

**QUALITY AND PROFESSIONAL TRAINING FOR ENGLISH
TEACHERS IN A LIBYAN UNIVERSITY**

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Abstract

This study explores the implementation of a pedagogy of active learning in an English Department in a university in Libya. The current (2017) social and political situation in Libya reflects an environment in which authority and traditional relations of power are changing. This study traces the fortunes of a pedagogical intervention that endows both teachers and students with increased authority over, and ownership of, the processes of learning. For many years, top-down attempts to improve higher education in Libya have failed but this study introduces a bottom-up change in pedagogy introduced by the researcher, teachers and students. Thus, this pedagogical project pursued in the classroom, links to and reflects changes in the wider and traditional order of Libyan society.

The shortage of English-language and technical skills in the labour market reflects continued historical failure at tertiary education levels. Four decades of highly centralized decision-making have failed to implement top down educational reform and raise the standard of English teaching. This study investigates if a bottom-up classroom intervention by prepared and committed teachers is a more productive strategy for raising educational standards.

This study examines the standard of English teaching at a Libyan University and identifies weaknesses in the quality of teaching. Findings from phase one reveal teachers are over-reliant on traditional lectures as a mode of delivery and their focus is on transmitting knowledge rather than promoting student engagement through active learning. Therefore, phase two – feasibility study – introduces a new mechanism of interactive teaching methods based on active learning. Six teachers are trained to have a different pedagogy in their approach to students; that is nurturing active learning.

This study investigates how six teachers understand how learners learn a second language and investigates their capacity to deliver a pedagogy of active learning which encourages learners to take greater responsibility for their own learning by means of interviews, observations and video analysis. Evidence obtained from video analysis shows that student engagement and participation increased. They asked more questions, shared more ideas with their peers, and appeared more confident in their learning. In addition, some teachers had greater awareness of the application of some interactive teaching methods, and offered more opportunities for student centred interactions.

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List of Abbreviations

CPD	Continuous Professional Development
DoE	Department of English
DoEEU	Department of English in Elmergheb University
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
GTM	Grammar Translation Method
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
HoD	Head of Department
HR	Human Resources
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
INSET	In-service Training
LGPC	Libyan General People's Committee
LHE	Libyan Higher Education
LNCP	Libyan National Council for Planning
LUs	Libyan Universities
NTC	National Transition Council
PD	Professional Development
PGCE	Postgraduate Certificate in Education
PDP	Personal Development and Planning
QAA	Quality Assurance Agency
SLQ	Student Learning Questionnaire
TOQ	Teaching Observation Questionnaire
PPP	Present, Practice and Produce

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Declaration

I declare that this thesis is a presentation of original work and I am the sole author. This work has not previously been presented for an award at this, or any other, University. All sources are acknowledged as references.

Chapter One: Introduction

Introduction

As the overstretched state sector struggles to absorb young graduates of working age, there is widespread agreement that standards of Libyan university education are not adequately preparing graduates for the job market. The latest available data from The World Economic Forum Global Competitiveness Report 2014-15 ranked Libya 133rd out of 144 countries for labour efficiency and higher education standards. The combination of population growth and free university education has put considerable pressure on the quality of education services. This creates a demand for university places which is increasingly difficult to meet. In addition, the recent political changes in Libya have compounded these difficulties. Most significantly, this research aims to introduce new mechanisms of teaching styles in a context where there is a near war and social unrest.

Libya's higher education system must respond to the demands of its ever-increasing student body by raising standards in a way that meets the economic and social needs of business and the community. Universities and higher education institutions need to acquire new approaches and strategies for improving academic development and overhauling educational processes. This research is conducted in two main phases; the first phase investigates the current effectiveness of learning and teaching strategies and related notions of how learners learn at Elmergheb University, Libya. Lecturers' are interviewed and observed in order to identify their educational/professional training needs. The second phase - feasibility study - is devised to complete the first phase of this study. In addition, the components of phase two intervention are basically developed to address the problems identified in phase one. It also aims to increase teachers' awareness of different active teaching methods by training six teachers to use methods that use active learning styles and accordingly align teaching styles with the demands of the labour market and instil values of lifelong learning.

Teachers appear to either lack the vocation to become effective or they lack proper understanding of what it is to be an effective teacher. The researcher has six years' experience lecturing at Elmergheb University. The interest in investigating the role of lecturers stems from the researcher's observations and reflections in the Department of English, as well as discussions with colleagues and students. This thesis gives an account of the observation and analysis of teaching practices and describes how the pressures and difficulties experienced by under-resourced lecturers affects student performance and

learning. The study identifies deficiencies in staff training and observes, implements, and measures development interventions.

Social, cultural and political changes are now transforming the Libyan landscape, especially since the collapse of the Gaddafi regime in 2011. The significance of this study is that it aims to effect change during a time of political upheaval and destabilisation throughout the society. It introduces a change in the political basis in the classroom. A shift from a traditional order – the teacher is the expert and knowledge provider – to students actively engage in their learning in line with modern developments. This will necessitate shifts in the pedagogical positions of teachers who will have to re-orientate their role, their privileged ownership of the knowledge they are dealing with and their expectations of learners; the learners must be encouraged and permitted to take more ownership and to become pro-active by taking responsibility for their own learning.

Libyan society is very traditional and there are cultural issues relating to the influence of families on their children and there is seen to be a lack of encouragement from parents towards embracing modern ideas of learning. Female teachers predominate in the schools and yet they are restricted in their access to computer courses, “their families would not allow them to go to internet cafes for training in the use of ICT in teaching English” (Abidin, et al., 2012). The difficulty of conducting this research lies in the cultural resistances to being filmed, especially by female teachers and students. This is mainly associated with the cultural and religious considerations in the Libyan context. In the second phase of this study for example, two female teachers were anxious and felt uncomfortable for being filmed and therefore, they chose to withdraw from the interventions. Fortunately, the researcher was successful in finding another two female teachers who accepted to be filmed and replace them. In addition, for similar reasons, some female students left the classroom when the interventions were taking place in order to avoid being filmed. This is a further exhibition of the sensitivity of these issues in the Libyan context.

1.1 Research Problems and Questions

This study has emerged from the researcher’s interest in investigating a contemporary phenomenon. In relation to research questions, the researcher has developed a set of questions based on two broad goals.

- 1- How effective are the learning and teaching practices and activities currently in use at a Libyan Higher Education Institution- Elmergheb University?
- 2- What kind of professional training is needed to improve teaching skills and increase awareness of students thinking and reasoning?

Research questions for phase one are:

- 1- How effective are the practices of teaching and learning currently being employed at the Department of English?
- 2- What are the problems encountered by lecturers when performing in the classroom?
- 3- What are the difficulties faced by students in learning English?
- 4- What are the professional and personal needs of academic staff in Libyan universities?
- 5- What is the attitude of staff and faculty management to professional development and training?
- 6- Can staff training and development be introduced and implemented to meet the needs of students?

To answer these questions, the researcher employs a case study strategy based on a mixed methods approach.

However, phase two, the feasibility study has the following questions:

- 1- Can student-centred independent learning be introduced in Libyan universities?
- 2- Can video-based research be used to improve teaching and learning in the context of Libyan Higher Education?
- 3- Are Libyan teachers prepared to redirect excessive teacher exposition towards learner participation?
- 4- Are Libyan teachers and students ready to effect a cultural change by allowing students take control of their learning?

1.2 Aims of the Study: Phase One & Two

The nature of research questions and the setting influence the methodology choice of case study research (Yin, 2004). The first phase investigates the state of teaching and learning in a Libyan higher education institution to establish professional staff development and training programme.

The specific aims of phase one are:

- 1- To explain the low standards of tertiary education and offer tentative strategies for raising those standards.
- 2- To explore teaching quality and gather views from lecturers on their perceptions of effective teaching and learning so that remedial actions can be taken to improve learning and teaching at the university.
- 3- To collect information about the professional needs of lecturers so that training could be structured accordingly.

In order to achieve these aims, both qualitative and quantitative methodologies are used. This is an in-depth case study research methodology with descriptive, explanatory and analytical features. The researcher interviewed lecturers and students to obtain a clear understanding of their views.

However, the second phase of this research – feasibility study – aims to design a professional training plan, specifically tailored to the specific teachers' and students' needs identified in this study. In addition, it aims to increase teachers' awareness of interactive teaching methods, train them to implement active learning practices, and measure their perceptions of the integration of interactive lectures.

The research plan of the second phase has the following specific aims:

- i. Including lecturing, the study explores the feasibility of introducing interactive teaching methods (e.g. brainstorming, group discussions and think-pair-share technique).
- ii. Encourage teachers to think about instruction differently and become more student-centred in the approach while simultaneously using interactive teaching techniques.
- iii. To allow opportunities for students to clarify concepts.
- iv. To allow students to explain their reasoning and clarify their thinking.
- v. To facilitate peer to peer interactions to improve understanding of concepts.

1.3 Developmental Goals

Two main aspirations underpin this study: teaching and learning effectiveness and teacher performance improvement. Effectiveness in teaching and learning is associated with lecturers' and students' performance that matches the educational aims of the university. To instigate new development programmes, Kurt Lewin's model of managing change is used (discussed in 3.6.3.1). To ensure staff buy-in and to develop lecturer ownership of the

process, a bottom-up approach is adopted. Within this integrated framework, the study has the following contributions:

- i. Shed light on theoretical knowledge in teaching and learning effectiveness in universities, particularly, in the Libyan culture and society.
- ii. Create staff professionalism especially in areas of teaching quality and improve students' learning experience.
- iii. Introduce a bottom-up model of teacher's performance change.

1.4 Limitation of the Study

Every research study will have limitations on how it is conducted and "it is incumbent on the researcher to recognise and discuss those limitations" (Mertens, 2010). This case study advocates teacher professional development to modernise pedagogical practices and provoke a more inclusive task based language curriculum based on cooperative learning. The aim is to align instruction in a manner that enables the instructor to interact with and receive feedback from the students, in line with the literature which suggests building interpersonal skills through team-building activities. The core of the modern teacher-student relationship in higher education has pivoted from one of passive transmission/absorption to one where the teacher enables and the student discovers. The notion of the learner as the obedient recipient of knowledge has become outmoded in academic settings where the goal is to turn students into thinkers and not merely containers of information. Effective learning calls for active participation of the learner in the process.

However, this study reflects the views and beliefs of the participants (teachers and students) as developed in Libya's educational environment. Teaching in Libya has evolved as primarily a teacher-centred process while learners have taken little ownership of learning. The expectation is that the teacher has all the answers and independent discovery is not undertaken by the student.

The contemporary literature, largely written for an English-speaking audience in the developed world, encourages student involvement in learning and even in the evaluation of the teaching they receive. However, incorporating these strategies into the classroom is not a simple process. Progressing from the didactic to the interactive lecture and facilitating learner engagement with the lecturer and the subject content must overcome a variety of administrative, financial and cultural barriers.

The principal constraint to this research is time; the researcher would welcome the opportunity to monitor progress at the university because changing how people conceptualise the roles of teacher and learner takes time. Also, some participants may have been initially reluctant to appear to be critical of their peers or colleagues. This attitude also changes over time, making it easier to obtain specific information deemed to be confidential. Finally, there is a need for a larger scale follow-up study of other faculties and Higher Education Institutions in Libya with different organisational cultures, programmes and missions.

1.5 Hypotheses of the Research

In this thesis, the researcher tests the following hypotheses:

- 1- Libyan Universities do not provide appropriate opportunities for staff training and development to ensure that lecturers and departments are able to contribute fully to the achievement of department and University objectives. Lecturers in Libyan Universities lack proper professional training and performance enhancement.
- 2- The absence of staff training and development may have negative effects on lecturers' practices. For example, ineffective teaching methods, outdated examination strategies and student assessment procedures, and lack of teacher performance evaluation. As a result, the quality of teaching practices and the effectiveness of lecturers remain unresolved and unknown. In addition, lack of structured feedback on lecturers' performance means weak lecturers attempt to perform without essential tools that might provide guidance and improve their teaching skills especially their classroom practice.
- 3- Little is known about students' learning behaviours in Elmergheb University, and from the above hypotheses, students are at the heart of these issues. There is sufficient evidence to support the impacts of teacher training on students' learning and achievement. For instance, teacher evaluation approach assumes that the type of methods teachers use, how teachers perform in classrooms, and how teachers interact with students will have a direct influence on students' approaches to learning. Consequently, students' learning experiences are better enhanced when lecturers perform more effectively.

