups and enhanced equally without	There was a high level of feedback given to those with less proficiency, while it was low for those with high proficiency. Therefore, the teachers must	The feedback given to all groups was modest and tended towards being low. Hence, it must be provided to all groups and enhanced equally without

	<p>Therefore, the teachers must be directed to increase the level of feedback given to the third and fourth year students, especially for those areas pertinent to content and communicative ideas.</p> <p>Feedback given to the rest of the students must be maintained and relatively increased as it is already deemed to be high compared to both the third and fourth year participants.</p>	<p>focusing on one group at the expense of others.</p>	<p>be directed to increase the level of feedback given to those with high proficiency (as per those with low proficiency), and particularly for those areas pertinent to content and communicative ideas, as continued low feedback levels here might undermine their proficiency.</p> <p>Feedback given to the rest of the students must be maintained and boosted relatively as it is already deemed to be high compared to those</p>	<p>focusing on one group at the expense of others.</p>
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			participants with low proficiency.	
CLT (tasks assigned by teacher)	<p>The level of adoption was very low across all groups. Hence, the teachers must be directed to enhance the communicative environment in their classes without undue focus on any specific group as the adoption is very low for all groups. Moreover, the enhancement must place greater focus on increasing the introduction of real-life tasks as well as organising group work to increase the</p>	<p>The level of adoption was very low across all groups. Hence, the teachers must be directed to enhance the communicative environment in their classes without undue focus on any specific group as the adoption is very low for all groups. Moreover, the enhancement must place greater focus on increasing the introduction of real-life tasks as well as organising group work to increase the</p>	<p>The level of adoption was very low across all groups. Hence, the teachers must be directed to enhance the communicative environment in their classes without undue focus on any specific group as the adoption is very low for all groups. Moreover, the enhancement must place greater focus on increasing the introduction of real-life tasks as well as organising group work to increase the</p>	<p>The level of adoption was very low across all groups. Hence, the teachers must be directed to enhance the communicative environment in their classes without undue focus on any specific group as the adoption is very low for all groups. Moreover, the enhancement must place greater focus on increasing the introduction of real-life tasks as well as organising group work to increase the</p>

	students' communicative opportunities, which also implies managing the upper limit of student numbers in the classroom.	students' communicative opportunities, which also implies managing the upper limit of student numbers in the classroom.	students' communicative opportunities, which also implies managing the upper limit of student numbers in the classroom.	students' communicative opportunities, which also implies managing the upper limit of student numbers in the classroom.
CLT (what the student can do according to the approach)	To increase the adoption of CLT in terms of what the student can achieve, as its application was found to be low. Teachers must encourage the students to practise their speaking skills outside of the classroom and provide them with the opportunity to forward their opinions as well as assessing their understanding in the course. Moreover, the teacher must allow the students to contribute towards the lesson content in terms of what activities are viewed as being useful or motivating. This must be achieved	To increase the adoption of CLT in terms of what the student can achieve, as its application was found to be low. Teachers must encourage the students to practise their speaking skills outside of the classroom and provide them with the opportunity to forward their opinions as well as assessing their understanding in the course. Moreover, the teacher must allow the students to contribute towards the lesson content in terms of what activities are viewed as being useful or motivating. This must be achieved	To increase the adoption of CLT in terms of what the student can achieve, as its application was found to be low. Teachers must encourage the students to practise their speaking skills outside of the classroom and provide them with the opportunity to forward their opinions as well as assessing their understanding in the course. Moreover, the teacher must allow the students to contribute towards the lesson content in terms of what activities are viewed as being useful or motivating. This must be achieved	To increase the adoption of CLT in terms of what the student can achieve, as its application was found to be low. Teachers must encourage the students to practise their speaking skills outside of the classroom and provide them with the opportunity to forward their opinions as well as assessing their understanding in the course. Moreover, the teacher must allow the students to contribute towards the lesson content in terms of what activities are viewed as being useful or motivating. This must be achieved

	equally across all groups, since they all reported the low adoption of this factor.	equally across all groups, since they all reported the low adoption of this factor.	across all groups, with greater focus on those who have either strong or poor proficiency, as it was found that the rest of the groups (very strong, neutral, very poor) perceived the high adoption of this factor.	equally across all groups, since they all reported the low adoption of this factor.
Students' perceptions towards the traditional approach	Although the students gave less favourable responses regarding the traditional approach, the teachers must inform the students about the benefits of adopting more communicative approaches and how these can play a major role in enhancing their linguistic confidence , alongside improving their proficiency in speaking, as some groups expressed a moderate preference for the traditional approach such as those belonging to the first and second years.	Although the students gave less favourable responses regarding the traditional approach, the teachers must inform the students about the benefits of adopting more communicative approaches and how these can play a major role in shaping their personality, alongside improving their proficiency in speaking.	Although the students gave less favourable responses regarding the traditional approach, the teachers must inform the students about the benefits of adopting more communicative approaches and how these can play a major role in shaping their personality, alongside improving their proficiency in speaking, and in the second years in particular, for those with strong and very strong proficiency who presented a high preference for this approach.	Although the students gave less favourable responses regarding the traditional approach, the teachers must inform the students about the benefits of adopting more communicative approaches and how these can play a major role in shaping their personality, alongside improving their proficiency in speaking.

Interaction in the classroom	The teachers must encourage interactions by following the recommendations given for CLT factors in this table so that the interaction can be maximised. More consideration must be given to the students at all year levels, and especially year two as the interaction was found to be the least in this year.	The teachers must encourage interactions by following the recommendations given for CLT factors in this table, so that interaction can be maximised.	The teachers must encourage interactions by following the recommendations given for CLT factors in this table, so that interaction can be maximised. More consideration must be given to increase the interaction for those with proficiency lower than strong as the interaction was low, particularly for those with poor and very poor proficiency. The very strong categories were found to interact highly, which implies maintaining this level of interactions and boosting it relatively, but not at the expense of the other groups as it is deemed to be high.	The teachers must encourage interactions by following the recommendations given for CLT factors in this table, so that interaction can be maximised.
CLT (teacher focus)	The teachers' feedback must focus on the appropriateness and not the linguistic form. Moreover, the teacher should place greater focus on fluency	The teachers' feedback must focus on the appropriateness and not the linguistic form. Moreover, the teacher should place greater focus on fluency	The teachers' feedback must focus on the appropriateness and not the linguistic form. Moreover, the teacher should place greater focus on fluency	The teachers' feedback must focus on the appropriateness and not the linguistic form. Moreover, the teacher should place greater

	<p>than accuracy. This must be enhanced for all groups as the adoption of this was found to be low, especially for the first year. Following this recommendation will eventually enhance the communicative approach.</p>	<p>than accuracy. This must be boosted for all groups as the adoption of this was found to be low, particularly for those participants who started to learn English from kindergarten and primary school, as these groups were the least fluent compared to the other groups. Following this recommendation can eventually enhance the communicative approach applied in the classroom.</p>	<p>than accuracy. This must be enhanced for all groups as the adoption of this was found to be low, especially for those participants whose proficiency in speaking is less than strong as the adoption of this CLT factor was low in these groups compared to the very strong proficiency group. Following this recommendation will eventually enhance the communicative approach applied in the classroom.</p>	<p>focus on fluency than accuracy.</p>
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7.4 Limitations of the study

Research studies invariably have limitations, which must be acknowledged. Considering these limitations is essential when attempting to transfer the findings of research to other research contexts that share the same characteristics.

