

A Critical Discourse Analysis of a Libyan Secondary Educational Policy

By

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### **Abstract**

The education system in Libya faces significant challenges in various aspects, but at the core are outdated notions of curriculum, teaching, and learning. While it is important to have qualified teachers, who use a variety of teaching and learning approaches, qualified teachers alone cannot do much if the curriculum is prescriptive and restrictive. The study explores how the educational discourse in Libya conceptualizes curriculum, teaching, and learning and demonstrates the impact of the socio-political context on the country's perception of the meaning and purpose of education. Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is used to focus on and analyze a key educational policy (Sequences of Lesson Plans and Recommended Textbooks), through the lens of my own educational experience in Libya. The results indicate that Libyan educational policy considers teaching and learning to be centered on teachers. This approach requires that students absorb the material (curriculum), with very little room for critical thinking or questioning of the curriculum content in this outmoded approach to teaching and learning. In addition, the socio-political context of Libya also significantly impacts curriculum, teaching and learning. The analysis of the selected educational policy, and the findings drawn from it indicate that, for the most part, Libyan society and its cultural values dictate the nation's educational policies. It is hoped that this study will initiate the process of critical reflection regarding the dominant conceptions of curriculum, teaching, and learning in Libyan education system and, in turn, will help to improve the educational discourse in Libya.

**Key words:** teaching, learning, curriculum, CDA, educational policy, Libya

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## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

### **Autobiographical Genesis of the Research**

My education from the primary stage to my Master's degree in Linguistics was obtained in Libya. Throughout these stages, I experienced a teacher-centered approach to teaching and learning. I attended public school (primary, elementary and secondary) in Libya at the end of the 1980s and 1990s. At that time, classes would start at 8:30 a.m. during the school week (Saturday to Thursday). There were six 45-minute classes per day, with one break between the third and fourth classes. Friday was our day off, which for many students was the best day of the week, as it gave us a break from our stressful studies.

The classroom environment, particularly during my primary school years, was highly stressful because of the intensive work that students had to complete during most of the classes.

Typically, the teacher would start the class by asking the students for their homework, which usually took about three hours to do at home. If students forgot their homework, they were punished by having to stay after class, being sent to the office, or even being hit. After the homework was collected, the teacher reviewed the previous lesson by asking some questions, and again there would be punishment if the students did not know the answers. After the homework collection and the review of the previous lesson, the teacher would start the new lesson, which usually was simply explaining what was written in a textbook. The students were not encouraged to ask questions.

In Libyan culture, teachers have a high status in the community because they are seen as one of the only educated classes in society. From the 1950s to the 1970s, most parents were not

educated, so there was a strong belief among them that teachers were fully knowledgeable and that everything they did was beneficial to the students. Therefore, being quiet during the lesson and not questioning the teacher was considered good behavior in school. I still remember our Grade 5 teachers rewarding students for being quiet, even though the quiet students did not perform well in class. Rewarding students for not asking questions ingrained in them the notion that questioning authority was wrong.

Libyan children have always been encouraged to respect people who are older than them by listening and agreeing with what the older person says. When I was a student, particularly in the elementary stage of my education, my siblings and I were not permitted to question our teachers, as our parents (even my father, who is a teacher) considered that kind of behavior disrespectful and impolite.

For high school, I attended a specialist secondary school for four years, majoring in social sciences. I enjoyed subjects such as history, geography, and psychology because the teachers were not only well-informed but also very kind. At this stage of my education, my teachers started to give students some chances to contribute by holding class discussions. Also, there was less homework compared to earlier grades, and the punishments were less harsh. These changes gave us the opportunity to focus more on the lessons provided. As a consequence, some of the students started to thrive, including me. I soon became the top-ranking student at all secondary school levels. This was a major contrast to my earlier pre-high school years, where I barely passed each grade. I attribute this change in my performance to the active engagement of my high school teachers in my learning process.

After high school, I attended the University of Al Jabal Al Garbi, majoring in Arabic Language Studies and earning a Bachelor of Arts degree. During my time at the university, I started to notice other changes in the way teachers taught their classes beyond what I had experienced in high school. Most of the teachers were Libyan, Egyptian or Iraqi. Students were given more and more opportunities to express their opinions and to do research beyond the school curriculum, which helped to improve their academic success. Engaging in conversations with students, both inside and outside the class, led to having good relationships with them, which improved the classroom environment. Another major change that made a positive contribution to learning was the way we were evaluated and assisted. There were fewer quizzes and exams, which benefitted me, as I tend not to perform well on these types of tests. There were still mid-terms and final exams, but we were given sufficient time to prepare for those, and were also given sufficient time to prepare and write our research papers. Overall, the teaching approach shifted from time stress and negative reward to learning enabling and positive reward, which resulted in a better learning environment.

Nevertheless, the teaching and learning approach at the university level was still mostly teacher-centered learning, with the aim being to provide students with basic relevant information for their area of study. Even so, the changes in how teachers taught their classes compared to my earlier schooling years strongly impacted my academic progress. I was again awarded first-class honors at my graduation. I also was soon appointed as a teaching assistant at the university and then earned a scholarship to study my first Master's degree (Linguistics).

This change in the teacher's performance may have been the result of teacher training institutes starting in 1995. The institutes focused on improving educational principles by emphasizing the importance of the teacher's role in the educational process, the need to adopt modern educational technologies, and the need for vocational and scientific training for teachers (World Data in Education, 2007).

The radical change in my school performance, which also sparked in me a life-long love for learning, led me to appreciate how great an impact a teacher had on their students' performance. Consequently, I chose to work as a teacher before I started my Master's studies. The desire to become a teacher was in large part inspired by my teachers. My father was one of them. He and the teachers who taught me during my studies after Grade 9 were especially influential, since they were friendly and kind, and their approach to teaching gave me motivation as well as the chance to succeed.

After graduating from university with a Bachelor degree, I taught Arabic Language in secondary school for five years (2005-2010). To my surprise and disappointment, my first few years of teaching turned out to be quite different from what I had dreamt they would be. This disconnect between my expectations about teaching and the reality of a teacher's job in Libya is mainly due to the teaching method I had to apply. From my experience teaching in the Libyan classroom, my job as a teacher was to stand or sit in front of the class and deliver the lesson that I prepared from the textbook. Consequently, students rarely had the opportunity to have discussion or work with their classmates as a group. There was no interaction among students or between the teacher and students. Also, students were not encouraged to express their opinions or thoughts. This made my classroom teaching experience very dull and dry because I repeated what I had done in my first year in all the other years, using the same curriculum and the same textbook. This

experience encouraged me to return to school and start my Master's studies as a part-time student.

After completing my Master's degree in 2010, I started teaching students in the Arabic Language Department at Al-Jabal Al-Garbi University. I taught courses in morphology, phonetics, teaching grammar, and modern Linguistics. I had learned a variety of theories related to language and learning, as my major was Linguistics. It was also a great chance to learn about international theories in different areas related to the education field, particularly Linguistics. However, my teaching experience at university was not much different than my experience in high school. Despite the fact that there were no policy regulations telling teachers how to present the lessons (as there was in elementary and high schools), most of the teachers still followed the same teacher-centered approach to teaching.

During my early teaching years in Libya (i.e., while teaching high school), I found that teachers were highly restricted by the curriculum framework (lesson plans). I was provided with what is known as a curriculum guide for my grade level, which was basically a lesson plan. The guide set forth detailed instructions on what the teachers were expected to do during their implementation of the lessons from the textbooks. There was also a detailed description of the framework and the sequence of the curriculum; however, there were no suggestions for differentiated instruction. From my teaching experience, I have learned that there are many ways to differentiate within a classroom. In an ideal situation, small group activities will assess needed differentiations. Also, gifted students can work at a faster pace and independently, so that more time can be given to those who are struggling. However, the lesson plans were expected to be taught in sequence to the whole class, regardless of the students' individual abilities.

In addition, the time allowed for teaching and learning the curriculum (textbook contents) was challenging, particularly considering the large size of the classes. The time-stress and crowding issues made it difficult to engage students individually or collectively in activities or discussions. For example, I taught Arabic Linguistics and Literacy to grades 10, 11, and 12 at secondary school. I had five classes a week of either 45 minutes (in the summertime) or 40 minutes (in the wintertime). In these 40 or 45 minutes, I was expected to write the lesson example on the green board at the front of the classroom. The example was to be written using different colors, as dictated by the lesson plan provided by the Ministry of Education. After writing the example on the board, I read the lesson and directed the students also to read and to do some exercises. At the end of the class, I gave students homework related to the day's lesson. To follow all of these steps and finish all the contents of the textbook within the specified time made following any approach other than the teacher-centered one impossible, especially given the large number of students in the class. I often felt overwhelmed by the tasks that I had to complete for each class and constrained by the curriculum framework. At that point, I understood why my previous teachers had followed that particular approach to teaching. There was simply no other way to handle the amount of information that had to be relayed to the student.

Based on my personal experiences and observations mentioned above, it is clear that throughout the previous educational stages, I experienced a teacher-centered approach to teaching and learning. Teachers dominate the classroom in Libya, and students must sit, observe, and then, memorize the material for exams, which started in Grade 4. These exams determine whether students would pass or repeat a grade level for a second school year.

After finishing my degree and working as a lecturer at the university for two years, I got a second scholarship to study abroad and came to Canada to start a different educational journey,

for which I am grateful to the Libyan Ministry of Education. First, I studied six levels of English language at the English Intensive Program (EIP) at the University of Ottawa. Then I started my Master's studies in the Department of Education at Mount Saint Vincent University (MSVU) in Halifax. My experience of studying in Canada has helped me to explore new educational opportunities, particularly learning and teaching approaches regarding curriculum.

When I took my first course in a Canadian university context, it was challenging, not only because of the difference in language but also because it was a new academic culture and learning environment. Participation in classes, working in groups, and critically discussing the materials of the courses were the main focus. However, I had not developed or practiced these skills during my entire educational studies in Libya.

This different experience helped me to realize how students' educational environments can impact their learning and thinking. For example, in one of my graduate courses at MSVU (Foundations of Curriculum Studies), my classmates and I were asked to take five minutes to think of developing a lesson plan using class material. I told myself the plan is clear, so why do we need five minutes to develop it? The other students had a different approach to the plan. One explained that she would use the clock to teach time, another illustrated that she would use the squares on the ground to teach counting, and some stated that they would use containers for measurements. As I listened to these proposed lesson plans, I tried my best to brainstorm some ideas, but all I could think of was the whiteboard and the pen at the front of the class. It was then that I realized how deeply impacted I was by the method of teaching and learning I had experienced as both a student and teacher in the Libyan school context. I also knew that it had not only deeply affected the way I taught but also impacted how I thought.

In addition to the differences in learning and teaching approaches, the implementation of the curriculum is one of the most contrasting aspects of my previous and current education. My Master's courses provided a great opportunity to learn about the curriculum from a variety of theoretical and practical perspectives. My study of curricular and pedagogical perspectives allowed me to understand that the curriculum is not just textbooks, which is what I had thought before. On the contrary, the curriculum is a complicated concept that is influenced by many factors, including the values of the community and country within which it was developed. My critical engagement with the notion of curriculum gave rise to several questions, such as: What does curriculum mean in a Libyan context? What kinds of curriculum policies guide the Libyan education system? What changes are necessary to incorporate progressive educational ideals and dialogue in Libya's education system?

After finishing my Master's courses at MSVU, I met Professor Ashwani Kuma, whose research further deepened my interest in the curriculum. He kindly agreed to supervise this thesis. His expertise and scholarship in the area of the internationalization of curriculum studies have been very valuable to me in conducting this work. Also, at the early stages of this work, I was fortunate to meet with Sandra Sawchuk, who is an expert at Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), as my analysis will be mainly done using a CDA framework. She kindly accepted to become a committee member for my thesis.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this thesis is to analyze Libyan educational policies through the lens of critical discourse analysis and my experiences as a classroom teacher in Libya. I believe that the main goal of teaching is not only providing students with information but engendering in them a love

of learning so that they will one day be able to teach themselves and others to become life-long learners. Of necessity, within this love for learning is the capacity to think creatively and critically. However, teachers sometimes are restricted by policies that are a stumbling stone to reaching the desired goal to improve curriculum teaching and learning. Therefore, analyzing educational policies will help to discover how the discourse of policy can shape curriculum, teaching, and learning.

I intend to investigate the impact of Libyan educational policies by looking at the way curriculum, teaching, and learning are conceptualized. I will also examine how the socio-political landscape in Libya influences classroom teaching and learning. The results of this study will be valuable to policymakers in Libya, helping them to understand the power and influence that their policies have on the notions of curriculum, teaching, and learning. It will also be relevant to Canadian teachers, as a means of giving them a better idea of the background and academic culture of international students from Libya.

I have chosen to make the curriculum framework the focus of this study because I believe that the curriculum embodies the dominant cultural, economic, and political values of a society, and controls classroom teaching and learning. Having qualified teachers and using a variety of teaching and learning approaches are not enough if the curriculum is prescriptive and restrictive.

### **Research Questions and their Significance**

This study will be guided by the following research questions:

- 1) How do Libyan educational policies conceptualize the notions of curriculum, teaching, and learning?

- 2) What effect does the socio-political context of Libya have on the notions of curriculum, teaching, and learning in the selected educational policy?

I plan to use critical discourse analysis (CDA) as a tool to study educational policies in Libya to understand the underpinning ideologies that guide them and how they influence teaching and learning contexts. Many studies prove that CDA is a useful and effective approach and framework for educational research, and in particular, for studying educational policies (e.g., Liasidou, 2008; Pini & Gorostiaga, 2008; Vavrus & Seghers, 2009; McCormick, 2011; Dahl, 2017; Arce-Trigatti & Anderson, 2018; Mullet, 2018). I have related experience in both social science (four years' specialist high school) and linguistics (previous Master's degree) which will help me to do the study efficiently, as the main aim of CDA is bringing together linguistics analysis of the text and its social contexts.

### **Research Design Considerations**

I aim to conduct this study by using a CDA framework to analyze a related educational policy in Libya. This will include using Fairclough's (2013) three-dimensional framework of analysis to analyze the selected policy. Fairclough's (2013) framework is relevant to this study because the main aim of CDA is to show the relationships between discourse and power in social institutions. Applying the CDA method will enable me to trace the construction of teaching and learning methods in the policy, as the literature shows that CDA is a valuable tool for critical policy analysis (Arce-Trigatti and Anderson, 2018; Dahl, 2017; Liasidou, 2008; McCormick, 2011; Mullet, 2018; Pini and Gorostiage, 2008; Vavrus and Seghers, 2009).

CDA incorporates a number of different approaches that depend on the research goal and theoretical perspective and sees the discourse as one of many aspects of social practice. In my study, the focus will be on the relationship between selected educational policy (discourse) and curriculum, teaching and learning methods in schools. CDA brings together analytical tools from linguistics and theoretical perspectives from the social sciences, revealing how language functions ideologically and how it contributes to maintaining power relations in society (Dahl, 2017). So, since language is ideological, it influences the way teachers and students act in school which in turn affects the way they view curriculum, teaching, and learning.

The policy that I chose provides a general overview and detailed outline of the curriculum, including the name of the textbooks that teachers use. This educational document was issued by the Libyan Ministry of Education through the Department of the Center of Educational Curriculum and Research. The text was selected for two main reasons: it is an official document that is used by educators at all Libyan schools, and it is available online (which is a relatively rare phenomenon in Libya). Some parts of the policy are selected on the basis of particular criteria:

- The cover page was selected because it provides a summary of the document.
- The three pages of Outputs were selected because they detail what the learner is expected to be able to do.
- The subject I chose from this policy is the Arabic language because I taught this subject when I was in Libya. There is a detailed explanation of how the teacher provides lessons, divided by weeks, in the different areas of Arabic grammar, literature, texts, eloquence, criticism, expression, dictation and calligraphy.

The data selected from the policy will be translated verbatim from English to Arabic. Then, I will apply Fairclough's three-dimensional framework to specific sections of texts to examine the related policy.

### **Organization of the Chapters**

**Chapter 1: Introduction.** This chapter presents a description of my educational experiences both in Libya and Canada. It also presents the main purpose of the study, the research questions, and the research design considerations, including the reasons why I chose CDA as the method for this study and the processes I used to select the research material.

**Chapter 2: Education in Libya.** This chapter provides a historical overview of Libya and the Libyan education system. It also explains the concept of curriculum in Libya and the main phases that the Libyan curriculum field have passed through, including the main curriculum reforms during these phases. The chapter concludes with a brief description and explanation of the selected policy (data set).

**Chapter 3: Literature Review.** This chapter provides an explanation of the terms "discourse" and "discourse analysis" and articulates the meaning of the word "Critical" in Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). As well, it provides an overview of CDA in education, and discusses the significance of using CDA to analyze education policies. The chapter concludes with the main critiques of Fairclough's CDA and the potential ways to address these critiques in this study.