1.6 Research Structure and Organisation

The study is organised in two main phases. The first phase develops an understanding of a complex phenomenon as experienced teachers and students. The study reviews the literature on teaching effectiveness and staff development, and collects data from the fieldwork in

Libya. Qualitative and quantitative research methods are used, for instance, semi-structured interviews with teachers and students, pre-intervention Students Learning Questionnaire, and Teaching Performance Questionnaires. The second phase, based on the findings from the first phase, applies an intervention designed and evaluated to introduce change in the observed practice using videos and questionnaires. The intervention is based on the premises that good teaching is learner-focused and knowledge is socially constructed and dynamic. Moreover, it helps students to shift their conceptual understanding through approaches that promote deep learning (Duarte, 2013). It encourages approaches to teaching designed to hone learner skills such as critical thinking, reflection and problem solving, through experientially based, participative activities.

This thesis is divided into seven chapters as follows:

Chapter One: The Introductory Chapter (the current chapter) introduces the study focusing on the research problems and questions and developmental goals. In addition, it presents scope and limitations, and an overview on the research structure.

Chapter Two presents the historical and political barriers to teaching and learning English in Libyan Higher education. It explores the context within which the study takes place, in particular looking at the changes that are occurring in the country. This is to show the impact that political upheaval has had, and continues to have, on the teaching and learning of English in Libya and the need for implementing change to improve education standards. It also presents a general background of geographical location and historical background of Libya, and an overview of its education system with a special emphasis on the Libyan higher education and the challenges surrounding it.

Chapter Three views the available literature related to lecturing methods and teaching and learning effectiveness. It highlights issues of teaching evaluation the professional development of teachers in higher education. In addition, it presents models of managing change in the educational context.

Chapter Four discusses the strategies and methods adopted in collecting data for phase one of this study, and justifies the choices of research instruments. It also discusses reasons for choosing the case study approach, subjects of the research, and tools used for data collection.

Chapter Five is Data Analysis and Discussion of the Results of phase one. In this chapter, the researcher presents a quantitative data analysis explaining the findings obtained from

interviews with teachers and students. Moreover, this chapter presents a discussion of quantitative data analysis explaining statistically in numbers and percentages the results obtained from pre-intervention Student Learning Questionnaire, and pre-intervention Teacher Performance Questionnaire, highlighting the relevance of the implications to the identified research questions. The findings of this chapter - phase one - played an important role in shaping the Research Plan – the second phase of this study.

Chapter Six introduces the Research Plan of phase two, and the use of video for data collection and explains video-based observation research methods. This chapter discusses the aims of the research plan, and the procedures of using video methods, and a general background on the subjects of the research. This chapter also illustrates the advantages of video-recording for pedagogical research and observation, and teacher performance improvement.

Chapter Seven is a presentation of the analysis and findings of teacher interventions. This chapter discusses two aspects of the lessons. First, functions; the pedagogical functions of the lesson which is based on a set of predetermined elements, for example: review, introducing new content, practicing/ applying. The second, form; is concerned with the deep structures of the videoed lectures, for example, “who is doing what?” and “how are the participants interacting?”. In addition, this chapter presents detailed discussions of the results and findings which emerged from video analysis, and Students and Teachers’ Perceptions post-intervention Questionnaires.

Chapter Eight presents the Summary and Conclusions of this research. It also gives some suggestions, recommendations for the Libyan Universities.

Chapter Two: Research Context

Introduction

This chapter provides a general background to the context of this study - the management of change in teaching styles in Libyan higher education. Topics discussed include strategic visions for higher education in Libya and the implementation of change. The chapter sets out Libya's geographical boundaries, population, and religion. It also presents the historical development of the Libyan system as they influence higher education.

2.1 The Need to Re-educate

Organisations need continuity to ensure the quality and effectiveness of staff members. Rapid change in higher education institutions clearly impinges on and may interrupt learning activities and practices. Although higher education over the last three decades has expanded to cater for demographic growth and increased student enrolment, this expansion has come at the expense of education quality (Bashshur, 2004). According to Farley cited in Elferjani (2015), the higher education system focused on theoretical rather than the practical aspects of education. These practical aspects include a lack of facilities, a shortage of well trained and well-qualified teachers, without whom a generation of technically qualified students cannot achieve their potential. Too little attention has been paid to the teaching quality and training of university teachers. Academic staff are expected to deliver lectures and apply their skills and materials without professional assistance from the university, where performance appraisal and mentoring are rarely practised. Harris (1989) argues that even if teachers are qualified, their performance standards will gradually decline if educational training and personal assistance are not provided. A more detailed argument is given by the Australian Language and Literacy Council (1995, p. iv):

“in common with other professionals, teachers should never consider themselves as having had enough education. Career-long access to professional development is necessary in all teaching contexts... because of the rapid advance of knowledge, technological change and continually changing societal expectations regarding the functions of education and training, all teachers will need ongoing opportunities to fill the knowledge gaps from their previous education. Teachers need to catch up with developments in their fields, to reflect on their educational philosophies and practice, and to contribute, via professional development, to the evaluation and improvement in educational theory and practice”

It is well established that staff development and training is a crucial and fundamental contributor to achieving high-academic standards, and particularly to improvements in teaching practices and learning. Therefore, staff development is essential in universities in both developing and developed countries. The Libyan government has developed a number of national strategies on the theme 'Libya's Strategy Vision 2025': a) "a basic education strategy, b) a technical education and vocational training strategy, and c) a strategic development of educational institutions" (Theeb, 2009, p. 1).

Government policy visions are interesting because they highlight the shortfall between achievement and aspiration. They inadvertently draw attention to intractable barriers to policy implementation. In the matter of graduate employability for example, statements of government policy visions act as a reminder that finding a solution to the mismatch between the skills acquired in formal education and the requirements of private sector employers in a modern economy extends beyond the classroom walls of the university. To say that solutions to such broad societal issues must draw on a wide group of stakeholders, including employers and government does not diminish the seminal role of teachers in stimulating change, although it does suggest that coordinating nationwide resources to achieve shared goals at a time of chronic unrest has proved to be difficult.

The Libyan Deputy Minister of Education's vision is accounted in his two objectives. At an Arab Education Summit in Amman, Jordan in May 2013, Libya's Deputy Minister of Education Bashir Eshteiwi announced two sound and well-advised policies to deal with its higher education challenges which were inadvertently revealing of the condition of tertiary education.

Libya, he announced, is developing an information technology infrastructure primarily to connect universities via a modern communications network. He did not refer to the application of ICT as an educational aid, nor did he advocate the use of computers in learning environment. Secondly, to tackle overcrowding and poor teaching standards in the system, the government was relying on the support of the international community by sending thousands of promising students abroad to complete their studies.

The international community will have an important role to play in supporting the government's higher education reforms whilst advocating open discussion of some issues which have slowed educational reform. Libya values international support, particularly with respect to modernising instructional methods, training technologically skilled lecturers and

the improved use of technology to connect Libyan institutions and students. Some donors advocate that cultural views in Libya must adapt and evolve to the new economic realities. Donors and international organisations encourage open discussion of issues such as: what is considered ‘acceptable’ work for young Libyans entering the workforce; the role of the state as guarantor of employment and social benefits; employment and the role of women.

This study does not set out, single-handedly, to solve the problems afflicting Libyan Higher Education. It does set out to locate, isolate and begin to change some of the classroom practices which contribute to poor performance in terms of the overall quality of the educational system. The re-vitalisation of Libyan education will require a multi-agency and multi-faceted approach. For historic reasons and for reasons to do with armed conflict and ongoing power struggles, strategies delivered from the top-down to reverse low academic standards in tertiary education have not taken root. However, this study can make a small contribution to teaching and learning by identifying how and under what conditions attitudinal change can be stimulated. To devise even tentative solutions to any problem, it is not sufficient merely to declare the existence of the problem; we must also understand the negative consequences which affect graduates in order to target ameliorative classroom-up solutions. For example, to close the gap between the preparedness of university graduates and the demands of employers, and to improve graduate prospects in the labour market, and therefore improve extrinsic learner motivation, teachers must understand that Libya’s individual and collective fortunes will benefit from the promotion of critical thinking among students and developing the notion that learning is a lifelong process and not one that shuts down on arrival of the first paycheque. The challenge in a country with roughly half a million students enrolled in higher education is to ensure that current curricula match Libyans’ academic, social and economic aspirations, and that teaching methods reflect a student-centred and learning-led approach.

Largely as a product of its oil resources Libya is an upper-middle income country, with Africa’s highest per capita gross domestic product (GDP). From 2000 to 2012, annual growth in GDP averaged around 8% (Abuhadra and Ajaali, 2014). However, the Libyan economy’s over dependence on the oil industry and the tax rich revenue it provides limited opportunities for employment. Attempts to diversify the economy have foundered on the immutable statistics of the capital intensive - as opposed to labour intensive - nature of the oil industry; in recent years, it has provided over 70% of Libyan Gross Domestic Product and 94% of

government revenue. However, the hydro-carbon industry has employed only 2% of the Libyan workforce (Abuhadra and Ajaali, 2014).

Since 1969 university education has been free. The demographic explosion has led to a growth in the number of universities which have not matched quantity and quality. High unemployment among graduates draws attention to the quality of graduates. The educational set up for its young population is complicated by the competition for employment with expatriate labour and an under-resourced educational system.

Many factors drive an economy's productivity and competitiveness. Understanding their relative importance and their influence on economic growth is a matter of dispute for economists, and is beyond the scope of this study. However, there is general agreement that investment in capital assets and infrastructure - particularly in education and training for a youthful society intent on change - are preconditions for technological progress and building a modern economy, as attested by the educational aims set out by the Department of Education (Schwab, 2010).

The impetus for this study partly arises from the researcher's exposure, as a student in secondary school and university, to inchoate and rudimentary study skills. Also, the researcher's job as a lecturer in the English Department highlighted gaps in the professional training of academic staff, particularly when compared to professional development in other higher education institutions in the UK and US. The researcher's one-year tenure as head of the English department confirmed that students' failure to realise their learning potential was linked to outdated pedagogical practice. Ibrahim's (2010) report based on exploratory visits to higher education institutions concluded that these institutions face enormous challenges which inhibit them from achieving their objectives. Some of these challenges are as follows:

1. Most programmes implemented by higher education institutions lack strategic planning and material resources.
2. Higher education institutions lack staff development and training programmes which consequently affect their education quality.
3. Lack of the concept of quality assurance institutions has led to poor practices in the educational process.
4. Most universities lack a substantive concept of critical thinking and use outdated traditional learning methods for example, a focus on one-way communication methods rather than conversation and exposition.

Lack of staff training, the absence of teaching quality assessment and the low priority given to student feedback on teaching methods and the curriculum, has contributed to underachievement and poor graduation rates. The need therefore arises for an evaluation study of teaching effectiveness and an understanding of student needs. Fortunately, following the recent administrative reforms and management improvement, the current management at Elmergheb University are supportive of this research and, more importantly, its findings may be used to promote teaching and learning in the university.

2.1.1 National Strategic Vision for Organisational Change

There is a consensus that the quality of education in Libya, for valid historical reasons set out elsewhere in this study, does not match western standards. This judgment is supported by anecdotal evidence as private companies complain that graduates typically require extensive training to make them productive. However, none of the few academic studies on the topic go into detail on how the quality of graduates and the system that teaches them can be, or indeed has been improved. Tamtam, et al. (2011) offer vague statements; the quality deficit has, they write, “made the government come up with various intervention strategies. Such strategies are in partnership with stakeholders in the education sector”. The approach which cites “various intervention strategies” but fails to make any reference to any single strategy is strongly suggestive of the paucity of a centrally driven educational policy. In a similarly non-accountable style, they maintain that “the education sector in Libya so far has sought to provide a number of options through which students can access curricula programs that suit them better” (Tamtam, et al., 2011). Beyond these general statements, they do not elaborate.