This research was limited to the use of questionnaire and interviews as the main data collection tools. Employing observation as an additional qualitative data collection method was not an option, as due to the current security situation and ongoing conflict taking place in Libya it was unsafe for the researcher to travel and observe the speaking classes there. This is unfortunate as the use of observation as an additional tool would have been very effective in investigating how speaking skills are taught and learnt. Additionally, richer data could have been obtained if the researcher has been able to meet the participants, and thus get closer to the research context.

Some limitations also existing regarding the research methods need to be acknowledged. Lecturers in this context tend to have a limited awareness of the use of research methods, and are not used to be being observed or recorded. The majority of teachers in Libya believe that observation is usually associated with appraisal or ministerial evaluation, and accordingly none of them invited or suggested my presence in their classes. Moreover, only a limited number of participants accepted to be recorded during the interviews. Therefore, the researcher was forced to reject observation as a viable qualitative data collection instrument and to concentrate on interviews. The majority of the interviews were conducted via Skype, or e-mail for those participants who had very limited access to the internet, which in the latter case limited the researcher's ability to dig deeper into the responses in real time.

Another limitation of this study is concerned with the limited available data on higher education in Libya, and the teaching of speaking skills in particular. Therefore, information regarding the teaching of speaking skills at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University was difficult to obtain and more often than not did not exist.

Another limitation worth mentioning is that the current study was limited to the investigation of the perceptions of the learners and lecturers of English speaking skills at one Libyan university only. Further research is thus needed to broaden the scope of this research, and to investigate how other lecturers and learners interpret the teaching of speaking skills in other universities across Libya. Targeting larger populations and different locations would help to draw a clearer picture about the teaching of speaking skills in this North African country, and would allow the comparison of the findings resulting from this study with other universities that might have different characteristics.

7.5 Contribution to knowledge

Despite the limitations discussed above, this study contributes to knowledge in several ways. One of the key contributions this study adds to the literature is the detailed insights into the teaching and learning of English speaking skills and the current classroom practices. The results obtained from this research will undoubtedly contribute to the improvement of the role of communicative approaches in enhancing the teaching and learning of speaking skills.

This study also contributes by identifying the obstacles that hinder the application of the CLT approach in developing countries from the teachers' and students'

perspectives, while providing a critical and thorough overview of the English speaking skills of those lecturers and learners who participated in this study. This overview includes the participants' background and training, priorities, pedagogical practices, their willingness to apply communicative approaches, their perceptions of teaching and learning obstacles, and how they overcome these challenges. To date, this type of empirical study is limited in Libya.

Another important observation in the literature is that a wide range of research has been conducted in developing countries about the teaching and learning of English in general in primary and secondary schools as a subject taught two to three times per week. Conversely, it appears that there is a paucity of research that investigated the teaching and learning of English speaking skills in university from the teachers' and undergraduate students' perspectives. Therefore, it is believed that the current study could have an impact on those countries that share the Libyan characteristics. The questionnaire used in this study, which was adapted from a number of different studies, could also be considered to be a contribution to the knowledge, since this data collection instrument was designed and tested to fit the Libyan context in general, and the speaking skills classroom in particular.

Methodologically, this study revealed that there is very limited research to date in the educational sciences that has considered the exploratory factor analysis as a test for analysing data. The analysis of data according to constructs resulting from applying the factor analysis helped in classifying the questions into constructs, in order to make the analysis both more effective and more easily understood.

Additionally, this study reflects the value of utilising a mixed method approach that was achieved through the use of questionnaire and interviews. The use of mixed methods, which is less frequently applied in the literature, has provided a deeper understanding of the teaching and learning of English speaking skills at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University, with the findings of one method facilitating comparison and supporting or challenging the findings of the other method through triangulation.

It is believed that the results obtained from this study will add a practical contribution for the speaking skills lecturers and the stakeholders of the case study in terms of designing and planning the teaching materials and syllabi. It is also thought that the results will benefit the Libyan Ministry of Higher Education and programme leaders when moving forward in developing their teaching strategies.

7.6 Suggestions for further research

Having identified the limitations and the contribution to knowledge of this research, this section will propose suggestions for future work to be undertaken. To begin with, it is important to highlight that this research was exploratory in nature, and has presented detailed insights into the teaching and learning of English speaking skills at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University. Additional research on this type will provide even clearer insight into the Libyan context and beyond.

In order to build on the finding presented in this research, similar studies could be conducted involving other stakeholders such as the managers and decision makers at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University. Considering other factors that influence and affect the teaching of English speaking skills would be both insightful and of practical benefit. It would also be desirable to involve the Ministry of Higher Education, who are responsible for the facilities and the teaching approaches and strategies employed. Additionally, more research could shine a light on the potential for introducing teacher training, which does not exist in this university.

Further research is also needed to investigate the relationship between the teachers' practices and beliefs, and the students' achievements with regards to the teaching of English speaking skills that utilise communicative approaches. At Al Jabal Al Gharbi University, the teachers' different beliefs seemed to play a significant role in the selection of the teaching method and approaches used. In this respect, further research could be useful in evaluating the current speaking skills' curriculum used to teach speaking skills.

Finally, this study was conducted in only one of Libya's universities. Therefore, it would be interesting to conduct other empirical studies in different parts of the country, and to then compare the findings with those emerging from Al Jabal Al Gharbi University. This research could also involve other data collection tools such as classroom focus groups or observations, provided that the security status permits this level of primary data collection.

7.7 Summary of the chapter

This chapter presented the overall conclusion of this study, as well as a summary of the findings reached in the previous chapters, before summarising them with regards to the research objectives presented in Chapter One.

The chapter was divided into six sections. The first section presented the key findings in relation to the research objectives discussed in Chapter Two. Subsequently, the second section offered recommendations that will contribute to the development of the teaching of English speaking skills at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University. The following section highlighted the contribution to knowledge made by this study, followed by an outline of the research limitations, while the final section of this chapter presented a number of suggestions for further research.

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Appendices

Appendix I: Participants' Information Form



Name of Researcher: Sundis Ashreef

Title of Research: A study into the teaching and learning of English speaking skills at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University from the teachers' and students' perspectives

Dear Participant,

You are being invited to take part in research exploring the teaching of speaking skills to EFL students in Libyan universities. Before you decide to participate, it is important that you understand why the research is being carried out and what it involves. Please take time to read the following information. If there is anything that is not clear, or if you would like more details, then please feel free to contact me or my supervisor. Our contact details are provided at the end of this form.