**Chapter 4: Methodology and Data Analysis.** This chapter is divided into two main sections: methodology and data analysis. The **methodology** section includes a brief overview of CDA. It also explains some of Fairclough's important theories related to CDA and concludes with an explanation of Fairclough's three-dimensional framework of critical discourse analysis. The second section of the chapter presents the **data analysis** and explains the three stages of Fairclough's (2013) framework and the study's findings.

**Chapter 5: Conclusion.** This chapter provides a summary of the key findings according to both CDA and my teaching experience. It also highlights the study's significance and contributions, and discusses its limitations. The chapter concludes with some suggestions for future research and my final thoughts on the entire work.

## Chapter 2: Education in Libya

Shedding light on the educational context of this study is necessary. Therefore, this chapter provides a brief description of Libya, the Libyan education system, Libyan curriculum, education policies in Libya, and a discussion of the policy that will be analyzed in this study.

### Introduction to Libya and Its Education System

Having an understanding of the historical background of Libya is essential for appreciating its educational system, as education in Libya has been largely influenced by various historical stages.

Libya



Figure 1: Map of Libya

<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ly-map.png>

Libya is an Arabic country with an estimated surface area of 1.76 million km<sup>2</sup>, making it the fourth-largest nation on the African continent. It is surrounded by six countries (Egypt, Tunisia, Algeria, Chad, Niger, and Sudan) and is bordered to the north by the Mediterranean Sea (Abdulhamid, 2011). Libya's population is relatively small (6.5 million) and concentrated along the coastline, as most of the country is an inhospitable desert. The country's coastline stretches approximately 2,000 square kilometers between Tunisia and Egypt. The main coastal cities are the capital, Tripoli, in the northeast, and Benghazi, also in the northeast (Benamer & Bakoush, 2009).

The first nationals in Libya were the Berber tribes, who are the descendants of the indigenous population before the Arabs settled in the region. The majority of the Berber people live in countries across North Africa, in particular, Morocco, Algeria, and Libya. The Berbers in Libya are estimated to comprise about 10% of the population. Their language, called Amazigh, belongs to the Afro-Asiatic language family (Kohl, 2014).

As they are the most homogeneous division within the Afro-Asiatic family, Berber languages have often been referred to as a single language in the past (especially in the tradition of French scholarship), but this 'single language' is varied in form. Berber languages are spoken today by some 14 million people, mostly in scattered enclaves in the Maghrib, a large region of northern Africa situated between Egypt's Siwa Oasis and Mauretania. The heaviest concentration of Berber speakers is found in Morocco (Wolff, 2016). Although Berbers speak their language among families and communities, they speak Arabic as a second language in Libya, as Arabic is the only official language that is used in schools and businesses there (Wolff, 2016).

During the 1950s, following its independence, Libya was one of the poorest countries in Africa because the Libyan economy at that period was dependent only on the agricultural sector. The poor quality of land, persistent water shortages, and arid weather conditions made it difficult for the nation to support even the needs of the local population. The industrial sector faced similar challenges due to insufficient raw materials and the lack of a skilled labor force (Abdulhamid, 2011).

However, after oil was discovered, Libya became the fifth-richest country in Africa. Today, it hosts the ninth-largest crude oil reserves in the world. In addition to oil, Libya has large reserves of natural gas (Hunter, 2012). The subsequent improvement in Libya's economy led to improvements in the educational system. The population of schools and universities doubled, the curriculum was developed, and Libyan-born teachers were encouraged to replace foreign teachers (National Report, 2004).

### **Historical Overview of Libyan Education**

A brief overview of Libyan early history is needed to understand how history can have an impact on education. Within the past century, the Libyan education system has been impacted by several major stages:

- Before independence
- Kingdom Period (1952-1969), known as the independence period
- 1969 Revolution (1969-2011)
- 2011 Revolution (2011- 2018)

1911	1943	1951	1969	2011
Italian Occupation	World War II Allied Forces	Kingdom Period	1969 Revolution	2011 Revolution

*Figure 2: Timeline of major historical stages in Libya*

### Libya Before Independence

Prior to its independence, Libya was controlled by many empires and nations, including the Phoenicians, Carthaginians, Greeks, Romans, Spaniards, Vandals, Byzantines, Muslim Arabs, Ottoman Turks, Italy, and British and France forces (Country Profile, 2005). However, the focus here will be only on the longest and most influential rulers, due in large part to the scarcity of sources that mentioned those stages of Libyan history, particularly in relation to education.

In the 1500s, Libya became part of the Turkish Ottoman Empire for three centuries, from 1551 to 1911 (Kohl, 2014). When Libya was under Turkish rule, the state of Libyan education was poor and very limited. During most of the Ottoman period, education was limited to Kuttaps education and some military schools. Kuttaps are Quranic schools that mostly focus on Quran memorization (Arabsheibani & Manfor, 2001; Elabbar, 2016). At the beginning of 1901, the Ottomans began to open government schools for students from the age of 15 and up, but it was not completed due to the beginning of Italian colonialism (Ahmed Al-Aqel, 2015).

From 1911 to 1940, Libya was occupied by Italy. The majority of Libyan children continued to depend mainly on the Kuttaps for an education (Elabbar, 2016). According to *Challenging inclusive education policy and practice in Africa* (2018), under the Italians, Libyan children were only allowed to attend primary school: “This was declared in the policy of the colonial administration, which intended to limit the number of Libyan children beyond the primary level” (p. 17).

Italian was the main language used in primary schools, with Arabic as the secondary language. Beyond primary, there were Italian schools where students could complete their studies; however, they were limited to only a few Libyan students whose parents worked with the Italians. Also, because History, Geography, and Italian Language were compulsory subjects after primary school, most Libyan families abstained from sending their children to school (Libyan National Report, 2008). Another deterrent for Libyans was the lack of availability of schools within walking distance, this prevented many children, particularly girls, from going to school. As well, Libyan males were generally drafted quite young into government militia units, which essentially precluded their formal academic education (Libyan National Report, 2008; *Challenging inclusive education policy*, 2018). By the end of the Italian colonist rule at the beginning of the 1940s, Libya had a literacy rate of only 2% (Libyan National Report, 2008; *Challenging inclusive education policy*, 2018). In hindsight, we can observe that these colonial policies were discriminatory and had negatively influenced educational developments in Libya. The colonial policies also undermined Arabic as the first language of Libya, and overshadowed Libyan history and culture with the history and culture of the foreign powers in charge of the country.

After their defeat in WWII, Italy withdrew from the region and Libya was taken over by the Allied forces in 1943. The north of the country was governed by the British and the south by the French. Libya was controlled by the British and French until its independence on December 24, 1951 (Kohl, 2014). By that time, the Libyan-British relationship had grown strong and new business and industry had sprung up between the two countries. Consequently, English started to be widely spoken in business (Abdulhamid, 2011). However, there is no record of any changes in education during the seven years of English and French rule in Libya.

#### Kingdom Period (1952-1969)

In 1952, the newly independent Libya became the first African state created by the General Assembly of the United Nations and the first state to gain independence under the King Edris Sanasi regime (Country Profile, 2005). The relationship between Libya and Britain continued to grow and become even stronger than before independence. As a consequence of these relations, the English language began to be used in business and was introduced to the school curriculum starting in Grade 5 (Abdulhamid, 2011).

When Libya gained independence in 1951, all Libyans were guaranteed the right to attend school and the education system gradually started to improve. Most students registered to start school at the primary school level; however, the Quranic Schools, which had existed prior to independence, also continued to teach (Abdelhamid, 2011; Elabbar, 2016). In 1955, Libya's first university, Benghazi University, was established in its namesake city of Benghazi (Elabbar, 2016). The Faculty of Arts and Education was the first faculty to be founded at the university. A few years later, in 1957, the University of Tripoli was established in the capital.

### 1969 Revolution (1969-2011)

In 1969, a group of people led by the late Muammar Gaddafi deposed the government and the new Libyan Arab Republic was declared (Country Profile, 2005). The Gaddafi government lasted more than 40 years. During that time, the education system continued to change dramatically for the better, along with the economy, due to the discovery of oil. The new government made education a top priority. As a consequence, there was a noticeable improvement in the education system in terms of the increase in the number of students and schools (National Report of Libya, 2008). For example, in 1952, the overall literacy rate among Libyans over the age of ten was around 20%. By 1977, with expanding school opportunities, the rate had risen to 51%. (Country Studies, 1987, as cited in Abdelhamid, 2011).

In the late 1970s and 1980s, Libyan teachers were encouraged to replace Egyptian and other foreign teachers, who had previously been hired to teach in Libyan schools because of the lack of Libyan-born teachers. Therefore, many educational institutes at that time were focused on education and teacher training (Country Studies, 1987). Yousif et al. (2012) stated that from 1973 to 1985, the size of the school and university populations doubled, increasing the number of female students by 130% and male students by 80%. The education system continued to improve and change dramatically.

In the early 2000s, educational statistics show that Libya achieved a breakthrough in the education of its citizens, both males and females. Perhaps the most prominent achievements were in the field of public education literacy and the training of women (see Figures 3 and 4) (National Report of Libya, 2008).

	Educational Stage	Number of Schools	Number of Classrooms	Number of Students	Number of Teachers
First	Basic Education	3,397	40,743	939,799	119,313
Second	Secondary Education	1,033	10,940	226,000	39,847
Third	Joint	72	1,228	30,697	3,764
Total		4,502	52,911	11,964,96	162,924

Figure 3: Number of schools, classrooms, students, and teachers at basic and secondary education in 2008 (National Report of Libya, 2008, p. 13)

Year	Population of School Age	New Enrolled Students (6 years of age)	New Enrolled Students (all ages)	Apparent Enrollment Rate (AIR)	Net Enrolment Rate (NIR)
2000-2001	123,865	120,349	123,246	99.5	97.2
2003-2004	111,706	108,850	111,483	99.8	97.4
2004-2005	113,707	111,092	113,480	99.8	97.7
2005-2006	113,612	111,356	113,488	99.9	98.9

Figure 4: Education enrolment indicators in Libya (2005-2006) (National Report of Libya, 2008, p. 17)

### 2011 Revolution (2011-2018)

In late 2010, what is known as the Arab Spring Revolution began. It started in response to the low standard of living endured by people in various Middle Eastern and North African countries. The revolutions were launched with protests in Tunisia and then Egypt, Libya, Yemen, and Syria (*Challenging inclusive education policy*, 2018). The fighting continued in Libya, which impacted education development in the region. The reasons behind the fighting are complex and beyond the scope of this study.

Most schools in Libya were closed in 2011 due to the war, which put many students behind one year in their studies. When the schools reopened in 2012, the war-torn country continued to face serious political and security challenges that impacted education. Elabbar (2016) stated that the political situation within Libya makes it difficult for the Ministry of Education to perform its job, such as revising the curricula and resuming study areas where fighting is ongoing. However, the Libyan Education Ministry still strives to promote the education sector in different ways. This will be explained in greater detail in the next chapter.

Despite all these setbacks, the education system in Libya has vastly improved over the past six decades. For instance, in 1959, just 10% of Libyans were literate, there were no female teachers, and only 14 Libyans held university degrees. By 1977, literacy had increased to 51%. In the 1980s, more than 80% of males were literate compared with 35% of females (National Report, 2008). As of 2018, the literacy rate for males was about 96.7 % and for females 85.6% (IndexMundi, 2018). The school environment that characterized my primary, elementary and secondary years is slowly being reformed. The Ministry of Education in Libya has recently provided a new policy to prohibit teachers from giving homework or physically punishing students (Libyan Ministry of Education, 2017). As well, teachers are being encouraged to

consider the differences among students and to facilitate meeting the students' diverse needs.

Teachers are also being encouraged to use different activities during their implementation of the curriculum. (Libyan Ministry of Education, 2017).

According to the Libyan Ministry of Education, the education system in Libya will follow the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) established by the United Nations in 2015. At the international education conference in Brussels, Belgium, in 2018, Libya's Minister of Education, Othman Abdeljalil, presented the Ministry's efforts in reforming and developing the educational system. He stressed the importance of integrating kindergarten into public schools and rewriting the curriculum to be interactive and free of repetition. There will also be a total prohibition of physical and verbal violence against pupils at all levels and no examinations for students to proceed to the next grade at the basic education level.

In 2019, the study was delayed for three months because of the teachers' strike occurring in most Libyan cities. The teachers' main demand was an increase in their wages; the then Minister of Education, Othman Abdeljalil, rejected their request. At the time, primary and secondary monthly teachers' salaries ranged from 500-850 Libyan dinars, which is about CAD\$360-\$610 per year (Jamal Johar, 2019). At the end of October, Abdeljalil announced his resignation, prompted not only by the continued closure of schools but also his rejection of the government's decision to separate higher education from public education. Abdeljalil asserts that separating the two ministries is one of the main reasons for the deterioration of the previous education system in Libya (Walid Abdalla, 2019).

### **Libyan Education System**

The education law in Libya ensures free education for all residents. Children are expected to enroll in basic education and continue to be educated until completing Grade 9, at around age 15.

As grades 1 to 9 are mandatory, parents must register their children in school when they are six years old; if parents fail to do so, they face legal punishment (National Report of Libya, 2004).

The first nine grades of school are called fundamental education, followed by three years of high school and three to four years of university. Neither high school nor university is mandatory. The school year consists of 31 weeks at the basic education level, 30 weeks at the secondary level, and 35 weeks at the higher education level (World Data Education, 2007).

#### Pre-school Education:

For the past 20 years, some children in Libya have attended a pre-school program for one to two years before starting school at age six. The main goal of the program is to develop children linguistically and prepare them for school (National Report, 2004). However, this program is not free and is not offered in public schools. Consequently, not many children attend this stage. Most students cannot afford the school tuition, which is expensive for low-income families. Also, there are not enough Kindergartens schools in the cities, which means that students must have a private means of transportation to get the school. This prevents many families from sending their children to pre-school, as they are not able to transport them every day. For example, according to Libyan education statistics (2004), there were only two kindergarten schools in my city (Geriyān), with 25 students attending in the year 2002-2003 (Figure 5). This means that the cost involved and the lack of sufficient numbers of these pre-schools negatively influenced the educational development of Libyan children.

District	Kindergarten	Class	Non-Students
Tripoli	125	-	10,221
Benghazi	62	701	12,793
Geriyān	2	2	25
Musrata	12	107	2,318
Darina	6	45	572
Eygdabia	6	45	821
Al-goufra	10	-	639
Wadi al-hia	4	7	145
Bani Walid	2	12	240
Al-Marg	5	40	697
Al-Jfra	18	173	2,382

Al-Mirgib	12	67	1,037
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*Figure 5: The number of children enrolled in Kindergarten and the number of classes and students in the school year 2002-2003 (National Report, 2004)*

#### Primary and Elementary Education:

The first nine years of school education are compulsory in Libya. This educational program is divided into two stages. The first stage is called basic education and includes grades 1 to 6. The second stage is called preparatory education and includes grades 7 to 9. In grades 1, 2 and 3, the focus is on learning basic Reading and Writing. Grades 4, 5 and 6 feature classes in the Arabic Language, Islamic Studies, Mathematics, Science, Art, Music, and Physical Education. The curriculum concentrates on the development of skills related to those subjects, with a greater focus on Mathematics and Science in grades 7, 8 and 9 (National Report, 2008).

#### Secondary Education:

Secondary education is the stage of education where students prepare for university. There are two types of secondary schools in Libya. One is called a general secondary school, which is divided into Arts and Science and takes three years to complete. The other is called a specialized secondary school, which was approved in 1982 and includes majors such as Economics, Biology, Arts & Media, Engineering, and Social Sciences. The specialized secondary school takes four years to complete. Students who study for three years in secondary school must then study for four years at university, whereas students who study in specialized secondary schools study for just three years at university. Students who successfully pass the final exam in specialized secondary schools may choose either to work or to continue their studies (Clark, 2004; Tamtam et al., 2011).

### University and Higher Vocational Education

University education takes three to five years to complete and depends on the major already declared by a student. However, vocational education lasts only two years after high school completion, in which students study majors that will prepare them to work in fields other than teaching, such as engineering and agriculture (Tamtam et al., 2011). At the end of the 1990s, there were 79 higher vocational institutes in Libya, teaching a total of 58,887 students. What is noticeable in higher education is the development and increased enrolment rates of students who are attending higher educational institutions, particularly female students. According to the National Libyan Report (2004), the female enrollment rate at universities jumped from 13.27% in 1973 to 51.70% in 2003.