For universities to be effective and successful, the Higher Education authority must decide upon and apply a coherent and effective strategy. Strategy aims can be achieved with a clear and effective vision to improve and develop higher education institutions; identify clear objectives; identify priorities; and provide financial support. In 2005, the Secretariat of the Libyan General People’s Committee (LGPC) for higher education introduced new policies to compete nationally and internationally. In consultation with experts and higher education specialists, the Secretariat of LGPC, developed “work programmes as a strategic vision 2005-2010”. The aim of this vision was to develop an effective system in line with the development of the 21st century, and to tackle imbalances in Libyan Higher Education. The vision states that:

“Creating a system of higher education quality and broad participation, and multiple tracks vertically and horizontally, so as to ensure diversity, characterised by effective, efficient, quality programmes, and the quality of teaching and learning, research and community service, and improve the quality of life in Libyan society”

(Source: Theeb, 2009, p. 43)

In order to implement the objectives of strategic vision 2025, the Libyan National Council for Planning issued a new system for higher education summarised next:

- “Increase the enrolment of students in universities and higher education institutions (rising to 40% of the population by 2020).
- Develop the capacities of university graduates and other HEI graduates; focusing on providing students with knowledge, insight and problem-solving skills and capacities; development of creative thinking and communication skills; lifelong learning skills; the use of information technology; active participation in the accomplishment of national aspirations as well as personal ones.
- Develop and strengthen the capacities of the LHEIs to include policy-making, planning, coordination and control and supervision of the institutions of higher education in Libya on a continuously developing basis.
- Development of the quantity and quality of LHEIs, and the opening of new disciplines to meet the needs of local and regional labour markets.
- Improving the efficiency and effectiveness of LHE and the rational use of available resources; enhancing the added value of LHE.
- Preparation of teaching staff to meet quality requirements and the expansion needs of Libyan Universities to raise the quality of teaching, learning and research; to live up to international standards in an era of globalization.
- Development of a national high-speed network of information and communication technology (ICT) and upgrading the skills necessary for their operation, so that universities and higher education institutions can cope with rapid global developments in the areas of education, learning and scientific research.
- Establishment of national councils to evaluate academic quality control in universities and institutions of higher education in accordance with international standards.

- Develop LHE capacity to provide high-quality programmes to meet the sustainable development needs of the country, and keep pace with the successive developments of higher education at the global level.
- Provide LHEIs with the necessary resource infrastructure, to be able to evaluate available knowledge in the areas of education and learning, scientific research and deploying it to the needs of current and future society.
- Restructuring of universities and other higher institutions, thereby enhancing the diversity of programs and eliminating duplication, according to the vision of LHEIs, to meet the developmental needs of the country.
- Diversify sources of funding for all LHEIs, including the private education institutions, and encourage them to increase sources of self-financing and private sector involvement in financing and development.
- Establish a foundation for scientific research in universities and set the foundations for a positive partnership between universities, state institutions and the private sector”.

(Source: Theeb, 2009, p. 45)

These vision statements are evidence that Libya’s attention is focused on current educational technologies, knowledge and skills, complementing these strategies with strong values, discipline and work culture. The aim is to build an information rich professional workforce. These national attempts towards becoming an effective and productive nation are well documented in Libya’s 'Vision 2025'. As set out further in chapter 2.5.1, these aims are in line with the broad objectives of the Ministry of Higher Education. The higher education institutions in Libya are symbols of pride despite the evidence of unemployment statistics that they have largely failed in their role to produce critical-thinking, creative, and adaptable graduates. Therefore, this study investigates approaches to teaching designed to hone skills such as critical thinking, reflection and problem solving, through experiential participative activities. The study will establish a benchmark for implementing professional training in Libyan universities.

2.2 Managing Change in Crisis

The history of change management in the Libyan Higher Education sector can be divided into three phases. In the first phase, between 1969 and 2000, the government took charge of leading national universities, exercising power over their structures and practices through centralised management. The government dominated the university’s activities through a

series of centrally controlled policies. Herrera & Torres (2006) argue that the main reason for the poor quality of academic achievement in the Arab world is that universities tend to be located within authoritarian systems which impede academic freedom through over surveillance. In addition, Libyan universities were influenced by changing sub-national governance as shifts in administrative units subjected universities to various regional authorities. Another reason for Libya's ineffective university governance is the lack of strategic planning accentuated by frequent ministerial change (Elferjani, 2015). During the Gaddafi era, curricula were designed according to the beliefs and attitudes of the regime, what Marlowe (2011) has termed "Green Book-infected ideology". For instance, students in higher education were strictly compelled to take and pass a module entitled "Political Culture" that focused solely on the platitudes of Gaddafi's Green Book. This practice reinforced the top-down didactic approaches already popular in Libyan Universities. Senior managers provided guidelines and plans, and collaboration between stakeholders and their management was frowned upon. Autocratic leadership held and controlled the resources but only a minority held a tribal or ideological affiliation to the great leader and the majority of staff who were not animated by belief in the revolution were excluded from the process of corrective decision-making. Creeping cynicism is the outcome when the corrective contributions of those with direct first-hand experience of the weaknesses of the system are neither listened to nor valued, because experienced teachers, with the knowledge of how to implement gradual change in the classroom are likely to resent having to rescue an ailing and neglected body through the application of diktats from central government and many were reluctant to take part in rigidly planned projects.

The second phase at the start of the new millennium was a tacit admission of the limitations of policy implementation through the enunciation of central government visions when reforms in the higher education sector permitted to some extent the participation of academic staff in the process of management. The Secretariat of LHE organised several national and international conferences and in consultation with higher education experts and specialists two important strategic visions were developed in 2005 and 2007.

Lastly, since the Libyan revolution of 17th February 2011, and the overthrow of the Gaddafi regime in October 2011, radical change in the structure of higher education institutions management aimed to provide greater autonomy to academic communities to manage their institutions. After the revolution, public universities have become autonomous to some extent, encouraged by World Bank and IMF free market economic liberalism.

2.3 Demographic and Population Distribution in Libya

Six official censuses have been undertaken in Libya between 1954 and 2006 as shown below in table (2.1). According to the higher committee and census (2007) the population growth was occurring at the rate of 1.83. In 2003, the Libyan Statistics Book recorded that more than 90% of the population was concentrated in the capital and along the coastal areas particularly in the north-eastern and the north western coastal areas. Libya is a youthful country, 35% of the population is under the age of fifteen. In terms of society, there are a number of ethnicities: 97% of the population is Arab and Berber, however the other 3% includes Tunisian, Egyptians, Italians, Maltese, Turks and Black African.

Table 2.1: Population Growth in Libya (1954-2006)

Year Censuses	Gender		Total	Growth Rate %
	Male	Female		
1954	564.450	524.439	1.088.889	-
1964	813.386	750.983	1.564.369	3.8
1973	1.057.919	994,453	2.052.372	3.4
1984	1.651.562	1.579.497	3.231.059	4.21
1995	2.501.766	2.297.309	4.799.075	2.8
2006	2.687.513	2.610.639	5.298.152	1.83

(Source: LGPC 1954, 1964, 1973, 1984, 1995 and 2006)

2.3.1 Geographical Location

Libya is an Arab country located in North Africa. In terms of area, it is the fourth biggest country in Africa, totalling 1.759.540 square metres, with a Mediterranean coastline of 1.770 kilometres. It is bordered by Egypt to the east, Sudan to the southeast, Chad and Niger to the south, and Tunisia and Algeria to the west.

Figure 2.1: Map of Libya



The desert covers more than 90% of the country. Briefly, the desert in the south and the Mediterranean Sea in the north influence the climate. In the south, the weather is hot and dry in summer, and cold and wet in winter.

2.3.2 Historical Background

Historians divide Libyan history into four periods; ancient, Islamic, the monarchy, and 1969 revolution. Several remains and ancient cities in Libya are remnants of important civilisations, for example, the Greek, Roman and Phoenicians, settled in cities in Leptis Magna, and in Khoms, Sabrata and Cyrene. These ancient cities are tourist attractions and places of historical and cultural interest nominated as world heritage sites by UNESCO. The Islamic history of Libya dates back to the Islamic conquest in the age of the second Caliph Omar Bin Khatab, in 642 AD. Eventually, the three main regions in Libya were united under Caliph Omar's control. The Ottoman Empire held sway for more than three and half centuries from 1551 to 1911, when the Italian colonial conquest of North Africa commenced. In October 1911, Italy declared war against Turkey and its territories, and occupied the Ottoman controlled coastal cities of Tripoli, Benghazi, Darna, Khoms and Tubruk. The Italian invasion capitalised on the weak rule of the far distant Ottomans, and reflected the crumbling empires disengagement from Libya.

During World War II, Italy allied with Germany declaring war against France and Britain in 1940, which Italy and Germany lost. Consequently, Italian troops withdrew from Libya ending a dark chapter of the modern history of Libya.

The third period is the monarchy 1951-1969. In 1951, under the auspices of the UN, Libya became an independent state subdivided into three main regions: Barga in the east, Tripoli in the west and Fezzan in the south. The monarchical rule was under the protection of the British authority which replaced the Italian administration. Following independence, Libya remained a constitutional hereditary monarchy headed by King Idris and the state was known as the United Libyan Kingdom until 1969, when a group of officers belonging to the Free Officers Movement commanded by Gaddafi revolted against the monarchy. The political system changed to what was known as people's authority, which meant that every Libyan citizen over 18 years could take part in the political process through public congress (a place where political decisions were made). Furthermore, the revolution introduced new administrative divisions that would suit the revolutionary stage of modernisation and development, instead of the traditional royal aspects (Obeidi, 2001). In this respect, the country progressed in several sectors. Education, was one sector that received investment of resources and state planning. As a result, a large number of schools and higher education institutions were established during this period.

2.3.3 Social Environment, Language and Religion

The Libyan population is described as traditional with regard to their behaviours and attitudes. The society in general consists of major social units based on family, clan and village. The religion of Islam is one of the greatest influences upon the Libyan people. Religious values have a significant impact on Libyan individuals' daily life. In the period of Caliph Omar Bin Khatab in 642 AD, Islam entered North Africa and most Libyans followed the Sunni branch of Islam. Arabic is the official and dominant language. It is the language of the Holy Quran, so it is spoken by the majority of population in Libya. Arabic is the language of instruction in schools and universities. However, there is the Berber language 'Amazighi' spoken among the majority of Berber particularly in the Northern Mountains of Libya.

2.3.4 The Economic Context

Three main stages of the Libyan economy are described in the literature: the period 1551-1951 encompassing Ottoman rule, and the British and French administrations. Secondly, the independence period 1951-1958, and thirdly, from 1959 the modern era defined by the

discovery of oil. Libya's emergence as a modern state was fettered by a succession of colonial rulers each with its own economic and territorial agenda. However, one feature remained constant, whether under Ottoman or Italian rule or British and French administration; the extraction of its natural resources was prioritised over the needs of its society. Libyans eventually became free to cooperate without foreign interference with the aim of nurturing its human and natural resources and reinvesting human and financial capital in indigenous institutions. For over four centuries, Libyan interests had been neglected and subjected to a divide and rule colonial strategy. Poverty and illiteracy were prevalent. The as yet undiscovered natural resources meant the country remained relatively underdeveloped, powerful families and clans had full control of the political and economic affairs.

During the independence period, the majority were involved in often primitive agricultural and pastoral activities. Farmers were dependent on rainfall to irrigate their crops. Manufacturing featured a number of handicrafts; spinning, weaving carpets, and other products associated with palm leaves. In general, before oil was discovered, Libya was described as economically dependent on the UN and the support of Western countries.