What is the purpose of the study?

This research aims to investigate the teaching of English speaking skills in the English department at Al Jabal Al Gharbi University, and to gain a deeper understanding of the teaching and learning process.

This study will contribute to knowledge in the field of applied linguistics in general, and in particular the teaching of English in the Libyan higher education context.

Do I have to take part?

No, participation is completely voluntary. Please note that the information you provide will be treated in the strictest confidence. You will notice that you are not asked to include your name or address. The confidentiality of all data provided by

participants is guaranteed. Participation is voluntary, and your anonymity is assured before the questionnaire distribution and interviews begin.

What will happen if I do take part?

Your responses are important in enabling me to obtain as full an understanding as possible of this topic. These perspectives will enrich the existing body of knowledge, as well as providing empirical results that will enhance our understanding of the teaching and learning processes.

Are there any risks / benefits involved?

There are no known or expected risks for involvement in this study. The main benefits of taking part in this study are two-fold. Firstly, students will have an opportunity to discuss their own experiences of learning English and any problems that they encounter. Secondly, the findings of the study will lead to recommendations that could improve the university curriculum and enhance the student experience.

Will my taking part in the study be kept confidential?

The confidentiality of all data provided by the student and teacher participants through the questionnaires and interviews is guaranteed. All the data will be stored anonymously and securely on a Liverpool John Moores University hard drive and be accessible by the researcher only. All data will be destroyed after completion of this study.

The information you provide will be treated in the strictest confidence.

Thank you for your valuable assistance. Your cooperation is highly appreciated.

Contact details:

Name of Researcher: Sundis Ashreef

E-mail: S.T.Ashreef@2014.ljmu.ac.uk

Phone: (0044) (0)7445 219209

Name of Supervisor: Dr Amanda Mason (Senior Lecturer, PhD, MEd, BSc, TEFL Diploma)

E-mail: A.Mason@ljmu.ac.uk

Phone: (0044) (0)151 231 3866

Address: Liverpool Business School, Liverpool John Moores University, Redmond's Building, Clarence Street, Liverpool, L3 5UG, UK.



**LIVERPOOL JOHN MOORES
UNIVERSITY
CONSENT FORM**

An investigation into the teaching of the speaking skills of EFL students in Al Jabal Al Gharbi University (Libya)

Name of Researcher: Sundis Ashreef

School/Faculty: Liverpool Business School (LBS)

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information provided for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

☐

2. I understand that the participation is voluntary and that participants are free to withdraw at any time, without giving a reason, and that this will not affect my legal rights.

☐

3. I understand that any personal information collected during the study will be anonymised and remain confidential.

☐

4. I agree to provide the researcher with access to collect the required data for the above study by allowing the researcher to contact me as a participant.

☐

5. I understand that the interview will be audio recorded and I am happy to provide access.

☐

6. I understand that excerpts of the data obtained via the questionnaires and interviews may be used verbatim in future publications or presentations, but that such quotations will be anonymised.

☐

Name of Deanship Director:

Date

Signature

Name of Researcher:

Date

Signature

Name of person receiving consent:

Date

Signature

(if different from the researcher)



Name: Sundis Ashreef

Title of Research: A study into the teaching and learning of English speaking skills at Al-Jabal Al-Gharbi University from the teachers' and students' perspectives.

Please complete the following information:

Section 1: Background and general information

Please answer the following items by ticking the option which appears most applicable to you.

1- Gender: Male () Female ()

2- University Year: First year () Second year () Third year ()
Fourth year ()

Section2: Experience of learning the English language: general English or specifically speaking skills?

1- When did you start learning English?

Kindergarten ()

Primary school ()

Intermediate school ()

Secondary school ()

University ()

2- On the scale below, please rate your level of proficiency in English in general, from very poor (1) to very strong (5).

Very poor						Very strong
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3- On the scale below, please rate your level of proficiency in speaking skills, from very poor (1) to very strong (5).

Very poor						Very strong
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Section 3: Practising speaking skills in the conversation class

- 1- Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements in relation to your English conversation classes.

Statements	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	Do not know
1. There are sufficient conversation classes on my English course.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. My anxiety level when speaking in English is high.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. My speaking classes are usually teacher-centred.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. There are sufficient activities which encourage me to practice my speaking skills.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. The relationship between teachers and students creates a positive learning environment.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. The class size gives me enough opportunities to speak English.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Teachers encourage students to practice their speaking skills outside the class.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

8. In the class, teachers use real-life tasks (i.e., finding a building on a map, reserving a room in a hotel, making stories based on pictures) to teach speaking.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Shyness prevents me from communicating in English in large groups.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Classroom desks and chairs are arranged in a way that permits students to work in pairs or in small groups.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. The course modules used discourage me from using spoken English most of the time.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. The contact hours (teaching time) are sufficient for me to improve my speaking skills.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. There are a variety of English language activities in my English speaking classes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2- Please indicate the degree of your interactivity in the classroom.

Statements	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	Do not know
14. I often interact with the teacher in class.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. I am engaged in the class.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Students provide their opinions to questions from the teacher during the class.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

17. Students receive feedback in the class on their understanding of the course materials.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Students can assess their understanding in the course with respect to other students during the conversation class.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3- During your speaking class, to what extent do teachers give you feedback on the following aspects?

Statements	Low Extent High					Do not know
19. Content	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. Communicating ideas confidently	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. Pronunciation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. Grammar	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. Use of vocabulary	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. Participation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4- To what extent do you have these activities in your speaking class?

Statements	Low Extent High					Do not know
25. Group discussion	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. Presentations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27. Debates	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28. Listening to tapes/CDs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29. Mock interviews	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

30. Role-play	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31. Drama	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32. Watching videos	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33. Using visual aids	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34. Memorizing conversations/dialogues	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35. Language games	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

5- Please indicate your degree of agreement with the following statements about your speaking class?

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Do not know
36. The teacher frequently corrects my grammar.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
37. The teacher frequently assigns work activities to groups.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38. The teacher allows us to suggest what the content of the lesson should be or what activities are useful for us.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39. The teacher helps us how to learn independently.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
40. The teacher's feedback focuses on the appropriateness and not the linguistic form of our responses.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
41. The teacher organizes group work that allows us to explore problems for ourselves.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
42. The teacher corrects all the grammatical errors students make.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
43. The teacher cannot create communicative environment in the classroom because of the large number of students.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
44. The teacher focuses most on improving our knowledge of the rules of English language.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

45. Group work activities are a waste of time.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
46. Correcting grammatical errors is a waste of time.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
47. The teacher focuses on fluency more than the accuracy of spoken language.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
48. By mastering grammatical rules, I will become fully capable of communicating in English.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
49. The teacher tries to adapt tasks to suit us.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
50. I do my best when taught as a whole class.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
51. The teacher does not prevent us from using our mother tongue.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
52. The teacher supplements the textbook with other teaching materials.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

6- Do you understand all questions?

If your answer is no, could you please specify the question/s?