### The Nature of Libyan Curriculum

Before discussing the definition of the curriculum in Libya, it is helpful to understand what school curriculum means in general. Defining the word “curriculum” is not an easy task, since the curriculum is a complex concept influenced by numerous factors, including the values of the community and country within which the curriculum is developed. However, scholars over the years have provided a variety of definitions relating to the experiences that children have in the educational institutions as those institutions strive to achieve their educational goals (Rugg, 1926; Caswell and Campbell, 1935; Tyler 1957). Furthermore, I found Kumar’s (2019) definition of the curriculum useful and helpful in providing a summary of all the past explanations of the curriculum. Kumar (2019) explains that

curriculum – whether signifying a concept, a document, or a lived experience – is vulnerable and impressionable to a myriad of influences. It is controlled, shaped, and

influenced by the culture in which it is situated, the political and religious ideologies that have sway over it, the market to which it intends to or is expected to cater, and the teachers and the students who interpret and engage with it and create it their everyday lived contexts. (p. 7).

In the Libyan context, “curriculum” means something different from the previous definition. From my experience as a teacher in Libya, I know that curriculum, in Libya, refers to the textbook for each subject. While it is true that the curriculum has changed and developed over the past several decades, curriculum still means the textbook. So, if someone mentions that the curriculum is changed regarding this or that aspect, what they are saying is that the content of the textbook has changed. Rihan (1995) indicated that the Libyan curriculum is a set of subjects taught to students in order to learn the textbook contents by the end of the school year.

Therefore, whenever the word “curriculum” is mentioned, it simply means the textbook.

Each grade at all levels of school, from grades 1-12, has a certain number of educational and cultural subjects that students have to learn during the academic year, and each subject has a weekly timetable (see Figure 6). As mentioned in Chapter 1, the number of classes ranges from four to six per day over a six-day week, and each class lasts 45 minutes at all levels (grades 1 to 12) (World Data on Education, 2007).

subject	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 9
Islamic Education	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3
Arabic Language	8	8	8	7	7	7	6	6	6
English Language	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	4	4
Mathematics	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Sciences	1	1	2	4	4	4	-	-	-
Biology	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2
Chemistry	-	-	-	-	-	--	2	2	2
Physic	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2
Jamhirian Society	-	-	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
History	-	-	-	1	1	2	2	2	2
Geography	-	-	-	1	1	1	2	2	2
Technology	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	1
Artistic Education	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Music	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

Physical Education	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Total weekly periods	25	25	27	30	30	31	36	36	36

Figure 6: Weekly lesson timetable for basic education (2001) (World Data on Education, 2007).

The Libyan curriculum field has experienced three distinct phases over the past century: the curriculum of the colonial period, which was a combination of Egyptian and Italian curriculum (1911-1950); Egyptian curriculum and its revisions (1952-1990s); and the first Libyan curriculum and its revisions (2000-present). These three phases of curriculum have reflected the political changes in the region, which explains the impact of political change on the educational system. Kumar (2019) explains that “whenever a country’s status changes from that of a colony, the political change is naturally reflected in its education system” (p. 121).

During the Italian colonization, the school system in Libya was almost the same as the Italian school system at that time, which meant that the curriculum was also the same. Studying was done in the Italian language and Arabic was only a second language in schools. Italian History and Geography were compulsory subjects that all students had to take (Libyan National Report, 2010). Consequently, the colonial and political powers led the curriculum in Libya.

At Libya’s independence in 1951, the curriculum (i.e., textbooks) started with borrowed curriculum from Egypt. At its independence, Libya was the poorest country in Africa, so it was difficult at that time to create and print a new curriculum. Also, at that time, there were no qualified Libyan experts who could work on preparing a new curriculum, as very few people had a university education (National Report of Libya, 2004). The borrowed curriculum was mostly

from Egypt since there were strong relationships between the two countries at that time due to similarities in language and culture. These “borrowed” curricula were adopted more or less as they were used in Egypt and then gradually evolved over the years until being completely changed by the 2000s (National Report of Libya, 2004).

In the 1990s, the curriculum of basic (i.e., elementary) and secondary education was reviewed and revised to align with recent technological and scientific developments of that time (World Data Education, 2007). At the secondary level, the main goals of the curriculum are “to assist students in developing religious moral principles [and] comprehensive moral philosophy [in order to] to guide their behavior and abilities for logical thinking and objective criticism” and thus advance the basic educational goals (World Data Education, 2007, p. 1).

In 2000, an entirely new curriculum was developed for both basic and specialized secondary education. This new curriculum was the first Libyan-inspired curriculum applied in the schools. The curriculum was created by Libyan educational experts, experienced teachers, inspectors, university staff members, and cooperation among Arab educational and international organizations such as LESCO and UNESCO. According to the National Report of Libya, which was presented to the National Conference on Education in Geneva in 2004 (*Quality Educating for All Young People: Challenges, trends, and priorities*), the Libyan curriculum is a development tool for learners’ personalities from various aspects, such as acquiring self-confidence skills and behaviors and positive thinking. Thus, it is an ever-changing and developing tool that changes and develops according to the personality of the learners.

In the 2000s, the curriculum was again revised by opening it to the immediate environment, ensuring that educational programs are diverse, encouraging continuous self-learning, and arranging for civil society to be involved in setting and developing the curriculum. Also, the

teaching and learning methods encouraged within the new curriculum included training the teachers to acquire skills they need for modern societies, and using project and problem-solving methods in teaching instead of the traditional way of focusing on memorization (World Data Education, 2007).

The National Report (2004) states that time and place are the two main transforming aspects that affect the personality of learners. The educational curriculum is the outcome of the surrounding environment and its content; the tangible, social or culture components, or its ability to lead and change the environmental elements tangibly, socially, and culturally. Therefore, the curriculum in Libya has been reviewed several times starting in the 1980s to keep up with local and international developments.

The process of developing the new curriculum underwent various stages, starting with the development of the lexis of the subjects. In this, the cooperation of all involved organizations (LESCO and UNESCO) was requested. Their recommendations were then reviewed by specialized technical vocational and educational committees. In the next stage of the process, the curriculum was written through the Science Research Center, which includes Libyan educational experts. The third stage involved the carrying out of evaluative studies concerning the curriculum (National Report of Libya, 2004).

The new curricular books (textbooks) were then established according to the following guidelines:

- The books should conform to society's philosophy and goals.
- The books' contents should reflect the goals of each level and the general goals of the study subject.

- The books should suit the students' abilities and needs with regard to knowledge, sentiment, and skills.
- The books should contain a reliable list of references at the end of each book.
- The books should contain suitable illustrations and practice exercises. The teaching of the book should be based on simple educational subjects locally available, if possible.
- The books should encourage learners to use various training techniques, such as investigation, dialogue, problem-solving methods, and other techniques used according to the nature of the educational level.
- The books should encourage the development of the skill of knowledge acquirement, and make use of it in facing daily life problems (National Report of Libya, 2004).

After the 2011 revolution, the development of the curriculum was the main focus of the new Ministry of Education. A newly formed team of 160 experts was charged with rewriting and preparing a new temporary curriculum and textbooks throughout the entire Libyan school system for the school year 2012 (Duncan, 2011).

The Educational Curriculum Center was established in Tripoli in 2009. The Center specializes in the preparation of educational curricula that will contribute to conducting research and programs to disseminate and develop education in all elementary and secondary schools in Libya. The center has 160 employees across four departments, including the curriculum department, the textbook department, the educational research department, and the financial and administrative affairs department (Educational Curriculum, 2019). According to a newspaper from the Center (2019), the curriculum in Libya was modified again in 2017 by a committee that included

teachers, inspectors, and faculty members. This committee considered the previous modifications in 2012 to be insufficient with regard to content.

In their new modifications, the committee focused on including content related to modern science and matching that content to modern methods of teaching and learning. The committee also developed long-term plans of three and five years to develop the curriculum in terms of content and style. This included developing the general objectives of basic and secondary education, reworking the vocabulary of the Arabic language, modifying aspects of Islamic education, History, Geography and National Education, and canceling homework due to social changes (the main one being that because both parents now work, there is not enough time for the children to do their homework under their supervision). This committee obtained assistance from international organizations such as UNESCO and the Arab Organization for Education and Culture in order to develop the educational process in Libya. (Educational Curriculum, 2019).

The main changes in the curriculum and lesson plan were mostly in the primary school grades. Specifically, the English language would be taught in schools starting in the first grade, not the fifth grade, as was previously done, while the Arabic Language in primary schools was simplified and focused mainly on reading, writing, and dictation. Also, there would be fewer mathematics and science books for primary school students (one book each), but more classes for sports, music, and drawing. Meanwhile, courses such as History, Geography, and National Education were removed from primary schools and replaced with National and Behavioral Education (Abdelkader Assad, 2017). The National and Behavioral Education subject aims to teach the geography and history of Libya in a simple way, with a focus on topics aimed at

achieving national reconciliation and peaceful coexistence (Ministry of Education, 2015). The Ministry also removed homework for primary school students (grades 1 to 8) and made school days slightly longer (minimum 6 hours a day), which would leave time for doing extra work at school rather than at home (Abdelkader Assad, 2017).

Libya's current Education Minister, Dr. Othman Abdel Jalil, agreed with educational experts and curriculum consultants on the need to modify the current curricula and lesson plans in all Libyan schools, starting in the school year 2018 (Ministry of Education, 2018).

### **Libyan Education Policy**

In the years following the 1969 revolution until 2011, decision-making on education was done by the committees in each district. There were 32 municipalities, and, in each municipality, there were members who represented the education department locally. Those members were responsible for elaborating and proposing a general policy for education. The General People's Committee at the level of the Libyan government is responsible for implementing educational policies (National Report, 2004). The National Academy for Scientific Research plays a role in developing educational content. Regional and International organizations help to evaluate the education system, and the National Center of Educational Training Research follows and revises curricula (National Report of Libya, 2004; World Data on Education, 2007).

According to the National Report of Libya (2008), in the 2000s, the policy of educational development worked on reviewing the previous curriculum, taking into account national constants and global changes, including 1) looking at the curriculum as a single unit within an integrated interactive system (not as a separate unit), based on the integration and unity of

knowledge and science overlaps; linking curriculum with modern changes and the needs of modern society, such as the production sectors, empowerment and human development; and 3) linking the curriculum content with the environment, Libyan society, and global technology surrounding the learner.

The educational policy in Libya is based on the following foundational principles (National Report of Libya, 2008):

- Freedom of learning is guaranteed to all.
- Basic education is compulsory for all and is free at public education institutions.
- Secondary education is optional and will pave the way for the involvement of outstanding students in undergraduate and graduate studies.
- Encourage children to attend Kindergarten by providing local Kindergartens without including them within the educational structure.
- Ensure the social recognition of students' special needs and provide educational services for them.
- Run schools by qualified educational officials who can interact and harmonize with the social environment.
- Continuously develop the curriculum, review its objectives, and update teaching strategies and the assessment system to ensure the quality of the schools' outputs.
- Enhance the performance of all official employees, teachers, inspectors, social workers, and administrators through periodical and continuing special training and courses.
- 

The Center of Educational Curriculum and Research is also responsible for issuing policies related to developing the content of textbooks (i.e., curriculum) by adding and removing some of

the content, depending on political and social changes. For example, according to the Libyan Ministry of Education in 2012, committees of curriculum experts, educational inspectors and teachers were formed by the Minister of Education to participate in the preparation of a new study plan for the academic year 2012-2013 for both basic and secondary education. Some of the tasks of these committees were to divide the curriculum over the school weeks, change course content by deletion or modification, prepare books for new courses, and print the textbooks after review and revision by specialized committees. The educational policy that I will be analyzing in this study is one of the policies issued by the Center of Educational Curriculum and Research.

#### **Brief Description and Explanation of the Selected Policy (data set)**

In this study, I will draw my analysis from the curriculum document entitled *Sequence of Lesson Plans and Recommended Textbooks*, which targets the first years of secondary education for the academic year 2017-2018. The policy is essentially a teacher's guide (handbook) that stipulates a sequence of lesson plans and recommended textbooks for Grade 10 high school students. This educational document was issued by the Libyan Ministry of Education, specifically from the Department of the Center of Educational Curriculum and Research.

The curriculum document that I will analyze is the Libyan curriculum guide for Grade 10. It is part of a much larger document that is a guide for the entire curriculum for tenth grade the subject chosen from this document is the Arabic language, as I taught this subject when I was in Libya. The document itself is a collaboration between school inspectors, educators, and the Educational Curriculum and Research Center of the Libyan government, as explained in the document's cover page.

Although there are no references cited in the analyzed document to identify materials or other resources used in the development of the curriculum, because of political challenges, the curriculum center stated that inspection reports and student data were used to create the document. It has three sections (Educational Curriculum, 2019). The first part emphasizes the role of the teacher in developing students' skills in the subject provided, including three pages of outcomes detailing what the learners are expected to be able to do. The second part provides an in-depth explanation of how lessons are divided into study weeks, with detailed notes on how teachers should apply these lessons. The third part of the educational document concerns the names of the textbooks that are used in the first year of high school.

The policy document covers all areas within Libya and is almost a lesson plan in how it is laid out. From this, it is clear that the curriculum is the textbook and the textbook is the curriculum.

The document also provides detailed instructions for teachers on what they are expected to follow during their implementation of the curriculum, which undermines teachers' academic freedom and thereby controls curriculum, teaching, and learning in the classroom.

The following chapter reviews the literature related to the importance of using critical discourse analysis in the education field.

### **Chapter 3: Literature Review**

This chapter provides a review of the literature that employs critical discourse analysis (CDA) in analyzing education policies. It begins with an overview of discourse and discourse analysis and an explanation of the term “critical” in CDA. A review of how CDA has been used in the education field in general is provided, followed by a discussion of the significance of using CDA in analyzing educational policies. Next, a summary of the criticism directed toward the CDA approach is presented, followed by potential ways in which these criticisms can be addressed. The chapter concludes with a summary of the main points found in the literature and indicates gaps in the research area. The summary also explains how this study will contribute to the research field.

#### **Discourse and Discourse Analysis**

Over the past few decades, discourse analysis has become a popular way to understand different issues related to the field of education. As CDA depends on the analysis of discourse, it is important to illustrate what discourse and discourse analysis mean.

Discourse is a term that refers to both spoken and written language. Fairclough (2001) explains that discourse, in general, refers to three areas in social practice. First, discourse refers to the part of social activities in which language is used in a specific way, such as the language used by a shop assistant during an interchange with a customer. Second, discourse refers to representations of people and their role in society. An example of this is the representation of the role of teachers in a school. Teachers as social actors within their teaching practice produce presentations of

other practices and presentations of their practices. The third area of social practice to which discourse refers is the explanation of why and how some representations of identities are more prevalent in society than others. This third area examines the historical, social, and cultural contexts of how discourse is created and interpreted. Discourse, as a term, is typically used in a variety of ways, describing meaning-making as an element of the social process as well as the language associated with a particular social practice (Fairclough, 2013).

Gee (2004) explains that discourse analysis is “the analysis of language as it is used to enact activities, perspectives, and identities” (p. 4). Discourse analysis is the study of social life that is understood through the analysis of language in different formats of communication, including face-to-face conversations, speaking, and written documents (Shaw & Bailey, 2009). Further, discourse analysis is a multi-disciplinary approach that contains a wide range of theories and analytical methods for explaining the language in use and whose studies cover a variety of fields, such as sociology, philosophy, linguistics, and social sciences. Each field focuses on different aspects of discourse according to its interests. Hence, choosing an appropriate approach to discourse analysis depends on the data being used by the researcher (Coulthard, 2014).

### **The ‘Critical’ in Critical Discourse Analysis**

When the term “*critical*” is added to “*discourse analysis*”, it means that the text will be explained in relation to its context in addition to an explanation of any parts that may be unclear or hidden. Fairclough (1985) argues that “critical is used in the special sense of aiming to show up connections which may be hidden from people” (p. 5). This is similar to Wodak’s (2007) assertion in an interview on the topic of CDA. He argues that the term “critical” in CDA does not

apply the common-sense meaning of being negative but rather skeptical, as the “critical” aspect is meant to demystify complex issues and propose alternatives.

Fairclough (2013), in his latest version of his book *Language and power*, explains that

[h]owever the term [critical] is defined, there’s always a risk that other meanings may creep in. This is something to be aware of, even if awareness is no guarantee that the problem will be avoided. In the CDA as I see it, being critical is not just identifying features and types of discourse which are open to criticisms of various sorts (e.g. are false, or manipulative), it is also asking: why is the discourse like this? Being critical means looking for explanations. (p.7)

In addition, Fairclough and Wodak (1997) outline some common principles of discourse under a critical umbrella, as listed below:

- Discourse does ideological work.
- Discourse constitutes society and culture.
- Discourse is situated and historical.
- Power relations are partially discursive.
- Mediation of power relations necessitates a socio-cognitive approach.
- CDA is a socially-committed scientific paradigm that addresses social problems.
- Discourse analysis is interpretive, descriptive, and explanatory and uses a “systematic methodology.”
- The role of the analyst is to study the relationships between texts and social practices (as cited in Rogers, 2005).