The final stage is the discovery of oil in 1959. Oil very soon became the backbone of the economy, as it transformed the country from a poor desert land with a low standard of living to one of the most important oil producers in the region. The main natural resources in Libya are petroleum and natural gas and the economy soon became dependent on the revenues they produce. Furthermore, the increase in oil revenues and the dominance of the oil sector encouraged flight from the land to major cities, such as Tripoli and Benghazi. Although, government-owned agricultural and industrial projects were an attempt to promote farming and industry, these efforts were largely unsuccessful. Libya's over reliance on imported goods has prompted a significant move towards a private market sector. Libya benefits from valuable natural and historical resources over a large geographical area. For example, long beaches on the Mediterranean Sea, the desert, the Green Mountains, and well preserved ruins and ancient cities. It is sunny all year-round climate attracts a profitable tourism industry. (Read Oxford Business Group, 2008)

2.4 The Development in Education: Introduction

This section briefly discusses the different stages of education development in Libya. The historical viewpoint is important as it reflects the predominant ideological and political attitudes in the education sector during a particular period of time. However, there are few

accurate references and reports on education development during the pre-independence period. Nevertheless, Obeidi (2001) states that Libyan education history can be divided into five periods: The Ottoman period 1551-1911, the Italian occupation 1911-1943, British and French administrations 1943-1953, the period of monarchy 1954 - 1969, and lastly, the revolution period 1969-2011. The following is a discussion of each period.

2.4.1 Education During the Ottoman Rule

Education received very little official attention during the Ottoman rule and the primary focus was on religious issues rather than modern education. Religious classes were held in traditional classrooms called (Zawaia or Katateeb) where Shiekhs (Quran and religious teachers) and their students sat on the floor. These Zawaias were widely spread throughout the country teaching Islamic culture and Quranic studies (Obeidi, 2001). The main purpose of these Zawaias was to graduate religious and Arabic language teachers. A teacher-centred or authoritarian approach was deeply rooted in these Quranic schools. Biggs (1995) describes a teaching environment where the teacher is regarded as a “father figure” and students should respect his authority; nor are they expected to question that authority. In the Quranic method, knowledge is transmitted through authority: there is no expectation that students will analyse information and come to their own conclusion. Also, education was not valued by the society and economic difficulties meant it was selectively available. In brief, education development in this period can be summed in three points: 1) education was only provided through religious instruction with the purpose of promoting Islamic culture and Quranic studies, 2) education at this time lacked appropriate facilities, such as inadequate classrooms and curriculum, and teachers were not qualified or trained to teach, and 3) higher education was mainly restricted to the elite and rich, who were able to afford their children’s education fees abroad.

2.4.2 Education During the Italian Occupation 1911-1943

For a brief review of the educational opportunities offered to the youth of modern Libya, a good starting point is the legacy of Italian colonial rule. Italian rule left behind an infrastructure of roads and other public works, but bequeathed a threadbare legacy in terms of a skilled, informed, and politically active citizenry. Far from encouraging political participation and developing political institutions, political activity was “*actively discouraged*” (St John, 2015, p. 19). The Italians replaced the pre-colonial administration with an exclusively Italian one from which the local population was largely excluded. The

absence of local government, the revival of kinship, and the widespread distrust of bureaucracy left the country to be governed after independence in 1951 by leaders whose claims to legitimacy were dependent either on Italian goodwill or military strength (St John, 2015, p. 19).

The emasculation of “virtually the entire educated elite and entrepreneurial merchant class” was especially significant. St John writes that colonial authorities aimed “*to eliminate illiteracy*” so that the indigenous population could be set to work for Italians, while keeping “Libyans as ignorant as possible by restricting their ability to acquire advanced education” (ibid., p.20). Instead of developing political institutions and encouraging political participation, the Italians deliberately debilitated local administrations and indigenous threats to their political control. The outcome of these policies was that in 1951 Libya found itself “the poorest independent country in the world with an annual per capita income of around \$50, a dearth of post-primary school graduates, and an illiteracy rate of around 90 percent” (St John,2015, p. 20). The consequence was a too slow evolution of civic spirit in the face of strong kinship ties. Religious education remained the main type of education available for the majority of Libyans. In addition, all Zawaias and Madrasa (Quranic Schools) were the main source of knowledge for the majority of Libyans and a few Libyan parents sent their children to Italian schools. When assailed by Italian colonial interference in their educational system, Quranic schools acted as a bulwark against foreign values and, for a time, presented the sole opportunity for young children to be educated through the medium of Arabic. The legacy of respect afforded to Quranic schools makes it difficult to question their contemporary influence on the mind-set of learners. The similarities between students’ classroom practices and the learning habits and learning styles associated with memorizing the Holy Quran are clear. The Holy-Quran is memorized by reading verses aloud for the Imam or religious instructor. There is no critical analysis nor is there any contextual analysis locating the text in a time and place. Similarly, classroom texts are read aloud with more emphasis on English pronunciation rather than reading for meaning. Learning habits are conditioned by repeated practice. At secondary level, these habits have become ingrained and students are accustomed to learning by memorizing information rather than analysing and questioning the received wisdom. A brief account on the Quranic schools is given further in 2.4.5. The dominant perception among Libyan communities was that individuals who went to the Italian schools would lose their religion and identity. As a result, the Italian language was not rooted in

Libyan society compared to neighbouring countries, such as Tunisia and Algeria (Obeidi, 2001).

2.4.3 Education During British Administration 1943-1951

Education significantly improved under the British administration. Schools were reopened after World War II and women were encouraged to go to school and teach by introducing a two-year training course for female teachers. Unlike the Italians, the British Administration made schools open to all Libyans (Deeb & Deeb, 1982).

2.4.4 Education During the Monarchy 1951-1969

Many sources (Deeb & Deeb, 1982; Obeidi, 2001) emphasize that the discovery of oil in Libya in the early 1950s caused fundamental changes in the economy in general and education in particular. Several schools and colleges were established at this time. In 1952, a new Law gave every Libyan the right to free education by making primary education compulsory and in this period female education became more popular.

2.4.5 Brief Overview of Quranic Schools

Picture 2.1 shows how students sit in the Quranic schools (Madrasa) and this method of teaching and learning is often employed in Libya. Libyan society is based on a tribal system that respects Islamic religious values. The Holy Quran illustrates the holy law, and encourages Muslims to seek knowledge from “cradle to grave”. The importance of seeking education is mentioned in many verses, for example, the Quran states “are those who have knowledge equal to those who do not have knowledge” (Chapter 39, verse 9). This indicates that Islam influences thinking about education and motivates parents to send their children to learn the Quran from childhood, even before enrolling them in public schools. According to Aljazeera report quoted in Abosnan (2016), 20% of Libyan population memorize the Quran which contains 114 chapters divided into 6236 verses. Aljazeera report also mentions that there are 3741 Quranic schools around the country. In the Libyan law, the Holy Quran memorizer is treated as a University graduate, even if s/he is under 16 years of age.

In the Quranic schools, the methods of teaching and learning depend on the teacher who reads out to the students several times, and students’ task is to repeat after him. Students’ main role is to learn by heart their assigned texts – verses of the Holy Quran – until the teacher is assured that the students have memorized their text. Currently, a large number of

young students still attend Quranic schools mainly in the Summer holidays. These methods of teaching and learning are deeply embedded in the Libyan social culture.

Picture 2.1: Al-Asmarya Quranic School, Zliten, Libya 2016



Source: <https://www.google.co.uk/search?q=alasmarya+quranic+school>

The methods of teaching in the Libyan universities are predominantly derived from the way the Holy Quran is taught. The Quranic method of teaching is relatively similar to the Grammar Translation Method (GTM). For example, all activities in this method depend on the teacher and there is little opportunity for students to practise their own skills and develop their abilities to exercise choice, express their opinions or engage in learning. In the context of teaching English in Libya, this method of teaching the Holy-Quran has been influential. Students read aloud for the teacher in order to correct their English pronunciation rather than reading for meaning and understanding (Abosnan, 2016). Therefore, in this moment of change in Libya, this study introduces another type of learning and teaching in relationship to the development in the Libyan society.

2.4.6 Education in the Period of Gaddafi 1969-2011

Since 1969, education has been universally available. This expansion can be linked to considerable economic progress and social development. The sharp increase in the number of students during this period, particularly female enrolment, demonstrates the government's commitment to improve the education sector. Obiedi (2001, p. 174) claims that "one of the main successes of the revolutionary regime was with women education policy". To boost its legitimacy and improve productivity, the regime promoted a more open, expansive, and inclusive role for women, and this was especially noticeable in the field of education. Having received nine years of compulsory schooling, females were also encouraged to take up

administrative and clerical jobs and to engage in skilled professions like health care and nursing. As a result, the number of women enrolled in teacher training increased almost sevenfold between 1969–1970 and 1974–1975 while female enrolment at university increased well over fourfold in the same period. By 1976, more than half of teachers in training were women; but significantly, the gender gap in higher education was not breached; female university teachers represented only 13 percent of the total (St John: 2015, p. 63). This success paved the way for women to achieve success in a variety of professions. The World Bank cited in Obeidi (2001, p. 179) referring to women’s success at a professional level, indicates that “between 1982 and 1991 the number of women in the Libyan labour force increased from 64,000 to 109,000, and the in-service occupations increased from 32,000 to 60,000”.

Education was an early priority of the Gaddafi regime and the revolutionary government achieved considerable success improving the spread and availability of education. Adult literacy levels reached 82 percent, among the highest in the region, with youth literacy approaching 100 percent and female literacy higher than most states in the region. However, the quality of education, when judged against the core principles of increasing productivity, diversifying training and job opportunities, and building competitiveness in a global economy, failed to keep up with international standards.

Primary and secondary school enrolment levels were also high; however, starved of resources and only recently emerged from colonial rule, the quality of education was erratic, and particularly in isolated rural areas, standards were low. The Gaddafi regime failed to achieve what subsequent governments have also failed to achieve; the provision of graduates with the skills required to obtain employment in a changing and increasingly technocratic world.

An understanding of the mind set of contemporary learners, and an insight into their motives for learning English and how their attitudes have changed considerably over twenty years is aided by a brief account of how their politico/cultural background has indirectly affected their educational opportunities. The peaks of teaching English as a foreign language in Libya reflect the relatively well resourced 1960s and 1970s and the troughs reflect the breakdown in relations with western powers and consequent inward looking ban on teaching English in the late 1980s.

2.4.7 Banning Learning and Teaching English in Libya

In 1986, the Ministry of Education banned the learning of English in schools and universities. Other symbols of what was seen as an intrusive western cultural hegemony, such as western music, were also banned. What now seems a misguided directive was aimed generally at buttressing a sense of Arab nationalism, and in particular was a reaction against the American bombing raids on Benghazi and Tripoli in April 1986. In the late 1980s and early 1990s, any behaviour which appeared to endorse Western culture, including learning the English language, became a political issue, and was taken to be a validation of imperialist values. This politically motivated decision was a turning point in the history of teaching and learning English in Libya. It meant that a whole generation grew up with little or no exposure to the English language. Although teaching English resumed in the mid-1990s, irreparable damage was done to educational standards; the curriculum atrophied and qualified teachers were re-directed to teach other subjects or find other employment. It was not until 2005 that English was recognised as the official second language of Libya (Najeeb, 2013).

Several authors link the influence of the nine-year long country-wide ban (from 1986 to 1995) on teaching English to the failure of English teaching at university level (Najeeb, 2013). This influence can also be seen even on Engineering and Science university students who are expected to be taught in English in all subjects. A study conducted in Libya on the use of English as medium of instruction by Tamtam, et al. (2013) concluded that English would adversely affect students' academic performance. The results also showed that students were of the view that if they knew English more opportunities would be available to them in case they wanted to go abroad even if they performed poorly at the university. Meanwhile, the study found that students prefer to be taught in Arabic because it made it easier for them to study (ibid., p.19).

The impact of spending cuts in education introduced in response to the economic embargo against Libya that followed the Lockerbie bombing of 1988 was also a factor. The decline in educational standards must also be linked to the lack of a coherent education policy and the related negative destabilising effect of the high turnover of education ministers. After 2005, the teaching of English once again flourished until the downfall of Gaddafi's regime and the aftermath of the revolution (Mohamed, 2014, p. 32). The country is now fragmented between political actors - three separate governments vied for legitimacy in 2015 –as well as local

powers such as “city-states” and tribes. It is also plagued by dozens of armed groups and militias fighting for control over territory and resources (Vilmer, 2016).