.....

.....

.....

7- Do you have any suggestions that may enrich this study?

.....

.....

.....

Thank you for taking the time to fill in this questionnaire

Appendix IV: Teachers' Interviews Questions



Name: Sundis Ashreef

Title of Research: A study into the teaching and learning of English speaking skills at Al-Jabal Al-Gharbi University from the teachers' and students' perspectives.

Background Information:

Age:

Gender:

Nationality:

Qualification (MA, PhD):

Which year(s) do you teach?

Years of teaching experience:

Interview Questions

Section 1: Current teaching speaking methods used.

- 1- How do you find teaching speaking skills? (Do you enjoy teaching speaking skills)?
- 2- How do you encourage your students to communicate with each other to enhance their speaking skills? (Techniques, classroom management, activities)
- 3- How do you encourage your students to communicate with the teacher to enhance their speaking skills?
- 4- Do you use Arabic language in the classroom?
- 5- To what extent do you allow students' to use Arabic language in the classroom?

Section 2: The extent to which CLT is implemented.

- 1 - How do students respond to communicative activities?
- 2 - In your classes, what is the typical balance between controlled activities and less controlled activities in teaching speaking skills?
- 3 - Do you think that speaking classes' time is enough to involve all students in communication?

Section 3: The main obstacles of applying CLT.

- 1- What problems do students face when they are asked to speak in English?
- 2- How do you try to overcome these problems?
- 3- What do you think are the main obstacles of teaching speaking skills?
- 4- When you do speaking activities, how do you evaluate students?
- 5- How important do you think that teaching speaking skills through real-life tasks is important to help students improve their language?
- 6- Does the university provides students with any facilities to learn speaking skills?
- 7- What kind of training have you had to teach speaking skills?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

Appendix V: Students' Interviews Questions



Name: Sundis Ashreef

Title of Research: A study into the teaching and learning of English speaking skills at Al-Jabal Al-Gharbi University from the teachers' and students' perspectives.

1- Traditional approach

1- How do you find correction your grammar frequently? Do you think that help you improve your speaking skills?

2- Do you prefer your classes to be teachers cantered or students' cantered? Why?

2- Student interaction in the classroom

1- What types of activities usually assigned by teachers?

2- Why do you think teachers cannot create communication in the classroom?

3- If you are engaged in the class? Why you have only limited interactions in the speaking class?

4- How do you find learning English as a whole class?

5- How teachers engage you in the classroom?

3- CLT Techniques

1-Do you find memorization of conversations and dialogues useful to develop your speaking skills? Why?

2- Do you think using learning techniques such as (language games, visual aids) are useful in learning a language? Why?

3- How important do you think that learning speaking skills through real-life tasks is important to help students improve their language?

4- CLT (tasks and activities assigned by teacher)

1- How do you find group work activities? Do you find them useful? Why?

5- CLT (teacher's focus)

1- Why do you think teachers focus on improving your linguistic forms rather than your appropriateness?

2- Do you think that focusing on accuracy of the language is more important than fluency or not? And why?

6- Obstacles

1- Do you find communicating in small groups or in pairs useful to improve your speaking skills? Why?

2- Why do you feel anxious when you speak in English?

3- How do you usually overcome these problems?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

Appendix VI: Students' interviews (Arabic Copy)

إسم الباحث: سندس الشريف

عنوان البحث: التحديات التي تواجه تدريس مهارة المحادثة في جامعه الجبل الغربي (ليبيا)

أسئلة المقابلة

التحديات:

- 1- هل تجد ممارسة المحادثة في مجموعات ثنائية أو صغيرة أفضل؟ ولماذا؟
- 2- لماذا تشعر بالقلق عند التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية؟
أفكار للمساعدة على الإجابة:
تصحيح المدرس, الثقة بنفسك, الخوف من الوقوع في خطأ, إزدحام الصف, تحفيز المدرس غير كافئ... أي شيء غير ذلك؟

3- كيف تتغلب على هذه المشاكل عادة؟

أفكار للمساعدة على الإجابة:

تحاول بنفسك أم بمساعدة زملائك, مساعدة المدرس.

5- هل لديك أي عوامل أخرى تؤثر على تواصلك في الصف الدراسي؟

2- تقنيات استخدام طرق التدريس الحديثة:

- 1- هل تجد استخدام أسلوب تحفيظ المحاورات الجاهزة مفيد لتطوير مهارة المحادثة لديك؟ ولماذا؟
- 2- هل تعتقد أن استخدام نشاطات التعلم مثل (اللعاب لتعلم اللغة, الوسائل البصرية) مفيد لتحسين لغتك؟ ولماذا؟
- 3- هل تعتقد أن تعلم اللغة باستخدام نشاطات واقعية تحاكي حياة الطالب اليومية مفيد؟ ولماذا؟
- 4- حسب وجهة نظرك, لماذا لا يستطيع المعلمون غالبا تشكيل نشاطات جماعية لممارست اللغة؟
- 5- ما هي نسبة التوازن بين النشاطات المطبقة بتحكم المدرس, والنشاطات المطبقة من قبل الطلبة أنفسهم وبتحكم قليل من المدرس؟

3- طرق التدريس التقليدية:

- 1- لماذا في إعتقادك لا يستطع المدرسين بسهولة خلق نشاطات تواصل بين الطلبة في الصف الدراسي؟
 - 2- ما هي النشاطات التي يقوم بها المدرسين في العادة لتشجيع التواصل في الصفوف المكتنضة بإطلاب؟
- #### 4- تصحيح الأخطاء:

1- هل تعتقد أن تركيز المدرس على تصحيح أخطائك القواعدية واللفظية مجدي لتحسين لغتك؟ ولماذا؟

5- تفاعل الطلاب في الصف:

- 1- بما إن هناك تشجيع جيد من قبل المدرس للتفاعل في الصف, لماذا نسبة مشاركتك محدوده جدا؟
- 2- كيف تجد تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية بشكل جماعي؟
- 3- كيف يقوم المدرس غالبا بتحفيزك على المشاركة؟
- 5- أنواع النشاطات التمارين المستخدمه لطرق التدريس الحديثه

1- ما هي أنواع التمارين التي يستخدمها المدرس لتدريس المحادثة؟

2- كيف تجد ممارسة المحادثة على شكل مجموعات صغيرة؟ هل تجد هذا مفيداً؟ ولماذا؟

6- طرق التدريس الحديثة (تركيز المدرس)

1- لماذا حسب وجهة نظرك يركز المدرس على تحسين قواعدك اللغوية، أكثر من التركيز على مدى وضوح اللغة؟ هل

تجد هذا يساعد على تحسين لغتك؟

:



**LIVERPOOL JOHN MOORES
UNIVERSITY**

Liverpool Business School

Name of Researcher: Sundis Ashreef

Title of Research: A study into the teaching and learning of English speaking skills at Al-Jabal Al-Gharbi University from the teachers' and students' perspectives.