It is understandable that critical discourse analysis is an approach to study discourse that can be in either spoken or written language. However, this study of discourse must be connected to the social surroundings in which the discourse exists, with the main aim of being aware of the underlying aspects that are not clear or need further explanation.

### **Overview of Critical Discourse Analysis in Education**

It is not my intention here to provide a detailed historical overview of CDA in education.

However, I will describe the origins of CDA in educational studies.

An education system is a complex process that requires a deep understanding of all the aspects within the process. Therefore, understanding the educational context is an important aspect of educational studies. The analysis of context is a way for educational researchers to investigate and resolve a variety of educational issues (Rogers, 2005). Early examples of linguistic analysis in education research grew out of the study of sociolinguistics (Gumperz, 1982; Labov, 1972; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1976), linguistic anthropology (Silverstein & Urban, 1996), and the ethnography of communication (Gumperz & Hymes, 1964; Hymes, 1972). For example, Sinclair and Coulthard (1976) introduced and elaborated a framework for coding teachers' and students' discourse acts in classroom talk by providing an extensive structural model of discourse organization in classroom interactions. The work of Cazden (1988, 2001) grew out of these descriptive analyses of classroom talk. Around the same time that scholars were describing the micro-interactions that occurred in classrooms, scholars from fields such as sociology and cultural studies were also looking to classrooms and schools to theorize how social structures are

reproduced through educational institutions (Bourdieu, 1979/1984; Bowles & Gintis, 1976; Oakes, 1986; Willis, 1977).

Each of the previous studies focused on a different aspect according to the methods and theories that they used for analyzing documents. For example, studies based on linguistics theory focused more on language than on the social context, whereas studies based on social and cultural theories did not focus on language. Therefore, CDA was developed to bring social theory and discourse analysis together. Rogers (2005) argues that CDA helps to describe, interpret, and explain how discourse both represents and is represented by the social world. In addition, Harb (2017) states that using CDA in education studies shows that “learning is regarded as social practices [which] change over time and place, and this can help educators describe, interpret, and explain the ways of interacting, representing, and being that accompanies learning” (p. 61).

In the review of literature related to using CDA in education, I rely primarily on the findings of the comprehensive literature review carried out by Rogers et al. (2005) and (2016) in *Critical Discourse Analysis in Education*. Their study covers three decades of the use of CDA in educational studies by examining 313 articles that use CDA approaches to answer questions related to the field of education. Rogers et al. (2005) argue that, over the past three decades, educational studies have increasingly used CDA to investigate different aspects related to the relationship between language and society. Rogers et al. (2005) reviewed the educational studies that were conducted in or pertained to formal or informal education (e.g., after-school programs, museums, family literacy programs) or that pertained to an educational issue such as policy documents.

The main aim of the study is to explore how education researchers using CDA have taken up the methodological aspects of CDA. The study provides education researchers with a closer look at how educational issues are constructed and represented at both micro and macro levels through formal and informal education. The following is a summary of key points that were included in *A Review of the Literature of Critical Discourse Analysis in Education (2005)*:

- The use of CDA as a methodology is rapidly growing in education research.
- The studies that have been reviewed included multiple analytic methods. However, none of the studies drew on multi-modal analysis.
- Most of the researchers who use CDA in their studies analyze written data.
- Many of the articles did not provide a clear description of their linguistic framework, which may be due in part to the lack of training that education researchers receive in language studies.
- All the studies that focused on interactional data used ethnographic methods of participant observation recorded in field notes, interviews, document collection, and debriefing with participants. Some studies included data across time and context.
- Most of the studies involved participants who were of middle-school age or older. Only 15% of the studies included participants who were in elementary school and under 10 years old.
- The weakest link in all these studies seems to be the connection between linguistic resources and social practices because most of the studies failed to illustrate the relationship between grammatical resources and social practices.

In 2016, the same group of scholars continued what they had started and published another study: *Critical Discourse Analysis in Education: A Review of the Literature, 2004 to 2012*. In this work, Rogers et al. (2016) aimed to answer four key questions: What is the nature of CDA in education research from 2004 to 2012? What are the characteristics of studies that include CDA? What findings did emerge from CDA scholarship in education? And how does CDA in education research contribute to the field of critical discourse studies? They searched the same five databases used in the 2005 literature review, using “critical discourse analysis” and “education” as search terms. They identified 275 peer-reviewed articles. The following is a summary of the key points included in the study:

- The number of published CDA studies in education more than doubled (from 16 to 34) and never dropped back down.
- Despite the variety of perspectives of CDA, most of the studies that have been reviewed drew mainly on Fairclough’s (1989, 1991, 1993, 1995) work.
- Most of the studies focus on the discipline of Literacy Education, which represented nearly 30% of all studies, whereas Educational Policy represented only 21% of the database.
- Forty percent of all the studies took place in higher education, including studies in teacher education and professional development, while 13% were in elementary and 10% in middle school and high school settings.
- Most of the articles were case studies. Roughly 10% of the studies were teacher action research, and these studies fell primarily within the areas of teacher education and literacy, with only a few in the curriculum.
- Education researchers around the world are using CDA.

- All the studies included in the two parts of the study took place in countries where English is the primary language: Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

From the above review, it is clear that educational researchers use the CDA framework in a variety of educational settings, paying attention to both the linguistics aspects of the interaction and to the social, historical, and cultural contexts in which the interaction takes place. Teacher education, literacy, and professional development appear more often in the previous review. Analyzing educational policies uses was also one of the areas where CDA is practiced.

Educational policy documents are created to explain and recommend actions to be taken to guide the education system. Bell and Stevenson (2006) explain that “[w]hat is often presented as a policy is frequently no more than a statement of intent, a plan of action or a set of guidelines. At one level the purpose of such policies may appear clear, but it is important to locate policy within a wider context” (p. 23). Because educational policies are crucial elements in education planning, many studies were conducted to analyze these policies for different purposes according to researchers' interests. Most of these analyses focus on the process of policymaking and planning. (Diem, Young, Welton, Mansfield, & Lee, 2014; Haddad & Demsky, 1995; Norelius and Mendes 2003; Taylor 2004). There has been much research in the literature that uses different forms of CDA to analyze educational policies. However, in this review, I will primarily focus on the studies that use Fairclough’s use of CDA.

Rogers et al. (2016) states that policy analysis is enriched by CDA because of its focus on the linguistic aspect of the text as well as its historical, political, social, and cultural context within

which the policy is situated. Taylor (2004) states that CDA is an appropriate tool for critical policy analysis because “it allows detailed investigation of the relationship of language to other social processes, and of how language works within power relations” (p. 22). Taylor further argues that most of the studies that use discourse theory to analyze education policy have not augmented social analysis with fine-grained linguistic analysis. Therefore, many studies tend to use CDA as a method of policy analysis in education because CDA represents a detailed investigation of the relationship between language and other social practices.

Saarinen (2008) conducted a study to address the position of text and discourse analysis in the analysis of educational policies, particularly in higher education policy research, from both theoretical and methodological perspectives. The author presents two studies that use two different methodological approaches as examples. The approach taken in the two cases is strongly influenced by CDA. The aim of the analysis was limited to the appearance of ‘quality’ in the selected educational policies. The study concludes that DA and CDA, both as a methodological and theoretical approach,

can be helpful not only in tracking the policy changes, raising issues and describing them, but also in identifying, understanding and explaining some of the developments that lead up to the implementation of the policies and the ideologies which are embedded in the debates. (p. 725)

Thomas (2005) states that CDA is a valuable tool for critical policy analysis. She conducted a study to examine the effectiveness of the framework identified by Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999). As Thomas (2005) mentions in the article, she started her study by providing a discussion of education policy as a discursive practice. Chouliaraki and Fairclough’s (1999) framework was applied to an analysis of the constructions of teacher identities in educational

policies. The application of the selected framework illustrates a recent policy document that includes a discussion of teachers' quality and standards. Applying CDA helps to address the issue of teacher quality, which is analyzed in terms of the discursive construction of teachers' professional identities. This study also concluded that CDA is an appropriate method for critical policy analysis as well as for analysis of constructions of identities in educational documents.

In addition, Taylor (2004) conducted a study to explore the possibilities of using critical discourse analysis in critical policy research in education. However, she uses the CDA framework from Fairclough's (2001a, 2003) studies to analyze extracts of educational policy documents that were chosen. The purpose of the analysis was to determine the state of education policy in the current era. She concludes that understanding discursive and linguistics details in the text of policies helps to know how they may be used in emancipatory ways by teachers and policy-makers.

Pini and Gorostiaga (2008) carried out a discourse analysis to examine teacher education policies in different countries of Latin America and North America through the comparison of policy documents. Their study was based on the framework illustrated by Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999) and Fairclough (1989, 1959). The study analyzed a selection of recent documents on educational policies. In contrast to the previous study, this research does not outline the stages of CDA but instead focuses only on representing the similarities and differences among various national and international educational statements. The paper concludes that CDA offers the possibility of illuminating specific aspects of educational policies in certain historic moments.

Lester, Lochmiller, and Gabriel (2016) conducted a study to examine CDA and education policy. The study introduced the first section of a two-part series on *Special Issues on Discourse Perspective and Education Policy*. Within the investigation, the researchers provide an overview of six papers devoted to discourse analysis and policy studies. The work represents a range of methodological decisions and combinations within CDA that researchers use in their analysis of education policy. Their first paper examines how reformers and politicians arrive at their claims about educational issues, particularly regarding exploring how language about race complicates the present claim that education reform is a civil rights issue. This study differs from others in that it analyzes educational policies in terms of using “both research- generated and publicly available interview to juxtapose the language use by two influential actors in education reform arena” (p. 5).

Lester, Lochmiller, and Gabriel’s (2016) second study investigates the relationship between language and ideology by using interviews with policy-makers. This work, which looks at England and Wales during the New Labour years (1997-2001), analyzes the discourse of social and emotional learning in schools, as legislated by policy-makers. In the study, Fairclough’s three-stage framework (1992) is employed to trace “the history association and connection of the discourse participants drew upon to talk about social and emotional learning” (Lester, Lochmiller, and Gabriel, 2016, p. 7).

The researchers’ third study explores how state policy is interpreted by three contrasting school districts by examining public statements about the policy on state and individual district websites. CDA is also used in this study to identify ideologies in context. Their fourth study

looks at similarities and differences in how language is used to construct the purpose of kindergarten within different documents. This study differs from the other studies in terms of its focus on “documents that are used to inform policy, thus uncovering the discursive recourse available to policy-makers and lobbyists during the policy making process” (Lester, Lochmiller, and Gabriel, 2016, p. 7).

Unlike the first four studies, the fifth paper investigates the policy-making process when policies are under revision. The researchers apply Fairclough’s (2012) framework to understand how beliefs regarding the purpose of public schools’ shape state policies. The findings of this study help the reader understand the process of policy-making and the role of belief and values in policy-making conversations.

The last study also uses the CDA framework to analyze a wide range of data sources to investigate the implementation of different programs from one reform organization in specific district. The aim of the work is to understand the reformers of organizations promoted their programs, and how local representors explained the implementations of these programs. They argue that the discourse of reforms is misaligned in ways that impact the accuracy of implementations. So, the understanding of how different stakeholders use language to construct different version of the same program helps to inform decisions about the programs (Lester, Lochmiller, and Gabriel, 2016).

### **Criticism of Critical Discourse Analysis**

From the review of the literature, it is obvious that CDA has been widely used in education in analyzing education policies (e.g., Liasidou, 2008; Pini & Gorostiaga, 2008; Vavrus & Seghers,

2009; McCormick, 2011; Dahl, 2017; Arce-Trigatti & Anderson, 2018; Mullet, 2018). However, I also notice that CDA has been criticized by researchers across a range of disciplines (Brezze, 2011; Haig, 2004; Liasidou, 2008). In the following section, I provide an overview of these critiques and how I have addressed them in my study. Note that I only discuss critiques related to the work of Norman Fairclough, as his work is the focus of the present study.

Haih (2004) reviewed the critiques of Fairclough's CDA, explaining that the two main concurrences of using CDA concern the validity of knowledge that CDA provides. In other words, does CDA produce valid knowledge? The other concurrence is that CDA is not clear in terms of its theoretical and mythological foundation. Haih provides a detailed example of analyzing a text called *A Big Issue* which is found in Choulaiarki and Fairclough's *Discourse in Late Modernity* (1999). From the analyzed example, Haih (2004) explains some of his reservations and those of three of the most prominent theories: philosophy, applied linguistics, and critical linguistics.

Although Haih (2004) presents a discussion related to these three theories, he does not provide a conclusion or an explanation of the main concerns that he points out at the beginning of his paper, namely the validity of knowledge that CDA provides, and the relation of CDA's theory and method (i.e., the two main areas of CDA criticism). Regarding the validity of knowledge of CDA, Fairclough, (2001) argues that

we cannot take the role of discourse in social practices for granted, it has to be established through analysis. And discourse may be more or less important and salient in

one practice or set of practices than in another, and may change in importance over time.

(p. 1)

Fairclough, (2001) also explains that although social researchers recognize that “language has a significance in contemporary socio-economic changes which is perhaps qualitatively different from its significance in previous transformations... [,] it has not been researched because their theories and methods do not equip them to research it” (p. 7).

Regarding the relation between CDA’s theory and method, Dijk (2001) explains that “CDA is not so much a direction, school, or specialization next to the many other “approaches” in discourse studies. Rather, it aims to offer a different “mode” or “perspective” of theorizing, analysis, and application throughout the whole field” (p. 1). He also notes that “since CDA is not a specific direction of research, it does not have a unitary theoretical framework. Within the aims mentioned above, there are many types of CDA, and these may be theoretically and analytically quite diverse” (p. 2).

Breeze (2011) provides a detailed analysis of various critiques of CDA, concluding that it is important for researchers who wish to carry out studies using CDA to consider these critiques for the strength of their studies. He argues that CDA draws on a wide range of theories related to language and society, but that these theories are not always clearly defined, which makes it difficult for readers to understand the exact interpretations. Therefore, researchers need to clarify the theoretical background of their works. In the present study, an explanation of the theoretical and methodological foundations of CDA according to the study’s framework used for analysis will be provided in the next chapter.

Baker et al., (2008) argue that critical discourse analysts have frequently been called out for using an “impressionistic” methodology for text analysis. That is why researchers need to apply the techniques of corpus linguistics to obtain a more representative overview across a large sample of language. Corpus linguistics is a methodology that analyzes discourse with a focus on the language of the. Also, it is essential when using CDA to be less selective and more disciplined and systematic in analyzing text. In my study, some parts of the selected policy *Sequences of Lesson Plans* and *The Names of Textbooks for the First Years of Libyan Secondary Education* (2017) are selected based on particular criteria.

As we can see, there are several criticisms leveled at using CDA as a methodology to study discourse. However, these criticisms cannot be generalized to all researchers. According to Luke (1995),

the strength of critical discourse analysis lies in its capacity to show the power relations of apparently mundane texts at work, to represent and interpret instances of everyday talk, reading, and writing, whether in a beginning reading lesson, a science discussion, a research seminar, a memo or policy statement.” (p. 40)

In summary, it is clear from the review that CDA is widely practiced by researchers to conduct studies related to exploring educational issues. Most of the studies depend on CDA methodology and conclude that CDA is a powerful tool to explore the relationship between language and other social processes, to understand the policy-making process, to inform policy-makers to improve the quality of the policies, and to understand how policies can be translated into practice.

Despite several research studies that have applied critical discourse analysis to various aspects of language in educational policies as well as to literacy education and teacher education, there has been a lack of studies focused primarily on analyzing curriculum framework policies. As an educator who has experienced a traditional way of teaching and learning, and as a new learner in the Canadian education system who explores the differences in the education systems (particularly learning and teaching approaches with regard to the curriculum), I became interested in exploring the impact of educational policy on the approach of teaching and learning. Therefore, the aim of the present study became the critical analysis and exploration of the discourse of the officially used document entitled *Sequences of Lesson Plans* and *The Names of Textbooks for the First Years of Libyan Secondary Education*, from which I launched my search for the relationship between the curriculum framework and educational policy. Based on the literature, it is assumed that the results of this study will be valuable to the education field in general, as there is a lack of research application that uses CDA to analyze curriculum frameworks. Also, the results of this work will be valuable to the education field in Arab countries, as currently no studies use CDA to analyze educational policies.

The next chapter presents the methodology of CDA as well as the data analysis pertaining to the study.

## Chapter 4: Methodology and Data Analysis

This chapter contains two main sections. The first section highlights the theoretical framework in the area of critical discourse analysis (CDA) and outlines Fairclough's three-stage model of the theory. It also presents the research methodology employed in the present study and the data analysis procedures used. The second section of this chapter presents a critical analysis of the Libyan educational document *Sequence of Lesson Plans, 2017*, according to the three stages of Fairclough's (2013) framework.