2.4.8 The Gaddafi Legacy

After decades of international isolation, underinvestment and cronyism under Gaddafi, Libyan higher education is suffering the consequences of international sanctions and isolation from the international arena during the post-Lockerbie years of Gaddafi rule. A 2011 study of Libya’s Governance Context described the education system’s corruption, nepotism, favour seeking and poor infrastructure as emblematic of the institutional reform challenges facing the country. Student selection processes were compromised by corruption as the children of connected people were given preference in admission to courses. “The regime’s policy towards education was to marginalize teachers so that their influence would be minimized” (Mercy Corps and The Governance Network, 2011). The National Transition Council (NTC) Education Council described teaching styles as “authoritarian, didactic and characterized by one-way communication”.

A member of the Education Council of the NTC reported that “the education sector in the old regime was controlled not in terms of what was taught but how it was taught - it was a systematic process of breaking down the medium so that the contents didn’t matter” (Mercy Corps and The Governance Network 2011). The transition from a society in which family connection, proximity to the regime and money is used to buy influence towards a meritocratic society in which all citizens are given a fair chance at educational and job opportunities is reliant to a large degree on the education sector’s capacity to build a civil society and change the mind-set and culture. One of the long-term challenges encountered by the new leadership is the transition into a subsidy free Libyan society. Under Gaddafi’s regime almost all essential commodities such as education and healthcare came under government subsidies. Typical of the government’s reliance on subsidies to buy favour was Saif al Islam’s 2006 initiative to upgrade Libya’s education by providing free laptops to all Libyan schoolchildren, which prompted Libyans to ask why, rather than providing laptops, the regime did not attempt to resolve the core systemic problems within the education sector (Pargeter, 2010). Since the discovery of oil, Libya has to an extent, been able to ‘featherbed’ its citizens without the need for unwelcome taxation and this largesse is a barrier to reform. If wealthy governments have no need to petition their citizens to fund spending through

taxation, it becomes more difficult to build a civil contract of trust between the state and its citizens (Whitaker, 2009).

A 2007 Freedom House report linked the Revolutionary Committee Movement's influence in the Libyan higher education system to bribery. "Individual academics who have tried to resist such corruption have found themselves subject to harassment and in some cases threats of physical violence". These behaviours from the Gaddafi era induced a kind of psychological conditioning, and their legacy and impact on the mind-set of learners cannot be dismissed because they were common knowledge among ordinary Libyans. Their appeal to base instincts by reinforcing the message that in an oil rich economy, economic success depends less on skill and intrinsic motivation than on favour seeking and nepotistic ties with the government, send a negative message to young learners that hard work and merit may not be rewarded.

As stated in section 2.1, oil provides 94% of government revenue qualifying Libya as a rentier state, that is a state which derives most of the revenue generated from the rent of natural resources (Al-Zumai, 2007, pp. 16–18). In terms of political theory, rentier states are states lacking factors and reasons for developing properly functioning institutions (Al-Khouri, 2009). In this model, the state subsidises a variety of goods and services and takes responsibility for its citizens' core needs of education, employment and housing. Rentier states tend to overlook local demands for reform because of the political autonomy they derive from the external rents they receive. To achieve its economic vision of creating a globally competitive knowledge-based economy as a sustainable alternative to the strategy of funnelling nationals into public-sector jobs, Libya will rely heavily upon transforming its system of higher education into a force for change that is capable of producing jobs, eliminating radicalism and reducing reliance on foreign expertise in the oil sector.

2.5 Higher Education in Libya

Despite Gaddafi's pledge that education was a "natural right", the evidence suggests that his regime squandered resources; according to Inside Higher Education: "The university system in Libya was, in the view of many Libyans, purposefully squandered for decades by Gaddafi's regime. Salaries were low and resources for meaningful research scarce. The system was also used as a propaganda tool of the dictatorship." This resulted in a lack of key human and physical resources in the country's higher education institutions.

The first higher institution in Libya was established in 1955 in Benghazi, and then Tripoli witnessed the establishment of faculty of science and faculty of arts in 1957.

Table 2.2: Students Enrolment in Libyan Universities 1955-2006

Academic Year	No. of Students	Academic Year	No. of Students	Academic Year	No. of Students
1955-1956	31	1964-1965	1436	1974-1975	10100
1984-1985	34469	1994-1995	144412	2005-2006	246000

(Source: Elaokali, 2012, p. 58)

The main objective of these faculties was to train teachers for intermediate and secondary levels, in recognition of the vital role which higher education can play in developing Libyan society. Therefore, several faculties and higher education institutions were established, for example the faculty of law in 1962, and the faculty of agriculture in 1966, as well as the Higher Institute for Technical Studies, and the Higher Teacher's Training College in 1967. In spite of the notable educational improvement in the late 1950s and 1960s, a number of important changes occurred in higher education institutions between 1970 and 2010. These changes include the dramatic increase in expenditure, and putting forward more effective educational policies and systems. This has been represented through determined efforts to increase student enrolment, and through securing equal opportunities of access to higher education for both males and females.

According to official statistics in 1974, the amount of money allocated for the funding of universities and higher institutes by the Libyan authority was LD 10.125.000 (Libyan Dinar), and another LD 9 million under administration budget. Nine universities were established in 1995, with a total of 76 specialised faculties featuring more than 344 specialised scientific departments. However, currently there are 13 universities and more than 30 higher institutes under State supervision and control. Although Al-Fnayish (1998) doubted the official statistics of student numbers in higher education, the latest available figures in table 2.2 show the number of students had significantly risen compared with the number in the 1970s and 1980s. With regard to data sources, it is important to point out that due to the security situation in Libya since 2011, a large number of governmental and non-governmental organisations in Libya are not able to provide consistent and up to date data. Therefore, only

data between 2006-2011 is sometimes available to be used for research purposes. As stated by Obeidi (2001) “the number of students increased rapidly after 1983, especially university level due to the increasing number of universities in Libya and additional facilities at the existing educational establishments”.

2.5.1 Objectives of Higher Education

As mentioned in 2.2, Libyan Universities have seen significant changes since the revolution of 2011, and universities are now more autonomous. The objectives of higher education presented in the draft law of higher education institutions is that universities must provide good opportunities for learners of different disciplines and specialities, and provide the country with adequately prepared graduates for the job market to accelerate the progress of the country (Elferjani, 2015). Their core missions are first to link education with the demands of the governmental strategic schemes for economic and social development. Second, universities must expand graduate studies and educational scholarships to improve academic staff and provide more qualified professionals required by the country's labour market. Another mission is putting more focus on developing a culture of research and increase faculty research productivity. Finally, universities should establish strong and collaborative relationships with other scientific organisations in and outside the country. However, the specific objectives of Elmergheb University, where this research is undertaken, are as follows:

- 1- The University aims to provide an up-to-date curriculum to achieve high quality education.
- 2- Encourage initiatives which promote student-centred learning to enhance students learning and increase their motivation and effort.
- 3- Promote interactive learning practices and lifelong learning among students.
- 4- Develop students’ critical thinking, creativity and communication skills.
- 5- Establish sound and sustainable scientific relationships with other educational institutions locally and abroad.
- 6- The University is committed to providing staff with opportunities for professional training and development to enable them to contribute to the achievement of the University goals.

(Source: University of Elmergheb Policy Book, 2015)

2.5.2 Libyan Universities and Teaching Staff

There are 13 public universities and more than 30 higher institutes in Libya in 2016. In the late 1980s the government reduced the number of public universities from 17 to 13 causing controversy and criticism. The Libyan authorities invited the private sector to contribute to the country's education system in the 1990s. The increasing number of university students added to pressure on the public budget. In the mid-1990s, private education was introduced and this is now being promoted by the Ministry of Education. According to Rhema and Miliszewsk (2010), hundreds of private primary and secondary schools and other institutions are founded. There are more than 25 private universities that provide education in various specialities. The length of study at the Libyan Universities is a minimum of three or four years, and six-seven years for medical universities, leading to a Bachelor's degree. In terms of teaching staff at universities, Libyan Higher Education relied on expatriates until late 1980s, due to the lack of qualified Libyan nationals. The higher education authority set about planning to train skilled and well qualified staff. Therefore, the authority promoted long term plans of funding university teachers to pursue their postgraduate studies (Master's Degree and PhD) locally and abroad. Consequently, the number of indigenous national staff members increased from 54.5 per cent in 2002 to 76.68 per cent in 2008.

2.6 Postgraduate Studies

Postgraduate students in Libya usually pursue their higher education abroad, especially in some vital areas associated with applied sciences and humanities. However, PhD and Master's Degrees in some fields, such as History, Arabic, and Islamic Studies are available in many Libyan Universities. It is beyond doubt that significant progress has recently been achieved in terms of higher education policies and systems. Al-Fnayish (1998) states that although there were 8013 postgraduate students studying in local universities, the majority's preference is to obtain their qualifications from more advanced countries, for example, the UK, the US and Germany.

The number of scholarships granted to students and teachers in recent years has significantly increased. In 2015, there were approximately 15,000 students studying abroad. More than 3,500 in the UK, 2,000 in Egypt, 1,500 in the USA and 1,150 in Canada (The Department of Scholarships, 2015).

Table 2.3: The Number of Libyan Postgraduates Abroad in 2015

UK	3681	S. Africa	307	Italy	92
Egypt	2078	France	295	Australia	90
Turkey	1533	Serbia	278	Tunisia	87
America	1530	Ireland	217	Indonesia	69
Malaysia	1200	Cyprus	210	Spain	41
Canada	1150	Morocco	135	China	35
Germany	766	Lebanon	108	Sudan	29
Malta	344	India	104	Greece	26

(Source: Department of Scholarships, 2015)

2.7 Challenges in Libyan Higher Education

Libya encounters enormous difficulties as it shifts to democracy and starts the process of shaping a new post-Gaddafi state. In recent years, the economy has grown significantly and the education sector has also seen major changes.

Ayub, et al. (2016, pp.17-18) states that Libyan higher education encounters a number of challenges, the first is to meet the demands for quality performance in higher education and the second, to raise the quality of the graduates. The third is concerning accreditation and quality assurance; the fourth, the financing and governance of higher education organisations; the fifth, the increasing use of information technology and the sixth, the strengthening scientific research in higher education institutions.

One of the most important building blocks of a democratic, technocratic economically successful and socially cohesive society is higher education. While there are opportunities for the improvement of the university education system, there are also hurdles, for instance, unfamiliarity with empirical research, over-reliance on expatriate lecturers, and the under-preparedness of higher education students entering the job-market sector (Elferjani, 2015). Tamtam, et al. (2011, pp. 747-748) give a detailed description of the problems and issues influencing Libyan Universities. Some of these issues include:

- 1- Most programs launched by the institutions of higher learning lack material resources to support them.
 - 2- Lack of strategic planning and sufficiency to plan for the short-term objectives has continued to barrage these institutions seriously compromising short-term educational objectives. Most institutions lack a criterion of selecting leaders, especially academic leaders who can steer and shape the future of the education system.
 - 3- There is a dire lack of development and training programs for faculty members leading to poor participation in such areas further deteriorating the quality of the system.
 - 4- Lack of a concept of quality assurance is nascent in the system. Its impact on the creation and activation of good practices in the educational process is very negative. This has led to poor management of the system and important aspects of the education system in principal.
 - 5- There are notable failures in accountability whereby personal interest overrides those of the institution and state coffers. This is culpable to stifling development of the institutions. Unstable administration and constant change in the regulations and systems of the study programs in the institutions of higher learning make it difficult to develop strategic plans for the same further deteriorating the system capacity and quality.
 - 6- Universities and their administration have failed to establish a relationship with the labour market making learners to be without favour from the job market.
 - 7- Identify areas of research and development to allow the development and proper prioritizing of key areas of studies. Developing and equipping laboratories and libraries to ensure that the education system is fully equipped and backed with relevant information sources rather than subscribing to periodicals and academic journals.
 - 8- Use of traditional methods of learning, such as a focus on the conservation and indoctrination by many universities, which were established long time ago and the lack of use of technology, has continued to affect the quality of education offered.
- In addition, concerning academic staff, a national report (2004) presented three major challenges in choosing university teaching staff:

- 1- Many university teachers are not trained to teach, despite their qualifications and academic skills.
- 2- There is a lack of effective criteria for choosing university teachers while the increase in student enrolments demands more teachers.
- 3- The absence of fixed contracting standards with foreign university teachers resulted in unqualified teachers being employed.