Dear Director of Deanship,

Your contribution to this study into the teaching of speaking skills to EFL students in Al Jabal Al Gharbi University, is very important in that it will allow me to gather the required data within the English department. Before you decide to provide me with access to conduct a questionnaire with students and interviews with staff in your University, it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it involves. Please take time to read the following information. If there is anything that is not clear, or if you would like more information, please feel free to contact me or my supervisor. Our contact details are provided at the end of this form.

What is the purpose of the study?

This study aims to investigate the teaching of English speaking skills in the English department at Al Jabal Al Ghatbi University, and gain a deeper understanding of the teaching and learning process. In particular, the research will explore students' perceptions regarding to what extent teachers adopt the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach as well as any barriers that might affect the effective adoption of this approach.

This study will hopefully contribute to knowledge in the field of applied linguistics and in particular, the Libyan higher education context.

Do I have to take part?

Please note that the information that participants provide will be treated in the strictest confidence. They will not be asked to include their name or address at all. The confidentiality of data given by participants or gathered from interviews is guaranteed. This includes voluntary participation, confidentiality, and anonymity before starting the starting the questionnaire distribution and interviews. If you decide to provide me with access to the English department, you will be asked to sign a consent form. However, you have the right to cancel your consent at any time before or during data collection, and without mentioning the reason even if you have signed the form.

What will happen if I agree to provide access?

If you agree to provide access, I will contact students and teaching staff in the English department to request them to participate in the study.

Are there any risks / benefits involved?

There are no known or expected risks for involvement in this study. The main benefits of taking part in this study are two-fold. Firstly, students will have an opportunity to talk about their own experience of learning speaking skills and any problems that they face, followed by Firstly, interviews with teachers to talk about their own experience of teaching and any problems that they face. Secondly, the findings of the study may lead to recommendations that could improve the curriculum and enhance professional development.

Will my taking part in the study be kept confidential?

The confidentiality of data given by participants is guaranteed. All data collected will be kept anonymous and confidential on Liverpool John Moores University M drive protected and accessible by the researcher only. All data will be destroyed after completion of the study.

The information you provide will be treated in strictest confidence.

Thank you for your valuable assistance and your co-operation are highly appreciated.

Contact details:

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Address: Liverpool Business School, Faculty of Business and Law, Liverpool John Moores University, Redmonds Building, Clarence Street, Liverpool, United Kingdom, L3 5UG.

Appendix VIII: Correlation

5	4	3	2	1	
.788	.813	-.007	.867	1.000	1
.915	.787	.021	1.000		2
.022	-.023	1.000			3
.703	1.000				4
1.000					5
					6
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					48
					49
					50
					51

51	50	49	48	47
.078	-.062	.140	.021	.099
.082	-.093	.156	-.001	.076
.875	-.029	-.082	-.064	-.140
.032	-.015	.111	.020	.019
.093	-.117	.163	-.014	.061
.004	-.034	.102	.061	.081
-.130	.069	.332	.137	.669
-.109	-.045	.760	-.013	.396
.041	-.052	.178	.020	.080
.032	-.053	.159	.053	.125
.042	-.015	.128	.082	.099
.005	-.114	.143	-.089	.057
.029	-.010	.042	.003	-.047
-.017	-.023	.018	.087	-.007
.000	-.035	.071	.053	.018
-.131	.025	.415	.046	.469
-.097	.034	.453	.073	.442
-.082	.118	-.236	.038	-.057
-.064	.061	-.177	-.003	-.060
-.086	.040	-.217	-.011	-.094
-.071	.153	-.203	.041	-.080
-.009	.067	-.211	.009	-.069
.024	.055	-.114	.028	-.019
.017	.058	-.122	.018	-.045
.011	.056	-.103	.026	-.027
-.003	.039	-.104	.007	-.080
.016	.058	-.110	.023	-.041
-.017	.085	-.108	.054	-.047
-.041	.140	-.166	.085	-.001
.007	.049	-.074	.027	-.001
.858	.043	-.074	.079	-.177
-.089	-.005	.840	.022	.403
-.088	.081	.328	.132	.346
.783	-.030	-.075	.023	-.099
-.107	.048	.448	.140	.912
-.093	.009	.762	.047	.450
.891	.042	-.055	.083	-.149
.762	.017	-.113	.002	-.081
.897	-.016	-.090	-.008	-.153
.019	.876	-.003	.968	.144
-.120	.075	.396	.160	1.000
.040	.878	-.019	1.000	
-.112	-.055	1.000		
-.008	1.000			
1.000				

Appendix IX: Post-hoc

Post –hoc based on year level

Dependent Variable		(I) Year	(J) Year	Sig.
Obst	LSD	First year	Second year	.000
			Third year	.000
			Fourth year	.000
		Second year	First year	.000
			Third year	.021
			Fourth year	.000
		Third year	First year	.000
			Second year	.021
			Fourth year	.000
		Fourth year	First year	.000
			Second year	.000
			Third year	.000
	Games-Howell	First year	Second year	.000
			Third year	.000
			Fourth year	.000
		Second year	First year	.000
			Third year	.123
			Fourth year	.000
		Third year	First year	.000
			Second year	.123
			Fourth year	.000
		Fourth year	First year	.000
			Second year	.000

			Third year	.000
Tech	LSD	First year	Second year	.015
			Third year	.031
			Fourth year	.592
		Second year	First year	.015
			Third year	.640
			Fourth year	.000
		Third year	First year	.031
			Second year	.640
			Fourth year	.001
		Fourth year	First year	.592
			Second year	.000
			Third year	.001
	Games-Howell	First year	Second year	.060
			Third year	.129
			Fourth year	.942
		Second year	First year	.060
			Third year	.969
			Fourth year	.003
		Third year	First year	.129
			Second year	.969
			Fourth year	.008
		Fourth year	First year	.942
			Second year	.003
			Third year	.008
Trid	LSD	First year	Second year	.461
			Third year	.344
			Fourth year	.728
		Second year	First year	.461

			Third year	.859
			Fourth year	.606
		Third year	First year	.344
			Second year	.859
			Fourth year	.443
		Fourth year	First year	.728
			Second year	.606
			Third year	.443
	Games-Howell	First year	Second year	.886
			Third year	.808
			Fourth year	.985
		Second year	First year	.886
			Third year	.998
			Fourth year	.950
		Third year	First year	.808
			Second year	.998
			Fourth year	.877
		Fourth year	First year	.985
			Second year	.950
			Third year	.877
feed	LSD	First year	Second year	.000
			Third year	.000
			Fourth year	.000
		Second year	First year	.000
			Third year	.000
			Fourth year	.000
		Third year	First year	.000
			Second year	.000
			Fourth year	.000