### Methodology

#### Brief Overview of Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a qualitative analytical approach that is used for critically describing, interpreting, and explaining the relationship between language, social practice, and the social world. It is the study of language use in its social contexts, which includes aspects such as the economy, politics, education, family, culture, and so on. Therefore, CDA helps to explain how language can function ideologically and how to recognize hidden meanings in a text (Fairclough, 2013).

Studying and analyzing discourse is not a new topic. For instance, already in 1935, J. R. Firth argued the importance of studying spoken discourse. He also explained that analyzing the language according to aspects of phonology and syntax plays a crucial role in understanding the meaning (Coulthard, 2014). Since that time, researchers have started to pay more attention to analyzing language use.

Dijk (1995) argues that while work using CDA is usually distinguished by a set of criteria, not all work using this framework is characterized by these criteria. Because CDA is issue-oriented, any theoretical and methodological approach is appropriate if it is able to effectively study any relevant social problem. In addition, CDA focuses on studying social problems in a multidisciplinary way to understand the relations between discourse and society. As well, CDA work typically focuses on all levels of discourse, including phonology, syntax, semantics, style, rhetoric, schematic organization, speech acts, pragmatic strategies, and interactions. The common goal among CDA studies is to reveal what is not immediately obvious in societal discourse.

#### Critical Discourse Analysis Theory or Method

The critical discourse analysis method is strongly based on theory; however, no one theory refers to all various forms. The form of CDA developed by Fairclough and his colleagues is a combination of a set of theories that includes critical theory of language, systematic functional linguistics theory, micro-sociological theory, and theories of society and power (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999; Meyer, 2001). Fairclough (2010) explains that although his first theoretical framework was developed in Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999) based on a closed list of theorists, it is important to remain open to a wide range of theories. A brief summary is needed to explain the theoretical foundation of Fairclough's CDA.

#### Systematic Functional Linguistics Theory

Systematic functional linguistics (SFL) is one of the theories on which CDA is based. It is an approach to language developed mainly by Halliday (1985) in the U.K. (Meyer, 2001; O' Domell, 2011), as mentioned earlier. Systematic functional linguistics is a functional-semantic

theory which explores both how language is structured as a semiotic system and how people use it in different contexts. More specifically, SFL studies the relationship between language and its functions in social life.

For nearly half a century, the terms SFL and CDA were used interchangeably. However, starting in the late 1980s, CDA began to be the preferred term for scholars such as Norman Fairclough (1989, 1991) for indicating the theory of critical linguistics. While SFL focuses more on the linguistics function of the text, CDA combines both linguistics and social aspects into one theory (Eggins, 2004).

#### Micro-sociological Theory

Micro-sociological theory is another approach on which CDA is based. This theory studies how groups of people interact, why they interact, and how they interpret their instructions of the social settings in which they find themselves (Schmitz, 2012). According to Meyer (2001), Fairclough's CDA draws upon Ran Scollon's perspectives of Micro-sociology theory within the field of discourse analysis. Ron Scollon calls his approach mediated discourse analysis (MDA), in which the discourse analysis focuses on the linking between discourse and social actions (Scollon and de Saint-Georges, 2013). The general goal of MDA is to explicate the connection between broad social issues and everyday speaking and writing, and to deeply understand the history of practice with the habits of the participants, in particular social action (Fairclough and Meyer, 2001).

#### Theories of Society and Power

Theories of society and power are some other theories on which CDA is based, in particular Michael Foucault's linguistics perspectives. Foucault (1978) argues that power is "the name that

one attributes to a complex strategical situation in a particular society; power is not an institution and not a structure; neither is it a certain strength we are endowed with..." (p. 93).

CDA is also related to the critical linguistics theory which can be traced to the influence of the critical theory of the Frankfurt School (Wodak and Meyer, 2015). The part of the Frankfurt School's critical theory associated with CDA is its focus on understanding and explaining language as it is used in society (Dijk, 2008; Breeze, 2011; Harney, 2015).

Critical discourse analysis focuses on the need for interdisciplinary work to critically understand how language can help us to understand discourse of social institutions. (Wodak and Meyer, 2015). In addition, Fairclough (2010) explains that social theory and sociolinguistics theory impacted his framework of CDA, arguing that working in a transdisciplinary way means to combine the work of social theory and critical analysis. Fairclough also argues that "the contemporary social life is 'textually mediated', [in that] we live our practices and our identities increasingly through the text" (p. 169).

Although the CDA approach is based on multiple theories, it mostly stems from the critical theory of language, which considers the use of language as a form of social practice (Fairclough, 1989; 1992; 1995; 2003). Therefore, CDA is a version of a tradition of language critique.

However, it is distinctive in that it brings linguistics and critical social science together within a single theoretical framework (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999). Accordingly, CDA entails working in a transdisciplinary way through dialogue with other disciplines and theories (Fairclough and Wodak, 2015) and can be both theory and method. Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999) argue that CDA should not be seen as an independent theory or method because theories provide mediation between the social and linguistics. Thus, theory and method in CDA

complement each other: the method develops the theory, and the theory helps to construct the method (Henderson, 2005).

### Fairclough's Method of Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical discourse analysis has been developed by researchers such as Fairclough, van Dijk, Van Leeuwen, Wodak, and others across a variety of publications (Vaara, 2010). Although there have been many publications on CDA, Fairclough's book *Critical Discourse Analysis: The critical study of language* (1995) is the most familiar sourcebook for CDA. Breeze (2011) indicates that the term "critical discourse analysis" is first used by Fairclough in an article published in 1985 as well as in his book *Language and Power* (1989). Consequently, as we see in the Literature Review chapter of the present work, most studies draw on Fairclough's CDA. Building on ideas he presented in a book co-authored with Chouliarki, *Discourse in Late Modernity* (1999), Fairclough (2010) uses the terminology of that work to define four key stages of the discourse. The first stage is focusing on a social wrong in its semiotic aspect; the second stage is identifying obstacles to addressing the social wrong; the third stage is considering whether the social order needs the social wrong; and the fourth stage is identifying possible ways past the obstacles.

A few years later, in his book *Critical Discourse Analysis: The Critical Study of Language*, Fairclough (2013) explains the three main characteristics which distinguish CDA from other forms of analysis. First, CDA is not just an analysis of concrete text but a systematic trans-disciplinary analysis of relations between discourse and other elements of social practice. Second, CDA is not just a commentary of discourse but a systematic analysis of a text. Third,

CDA is not just descriptive but also normative, in that it addresses social wrongs and tries to find possible solutions for them.

The three-dimensional framework includes the following three stages of analysis:

- 1- Analysis of the text (description): This stage requires investigating formal characteristics of a text within three categories: vocabulary, grammar, and text structure.
- 2- Analysis of discourse practice (interpretation): This stage involves interpreting context (situational and textual contexts), discourse types (how the text is produced, distributed, and interpreted), and differences and changes.
- 3- Analysis of social practice (explanation): This stage includes analyzing the text by explaining the issues of social determinants, ideologies, and effects.

Analysis of the Libyan secondary document *Divide the Lessons of the Study Weeks and the Names of Textbooks for the First Years of Secondary Education* (2017) will be done using this three-dimensional framework, with the word data set being used in reference to the name of the policy.

### Data Analysis

The purpose of this section is to analyze a data set through the lens of Fairclough's (2013) CDA framework and my experience as a teacher in Libyan classrooms. This section examines how Libya's educational policies conceptualize the notions of curriculum, teaching, and learning. Also, the analysis explores the impact of the socio-political context of Libya on these notions.

Although the literature review conducted in this study provides an overview of using CDA for analyzing educational policy, an explanation is needed on how CDA is related to language and social contexts and how the theory works to analyze language in its various contexts. Therefore, prior to presenting the analysis, I will provide an overview of these relations in order to simplify the process of CDA.

According to Fairclough's *Language and Power* (2013), social practice is reflective of reality. It is formed by expected ways of acting, representing, and being that are associated with specific social roles within society. In this regard, social practice determines how a society is constructed. These social roles and practices influence social events where actual people behave in certain ways within particular situational contexts. Furthermore, discourse exists within these social conditions that are influenced by society.

For example, in this study, the act of teachers and students meeting in classrooms is considered a social event. Teaching and learning are expected social practices in which those in the social role of education participate. This practice then contributes in some way to the structure of specific institutional contexts. So, it is necessary to analyze the social conditions around the discourse because the purpose of discourse analysis is to uncover not only the meaning but also the intention of the text, including the context within which it was created (Schwab, 2016).

As mentioned in the previous chapter, CDA is widely used to provide scholars with valuable knowledge about educational discourse. Therefore, in this study, CDA will be used to analyze the data set (*Sequences of Lesson Planes*) to advance the understanding of the chosen formal text.

Fairclough (2001) explains that his framework of CDA is a general method to carry out discourse analysis, meaning there is no one definitive way or strategy to do the analysis and collect data using the method (Fairclough and Meyer, 2001). However, Fairclough (2010) does indicate that an appropriate CDA approach can be selected according to how the research objective is constructed. Consequently, for the purpose of the present study, the following framework will be applied to answer the research questions.

### Fairclough's (2013) CDA Framework Analysis as Applied to the Study

#### Description Stage

According to Fairclough (2013), the description stage generally involves identifying the formal features of the text in terms of the three main categories of vocabulary, grammar, and textual structure. In this stage, Fairclough provides particular questions that guide the analysis of the three main categories.

However, since I will be carrying out the analysis of a translated document, this stage will be limited to uncovering only the most notable observed patterns and trends of the language used in the document, as presented below:

1. What classification is drawn upon?
2. Is there rewarding or over-rewarding?
3. Are there ideologically contested words?
4. Are sentences positive or negative?

### Interpretation Stage

Fairclough (2013) further explains that interpretation analysis is “concerned with the relationship between text and interaction” (p. 58). He also provides some questions, including the categories of context (situational and textual context), discourse type (how text is produced, distributed, and interpreted), and differences and changes (pp. 160-161, 164).

1. What is going on? (activity, topic, purpose).
  2. Who is involved?  
discourse
  3. What are the relations?
  4. What is the role of language in what is going on?
  5. Which historical series does the text belong to? — Intertextual context and presumption
- Situational context and type of
- 

### Explanation Stage

The final stage – explanation – involves assumptions about culture, social relationships, and social identities that are seen as determined by particular power relations in society or institutions. The questions for this stage are presented by Fairclough (2013), as follows:

1. What power relations at the situational, institutional and societal levels help shape this discourse?
2. What elements of member resource/assumptions are drawn upon?
3. Does the discourse contribute to sustaining existing power relations or transforming them?

### Stage One: Description

The description stage focuses on analyzing the text in relation to the three categories of vocabulary, grammar, and textual structure. In this study, the intent of the description stage is not to analyze the defined text in light of the three categories, but to focus only on the particular parts that supports the study. The reason for this approach is that the data set is translated from Arabic to English, which means that many questions in the Fairclough (2013) framework deal with English language, which differs significantly from Arabic language. As mentioned, Fairclough (2013) has structured the description stage with a number of guiding questions to demonstrate the vocabulary, grammar, and structure of the text.

What classification is drawn upon?

The cover page of the document shows the flag and name of the country of Libya, followed by the words *Ministry of Education* and *Educational Curriculum and Research Center*. In the middle, there are three lines that present the name of the document (*Sequence of Lesson Plans, 2017*), the stage of education (*First Years of Secondary Education*), and the academic year in which the document was used (2017). Following the cover page, there is a Table of Contents that lists the twelve subjects that students must study in Grade 10. Following the Table of Contents is a statement of the general objectives and outputs of each subject, after which is given a sequence of lesson plans and recommended textbooks for each subject.

In the data set, there are three sections allotted to the subject of the Arabic language. The first section begins with a short paragraph emphasizing the importance of the role of Arabic language

teachers in developing students' Arabic language skills. This introductory message is followed by a list of more than 50 points of outputs that present in detail what students are expected to be able to accomplish in each subject.

The second part provides an in-depth explanation of how lessons are divided into study weeks, with detailed notes on how teachers should apply these lessons. There is also a detailed description of the scope and sequence of the curriculum. For example, according to the policy, the Arabic language subject should be allotted five classes a week, with a duration of 45 minutes for each class. As well, the policy lists two textbooks that teachers should use as a curriculum for the Arabic language (*Literary Studies* and *Linguistics Studies*) during the first year in secondary school.

After presenting a timetable that explains the lessons for each week and how to implement them, the policy then provides a lesson plan for nearly every lesson. For example, as shown in (figure 8) first week of the Arabic Linguistics lesson, students should learn about the parts of speech (nouns, verbs, and prepositions). Teachers should first introduce the lesson, write examples of the lesson on the board in different colors, develop the main idea of the lesson, and then give students questions to answer.

First Year of Secondary Education Stage	Subject: Arabic Language	Time Frame: Five Lessons Per Week
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First Semester				
Week	Subject Branch	Topics	Type of Study	Application Steps
First	Grammar	Speech & its results		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* Providing an appropriate introduction to the lesson.</li> <li>* Writing examples on the blackboard in various colors, explaining the rules, and then practicing using questions posed by the teacher.</li> </ul>

*Figure 7 Lesson Table: Number of Weeks, Type of Subject, and Lesson Plan. (Sequences of Lesson Plans, 2017).*

The third part of the educational document concerns the names of the textbooks that are used in the first year of high school. The policy document covers all areas within Libya and is basically a lesson plan in how it is laid out. It provides detailed instructions for teachers on what they are expected to follow during their implementation of the curriculum. However, the document has no introduction or explanation of purpose.

Is there rewarding or over-rewarding?

Rewarding is one aspect of text analysis when the writer or speaker repeat the same words or their similar with a large or smaller number of words (Fairclough, 2013). The use of the same or similar words could indicate the emphasis of a particular ideological view that may repeated throughout the text (Rodden, 2004). In the data set, there are numerous repetitions of some words, such as *listen, listening, write, and writing*. The word “listen” and its synonym are repeated ten times within the short text. In this case, it is notable that the author appears to emphasize the assumptions of passive learning. As I mentioned in my educational journey, as a student (particularly in the primary stage), I noted how my teachers appeared to value the students who were quiet over those who asked questions. Moreover, the first points of the outcomes in the data set are related to the listening skills part that students should master during the study year, and all of them concern passive listening. The first five points are translated as follows:

The learner is expected to be able to:

- listen attentively to what is being said.
- be able to listen to a long talk.
- avoid what is distracting his/her attention and concentration.
- listen objectively without prejudice to a prior opinion or idea.
- summarize the main ideas and sub-idea in the audible text.

It is noticeable how the writer emphasizes the notion of being quiet in class. These five points of outcomes that the student should master during the study year are related more to general class routines rather than to improving specific listening skills. The rewarding and the repetition of the

same idea indicates that being quiet during class has more value than learning the relevant listening skills. In my opinion, skills such as connecting what has been said with previous knowledge, asking questions, and paraphrasing what has been said are a more effective way to encourage students to listen in order to understand, not just to be quiet. Personally, as I was an active and sociable student and it was difficult for me to sit still and be quiet during my classes, I can see how the emphasis on passive learning specifically in the primary stage undermined the active and cooperative learning process. This focus on “keeping quiet” negatively impacted my performance and my learning experience.

#### **Are sentences positive or negative?**

The positivity or negativity of sentences is another aspect of text analysis that helps to reveal the assumptions of the writer (Fairclough 2013). In the data set, all the sentences are positive. However, in the listening part outcomes, one sentence is negative (*not interrupting the speaker during his speech*). Again, it shows the same idea of passive listening. The positivity of the entire text, except the sentence about *not interrupting the speaker*, explains how it is considered “common sense” to respect older people when they speak. The writers are just reiterating what students have already learned, usually at home.

#### **Are there ideologically contested words?**

Although there is no mention of specific authors of the document, research indicates that the writers are educational experts who worked as teachers and inspectors for more than a decade (Curriculum Center, 2019). According to Rodden (2004), word choices are often used to support and naturalize an author’s ideology. Therefore, the words used by the authors play an important

role in promoting their assumptions about the written or spoken topic. In the data set under scrutiny, the word *attentively* is used to imply listening carefully to what is being said, the word *long* is used to describe the ability to listen to a lengthy talk, and the word *objectively* refers to listening without prejudice to an opinion or idea. Using these specific words (*attentively*, *long*, and *objectively*) relays the significance of the value the authors place on having the ability to listen respectfully, though not critically.