2.8 Summary

This chapter presents the context of Libyan Higher Education and reveals the need for change management in higher education and implementing change in crisis. Libyan strategic visions for education were presented. Libya has been occupied by the Italians, the British and French. However, Islamic principles and values have underpinned the culture. During the colonial period, education was entirely ignored, and therefore, the majority of Libyan parents sent their children to the Quranic schools to learn Arabic and the values of the Holy Quran. The chapter shows the methods of teaching and learning being implemented in the Quranic schools and further the effects of these methods on Libyan students entering universities.

This chapter discusses the education system and located significant progress in education as late as 1959 following the discovery of oil and the social and economic change that ensued. This chapter presents the objectives and challenges of Libyan higher education and how Libyan universities relied on expatriates for many years. In relation to objectives and challenges, it can be argued that staff development and training (despite their qualifications), and staff teaching quality and effectiveness are issues need to be extensively investigated and addressed.

Chapter Three: Literature Review

Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the literature relevant to this study. The review includes four main areas of literature: lecturing in higher education, teaching effectiveness, academic staff development programmes and managing change.

The literature is subdivided into five sections. The first section covers lecturing in higher education, in which lecturing and the purpose of lecturing in higher education are defined and features of effective lecturing are shown. In addition, it presents a brief discussion of socio-cultural theory and behaviourist models of teaching and learning with reference to the Libyan context. The second section is a discussion of the culture of learners and learning in higher education, focusing on learning orientations and conceptions. It also discusses issues that are related to students' motivations and attitudes to learning a second language in Libya. The third is a description of teaching quality and how to evaluate teaching effectiveness. The fourth concentrates on staff development in higher education presenting definitions, methods and elements of staff training and design, and its role in improving staff performance specifically relevant to Libyan higher education institutions. Lastly, this study suggests innovative programmes of professional training and development in the Libyan context and links them to the issue of managing change. For instance, models and approaches to managing change and techniques for managing resistance to change.

3.1 Lecturing as a Teaching Method in Higher Education

This section explores what we know about the term “lecturing” as a teaching tool in many higher education institutions. It also highlights contemporary development in delivering lectures (traditional and modern lecturing).

3.1.1 Traditional Lecturing Method

Lecturing has a long history as an instruction tool employed in many fields beyond education; for example, lecturing in politics is known as oratory or delivering a speech and in churches it is known as sermons. In higher education, lectures have been established for many centuries as a tool of choice. Its origins can be traced to the fifth century pre-Christian Academy and even earlier to Athens, where Plato and his students foregathered. In mediaeval times when manuscripts were rare and expensive, lecturing became established as the major method in university teaching as it made possible communication with large numbers at the lowest cost.

Symonds (2014, p. 1221) states that lecturing is in fact a means by which the speaker intends to teach the audience. He also maintains that “lecturing remains the predominant form of teaching in universities, arguably because it is, from the teacher’s perspective, a time-efficient means of providing information and summarising concepts”. In the literature, the term ‘lecturing’ or ‘lecturing method’ is used interchangeably with “teaching”. ‘Lecturing’ is often used when researchers and writers mainly describing and comparing methods, and the term ‘teaching’ is more often used when discussing processes and outcomes.

Bligh (1998) points out that the traditional lecture or “*formal lecture*” is still used as a method of teaching in the majority of universities and when teaching adults. The primary difference in lectures around the world is the language of instruction. Many argue that there are a number of differences between lectures depending on what is assumed about teachers and listeners in relation to their epistemological position. For example, lectures held in History, Philosophy and Political Studies classes are, to some extent, different to those of Physics, Chemistry and Mathematics. Both require different environment, corpus and tools. In other words, the former relies on describing human behaviours through logic and reason, thus arriving at conclusions through discussions and verbal clarifications. The latter relies on more direct evidence of the senses than on argument, and arrive at conclusions through scientific methods, such as laboratories and mathematical formulas. Laurillard (1997) indicates that today, the traditional lecturing method is modified to meet the learning environment, contemporary technological development and students’ various backgrounds. Lectures are now held in a more sophisticated way due to the recent advancement of teaching techniques and technologies. Information technology (IT) and audio-visual teaching tools assist effective lectures. These technological variations allow for students’ participation.

In Libya, the term “lecturer” refers to staff who teach in higher education institutions. The term “teacher” however, is widely used in schools. It is also well-known in Libyan society that lecturers enjoy more status than school teachers owing to their level of qualification. Libyan university lecturers enjoy better remuneration packages and receive higher social status. University lecturers have basically three main commitments: to teach, to research and to manage.

3.1.2 Purpose of Lecturing

A review of the literature on comparative lecturing methods reveals inconsistencies in the assumed purpose of lecturing methods and their efficacy. There is a consensus that as a

teaching tool, traditional didactic lecturing methods are least effective, and teachers should familiarize themselves with how and when they can be used. Ramsden (2003) believes that lecturing is a highly ineffective method of teaching. Principal among the arguments against lecturing is that it does not actively promote critical-thinking skills or deep learning of the material. However, lecturing encourages surface level knowledge as opposed to deep knowledge. Traditional lecturing has been criticised as a passive method, but is still widely used in teaching (Bligh, 1998). Gow, et al. (1992) criticise the quality of teaching in higher education institutions as over-dependent on one way teaching and learning. Brown and Bakhtar (1988) state that the common weaknesses associated with lecturing were disinterested students, lack of interaction and too large a body of listeners. Many researchers argue that the ineffectiveness was not in the method but rather in the process and aspects of delivery. Beard, et al. (1984) defend lecturing as an effective teaching method. Brown and Atkins (1988) argue that the lecture method is as effective as other methods for presenting or transmitting information and providing explanations to large numbers of students. However, they agreed that it is less effective for promoting and encouraging thought or changing and developing students' attitudes. They also found little evidence that students learn to think as a result of listening to lectures. Schonell (1962) has a similar view. His study found that most students depended mainly on lecture notes with little thinking and effort. Lowman (1987) describes many kinds of lectures: formal oral essays, expository lectures, provocative lectures, lecture demonstration, lecture-discussion and lecture-laboratories, and asks which variant method is best suited to obtaining fruitful results.

Predictably, lecturers themselves seem to favour the lecturing method when teaching in higher education institutions. Brown and Bakhtar (1988, p. 131) state that lecture methods appeal to lecturers because "they like the challenge of thinking and organising lectures, the personal satisfaction of giving a good lecture and helping students to understand".

Lecturing is the most economical method to make new topics available (Bligh, 1998), and some lecturers claim that students are too immature to study independently. Beard, et al. (1984, p. 154) argue that despite students' criticism, many lecturers claim to use the method to cover the syllabus. They also mention that "lecturers claim, in lecturing they can respond to students in a way that teaching aids cannot do, that they are able to show their students how to build up a complex argument or diagram, sharing their enthusiasm for the subject while making reference to recent developments or indicating topics for further inquiry".

The lecture method of teaching or direct instruction method relates to large group teaching. To minimise costs in higher education, classes of a hundred or even more are common in universities and higher institutions in many countries. In the Libyan universities, for instance, lectures are held in large groups of 60-80 students. From my observations at many Libyan universities, lecturing method is the most common style of teaching among lecturers, however, this one-way approach can produce passive learners and result in surface learning rather than deep learning (Greenwood, 2011). Passive teaching methods will lead to minimal understanding by students and eventually they lose interest in their chosen field of study. Therefore, although there are times when lecturing is the most suitable method for passing on knowledge, there is a need to use a variety of instructional strategies that can positively enhance student learning in the Department of English. In the literature, a number of teaching strategies and methods are found. These are:

Case method: a rich narrative method where students are supposed to make a decision or solve a problem, it consists of two main elements, the case itself and the discussion of that case. In case discussion, students must wrestle with the problem at hand rather than reading or hearing from their teachers how it is done. As students engage with the case, they improve their ability to apply the methods and concept of the discipline.

Discussion: in teaching, the term discussion refers to a variety of teaching techniques including think-pair-share, critical debate, and buzz group (Barkley, et al., 2014, p. 104). In this method, the teacher and a group of students can look into a problem, issue, or topic and exchange their views, ideas, experiences and conclusions with one another. The distinct advantages of this method are: first, it enables students to elicit higher levels of thinking, and second, information learned through discussion is retained better than information learned through the lecture method.

Active Learning: Felder & Brent (2009) define active learning as "anything course-related that all students in a class session are called upon to do other than simply watching, listening and taking notes" (p. 2). Active learning as a student-centred method where the responsibility for learning is placed upon the students working with each other. In this method, the lecturer's role is to facilitate, rather than provide knowledge. Through problem-solving exercises, role playing and simulations, students have the opportunity to discuss, listen, read, write and reflect.

Cooperative learning: is sometimes called collaborative learning. In this teaching method, the students of varying levels of ability are structured in groups around the class and each group of students work together to achieve one common goal (Bruffee, 1984). However, it is essential that a lecturer has planned and prepared this method to enable them to form groups, ensure positive interdependence, resolve group conflict and provide suitable tasks.

Integrating Technology in Teaching: integrating technology in classroom teaching is valuable when used appropriately. Many studies assert that using technology in the classroom can extend the learning experience for both learners and teachers. Moreover, it can have a positive impact on students learning for example: a) it can increase students' motivation to learn, (b) it can give students ample opportunity to use electronic communication and integrate computer activities into the regular structure of the lesson for meaningful learning, and c) build valuable skills that will benefit their studies and their career. Thus, lecturers in higher education institutions need a clear understanding of how and why this method can best be implemented in the classroom to deliver their lectures effectively.

Thus, there is a need to evaluate the effectiveness of lecturers and lecturing approaches and styles at universities as it has been emphasized by many researchers that lecturing not focusing on understanding can be counter-productive for the learner (Bligh, 1998).

3.1.3 Features of Effective Lecturing and Teaching

Understanding the elements which affect student learning may improve the teaching and learning processes and assist lecturers in their preparation and planning. Lecturers can employ many teaching techniques, for example, discussion, problem solving and group work with the objective of promoting thinking and understanding in students. Brown and Bakhtar (1988) conducted a study of over 50 subject specialisms classified into arts and humanities, social sciences and engineering and biomedical sciences. Five types/styles of lectures were identified:

a- Oral presenters (18%) - use and concentrate on verbal fluency, and are common among arts and humanities lecturers.

b- Visual presenters (26%) - depend on text, read notes and write on boards, and are popular among science and engineering lecturers.

c- Exemplary presenters (26%) - use a variety of oral and visual techniques and are well-organised, promote understanding, are popular among humanities, social and biomedical sciences.

d- Amorphous presenters (23%) - use a variety of techniques but lack preparation and organisation, do not structure the lecture well, and are popular among science and engineering lecturers.

e- Electric presenters (9%) - use a variety of techniques but are less self-confident, unable to select and structure material for lectures (also called self-doubters).

The list that the “exemplary” lecture is the suitable style for lecturers as it promotes understanding. The other types of lecturing are regarded as less effective and good lecturers concentrate on students’ understanding. Brown and Bakhtar (1988, p. 13) mention four-way analysis from lecturers and students:

1- From lecturers’ perspective, the most common reasons for favouring lectures were:

- personal contentment in giving a good lecture
- intellectual challenge in preparing a lecture
- arousing and stimulating interest in one’s subject
- student responsiveness during a lecture and afterwards
- motivation from having to give a lecture

2- The common reasons for disliking lectures among lecturers were: a) unresponsive audience, b) large groups, c) time and effort required in preparation, d) feeling of disappointment after unsuccessful lecture, and e) lecturing on subject disliked.

3- The most common criticism of lecturers from a students’ perspective were: incoherence, inaudible, neglecting main points, and ineffective blackboard work.

4- The most common criticism of lecturers from lecturers’ views were: a) presenting too much in short time, b) assuming too much knowledge, c) lack in providing summaries/conclusions, d) failure in timing the length of a lecture, and e) not referring when making an aside.