		Fourth year	First year	.000
			Second year	.000
			Third year	.000
	Games-Howell	First year	Second year	.000
			Third year	.000
			Fourth year	.000
		Second year	First year	.000
			Third year	.000
			Fourth year	.000
		Third year	First year	.000
			Second year	.000
			Fourth year	.000
		Fourth year	First year	.000
			Second year	.000
			Third year	.000
CLTT	LSD	First year	Second year	.909
			Third year	.978
			Fourth year	.069
		Second year	First year	.909
			Third year	.920
			Fourth year	.035
		Third year	First year	.978
			Second year	.920
			Fourth year	.030
		Fourth year	First year	.069
			Second year	.035
			Third year	.030
	Games-Howell	First year	Second year	.999
			Third year	1.000

		Second year	Fourth year	.188
			First year	.999
			Third year	1.000
			Fourth year	.158
		Third year	First year	1.000
			Second year	1.000
			Fourth year	.156
		Fourth year	First year	.188
			Second year	.158
			Third year	.156
CLTS	LSD	First year	Second year	.895
			Third year	.399
			Fourth year	.187
		Second year	First year	.895
			Third year	.292
			Fourth year	.205
		Third year	First year	.399
			Second year	.292
			Fourth year	.009
		Fourth year	First year	.187
			Second year	.205
			Third year	.009
	Games-Howell	First year	Second year	.999
			Third year	.839
			Fourth year	.557
		Second year	First year	.999
			Third year	.668
			Fourth year	.500
		Third year	First year	.839

SP	LSD		Second year	.668
			Fourth year	.068
		Fourth year	First year	.557
			Second year	.500
			Third year	.068
	Games-Howell	First year	Second year	.356
			Third year	.260
			Fourth year	.184
		Second year	First year	.356
			Third year	.872
			Fourth year	.011
		Third year	First year	.260
			Second year	.872
			Fourth year	.003
		Fourth year	First year	.184
			Second year	.011
			Third year	.003
		First year	Second year	.824
			Third year	.718
			Fourth year	.600
		Second year	First year	.824
			Third year	.999
			Fourth year	.052
		Third year	First year	.718
			Second year	.999
			Fourth year	.013
		Fourth year	First year	.600
			Second year	.052
			Third year	.013

SI	LSD	First year	Second year	.003
			Third year	.197
			Fourth year	.045
		Second year	First year	.003
			Third year	.000
			Fourth year	.000
		Third year	First year	.197
			Second year	.000
			Fourth year	.448
		Fourth year	First year	.045
			Second year	.000
			Third year	.448
	Games-Howell	First year	Second year	.028
			Third year	.593
			Fourth year	.216
		Second year	First year	.028
			Third year	.000
			Fourth year	.000
		Third year	First year	.593
			Second year	.000
			Fourth year	.866
		Fourth year	First year	.216
			Second year	.000
			Third year	.866
CLTF	LSD	First year	Second year	.010
			Third year	.050
			Fourth year	.028
		Second year	First year	.010
			Third year	.401

		Third year	Fourth year	.448
			First year	.050
			Second year	.401
			Fourth year	.882
		Fourth year	First year	.028
			Second year	.448
			Third year	.882
	Games-Howell	First year	Second year	.064
			Third year	.196
			Fourth year	.127
		Second year	First year	.064
			Third year	.846
			Fourth year	.886
		Third year	First year	.196
			Second year	.846
			Fourth year	.999
		Fourth year	First year	.127
			Second year	.886
			Third year	.999

Post –hoc based on experiences

Dependent Variable		(I) Experience	(J) Experience	Sig.
Obst	LSD	Kindergarten	Primary school	.521
			Intermediate school	.222
			Secondary school	.792

			University	.211
		Primary school	Kindergarten	.521
			Intermediate school	.344
			Secondary school	.247
			University	.078
		Intermediate school	Kindergarten	.222
			Primary school	.344
			Secondary school	.110
			University	.038
		Secondary school	Kindergarten	.792
			Primary school	.247
			Intermediate school	.110
			University	.253
		University	Kindergarten	.211
			Primary school	.078
			Intermediate school	.038
			Secondary school	.253
	Games- Howell	Kindergarten	Primary school	.967
			Intermediate school	.704
			Secondary school	.999
			University	.712
		Primary school	Kindergarten	.967

			Intermediate school	.843
			Secondary school	.785
			University	.424
		Intermediate school	Kindergarten	.704
			Primary school	.843
			Secondary school	.449
			University	.247
		Secondary school	Kindergarten	.999
			Primary school	.785
			Intermediate school	.449
			University	.773
		University	Kindergarten	.712
			Primary school	.424
			Intermediate school	.247
			Secondary school	.773
Tech	LSD	Kindergarten	Primary school	.728
			Intermediate school	.826
			Secondary school	.381
			University	.669
		Primary school	Kindergarten	.728
			Intermediate school	.960

			Secondary school	.411
			University	.785
		Intermediate school	Kindergarten	.826
			Primary school	.960
			Secondary school	.550
			University	.788
		Secondary school	Kindergarten	.381
			Primary school	.411
			Intermediate school	.550
			University	.910
		University	Kindergarten	.669
			Primary school	.785
			Intermediate school	.788
			Secondary school	.910
	Games-Howell	Kindergarten	Primary school	.996
			Intermediate school	1.000
			Secondary school	.861
			University	.986
		Primary school	Kindergarten	.996
			Intermediate school	1.000
			Secondary school	.891

		Intermediate school	University	.997
			Kindergarten	1.000
			Primary school	1.000
			Secondary school	.983
			University	.998
		Secondary school	Kindergarten	.861
			Primary school	.891
			Intermediate school	.983
			University	1.000
		University	Kindergarten	.986
			Primary school	.997
			Intermediate school	.998
			Secondary school	1.000
Trid	LSD	Kindergarten	Primary school	.788
			Intermediate school	.441
			Secondary school	.803
			University	.249
		Primary school	Kindergarten	.788
			Intermediate school	.467
			Secondary school	.977
			University	.260
			Kindergarten	.441

		Intermediate school	Primary school	.467
			Secondary school	.540
			University	.548
		Secondary school	Kindergarten	.803
			Primary school	.977
			Intermediate school	.540
			University	.294
		University	Kindergarten	.249
			Primary school	.260
			Intermediate school	.548
			Secondary school	.294
	Games-Howell	Kindergarten	Primary school	.999
			Intermediate school	.958
			Secondary school	.999
			University	.863
		Primary school	Kindergarten	.999
			Intermediate school	.961
			Secondary school	1.000
			University	.871
		Intermediate school	Kindergarten	.958
			Primary school	.961

			Secondary school	.978
			University	.985
		Secondary school	Kindergarten	.999
			Primary school	1.000
			Intermediate school	.978
			University	.891
		University	Kindergarten	.863
			Primary school	.871
			Intermediate school	.985
			Secondary school	.891
feed	LSD	Kindergarten	Primary school	.937
			Intermediate school	.182
			Secondary school	.741
			University	.466
		Primary school	Kindergarten	.937
			Intermediate school	.077
			Secondary school	.571
			University	.392
		Intermediate school	Kindergarten	.182
			Primary school	.077
			Secondary school	.246