This analysis also reflects my educational experience, in which the teaching approach that was followed in Libyan classrooms did not encourage students to express their opinions or thoughts. In other words, critical thinking and critical listening skills were not teaching output objectives, and therefore were not skills that I developed in school. Students were not encouraged to ask questions or challenge concepts. If they needed clarification, they could ask questions, but they were not allowed to challenge the concepts being taught. If a student complained to a parent, the parent would wonder why their child was questioning the teacher, as parents believed that teachers were to be respected, not questioned. This type of environment undermines a rich and holistic educational experience of students which is concentrated on the importance of subjectivity, subjective experience, critical thinking, and creativity of students. During my Master's courses and readings in Canada, I have learned that the holistic educational approach creates the ground on which people can connect and communicate deeply, and allows them to pay attention to their thinking, feeling, and actions (Kumar, 2013, 2019; Kumar & Downey, 2018, 2019).

In summary, the first stage (description) in Fairclough's (2013) framework provides an explanation of how the language of text promotes a particular ideology about the nature of curriculum, teaching, and learning. Also, by analyzing the features of the text, we can discern the role of teachers in presenting both stated and unstated expectations of student learning objectives in the classroom.

### Stage Two: Interpretation

The analysis of this stage is based on the process of analyzing how participants produce and interpret text. Fairclough (2013) indicates that the complexity of this stage is directly related to how analysts can access the process of text production and interpretation, as the process takes place in people's heads. He explains that the only access analysts have to them is through their capacity to engage in the discourse process which they are investigating. Consequently, the analysts must draw upon their own members' resources (MRs) in order to explain how participants, draw upon theirs. In general terms, MRs are "what people have in their heads and draw upon when they produce and interpret texts, including their knowledge of language, representations of the natural and social world they inhabit, values, beliefs, assumptions, and so on" (Fairclough, 2013, p. 175).

Therefore, in this study, I include my educational experience in Libya and my beliefs and assumptions about teaching and learning to draw upon during my engagement in the critical analysis of the educational discourse (data set). In addition, Fairclough (2013) indicates that the relationship between text and social structure is a mediated one. Specifically, it is mediated by discourse, of which text is a part. Therefore, the analysis in this stage will be done through

considering a combination of what is in the text and what is in the interpreter's mind, in the sense of their MR's.

As mentioned in the chapter on methodology, Fairclough provides several guiding questions for this stage to determine the three categories of context (situational and textual contexts), discourse types (how the text is produced, distributed, and interpreted), and differences and changes.

While the more situational and textual aspects are explained in Chapter 2, and because the original text of the data set is not in English, the focus here will be on providing details about the content of the discourse itself by discussing the following.

### Situational Context and Discourse Type

#### **What is going on?**

*Sequence of Lesson Plans and Recommended Textbooks* (2017) is an official educational document issued by Curricula and Educational Research and accepted by the Libyan Ministry of Education. The document was provided to all Libyan Schools in the school year 2017-2018. As documents go, it is relatively long (240 pages). Although the document includes a distribution of curriculum for twelve subjects, only the subject of Arabic Language has been chosen for analysis here. Each subject starts with the outcomes that summarize the expected results. There are also tables that demonstrate the number of weeks, the type of subject, and detailed steps on how to apply each lesson from the textbook. At the end of the document, there are appendixes of Arab and international events and the names of all school textbooks pertaining to the first stage of secondary education.

### **Who is involved?**

The original version of the document has been included in Appendix 2 containing the outputs of the Arabic language subject for Grade 10 as well as entire lesson plans for each study week in the first semester of Grade 10. The original version of the document is written in Arabic, so only the parts chosen for analysis have been translated to English (see Appendix 1). This document is provided to all teachers who are responsible for teaching Grade 10 classes in Libya. Teachers must use the mentioned textbooks and are expected to teach according to the steps that are provided for each lesson.

In the document's Arabic Language subject (which I taught for five years), there are two textbooks mentioned. Interestingly, these two books were the ones I studied in my first year in high school and also used as my curriculum during my teaching years. In other words, the two textbooks which serve as the Arabic language curriculum for Grade 10 in high school in Libya have been used now for more than 20 years. Considering this fact, the books are likely out of date, and it would be beneficial for them to be replaced by more recent publications.

### **What are the relations?**

In the data set, the relations are between the educators who created the document and the teachers who received the document. It is clear that the document is directed to the teachers to follow in their teaching practice, which is explained in the following extract from the data set.

Arabic Language Teachers: Given that the Arabic language is the means of communication between us, as well as being the language of our sciences and

Koran and the title of our origin, we must determinably reunite around it. For this, we call upon Arabic Language Teachers to mobilize and make use of all their energy toward upgrading the Arabic Language subject in our schools. Your aim should be to make Arabic the language of communication and dialogue in the educational medium and in so doing to draw students away from the use of dialect, which is a significant obstacle in learning the Arabic language. Therefore, we are hopeful that Arabic Language Teachers at the basic and secondary education stages will be concerned with both the verbal and written expression of the language. (Sequence of Lesson Plans, 2017, p. 23)

From the example above, it appears that the educators who are the authors of the document are positioned as the authority giving instructions to the teacher. The teachers then shift the role of authority in their teaching and in their relations to students.

Based on my experience as a teacher in Libya, teachers dominate the class, and students are seen as “empty vessels” who passively receive information from their teachers (Freire, 1996). According to the National Report presented to the International Conference on Education in 2004, “education in Libya has a traditional character in methods and schemes. It is [intended] to supply students with information, but it does not care much for the scientific thinking method. One of the challenges of education in Libya is that the curriculum is very abstract and theoretical” (p. 65). More information related to the impact of relations on discourses will be provided in the third stage of the framework.

### **What is the role of language in what is going on?**

In the data set, the language used in the document is presented in such way that it makes the document appear as a mandatory discourse that teachers must follow in their practice. That is what Kumar (2019) describes as the ideological control of teaching. In the data set in the curriculum framework, there is no mention of teachers using their skills and experience to develop a lesson plan. The document was provided to teachers, and teachers must follow the instructions. As a teacher in a Libyan classroom, I received this document without being encouraged to use my own teaching skills. Even so, I knew this restriction would impact the approach of teaching I used in the classroom. If the language of the document gave teachers some options to use their skills, that would have been encouraging to me as a teacher. Instead, the document just gave me detailed instructions on what to do, such as writing examples on the blackboard using different colors. These instructions left no room for discussion or interpretation. In this way, the detailed instructions restrict teachers from creating timely and engaging lesson plans that are in line with students' background and abilities.

### **Intertextual Context and Presumption**

#### **To which historical series and presumptions does the text belong?**

Fairclough (2013) indicates that each discourse belongs to an historical series. The aim of the interpretations in the second stage is to clarify which historical background the discourse belongs to (Rodden,2004). Therefore, clarifying historical networks in the data set text is helpful for understanding the impact of intertextual context and presumption on shaping educational discourse in Libya.

My teaching experience in Libya made me aware that the approach of teaching and learning there is teacher-centered. This centering of the learning process on teachers is mainly due to assumptions held by the community regarding curriculum teaching and learning. People exist in different learning environments and societies, which means that the value placed on a teacher as a learning facilitator differs across communities and settings. For example, in Libya, from the Ottoman era (1800) until the 1990s, there was a heavy dependency on mosques to educate Libyan children because such places had the capability and the capacity to attract people within Libyan society. Mosques are both places of worship and places of learning the Koran (Libyan National Report, 2010; see Figure 1). Also, as mentioned in Chapter 2, in a mosque setting, the teachers were usually the Imams of the mosques, who were considered the most educated people in society, both from a religious and a worldly perspective. Children who came to these institutions of learning were taught to be quiet and listen respectfully. Consequently, it is the norm in Libya to have a teacher-centered approach for teaching and learning in the Libyan educational system, since this approach reflects the educational norm of the teachers now teaching in Libya.

Libyan teachers grew up with the current system and are simply applying what they consider the norm. Interestingly, in our present day (2020), with most schools closed because of the war, many students have started to go to the Qurranic schools again to memorize Quran instead of just sitting at home.

City	Number of Centers/ Mosques	Number of Teachers	Number of Students
Tripoli	95	2,157	61,804
Al -Gable Al- Garbi	62	731	5,413
Naloot	27	189	4,000
Ben Waleed	54	311	7,529
Ezzawya	47	200	3,000
Ennekat alkham	94	162	10,000
Almergab	343	1,600	26,575
Aljafara	97	549	1,750
Total	819	5,908	135,822

*Figure 8 The number of mosques providing educational programs in the 1980s (Libyan National Report, 2010).*

It is clear from this norm that Libyan classrooms consider a teacher-centered learning approach the most natural way to teach. Within this model, teachers dominate the class, and students are supposed to follow the instructions given by the teachers. According to intertextual context analysis, the participants who created the document (i.e., workers at the Curriculum Center) had previous values and beliefs that promote their view of teaching and learning in Libya.

Fairclough (2013) explains that “the interpretation of the more powerful participant may be imposed upon others. So, having power may mean being able to determine presuppositions” (p. 164). In matching the CDA framework with my experience, it is noticeable that the Curriculum Center had determined the curriculum, teaching and learning via the educational discourse provided to teachers.

In summary, in the data set, the participants are the group of educational inspectors, experts, and curriculum committees who produced the document, and the teachers are the interpreters (i.e., passive implementers of the curriculum, as they do not have much room to interpret and analyze the document). The document is produced mainly for teachers. From the stage of interpretation, the main point of text analysis is the role of situational and intertextual contexts and the assumptions in the discourse in which they determine how teaching, learning, and curriculum are viewed in Libya.

### **Stage Three: Explanation**

According to Fairclough (2013), this stage aims to explain the relations of power at situational, institutional and societal levels, explore the participants’ assumptions and ideologies, and examine the effects of discourse in sustaining power relations. Fairclough also emphasizes the importance of analysts’ awareness of their experience and assumptions as a part of member resources. Therefore, the analysis of the *Sequence of Lesson Plans and Recommended Textbooks* curriculum policy combines both my teaching experience and the CDA framework from stage three.

As was mentioned in stage two, the relationship between text and social structure is mediated by discourse, of which text is a part. In this stage, Fairclough indicates that this relationship is mediated by the social context as well, which is the main concurrence here. So, this stage will explain how the discourse is shaped by the relations of power and social structure. It includes analyzing the text by explaining the issues of social determinants, ideologies, and effects.

I found it more helpful to involve the three main themes of stage three in my analysis (unlike how I proceeded in the last two stages) by discussing the questions of Fairclough's framework individually. The themes that will be included are relations of power, members' resources (MRs) or assumptions, sustaining the existing power relations, and my teaching experience.

### **Relations of power**

The power relations at the situational level in the classroom include: the approach of teaching and learning, the discourse of the educational policy text (outcomes and lesson plans), and the textbooks (curriculum). The discourse of the document positions it as the authority. The document was given to teachers and teachers who are expected to follow the instructions in it. Fairclough (2013) explains that "language is a tool for getting things done... [it] is not just a matter of performing tasks, it is also matter of expressing and constituting reproducing social identities and social relations" (pp. 133, 232). Fairclough (2013) explains that analysis done using his framework should include an awareness of MRs, as these influences and are influenced by the discourse within which the number is situated. Based on my experience, I can assert that the approaches adhering to teaching, learning and the curriculum all influence and are influenced by the discourse of the document under question.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, during my teaching years in a Libyan high school, I was provided with the document *Sequence of Lesson Plans and Recommended Textbooks*. I was instructed to use the document for choosing my lessons and for preparing work to apply to each lesson. It may be assumed by the users (teachers) that the document is given to them to use only for general instruction; however, there is a part in the document that shows detailed instructions on how to follow the guidance of the document. For example, in the section on preparations of a specific lesson in Arabic Linguistics, the document requests that the teacher write examples on the blackboard in various colors, explain the rule to the students, and then practice using questions posed by the teacher (Sequence of Lesson Plans and Recommended Textbooks, 2017).

This type of curriculum framework does not encourage teachers to follow their teaching pathways. An example of this restriction is that sometimes, even though I wanted to use a different way of teaching, the students and school office would not accept any deviation. I was reminded that my pedagogical approach was to explain what was written in the textbook because students' exams would be based on the textbook. Students were asked to memorize the class material when they went home, and they expected to have this same material on their tests.

In my first year of teaching, I created some new kinds of questions to augment the traditional ones (e.g., fill-in-the-blank, multiple choice, etc.). These new questions enabled students to provide their opinions. So, for instance, I would give a phrase similar to one in their textbook and then ask students to explain it. However, some of my students complained to the office that I was giving them "tests" from outside the textbook, so I had to discontinue this teaching strategy. This

implies that students and their parents are controlled by these policies; consequently, their perspectives on the notions of teaching, learning, and curriculum are impacted by that.

Power relations also shape the educational discourse. These occur at the institutional level, between the curriculum committee and teachers, and include our own assumptions regarding teaching, learning, and the curriculum. Factors involved in these power relations are aspects such as the positions of educators who prepare the documents and the teachers who receive the document, along with their MRs to promote the document as authoritative. So, the discourse is essentially a legislative document directed at teachers to use in their teaching; in turn, teachers direct what is said in the document to students in their teaching.

The curriculum committee also determines which textbooks (curriculum) teachers must use to teach students. Teachers in Libya are evaluated by inspectors in terms of following the directions that are given to them. In Libya, the inspectors are usually teachers who worked in a teaching position for more than ten years and have passed a specific set of exams. The inspectors work for the Educational Inspection Department at the Ministry of Education. The task of the inspectors is to monitor the educational process in accordance with the policies issued by the Ministry of Education. Inspectors come to the classrooms monthly, taking notice of the entire teaching and learning process and assessing teachers based on observations from that perspective (Harwis, 2012). According to the Educational Inspection Office (2018), one of the tasks of the inspectors during the visits is to observe the teachers' performances and to ensure that they follow the directions given. In turn, teachers direct the students' role in the classrooms by giving them specific instructions that are provided in the document. This is what Freire (1996) refers to as banking education. He explains that when "the students extend only as far as receiving, filing,

and storing the deposits students... [e]ducation thus becomes an act of depositing, in which the students are the depositories and the teacher is the depositor” (p. 71).

My job as a teacher was restricted by the power placed in the document; therefore, I had no opportunity to improve my teaching skills or gain new knowledge in this type of classroom environment. As a result of this deadlock, both teachers and students are negatively affected by the discourse, which in turn impacts knowledge acquirement and application. Students are only giving information without giving them space to be creative and to learn from each other’s experiences. Teachers also have no chances to improve their teaching skills.

Power relations occurring at the societal level is another factor that shaped the discourse of the document (Fairclough, 2013). The societal level is the larger authority that directs the whole education system (Rodden, 2004). For the purpose of this study, the power relations at societal level occurred between the government (Ministry of Education) and the Curriculum Center. The educational policy text as a whole was positioned as an authority related to the curriculum committee, teachers, and students.

As a teacher, I was expected to follow only what I was provided from the Ministry of Education. Almabruk (2018) explains that the Libyan Ministry of Education is responsible for developing the school curriculum, printing textbooks, developing study plans, and performing assessments. Teachers are not allowed to make any changes or modifications to any of these educational aspects without the permission of the Ministry of Education. Consequently, teachers are only a tool to provide students with suitable information. This type of classroom environment not only

impacts the success rate of students and teachers, but also impacts the entire educational system. The centralized control of the Ministry of Education shapes the classroom environment and the relations between students and the teacher by its discourse. This tight control made it difficult to improve the curriculum and have a cooperative, holistic, and critical approach to teaching and learning. The results of my critical analysis match the findings of the National Report of Libya (2008), which state that the most important barrier facing the development of Libyan education is the reliance of teachers on traditional methods of teaching and learning.

### **MRs or Assumptions**

As mentioned previously, MRs are both influenced by and influence discourse. This part of the analysis explores how the assumptions of the authors of the document are coded in their vocabulary in the educational policies (Fairclough, 2013). Assumptions have visibly impacted the discourse of educational policy in Libya. Fairclough (2013) proposes that the explanation of discourse depends largely on the cognitive assumptions that people have, which are affected by the social structure within which the discourse occurs. In this study, the assumptions are related to traditional power relations between teachers, students, and the curriculum and the culture of Libyan society. Following is an explanation of how assumptions play a role in shaping the Libyan educational discourse in terms of curriculum, teaching, and learning.

As discussed in Chapter 2, Libyan curriculum was developed and improved over many years. However, not all of the curriculum reforms were useful. For example, in 2008, some schools wanted to apply new curriculum from Singapore at the elementary school level. At that time,

Singapore enjoyed a high ranking internationally based on their effective curriculum (Gopinathan and Deng, 2006). Teachers were instructed to facilitate small-group activities and base these activities strictly on students' own experiences. However, despite their best efforts, most of the methods failed to help students advance academically.

Al-Gazell and Shoaib (2012) conducted a study to evaluate the Singaporean curriculum and its approach to learning and teaching provided for primary students in Libya. Researchers were concerned whether this curriculum and its approach were relevant to the Libyan environment and this stage of primary education. They concluded that the content was not related to the students' needs and experiences because the curriculum was translated and imposed without considering the differences between Libyan and Singaporean students. For example, Singaporean students have passed through the Kindergarten stage, which is one of the most important stages that make up a child's educational experience. However, in Libya, primary education is the first learning experience for most students. Also, the use of shapes and drawings in the Singaporean approach did not reflect the local environment in Libya. Education is a cultural phenomenon; it is not a mechanical system which is immune to the culture within which it is situated.