From this description, it can be argued that students rely on lecturers to explain while lecturers expect students to be quiet and attentive. Ineffective lectures are rambling and

discursive and can sap motivation and raise negative attitudes towards learning. Hence, it is the lecturer's objective to teach clearly and motivate students to think deeply and analyse which is one of the ultimate aims of higher education (Brophy, 2013). Teaching effectively is intellectually demanding and requires the lecturer to work hard to explain the topic with the necessary teaching skills. Brown and Atkins (1988, p. 3) state that:

“Most important of all, effective teaching requires the lecturer to consider what the students know, to communicate clearly to them, and to stimulate them to think, communicate, and perhaps in their turn, to stimulate their teachers”

How they present information will partly depend on their views of students' social and traditional values. Teachers should be committed to their profession and students because a committed teacher motivates students to learn and also provides a positive role model. The issue of role modelling is important in the Libyan setting. This study examines teaching and learning practices in the Department of English. Therefore, it might be useful to review the approaches of students learning in a language class and the teaching styles of the instructor, with regard to learning languages in the Libyan context.

3.1.4. Learning Practices in Libya

This section discusses learning practices and the teacher's role in improving students' learning of a second language. Although approaches to second language acquisition are not sufficiently uncontested to recommend a 'best method' of learning English, it is accepted, in 2017, that learning a language is not merely memorizing a set of grammatical rules, and learning is no longer seen simply as a process of habit formation. Nevertheless, learners, and the cognitive processes they engage in are regarded as fundamentally important to the learning process. In the process of modifying and adapting learning strategies in the Libyan classroom, the direction of the trajectory of change is from a behaviourist model which emphasizes learner passivity towards a socio-cultural method which emphasizes collaborative activity as a way of creating new and shared meaning. In the former, the learner is regulated, in the latter; the learner is a participant (Mitchell and Myles, 2004, p. 200).

To evaluate the degree to which lecturers have changed their understanding of how learners learn, we must ask whether any or all of the six lecturers, participating in phase two of this study, have merely tweaked and extended their repertoire of teaching techniques or have they fundamentally changed their understanding of what constitutes 'good teaching'. This is

because the “tips and strategies” approach does not make explicit the theoretical underpinnings of particular skills, and thus “can only be applied mechanically” (Duarte, 2013, p. 1). It is therefore important to take into consideration the “deeper dimensions” of teaching – in other words, the principles informing good teaching practice for effective learning in higher education (Porter and Brophy, 1988, p. 78).

Behaviourists see the learner as a former of habits. The instructor is seen to be of central importance for learning. According to Ellis (2008), “when the instructor insists on repetition, it can become burdensome for the learner” (p. 813). It is not that repetition itself is negative - it can help consolidate what is being learned. Indeed, in relation to unfamiliar lexical items, Ellis defines it as the most recurrent form of second language private speech. The point here is that it is the philosophical framework informing learning strategies, and not the strategy itself, which betrays attitudes towards the learner. For example, in observations of teacher-learner engagement the learner was not given any explanation of the learning process at all. Whereas for collaborative active learning to be successful, in addition to explaining the nuts and bolts procedures of group discussion, teachers were instructed to inform learners about the values of learner participation. This exclusion of the learner from any input into how learning is constructed at university level reveals the behaviourist attitude to the learner, which can be summarised as; learner autonomy is insignificant, learner compliance is central, and is more important to the process than understanding. The degree of control that learners exercise over the discourse is referenced in the literature as a principal factor that determines the quality of learner participation in classroom settings (Ellis, 2008, p. 809). Therefore, it is not surprising that socio-cultural learning theories are designed and developed to prevent learners from being alienated from the content and process of their learning. The evidence from this study indicates no culture of learner involvement in the negotiation of learning practices and consequently learners have developed neither the expectation nor the skills to initiate the process. The influence that learner ownership of how they negotiate learning processes holds on the quality of their education, and especially the depth of financial investment they commit to in developed countries, has seen the movement away from one-way learning methods to student-centred independent learning approaches in both the curriculum and classroom.

Socio-culturalism endows the learner with autonomy, behaviourism associates the learner with a machine-like compliance characteristic of rote learning. The terminology and metaphors associated with the two theories is revealing of the way they perceive the learner. Behaviourism

describes learning as being “shaped”, as if the learner is made of putty (Johnson, 2001, p. 49). Learning draws its message onto a “clean slate” as if the learner is an empty vessel (Johnson, 2001, p. 49). Learners are ‘conditioned’ and learning is ‘reinforced’. In contrast, socio-cultural theory speaks of participation rather than acquisition, emphasizing the taking part in social activity, not the sponge like taking in, or soaking up of knowledge (Ellis, 2008, p. 271). It calls for the learner to be responsible for their learning, perform high levels of task engagement to achieve favourable learning conditions, and in contrast to behaviourism, dismisses “mere compliance” by the learner as unworthy (Mitchell & Myles, 1998, p. 194). The so far unanswered question remains for Libyan learners and the education system in general; are the resources in place, and are Libyan teachers sufficiently open-minded to enable learners to make learning a social activity? Can the learner shift the cultural emphasis from one which discouraged the questioning of orthodoxy and take control to function autonomously and discard the extrinsic motivation linked to punishment for non-compliance?

Socio-cultural theory prioritises the social/cultural context of learning. Ellis (2008, p. 270) states “in socio-cultural theory, there is a close relationship between the learners’ interpersonal activity and activity – reflection, negotiation and resolution - existing within the learners’ mind”. In behaviourism, inter-personal and intra-mental activity are not regarded as important for the learner. Alternatively, he/she is seen as a cipher. The dictionary describes a cipher as having no influence or value.

Socio-cultural theory, defined as “neo-Vygotskyan”, claims that language is a cultural artefact that mediates social and psychological practices (Ellis, 2008, p. 270). To ‘mediate’ means being in a middle position, or to have a relationship with. Unlike behaviourism, socio-cultural theory promotes the inclusion of the individual in the social context, and advocates the role of the learner. Using language as a “tool for thought and through shared social processes and face-to-face interaction, the learner aims to function autonomously, a process described as self-regulation” (Mitchell & Myles, 1998, p. 194). It argues that the learner acquires a language by observation and imitating others, but the learner is basically “a social being” and it is with the collaboration of other social actors that learners improve and develop throughout the learning process. Mohamed (2014) is conscious of past underachievement and attempts to integrate his experience of teaching English in the Libyan classroom with the “latest theoretical and methodological developments” (Mohamed 2014). By emphasizing the use of authentic texts in

the classroom, he aims to enhance the learner's personal experience as part of the learning process and to shift the focus from teacher-centred into student centred learning.

3.1.5 Effective Strategies of Teaching English in Libya

Mohamed (2014) combines his professional experience with up to date methods developments and proposes four strategies to modernise teaching English in Libya. These strategies are: 1) Developing materials for teaching and listening, 2) Teaching reading strategies, 3) Teaching grammar, and 4) Raising students' awareness of their learning strategies.

(1) Developing materials for teaching listening

Mohamed recommends a practical hybrid approach incorporating task based learning, the use of authentic texts and the learner's own personal experiences when designing materials for teaching English to Libyan students based on Morley's three principles of relevance, transferability/applicability and task orientation.

'Relevance' means that the content and outcome of the listening practice should be related to the learner's reality to attract learner attention and provide effective motivational incentive, which encourages them to listen. To adapt this practice to the Libyan teaching context, Mohamed suggests the modification of existing materials or the preparation of new materials to include aspects of life in Libya, such as "social life, environment, music, history, politics and business". Because "successful listening involves the integration of information encoded in the message itself with broader knowledge of the world" (Nunan, 1991, p. 25), aspects that reflect learners' experience can be incorporated into audio clips. These may be descriptions of familiar places in Libya, interviews with celebrated individuals well known people such as football players, or discussions on topics such as the revolution in Libya (Mohamed, 2014, p. 33).

Transferability/applicability refers to choosing listening material and content that reflects the interest of the learner and also prepares him or her to meet the needs of private sector employers by having a real-life application in the job market. To apply this principle to the Libyan situation, listening comprehension should be based on activities and materials that motivate for their entertainment value, video games for example, or topics of social interest such as the recent conflicts in the East of Libya, or matters of topical interest related to current events and the local television news, all of which contain transferable information that students can later use outside the classroom (Mohamed, 2014, p. 33). In addition, descriptive words and phrases, action verbs,

language patterns, place names, time-telling patterns, polite expressions, and jargon terms. In other words, the content must be very close to the learner's reality to motivate the learner to listen (Morley, 2002, p. 77). The third principle, "task orientation" supports task-oriented teaching which provides real meaning by focusing on language-use tasks and language-analysis tasks mediated through language.

According to Morley (2002), in language-analysis tasks, learners are given an opportunity to analyse specific aspects of language structure and use, with the purpose of developing personal strategies for learning. For Libyan students, these tasks could take the form of listening and performing simple actions (e.g. seeking directions, making purchases, sitting down), listening and performing operations (e.g. going to the bank, talking to a tourist) listening and solving problems (correct a linguistic structure), and listening and transcribing (writing idioms, technical terms). Thus, "listening activities based on real or simulated real-life situations are likely to be more motivating and interesting than contrived textbook comprehension exercises" (Mohamed, 2014, p. 33). Language-analysis tasks can be used through activities, which include analysis of parts of real public speeches, academic discussions, and political debates on issues of contemporary interest. The aim is to identify features of speech (e.g. tone, stress and intonation), analyse utterances (statement, request, command, or exclamation), describe sociolinguistic aspects (dialect, register), and analyse communicative strategies (e.g. paraphrasing, use of loan words) in ways that are enjoyable and therefore raise interest (Mohamed, 2014, p. 33). These strategies can be adapted to satisfy different language levels such as beginner, and intermediate levels.

(2) Teaching reading strategies

In the literature, the significance of teaching reading strategies to English learners is widely discussed. Based on his experience teaching English in Libyan universities, Mohamed (2014) suggests three effective strategies for teaching reading skills: 1) reading strategies must be taught over the whole academic year to embed learner centred instruction within the curriculum, 2) teachers should provide opportunities for students to practice strategies they have been taught, and 3) teachers must allow students to teach each other about reading. He suggests that the teaching of various reading techniques, such as scanning, skimming, and note-taking will enhance students' competence in reading. Reading strategies should be carried out over an entire academic year, and not included in just one lesson or in one section. Therefore, for learners to comprehend different types of texts (e.g. descriptive, narrative and

argumentative passages), reading strategies should be taught over an extended period. By engaging them, for example, in intensive and extensive reading, students are given opportunities to increase their mastery of these strategies. Intensive reading, involves students in reading comprehension texts from their course book, or from supplementary reading materials. In extensive reading, students choose reading materials based on personal interest and appeal (Mohamed, 2014). Meanwhile, students develop essential reading techniques such as scanning, skimming, and note-taking. The third strategy suggested by Mohamed is that teachers of English must encourage students to teach and to learn from each other. He argues that classmates especially friends, can teach each other how to use a dictionary, how to summarise a text and share ideas about reading strategies with less successful students through classroom interactions.

(3) Teaching grammar

In the Libyan context, to increase students' understanding of grammatical forms and their meanings, students can be encouraged to work in small groups in which they have to choose the correct tense and establish how verbs change according to the subject, tense and verb type – regular or irregular verb. Then, students are encouraged to work in large groups to discuss their answers and how some grammatical structures are formed. Students are then in a better position to learn grammatical structures through interacting with their classmates in more participatory learning environments (Mohamed, 2014).

(4) Raising students' awareness of their learning strategies

Explaining and discussing students' learning is integral to learning effectiveness. To improve students' learning experience, teachers should help them “learn to think about what happens during the language learning process, which will help them to develop stronger learning skills” (Anderson, 2002, p. 3). Mohamed (2014) recommends raising awareness of learning strategies to help students improve their learning skills while taking learning differences into consideration when planning lessons, and using a variety of teaching methods and activities. Anderson (2002, p. 3) states that “learners who are meta cognitively aware know what to do when they don't know what to do; that is, they have strategies for finding out or figuring out what they need to do”. To help students understand their learning approaches, teachers need to identify students' learning strategies they know and use, and the learning strategies they know but do not use. Regarding the learning strategies which students know and use, teachers

can help them increase their awareness of learning objectives. Mohamed (2014) states that in the Libyan context of teaching English, teachers should encourage students to use more than one learning strategy in the course of a lesson. For example, the use of “contextual clues” to improve students understanding of lexis or a text. To assist them to identify their learning approaches, teachers must observe students’ performance and assess progression in their learning. The fifth issue, ‘teachers’ professional development’ is further discussed further in section 3.4.