			University	.833
		Secondary school	Kindergarten	.741
			Primary school	.571
			Intermediate school	.246
			University	.581
		University	Kindergarten	.466
			Primary school	.392
			Intermediate school	.833
			Secondary school	.581
	Games-Howell	Kindergarten	Primary school	1.000
			Intermediate school	.653
			Secondary school	.998
			University	.979
		Primary school	Kindergarten	1.000
			Intermediate school	.364
			Secondary school	.986
			University	.967
		Intermediate school	Kindergarten	.653
			Primary school	.364
			Secondary school	.798
			University	1.000
			Kindergarten	.998

		Secondary school	Primary school	.986
			Intermediate school	.798
			University	.993
		University	Kindergarten	.979
			Primary school	.967
			Intermediate school	1.000
			Secondary school	.993
CLTT	LSD	Kindergarten	Primary school	.156
			Intermediate school	.260
			Secondary school	.014
			University	.630
		Primary school	Kindergarten	.156
			Intermediate school	.928
			Secondary school	.076
			University	.770
		Intermediate school	Kindergarten	.260
			Primary school	.928
			Secondary school	.263
			University	.758
		Secondary school	Kindergarten	.014
			Primary school	.076

			Intermediate school	.263
			University	.282
		University	Kindergarten	.630
			Primary school	.770
			Intermediate school	.758
			Secondary school	.282
	Games-Howell	Kindergarten	Primary school	.476
			Intermediate school	.767
			Secondary school	.050
			University	.988
		Primary school	Kindergarten	.476
			Intermediate school	1.000
			Secondary school	.369
			University	.998
		Intermediate school	Kindergarten	.767
			Primary school	1.000
			Secondary school	.813
			University	.998
		Secondary school	Kindergarten	.050
			Primary school	.369
			Intermediate school	.813

			University	.836
		University	Kindergarten	.988
			Primary school	.998
			Intermediate school	.998
			Secondary school	.836
CLTS	LSD	Kindergarten	Primary school	.911
			Intermediate school	.517
			Secondary school	.335
			University	.277
		Primary school	Kindergarten	.911
			Intermediate school	.473
			Secondary school	.217
			University	.253
		Intermediate school	Kindergarten	.517
			Primary school	.473
			Secondary school	.834
			University	.534
		Secondary school	Kindergarten	.335
			Primary school	.217
			Intermediate school	.834
			University	.601
		University	Kindergarten	.277

			Primary school	.253
			Intermediate school	.534
			Secondary school	.601
	Games- Howell	Kindergarten	Primary school	1.000
			Intermediate school	.965
			Secondary school	.886
			University	.698
		Primary school	Kindergarten	1.000
			Intermediate school	.927
			Secondary school	.689
			University	.580
		Intermediate school	Kindergarten	.965
			Primary school	.927
			Secondary school	.999
			University	.927
		Secondary school	Kindergarten	.886
			Primary school	.689
			Intermediate school	.999
			University	.959
		University	Kindergarten	.698
			Primary school	.580

			Intermediate school	.927
			Secondary school	.959
SP	LSD	Kindergarten	Primary school	.200
			Intermediate school	.825
			Secondary school	.211
			University	.307
		Primary school	Kindergarten	.200
			Intermediate school	.135
			Secondary school	.828
			University	.060
		Intermediate school	Kindergarten	.825
			Primary school	.135
			Secondary school	.148
			University	.394
		Secondary school	Kindergarten	.211
			Primary school	.828
			Intermediate school	.148
			University	.061
		University	Kindergarten	.307
			Primary school	.060
			Intermediate school	.394

			Secondary school	.061
	Games-Howell	Kindergarten	Primary school	.688
			Intermediate school	1.000
			Secondary school	.721
			University	.810
		Primary school	Kindergarten	.688
			Intermediate school	.645
			Secondary school	1.000
			University	.318
		Intermediate school	Kindergarten	1.000
			Primary school	.645
			Secondary school	.665
			University	.902
		Secondary school	Kindergarten	.721
			Primary school	1.000
			Intermediate school	.665
			University	.321
		University	Kindergarten	.810
			Primary school	.318
			Intermediate school	.902
			Secondary school	.321

SI	LSD	Kindergarten	Primary school	.062
			Intermediate school	.811
			Secondary school	.143
			University	.038
		Primary school	Kindergarten	.062
			Intermediate school	.142
			Secondary school	.844
			University	.221
		Intermediate school	Kindergarten	.811
			Primary school	.142
			Secondary school	.252
			University	.060
		Secondary school	Kindergarten	.143
			Primary school	.844
			Intermediate school	.252
			University	.214
		University	Kindergarten	.038
			Primary school	.221
			Intermediate school	.060
			Secondary school	.214
		Kindergarten	Primary school	.575

	Games- Howell		Intermediate school	1.000
			Secondary school	.696
			University	.380
		Primary school	Kindergarten	.575
			Intermediate school	.581
			Secondary school	.999
			University	.779
		Intermediate school	Kindergarten	1.000
			Primary school	.581
			Secondary school	.730
			University	.413
		Secondary school	Kindergarten	.696
			Primary school	.999
			Intermediate school	.730
			University	.749
		University	Kindergarten	.380
			Primary school	.779
			Intermediate school	.413
			Secondary school	.749
CLTF	LSD	Kindergarten	Primary school	.194
			Intermediate school	.039

			Secondary school	.007
			University	.286
		Primary school	Kindergarten	.194
			Intermediate school	.163
			Secondary school	.022
			University	.668
		Intermediate school	Kindergarten	.039
			Primary school	.163
			Secondary school	.742
			University	.701
		Secondary school	Kindergarten	.007
			Primary school	.022
			Intermediate school	.742
			University	.529
		University	Kindergarten	.286
			Primary school	.668
			Intermediate school	.701
			Secondary school	.529
	Games-Howell	Kindergarten	Primary school	.672
			Intermediate school	.156
			Secondary school	.060

		Primary school	University	.769
			Kindergarten	.672
			Intermediate school	.483
			Secondary school	.191
			University	.988
		Intermediate school	Kindergarten	.156
			Primary school	.483
			Secondary school	.996
			University	.992
		Secondary school	Kindergarten	.060
			Primary school	.191
			Intermediate school	.996
			University	.957
		University	Kindergarten	.769
			Primary school	.988
			Intermediate school	.992
			Secondary school	.957

Post –hoc based on skills

Dependent Variable		(I) Speaking skills	(J) Speaking skills	Sig.
Obst	LSD	Very poor	2	.036
			3	.121

			4	.009
			Very strong	.166
		2	Very poor	.036
			3	.406
			4	.202
			Very strong	.775
		3	Very poor	.121
			2	.406
			4	.084
			Very strong	.564
		4	Very poor	.009
			2	.202
			3	.084
			Very strong	.691
		Very strong	Very poor	.166
			2	.775
			3	.564
			4	.691
	Games- Howell	Very poor	2	.334
			3	.630
			4	.156
			Very strong	.850
		2	Very poor	.334
			3	.914
			4	.766
			Very strong	1.000
		3	Very poor	.630
			2	.914
			4	.521