Based on Fairclough's (2013) CDA perspective, the main reasons of misapplication of educational method and perspective is the failed mediation between people's assumptions, beliefs and values. Such a failure can, however, lead people to realize that education can be improved and delivered using other approaches. Fairclough (2013) also explains that "the assumptions about culture, social relationships, and social identities which are incorporated in MRs, are seen as determined by particular power relations in the society or institution, and in

terms of their contributions to sustain or change these power relations; they are seen ideologically” (p. 175).

From my experience as a teacher in Libyan classrooms, I believe there may be several reasons for this failure. First of all, the classes contained many students, so it was difficult for teachers to get around to all the groups. When students were put into groups to discuss a topic, they quickly changed the topic and started talking about what was happening to them in their lives instead of what the teachers asked them to discuss. As well, it takes time to put students into groups and then come back and check on them. Also, when using personal experience, it was difficult for many students to openly discuss their views, especially in the community where almost all students were neighbors and relatives. Students sometimes did not feel comfortable or even able to talk openly about themselves in school. Furthermore, and most interestingly, the parents themselves were not happy about using this new approach because, as they stated, they had sent their children to school to learn something useful, not to have stories about what happened in their home shared with everyone. All of that can be summarized to show peoples' assumptions about curriculum, teaching, and learning. That also indicates how difficult it is to develop an educational system if parents and other members of the society do not realize the meaning and significance of a good education.

#### Sustaining the existing power relations

From the analysis of relations of power, it appears that there were relations that had the authority to shape the discourse of document. This part of the analysis investigates whether the discourse helps to sustain these relations of the power of curriculum framework, specific textbooks

(curriculum), and the approach of teaching and learning, founded at the situational, institutional, and social levels.

Fairclough (2013) explains that “social structure shapes MRs, which in turn shape discourses; and discourses sustain or change MRs, which in turn sustain or change the structure” (p. 172). In the following extract, it appears that the discourse sustains the existing power relations in terms of two main factors. First, the document was directed at the teachers and emphasized the position of power by repeating “*Arabic Language Teachers*” three times in the first paragraph of the document. In this way, the document sustained the teachers’ authority.

*Arabic Language Teachers*: Given that the Arabic language is the means of communication between us, as well as being the language of our sciences and Koran and the title of our origin, we must determinably reunite around it. For this, we call upon *Arabic Language Teachers* to mobilize and make use of all their energy toward upgrading the Arabic Language subject in our schools. Your aim should be to make Arabic the language of communication and dialogue in the educational medium and in so doing to draw students away from the use of dialect, which is a significant obstacle in learning the Arabic language. Therefore, we are hopeful that *Arabic Language Teachers* at the basic and secondary education stages will be concerned with both the verbal and written expression of the language. To that end, all branches of the language will be covered under various topics and activities to be performed by the students with the aim of achieving the following efficiencies and levels. (Sequence of Lesson Plans and Recommended Textbooks, 2017, p. 2)

Second, it was previously mentioned in my experience that teachers dominate the class in Libya by following a teacher-centered learning approach. This is based on the assumptions they hold and the impact of social and cultural politics on education. Therefore, the curriculum and the approach of teaching and learning are traditionally given the power, and the discourse of the document sustained this power by giving specific textbooks and a detailed curriculum framework to construct the role of the teacher in the classroom. Earlier in the interpretation stage, it was explained how the Curriculum Center plays a major role in how curriculum, teaching and learning are seen in Libya. Note that the Curriculum Center is controlled by the Libyan Ministry of Education.

In summary, based in the above discussion, we can see from the policy guidelines in the document that the directions for implementing the curriculum are very prescriptive and are expected to be followed. This explains how the discourse of the document sustains the existing power of the document. Hence, it is clear that the document itself is an authority received from the higher authority of the Ministry of Education, which grants teachers to be authority figures. The impact of the socio-political context in curriculum teaching and learning is also assumed and implied by the authority invested in the document, its generators (curriculum creators), its proponents (classroom inspectors), and its followers (the teachers). Overall, the document and the authoritative hierarchy on which it is based prevents teachers from improving their teaching approach and also hinders students from expanding their academic skills, which in turn impacts the development of the entire education system in Libya.

## **Chapter 5: Conclusion**

### **Summary of the Key Findings**

The present work began with a discussion and analysis of my own educational experience, both in the Libyan and Canadian contexts. It was this experience that provided the background as well as motivation to conduct the research study. As I found while laying the initial research groundwork for this thesis, critical analysis is required to clarify and investigate how teaching, learning and curriculum in Libya are conceptualized, and to understand the impact of the uniquely Libyan socio-political landscape on classroom teaching and learning.

A review of the literature showed that critical discourse analysis (CDA) is widely practiced by scholars to investigate a variety of educational issues. However, there is a clear gap in using this approach to explore a curriculum framework. Hence, the present work, in attempting to bridge that gap, is the first study to use CDA to analyze Libyan educational policy. It was chosen as the method and theoretical framework of this work in order to understand how educational discourse influences curriculum, teaching, and learning and how the discourse is also impacted by the sociopolitical context.

The analysis of the study was conducted by applying Fairclough's (2013) CDA framework to the Libyan Educational policy (*Sequences of Lesson Plans*). My first-hand educational experience as a student and then, a teacher in the Libyan education system was also included in the analysis.

The Fairclough (2013) framework has three stages – description, interpretation, and explanation

– each of which consists of questions that help to attain a deeper critical analysis. Following is a summary of the results of the three stages in the present work.

The critical analysis of **stage one**, which analyzed the linguistics features of the *Sequences of Lesson Plans* document, indicated that the language used by the authors of the discourse promoted their ideologies and assumptions. Ideological underpinning of the language influences the way in which teachers and students are expected to act in the school and how they conceptualize teaching and learning.

The critical analysis of **stage two** combined the content of the text with what was in the interpreter's mind, such as values, beliefs, assumptions, as well as representations and understandings of their social world. The analysis found that the authors (i.e., the writers of the document) were positioned as authority figures to give specific instructions to teachers for the implementation of the curriculum. In turn, the teachers then assumed the role of authority in their approach of teaching and their relations with their students. In addition, the critical analysis explained how the historical and other backgrounds (e.g., social presumptions) played a role in shaping discourse and determining how curriculum, teaching, and learning were viewed in Libya. Analyzing the historical networks and other background presumptions and influences introduced an intertextual context, further underscoring why it is still considered the norm to have a teacher-centered approach in Libyan classrooms. Additionally, the analysis of power relations around the discourse indicated that they have a significant influence in shaping Libyan educational discourse. This is promoted by factors such as the authoritative position of the document's authors, along with their beliefs, values, and assumptions (Member Recourses).

**Stage three** of the analysis showed how power relations occurred at the situational and societal levels and were sustained by existing power relations and assumptions, along with participants' assumptions that the educational discourse was authoritative. Consequently, teachers became a tool to provide students with specific information, and students, in turn, became a tool to absorb and memorize this knowledge. The analysis also looked at the power of the social-political aspects represented by the Ministry of Education and the Curriculum Center, the curriculum framework, outcomes, classroom environment, and Libya's socio-political assumptions, values, and beliefs. All of these factors shape Libyan educational discourse, which in turn impacted curriculum, teaching, and learning.

Also, the critical analysis in this study explained how teaching, learning, and curriculum as a social practice reflected the reality of the society, and how the notions of teaching, learning, and curriculum were formed by expected ways of acting, representing, and being. Further, the analysis explained that the educational Libyan discourse exists within social conditions that are influenced by society. These conditions included the historical background of the text, culturally based assumptions, and the network of power relations.

The following main questions were investigated in this study:

- How do Libyan educational policies conceptualize the notions of curriculum, teaching, and learning?
- What impact does the socio-political context of Libya have on the notions of curriculum, teaching, and learning in the educational policy under study?

Both CDA and my educational experiences showed that Libyan educational policies view curriculum as content provided from textbooks that teachers must use in their teaching and which students are responsible for memorizing and reproducing on their exams. In addition, this educational policy reiterates that the approach of teaching and learning should be teacher-centered and that students should only passively learn what the teachers provide them. This was seen in the analysis of the language used in the Libyan educational document, the relations of power, assumptions, and in my educational experience.

Overall, curriculum, teaching, and learning have been conceptualized in Libya as follows:

- Curriculum is viewed as material that students are responsible to learn and then use for tests and exams. The “learning” of this material determines the students’ academic successes during each study year.
- Curriculum is seen as mandatory content provided by the Ministry of Education and Curriculum Center to the teachers.
- Teachers are seen as a tool with two main uses: to provide students with specific knowledge and to control the classroom.
- Students are seen as empty vessels whose primary responsibility is to absorb all information provided to them in the classrooms and reproduce it on the exams.

The socio-political context of Libya has largely impacted the notions of curriculum, teaching, and learning. This was indicated in the present study using factors such as power relations, centralized control of the Ministry of Education, and background ideologies and assumptions related to curriculum, teaching, and learning. Through my analysis, I discovered how Libyan

society influences educational policy, which in turn restricts the ability of teachers to apply their skills in teaching and learning or to use “outside material” (that is, non-mandated information) that supports the curriculum. In turn, this restriction on both teaching method and content negatively affects students because it prevents them from critically engaging in the classroom and with the material being taught.

### **Significance and the Contributions of the Study**

The results of this study will be valuable to the education field in general, as there is currently a lack of research that applies CDA to analyze curriculum frameworks. Applying CDA to curriculum frameworks enables a deeper exploration of how curriculum teaching and learning can be impacted by the socio-political context of the educational surroundings. CDA also shows how language, ideologies, and perspectives influence educational policies and classroom teaching. Furthermore, critically analyzing a specific curriculum framework helps to explain how history, assumptions, and social culture can influence not only educational policies but the entire education system.

Moreover, the results of this work will be valuable to the education field in the Arab world, as there are currently no published studies pertaining to the use of CDA to analyze educational policies in the Middle East and North Africa. The study explores the key aspect that most Arab countries may not identify, which is the importance of educational discourse. Discourse has the power to guide changes positively. For educators, teachers, curriculum developers and policymakers, this study will be helpful because it explains how the socio-political and cultural

context of Libya, in particular, and other Arab countries, in general, influence curriculum, teaching, and learning. Having an understanding of this process is necessary for a deeper transformation of the educational system.

In addition, this research will be relevant to Canadian teachers as a means of giving them a better idea of the background and academic culture of international students from Libya. From my new educational experience studying in Canada, I have noticed that some instructors have the same expectations of all students, regardless of their academic backgrounds. As someone who has experienced a different way of teaching and learning, it was difficult for me to engage in skills that I had not practiced during my previous studies. As I mentioned earlier, some of the challenges were being asked to critically discuss issues related to the class. I had no practical experience in thinking critically in academic terms, not having been taught this concept in Libya.

### **Limitations of the Present Study and Suggestions for Future Research**

Because CDA is an intensive and time-consuming tool, Fairclough's (2013) framework was applied to only a portion of the curriculum document *Sequences of Lesson Plans* under study. However, the small size of the document portion may have influenced the generalization of the findings. In addition, *Sequences of Lesson Plans* is a translated document, which limited the application of the first stage (description) to only particular parts of the linguistics analysis. Fairclough's (2013) framework of the description stage deals with English language categories (specifically, vocabulary, grammar, and textual structure), which differs from the Arabic language. Also, the study is an analysis of a document; the analysis may have been stronger if

another qualitative approach had been used in combination with CDA, such as interviews, classroom case studies etc. This was, however, not possible in the present study given the constant political turmoil and conflict in Libya.

The main recommendation that can be made is that more researchers should use CDA to analyze the various types of Libyan educational policy documents. This would allow them to examine the socio-cultural and ideological factors that influence educational policies, and which, in turn, would influence curriculum, teaching, and learning. Analyzing the entire textbook would be important for understanding the explicit and hidden ideologies embedded in the curriculum, as textbooks are essentially the curriculum in Libya. It would also be effective if a future study were to be conducted using a mixed-methods analysis, as triangulation helps researchers achieve good results. CDA in combination with interviews and open-ended questionnaires could provide rich information for the study. A mixed-method study that involved doing interviews with teachers, inspectors and curriculum specialists would enable a closer look at the core issues within the educational system as a whole. In addition, one could also conduct case studies of classroom dynamics to explore how curriculum policies and their underpinning ideologies control teaching and learning in real contexts. Clark and Creswell (2010) discussed the importance of qualitative research that triangulates information from different data sources to enhance the credibility of a study. Analyzing a textbook would also provide a better idea of the book's content, which in turn would help shape the needed curriculum changes.

## Final Thoughts

My analysis found that the approach of teaching and learning currently followed in Libyan classrooms is dominated by teachers who hold full control over the class, leaving little room for critical thinking on the part of either teachers or students. My application of Fairclough's critical discourse analysis methodology, along with my own experience as a student and teacher, indicated that the Libyan curriculum supports a form of rigid socio-political ideology that reflects Libyan society in general. Although the document was used during the school year 2017-2018, at which time teachers were to apply new educational reforms to encourage student-centered learning, I can see, from the analysis of this policy, that the education system in Libya is still based on a teacher-centered learning theory of teaching and learning, due in large part to the educational discourse and the preconceived notions of education and the educational process held by educators, parents, and students.

The analysis also demonstrated that the Libyan educational curriculum is based primarily on disseminating information without relating it to real-life experience, as the main goal of the curriculum is to hone the students' academic skills without giving students the opportunity to develop their voices or explore their interests. Teachers are required to cover all the curriculum each semester as defined in the document, without deviation. During my years teaching in Libya, I had to teach everything that was in the book and the students were responsible for learning everything in the book. The students' knowledge of their book-learning would then be tested in comprehensive exams, which were held at the middle and end of each semester; there were also monthly and weekly quizzes. Deviating from the set curriculum would involve introducing more

work into an already heavy schedule for both teachers and students. Consequently, experimenting with individualized personal and group projects that expand on what has been taught in the set curriculum was discouraged.

Based on the conclusions of this study, I recommend that the Libyan educational discourse should be developed to encourage cooperative learning by increasing the students' engagement and involvement in the class. This shift from passive learning to active learning requires implementing holistic approaches that consider the significance of dialogue, creativity, and meditation, across the entire Libyan education system (Miller, 2005; Kumar, 2013, 2014) in the teaching and learning processes. Further, it would require commencing a complete overhaul of the current curriculum, which would require both time and effort. It would require a political commitment to holistic educational practices (Kumar, 2013; Miller et al., 2019) and a discussion within the broader community about the benefits of providing education that promotes critical thinking and dialogue.

My experience studying in Canada provided me an opportunity to learn that teachers should create a positive dialogue in the classrooms to engage students in the learning process by encouraging and challenging them to express, discuss, and share their opinions (Kumar, 2018; Shih, 2018). When teaching and learning are based on a dialogue between teachers and students, critical thinking is encouraged among teachers and students which lead to their intellectual growth. Both dialogue and critical thinking are complementary, and one cannot be done without the other (Shih, 2018).

Critical thinking is an important life skill, so teaching critical thinking skills is necessary for all individuals, including students. Brookfield (2012) explains that critical thinking is the ability to think critically about one's assumptions, beliefs, and actions. So, if students are taught how to listen and evaluate critically, it would provide them with a deeper understanding of the course content. Students should learn that critical thinking is the ability to make logical judgments, perform deep analysis, and ask fundamental and deep questions.

However, all of these suggestions must be studied before being applied to ensure that they are in line with the students' abilities and their environment. We should not impose an imported curriculum, but the innovative ideas and practices should be recontextualized in light of the cultural dynamics of the place. The beliefs and values of the Libyan society must also be respected and represented in education. Therefore, in applying any new educational approach, it is essential to consider the fact that not all individuals and communities are the same and that each of us has a different history, social structure, and values which determine and impact how we make decisions and take action. Any changes to the education system must ultimately critically engage with the socio-political and cultural discourses that are distinct to Libya, or the changes will not succeed. Merely changing the policies does not work unless teachers, parents, and wider society begin to realize the significance of curriculum, teaching, and learning in creating good educational outcomes.

As a former teacher in the Libyan education system, I can assert that this study has demonstrated to me the critical role that educational discourse has on the education system in Libya. Having lived in the society, I am convinced that CDA can be used to provide valid knowledge.

Accordingly, I think the first step that curriculum developers must take into consideration is educational discourse trends related to curriculum, teaching and learning within the socio-political and cultural norms of Libyan society. Despite the difficult wartime situation that Libya currently faces, I am optimistic that this study can serve as a foundation towards further developing the educational discourse, as it is the first study that uses CDA to analyze the Libyan educational discourse. As mentioned, numerous reforms have occurred over the past several decades in Libya, but the results of these reforms are negligible, due in main part to ignoring the educational discourse. Although the Ministry of Education tried their best to develop a new curriculum and new teaching and learning approach, they did not consider the impact of context, which is why most of these reforms essentially failed as has also happened in other international contexts (Kumar, 2019). Discourse has the power to guide changes positively. By means of this study, I have tried to engage critically with the educational discourse, and its underpinning ideologies, in Libya. I hope that this study encourages more studies in Libyan context to examine, explore, and enrich the educational discourses to improve thinking and practices regarding curriculum, teaching, and learning.

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## Appendix 1

## Translated Libyan educational document

**Note on Translation**

This document has been translated from Arabic. The Arabic version should be considered as the official version. Because the document will be analyzed using CDA, which includes the linguistic analysis of the text, I tried to keep the features of the original text as much as possible.



The Country of Libya  
Ministry of Education  
Educational Curriculum and Research Center

Sequence of Lesson Plans and Recommended Textbooks  
The Names of Textbooks

For the First Years of Secondary Education  
for the Academic Year  
2017-2018/1439-1438

**Contents**

Subjects	page Number
❖ A Sequence of Lesson Plans on the Study Weeks	
Islamic Studies	9
<b>Arabic Language</b>	21
English Language	39
Information Technology	47
Math	51
Physics	73
Chemistry	93
Biology	115
History	141
Geographic	163
The Basics of Social Life	173
Free Activity	183
❖ The Names of Textbooks for the First Years of Secondary Education	

## **Arabic Language**

Arabic Language Teachers: Given that the Arabic language is the means of communication between us, as well as being the language of our sciences and Koran and the title of our origin, we must determinably reunite around it. For this, we call upon Arabic Language Teachers to mobilize and make use of all their energy toward upgrading the Arabic Language subject in our schools. Your aim should be to make Arabic the language of communication and dialogue in the educational medium and in so doing to draw students away from the use of dialect, which is a significant obstacle in learning the Arabic language. Therefore, we are hopeful that Arabic Language Teachers at the basic and secondary education stages will be concerned with both the verbal and written expression of the language. To that end, all branches of the language will be covered under various topics and activities to be performed by the students with the aim of achieving the following efficiencies and levels:

#### **Outputs**

1<sup>st</sup> year of the secondary education stage

It is expected that the learner will develop the ability to do the following:

- ❖ Listen carefully to what is being said.
- ❖ Listen to a long speech.
- ❖ Avoid what is distracting his/her attention and concentration.
- ❖ Figure out the main and sub-ideas set forth in the audible text.
- ❖ Listen objectively without prejudice to a prior opinion or idea.
- ❖ Summarize the main and sub-idea in the audible text.
- ❖ Listen objectively without intolerance to an anticipated opinion or thought.
- ❖ Not interrupt the speaker during his/her speech.
- ❖ Express a dissenting opinion after the speaker completes his/her speech.
- ❖ Test the rhetorical styles he/she is listening to.
- ❖ Express remarks and comments about what is being listened to with regard to style and thought.
- ❖ State the types and patterns of the texts.
- ❖ Employ linguistic acquisitions in communicating with others.
- ❖ Express thoughts, impressions and some situations in life.
- ❖ Divide main thought into partial and secondary thoughts.

**Outputs**

1<sup>st</sup> year of the secondary education stage

It is expected that the learner will be capable of:

- ❖ Observing the writing rules (punctuation marks – footnotes – page layout).
- ❖ Determining the topic and selecting the appropriate style.
- ❖ Using and employing rhetorical acquisitions
- ❖ Writing a curriculum vitae, short story or journal.
- ❖ Writing a dramatic scene.
- ❖ Employing linguistic acquisitions and knowledge in writing tasks.
- ❖ Presenting thoughts and opinions methodologically.
- ❖ Following methodological steps when writing research.
- ❖ Adhering to key elements which should be available in the article when writing a scientific article.
- ❖ Showing an ability in functional writing, such as a letter, cable, or report.

**Division of Courses of the Secondary Education Stage  
Scholastic Year 2017-2018**

First Year of Secondary Education Stage	Subject: Arabic Language	Time Frame: 5 Lessons Per Week
<p>Applied two books:</p> <p>1- Linguistic studies – 1<sup>st</sup> year of secondary education stage. Compilation of Dr. Bashir Mohamed Zaglam- Drl; Khalifa Mohamed Bedairi</p> <p>2- Literary Studies: 1<sup>st</sup> year of secondary education stage.</p> <p>3- Compilation: Prof. Ali Ahmed Abdelhamid</p>		

First Semester				
Week	Subject Branch	Topics	Type of Study	Application Steps
First	Grammar	Speech & its results		*Preparing appropriately by, for instance, writing examples on the blackboard in various colors, explaining the rule, and then practicing using questions posed by the teacher.

## Appendix B

Note:

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(Ministry of Education, Libya).

The Original Version of the Curriculum Document



أُهي معلم اللغة العربية. انطلاقاً من أن اللغة العربية هي سبيل التواصل فيما بيننا ، وهي لغة علومنا ، ولغة قراننا ، وعنوان أصالتنا ، وحوثلها يجتمع شملنا . لأجل هذا نهيب بالإخوة معلمي اللغة العربية أن يشدوا الهمم ويحشدوا كل الطاقات ويسخروها للنهوض بمادة اللغة العربية في مدارسنا وجعلها هي لغة التواصل والحوار في الوسط التعليمي والبعد بتلاميذنا وطلابنا عن اللهجة العامية التي تعد العقبة الكأداء في طريق تعلم اللغة العربية الفصحى .

ولذا نأمل من إخواننا معلمي اللغة العربية بمرحلتي التعليم الأساسي والثانوي الاهتمام بالتعبير الشفهي والكتابي وتوظيف كل فروع اللغة لمصلحة مادة التعبير من خلال موضوعات ونشاطات متنوعة يقوم بها ويؤديها تلاميذ وطلاب المرحلتين بحيث نصل بتلاميذ وطلاب كل صف إلى الكفايات والمستويات التالية :

المخرجات
السنة الأولى بمرحلة التعليم الثانوي
<p>■ يتوقع من المتعلم أن يكون قادراً على أن :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>❖ يصغي باهتمام لما يسمع .</li> <li>❖ يقدر على الاستماع إلى حديث طويل .</li> <li>❖ يتجنب ما يفسد عليه التفاهة وتركيزه .</li> <li>❖ يستنتج الفكر الرئيسة والفرعية المطروحة في النص المسموع .</li> <li>❖ يستمع بموضوعية من دون تعصب لرأي أو فكرة مسبقة .</li> <li>❖ لا يقاطع المتحدث في أثناء حديثه .</li> <li>❖ يعبر عن رأيه المخالف بعد فراغ المتحدث من حديثه .</li> <li>❖ يتذوق الأساليب البيانية فيما يستمع إليه .</li> <li>❖ يبيدي ملاحظاته وتعليقاته على ما يستمع إليه من حيث الأسلوب والفكر .</li> <li>❖ يبين أنواع النصوص وأنماطها .</li> <li>❖ يوظف مكتسباته اللغوية في التواصل مع الآخرين .</li> <li>❖ يعبر عن فكره وانطباعاته وبعض المواقف الحياتية .</li> <li>❖ يقسم فكرته الرئيسة إلى فكر جزئية وثانوية</li> </ul>

( يتبع )

المخارج

السنة الأولى بمرحلة التعليم الثانوي

■ يتوقع من المتعلم أن يكون قادراً على أن :

- ❖ يستخدم مكتسباته البلاغية عند عرض أفكاره .
- ❖ يتابع سرد فكره دون تقطع مخل .
- ❖ يلتزم بالوقت المخصص له .
- ❖ يواجه مستمعيه في أثناء حديثه .
- ❖ يشد انتباه مستمعيه برفع الصوت وخفضه وتوزيع نظراته عليهم .
- ❖ ينوع صوته بحسب المواقف المختلفة .
- ❖ يضبط نفسه ، ويظهر عدم الارتباك عند الوقوع في الخطأ .
- ❖ يلمح ببعض التعليقات التي تعكس وجهة نظره في أثناء الحوار .
- ❖ يمثل دوراً في مسرحية .
- ❖ يشارك في حوار مع زملائه مبدئياً قدرته على مناقشة الآراء المطروحة .
- ❖ يعرض فكره بوضوح وتسلسل وترابط .
- ❖ يحتاج محاوريه بالأدلة والبراهين العقلية .
- ❖ يدور حواراً مع زملائه لمناقشة قضية اجتماعية أو تربوية وينسق الأسئلة والنقاط المطروحة .
- ❖ يستفيد من الوقت المخصص له لتوضيح فكرته .
- ❖ يحترم الوقت المخصص له .
- ❖ يصبر على المتحدث ولا يقاطعه في أثناء حديثه .
- ❖ يعطي فكرة عامة عن موضوعه .

(تابع)

المخرجات
السنة الأولى بمرحلة التعليم الثانوي
<p>■ يتوقع من المتعلم أن يكون قادراً على أن :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>❖ يعرض فكرته أو موضوعه بشكل يشد السامعين .</li> <li>❖ يعود إلى توضيح فكرة سابقة إذا دعت الحاجة إلى ذلك</li> <li>❖ يلخص موضوعه وفكره .</li> <li>❖ يترك وقتاً للأسئلة والاستفسار .</li> <li>❖ يجيب عن كل التساؤلات .</li> <li>❖ يستعمل الوسائل التقنية في توضيح فكرته .</li> <li>❖ يكتب فكره بطريقة منظمة .</li> <li>❖ يلخص نصاً مقروءاً محافظاً على ترتيب فكره .</li> <li>❖ يكتب مذكرات عن يومياته ، ويعرضها على زملائه</li> <li>❖ يكتب قصة قصيرة .</li> <li>❖ يكتب بعض النماذج من الرسائل ذات المضمون الاجتماعي .</li> <li>❖ يكتب كتابةً وظيفية ، مثل طلب استدعاء أو طلب توظيف .</li> <li>❖ يشارك في الإذاعة المدرسية بكتابة خواطر أو مقالات ذات مضامين مختلفة .</li> <li>❖ يراعي قواعد الكتابة ( علامات الترقيم -الهوامش -مخطط الصفحة - ) .</li> <li>❖ يحدد الموضوع ، ويختار له الأسلوب المناسب .</li> <li>❖ يستخدم مكتسباته البلاغية ، ويوظفها .</li> <li>❖ يكتب سيرة ذاتية ، أو قصة ، أو يوميات .</li> </ul>

(بيع)

المخرجات
السنة الأولى بمرحلة التعليم الثانوي
<p>« يتوقع من المتعلم أن يكون قادراً على أن :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>❖ يكتب مشهداً في مسرحية .</li> <li>❖ يوظف مكتسباته اللغوية ومعارفه في كتابته .</li> <li>❖ يعرض فكره وآراءه بمنهجية .</li> <li>❖ يتبع الخطوات المنهجية عند كتابته للبحث .</li> <li>❖ يلتزم بالعناصر الأساسية الواجب توافرها في المقالة عند كتابة المقالة العلمية .</li> <li>❖ يظهر قدرته في الكتابة الوظيفية مثل ( الرسالة - البرقية - التقرير ) .</li> </ul>

(انتهى)

## تقسيم المقررات الدراسية لمرحلة التعليم الثانوي

للعام الدراسي 1438-1439هـ / 2017-2018م

السنة الأولى بمرحلة التعليم الثانوي	المادة: اللغة العربية	الوعاء الزمني: (5) حصص في الأسبوع
الكتابان المنفذان:		
1- الدراسات اللغوية - السنة الأولى بمرحلة التعليم الثانوي . تأليف: د. بشير محمد زقلام - د. خليفة محمد بديوي .		
2- الدراسات الأدبية - السنة الأولى من مرحلة التعليم الثانوي. تأليف: أ. علي أحمد عبد الحميد .		

الفصل الدراسي الأول				
الأسبوع	فرع المادة	الموضوعات	نوع الدراسة	خطوات التطبيق
الأول	النحو	الكلام وما يتركب منه		تمهيد مناسب - كتابة الأمثلة فوق السبورة بألوان مختلفة واستنباط القاعدة ثم الترتيب عليها بأسئلة يديرها المعلم.
	الأدب	مفهوم الأدب ووظيفته		تمهيد للتعريف بالأدب - ثم شرح الدرس مستعملاً السبورة مناقشاً مفهوم الأدب ووظيفته .
الثاني	النحو	أقسام الكلمة - علامات الاسم		الاستمرار في الشرح مستعيناً بما سبق من توجيهات، ثم توجيه أسئلة حول الدرس تعين على فهم القاعدة ومعرفة علامات الأسماء.
	النصوص	القصيدة الغنائية المركبة (عبيد بن الأبرص) يسفر من وعيد أمراء القيس من: حنت كيبشة. إلى: يغير زمام.	(11 بيتاً) دراسة فظ	التعريف بالشاعر وبمفهوم الشعر الغنائي والقصيد المركبة مع تدريب الطلبة على الإلقاء الصحيح مع تمثيل انفعالات على الملامح تناسب موضوع النص وضبط الكلمات صرفياً وإيضاح مخارج الحروف ومعالجتها عند الطلاب.
	التهجيب	كتابة رسالة		يتركب الطالب على كتابة رسائل مختلفة الأغراض ليتبادلها مع زملائه أو أصدقائه أو معلميه أو أهله، وهذا اللون من الكتابة يمتاز بحرارة العاطفة، والصور الخيالية، وأناقة العبارة، ويزدان أحياناً بالاقتراس من القرآن الكريم والحديث الشريف والشعر والمثل والحكمة.

تابع / تقسيم المقررات الدراسية لمرحلة التعليم الثانوي للعام الدراسي 1438-1439هـ / 2017-2018م		28	
المادة: اللغة العربية		السنة الأولى بمرحلة التعليم الثانوي	
الفصل الدراسي الأول			
الأسبوع	فرع المادة	الموضوعات	نوع الدراسة
الثالث	النحو	علامات الأفعال - علامات الحرف	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>الاستمرار في شرح الدرس وفقاً للتوجيهات السابقة.</li> </ul>
	الإلقاء	همزة الوصل ومواضعها	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>يكتب المعلم الأمثلة أو القطعة التي توضح الدرس ثم يضع خطوطاً بألوان مختلفة تحت الكلمات التي توضح القاعدة ثم يستنبط القاعدة، ويمكن للمعلم أن يطبق القواعد الإملائية في الفروع الأخرى للمادة.</li> </ul>
	النصوص	الفصحى الغالبية المركبة (عبيد بن الأبرص)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>يستمر المعلم في محاوره طلابه في الجوانب الجمالية ومعاني المفردات وسر قوتها في موضعها واستبدال مفردة بمفردة أخرى مناسبة وبيان أي المفردتين أقوى في أداء المعنى.</li> </ul>
الرابع	التعبير	إعداد خطبة تلقى في مناسبة دينية أو وطنية	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>ينبغي على المعلم أن يبنه طلابه إلى ما يتطلبه أسلوب الخطبة من: الوضوح، وتنوع الأسلوب بين الخبر والإنشاء لتحقيق الإثارة، وسلاسة العبارة وقصر الجمل، مع شيء من المحسنات البديعية في غير تكلف، ومراعاة ثقافة السامعين ومدى إدراكهم... مع التذكير بأجزاء الخطبة (المقدمة، الموضوع، الخاتمة).</li> <li>قد يختار المعلم بعضاً من خطاب الطلاب ويطلب من أصحابها إلقائها على أسماع الطلاب، منمياً فيهم حسن الإلقاء والقدرة على التأثير وشد انتباه السامعين.</li> </ul>
	الأدب	العصور الأدبية - عصر ما قبل الإسلام - العصر الإسلامي والأموي، والعصر العباسي	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>تهيئ مناسب ثم قراءة الموضوع بوعي وترو واستنباط ما فيه من تعريفات خاصة وملامح مميزة لكل عصر وكتابة ذلك على السبورة ومناقشته وعقد مقارنات بين الأدب في تلك العصور وبيان ما يَخْتَصُّ به كل منها وذكر أسبابه.</li> </ul>
الرابع	النحو	أقسام الاسم: المذكر والمؤنث	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>تهيئ -كتابة الأمثلة ووضع خطوط أو علامات مميزة تحت الكلمات المراد دراستها، ثم قراءة تلك الأمثلة واستنباط القاعدة التي توضحها وتفعيل واستثمار حصيلة الطلاب بالمناقشة والتدريب المتواصل.</li> </ul>
	الإلقاء	التدريب على همزة الوصل	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>الاستمرار في تدريب الطلاب على فهم همزة الوصل ومتابعة تطبيقها في الفروع الأخرى لمادة اللغة العربية.</li> </ul>