			Very strong	.993
			Very poor	.156
			2	.766
			3	.521
			Very strong	.998
		Very strong	Very poor	.850
			2	1.000
			3	.993
			4	.998
		Very poor	2	.093
			3	.251
			4	.653
			Very strong	.538
Tech	LSD	2	Very poor	.093
			3	.408
			4	.235
			Very strong	.744
		3	Very poor	.251
			2	.408
			4	.523
			Very strong	.977
		4	Very poor	.653
			2	.235
			3	.523
			Very strong	.753
		Very strong	Very poor	.538
			2	.744
			3	.977
			4	.753

	Games- Howell	Very poor	2	.338
			3	.704
			4	.988
			Very strong	.971
		2	Very poor	.338
			3	.925
			4	.745
			Very strong	.998
		3	Very poor	.704
			2	.925
			4	.966
			Very strong	1.000
		4	Very poor	.988
			2	.745
			3	.966
			Very strong	.998
		Very strong	Very poor	.971
			2	.998
			3	1.000
			4	.998
Trid	LSD	Very poor	2	.402
			3	.852
			4	.046
			Very strong	.632
		2	Very poor	.402
			3	.083
			4	.000
			Very strong	.296
		3	Very poor	.852

			2	.083
			4	.017
			Very strong	.678
		4	Very poor	.046
			2	.000
			3	.017
			Very strong	.367
		Very strong	Very poor	.632
			2	.296
			3	.678
			4	.367
	Games- Howell	Very poor	2	.940
			3	1.000
			4	.353
			Very strong	.990
		2	Very poor	.940
			3	.415
			4	.008
			Very strong	.839
		3	Very poor	1.000
			2	.415
			4	.148
			Very strong	.993
		4	Very poor	.353
			2	.008
			3	.148
			Very strong	.899
		Very strong	Very poor	.990
			2	.839

feed	LSD		3	.993
			4	.899
		Very poor	2	.008
			3	.053
			4	.003
			Very strong	.089
		2	Very poor	.008
			3	.257
			4	.243
			Very strong	.768
		3	Very poor	.053
			2	.257
			4	.071
			Very strong	.488
		4	Very poor	.003
			2	.243
			3	.071
			Very strong	.739
		Very strong	Very poor	.089
			2	.768
			3	.488
			4	.739
	Games- Howell	Very poor	2	.305
			3	.616
			4	.137
			Very strong	.728
		2	Very poor	.305
			3	.777
			4	.755

		3	Very strong	.999
			Very poor	.616
			2	.777
			4	.396
			Very strong	.983
		4	Very poor	.137
			2	.755
			3	.396
			Very strong	.999
		Very strong	Very poor	.728
			2	.999
			3	.983
			4	.999
CLTT	LSD	Very poor	2	.996
			3	.185
			4	.121
			Very strong	.261
		2	Very poor	.996
			3	.021
			4	.037
			Very strong	.205
		3	Very poor	.185
			2	.021
			4	.546
			Very strong	.039
		4	Very poor	.121
			2	.037
			3	.546
			Very strong	.027

		Very strong	Very poor	.261
			2	.205
			3	.039
			4	.027
	Games- Howell	Very poor	2	1.000
			3	.742
			4	.619
			Very strong	.837
		2	Very poor	1.000
			3	.093
			4	.275
			Very strong	.761
		3	Very poor	.742
			2	.093
			4	.972
			Very strong	.363
		4	Very poor	.619
			2	.275
			3	.972
			Very strong	.289
		Very strong	Very poor	.837
			2	.761
			3	.363
			4	.289
CLTS	LSD	Very poor	2	.013
			3	.002
			4	.588
			Very strong	.277
		2	Very poor	.013

			3	.178
			4	.001
			Very strong	.771
		3	Very poor	.002
			2	.178
			4	.000
			Very strong	.444
		4	Very poor	.588
			2	.001
			3	.000
			Very strong	.138
		Very strong	Very poor	.277
			2	.771
			3	.444
			4	.138
	Games- Howell	Very poor	2	.002
			3	.001
			4	.965
			Very strong	.495
		2	Very poor	.002
			3	.740
			4	.018
			Very strong	.992
		3	Very poor	.001
			2	.740
			4	.004
			Very strong	.834
		4	Very poor	.965
			2	.018

		Very strong	3	.004
			Very strong	.353
			Very poor	.495
			2	.992
			3	.834
			4	.353
SP	LSD	Very poor	2	.219
			3	.892
			4	.003
			Very strong	.001
		2	Very poor	.219
			3	.067
			4	.006
			Very strong	.002
		3	Very poor	.892
			2	.067
			4	.000
			Very strong	.000
		4	Very poor	.003
			2	.006
			3	.000
			Very strong	.149
		Very strong	Very poor	.001
			2	.002
			3	.000
			4	.149
	Games- Howell	Very poor	2	.731
			3	1.000
			4	.030

		2	Very strong	.012
			Very poor	.731
			3	.332
			4	.068
			Very strong	.036
		3	Very poor	1.000
			2	.332
			4	.004
			Very strong	.013
		4	Very poor	.030
			2	.068
			3	.004
			Very strong	.511
		Very strong	Very poor	.012
			2	.036
			3	.013
			4	.511
SI	LSD	Very poor	2	.010
			3	.000
			4	.000
			Very strong	.000
		2	Very poor	.010
			3	.000
			4	.000
			Very strong	.000
		3	Very poor	.000
			2	.000
			4	.174
			Very strong	.000

		4	Very poor	.000
			2	.000
			3	.174
			Very strong	.000
		Very strong	Very poor	.000
			2	.000
			3	.000
			4	.000
	Games- Howell	Very poor	2	.016
			3	.000
			4	.000
			Very strong	.001
		2	Very poor	.016
			3	.000
			4	.000
			Very strong	.004
		3	Very poor	.000
			2	.000
			4	.593
			Very strong	.023
		4	Very poor	.000
			2	.000
			3	.593
			Very strong	.060
		Very strong	Very poor	.001
			2	.004
			3	.023
			4	.060
CLTF	LSD	Very poor	2	.013

			3	.000
			4	.125
			Very strong	.840
		2	Very poor	.013
			3	.045
			4	.562
			Very strong	.201
		3	Very poor	.000
			2	.045
			4	.076
			Very strong	.049
		4	Very poor	.125
			2	.562
			3	.076
			Very strong	.389
		Very strong	Very poor	.840
			2	.201
			3	.049
			4	.389
	Games- Howell	Very poor	2	.081
			3	.005
			4	.646
			Very strong	1.000
		2	Very poor	.081
			3	.250
			4	.990
			Very strong	.712
		3	Very poor	.005
			2	.250

			4	.615
			Very strong	.360
		4	Very poor	.646
			2	.990
			3	.615
			Very strong	.927
		Very strong	Very poor	1.000
			2	.712
			3	.360
			4	.927

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