3.2 Learners in Higher Education

This section discusses learning in higher education, including students’ learning orientations, learning conceptions, and students’ motivation towards learning a second language.

3.2.1 Learning Orientations in Higher Education

Students decide to enter higher education for various reasons; some scholars argue that there are two prominent motives or “educational orientations” for students undertaking courses in higher education. For example, in their extensive study and interviews with students, (Gibbs, et al.,1984) found two motives for learning which influence both the degree and the nature of the effort invested in learning and study. These motives are: 1) for intellectual development, and 2) to obtain a good job and salary. However, more recently, Kember, Ho, and Hong (2010), using a motivational orientation framework, found six distinct motives or educational orientation for university entry: compliance; individual goal; university lifestyle; sense of belonging, career and interest. The compliance reflects an unquestioning attitude by students that it is normal or expected to proceed to university after school. Individual goal relates to a personal desire by students to take their education as far as they can. The university lifestyle facet encompasses students who are attracted to higher education so that they can take part in the various social and sporting activities. The sense of belonging aspect of motivation refers to the influence of parents, teachers and peers on students’ decision to enrol at university. The career dimension reflects the desire to go to university to satisfy particular profession aspirations. Lastly, the interest factor indicates the desire to proceed to university in order to pursue a personal interest in a particular discipline or profession.

In the Libyan context where this study is carried out, no research has been conducted to explore the issues concerning the way Libyan students decide and choose subjects to study at higher education institutions. However, according to Bait-Almal (2012), subject choice is

significant in Libya because there is a general social and cultural belief that some disciplines, such as Engineering, ITC studies, and English, not only guarantee graduates future jobs, but they are also admirable. Therefore, by studying these programmes, students gain prestige. He also finds that students' desire to obtain a qualification that will lead to a profession securing a comfortable future and social prestige is the main motivation for the investment in several years of post-compulsory education study (ibid., 2012). In addition, the fact that in Libya all public university education is totally free, is a direct influence on students' choice to remain in education for seven years, as for instance, is required for Medicine.

3.2.2 Learning Conceptions in Higher Education

Currently, universities pursue an open education policy and the notion of lifelong learning. Students who enter higher education come from different socio-economic backgrounds, beliefs and customs and each develops a different learning experience. In his study, Saljo (1979) interviews a number of learners who were asked to explain what they understand by "learning". A sequence of different beliefs about learning was found. He referred to these different beliefs as "conceptions of learning".

Four groups basically were behind the structure of research on understanding students' learning. Those include, in Sweden (Marton and his colleagues) in the USA, (McKeachie and his colleagues) in the UK, (Entwistle and his colleagues), and in Australia (Biggs, Ramsden, and their colleagues). Those scholars essentially provided rich information describing the various approaches taken by students to learning tasks in the west. Saljo (1979) who is frequently cited by researchers, identifies five conceptions of learning which he relates to levels of processing. These conceptions are:

- 1- learning as quantitative increase in knowledge
- 2- learning as memorizing and reproducing
- 3- learning as acquisition of facts, procedures, etc. which can be trained and/or utilised in practice
- 4- learning as abstraction of meaning, and
- 5- learning as an interpretative process focusing on understanding reality

Saljo states that levels 1 to 3 relate to a surface approach to learning, while levels 4 and 5 relate to a deeper learning approach. These conceptions are also emphasized by Van Rossum, et al. (1984). In 1989, Beaty, et al. interviewed adult students and found a similar

hierarchy of conceptions of learning, and then suggested a sixth conception: “learning as a person”. They created a model from Concept (1) to Concept (6) as illustrated in table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Conceptions of Learning

Producing	Transforming
1. Increasing one’s knowledge	4. Developing an initial understanding
2. Memorizing and reproducing	5. Transforming one’s understanding
3. Acquisition of facts for subsequent use	6. Improving as a person

Two major conceptions of learning were identified: surface and deep, in other words reproducing and transforming. Research shows a clear distinction between learning as requiring reproduction of information given and learning as transformation of information required by students.

Table 3.2: Approaches to Learning

<p>1. Surface Approach/ Reproduction</p> <p>Aim: to fulfil course requirements by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • studying without considering either strategy or purpose • assuming course as unrelated pieces of knowledge • memorizing facts and procedures regularly • encountering difficulties in grasping new ideas presented • excessive pressure and concern with work <p>2. Deep Approach/Transforming</p> <p>Aim: to understand ideas for yourself by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • connecting new ideas to previous knowledge • searching for patterns and underlying principles • testing logic and argument carefully and critically • becoming interested in the topics of the course

3. Strategic Approach/ Organising

Aim: to obtain the best possible grades by:

- exerting more efforts on studying
- recognising the suitable conditions and materials for studying
- being aware of assessment requirements and criteria
- preparing work to the perceived preferences and lecturers
- managing time and effort effectively

Marton, et al. (1984) found variation in levels of learner understanding related to adoption of either a deep or surface learning method, and those using surface level processing reflected a reproductive orientation.

Entwistle (1990) associated a deep approach with a sophisticated conception of learning directed at building personalised understanding of information. However, surface approach is associated with memorization directed at fulfilling course requirements. Entwistle (*ibid.*, p. 19) summarises these approaches to learning in table 3.2. Entwistle (1997) uses three terms to describe learning processes: (a) surface, (b) deep, and (c) strategic. In the literature, surface learners often concentrate on the teacher's main point, and reproducing the main facts because they treat materials, lectures, and lecture notes as a body of knowledge that must be memorized for recall and reproduction. On the other hand, deep learners acquire the knowledge by exploring it beyond the main point, "students' main intention is to understand the meaning" Haggis (2003, p. 90). Deep learners actively interact with the material and tend to think critically about the contents. Lastly, strategic approach to learning is distinguished by learners' intentions to achieve the highest grades (Entwistle, 2000). With the process depending on effective study methods, such as study skills and time management, students reflect back and evaluate their own learning effectiveness. Entwistle (*ibid.*) draws a distinction between deep and strategic approaches. He claims that while students' high academic achievement is typical of deep approaches but the preoccupation with assessment is certainly strategic indicating that this is a totally separate approach.

Table 3.2 shows the characteristics of the three approaches to learning. It can be noticed that both surface and deep approaches to learning did not focus on assessment. However, the impact of assessment was noticeable in the strategic approach. According to Dart and Clarke

(1991) learners adopting strategic approach can definitely combine deep and surface approaches in order to accomplish their goals.

In reviewing the literature on higher education, three main factors were repeatedly mentioned to influence learning. These factors are as follows:

(a) Context of learning

Marton, et al. (1997) state that when learners were asked to do a task, the way they attempted that task was affected by the reasons why they took the course and by what they thought as learning required by the course. Marton highlight that students had various intentions “reasons” which were related to how they went about learning and the quality of learning they experienced (ibid., 1997).

(b) Assessment of student learning

A number of studies on the influences of assessment on the student learning have been conducted. For example, Entwistle and Ramsden (1983) state that the nature of assessment influenced students’ approach to learning tasks. Entwistle and Tait (1990) also have a similar idea that there is a link between assessment which emphasized factual information and a surface approach. Assessment may emphasize particular aspects of learning which will play a vital role in developing students’ attitudes towards learning. For instance, if the rewards come from the correct recall of information, then this will affect the learner’s attitudes towards learning. Understanding, critical thought, analysis, application of ideas may be devalued in the mind of the learner and this will influence future learning.

(c) Teaching method

The way lecturers teach plays a vital role in learning experiences. The quality of teaching and the attitude of teachers can noticeably influence students in their learning approach (Entwistle and Ramsden, 1983). Moreover, when students are not given the opportunity to select course units and assignments, they are found to employ reproducing orientation.

3.2.3 Students’ Motivation and Attitudes to Learning a Second Language

Motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate learning a second language and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process; indeed, all the other factors involved in second language acquisition presuppose motivation to some extent

(Dornyei, 2002). The multifaceted nature of motivation to learn a second language and the different roles of language make it a complex issue. Dornyei (2002) describes three fundamental roles; language is at the same time: (a) a communication coding system taught at school; (b) an “integral part of the individual’s identity involved in almost all mental activities”; and also (c) the “most important channel of social organisation embedded in the culture of the community where it is used”. Apart from students’ motivation to learn English, a separate but linked concept causing under-achievement in learning is a students’ attitude towards English as a second language (Youssef, 2012). Students in Libya lack the required motivation that should be extended in learning another language. Setting aside the lack of resources, the drive to learn is too often based on extrinsic motivation. Youssef argues that “the relations of Libya and the West have been a continuing de-motivating factor” and American and other super-power targeting of Muslim countries has compromised motivation to learn English as a second language, although this attitude may be more characteristic of older than younger generations.

The traditional psychological treatment of individual differences - for example the difference between integrative and instrumental motivation - sees them as stable traits responsible for individual learning and performance. Gardner (2001) views motivation as something unchanging during the learning task and did not adequately allow for the possibility that intrinsic interest could be developed in the process. Gardner and Lambert’s (1972) cited in Mahadi and Jafari (2012), perception of motivations relies on a distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation. Instrumental motivation is identified by the passion to acquire more knowledge from the study of another language. It associates the aim of learning a second language to utilitarian elements, for example, college graduation, career or gaining social position.

The integratively motivated student identifies with another language community, and often holds optimistic views of the learning environment. It is not that integrative motivation confers, by a magical process or even by simple enthusiasm, more fluency on the second language learner. Conversely, “its effect is mediated by the learning behaviours it instigates and it is regarded as more influential than instrumental motivation” (Ellis, 2008, p. 680). In the literature, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are widely discussed. According to Ellis (2008) intrinsic motivation “engages in an activity because it is enjoyable” and extrinsic motivation is linked to the “achievement of an instrumental end” such as passing an

examination or pleasing family members. In the Libyan context, this study identifies learners entering universities in order to achieve a higher qualification and secure a job.

3.2.3.1 Implications for Language Learning

According to Dornyei (2002), students who have positive appraisal of their language course may be influenced in how they approach learning tasks in lessons, regardless of their attitudes towards the actual task. Similarly, students with a negative appraisal of their language course are less likely to engage enthusiastically with their lessons. These assertions make clear several aspects of motivation among learners of English. Although language learning is “motivated behaviour”, motives will rise and fall in influence, and several will operate at any given time (MacIntyre, 2002, p. 67).

Dornyei’s process model states, for example, that attribution theory “how learners evaluate and explain their progress or lack of it” is among several elements causing motivation to change while learning a second language (Ellis, 2008, p. 688). Dornyei’s model is based on three stages of motivation: a pre-actional stage related to orientation, an actional stage influenced by the quality of the learning experience and a post-actional stage involving retrospective evaluation. Students’ beliefs are believed to be situation specific and dynamic. Therefore, the appeal of the process oriented approach is that it accounts for ongoing changes over time and “emphasizes the dynamic nature and temporal variation of learner motivation” (Ellis, 2008, p. 677).

Attribution theory claims that “the subjective explanations of our past successes and failures shape our motivational disposition to future action” (Ellis, 2008, p. 684). It is not difficult to attribute remarkable achievements to individual ability. But attributing negative results to temporary shortcomings which can be overcome is more difficult. Attribution theory states that the way humans explain their own past successes and failures will significantly affect their future achievement behaviour. For example, failure that is ascribed to stable and uncontrollable factors such as low ability decreases the expectation of future success more than failure that is ascribed to controllable factors such as effort (Weiner, 1979). However, a positive element of attribution theory is that those attributing their own past failures to the legacy of psychological conditioning and of corruption and nepotism associated with the old regime will, over time, be able to look to a brighter future in which merit is rewarded.

A well-known maxim in English is ‘nothing succeeds like success’. Most of us can easily identify with self-efficacy theory. It refers to our judgement of our capacity to achieve certain specific tasks. Our sense of efficacy determines our choice of the activities we attempt, the extent of our aspirations and the amount of effort and persistence we invest in those activities. A low sense of self-efficacy in a given sphere perceives difficult tasks as personal threats; dwelling on our own personal failures and the impediments we encounter rather than concentrating on how we can successfully perform a given task.

The extent of support we receive from the community - parents, teachers and educational stakeholders - are all elements in the motivational mix which encourage students to learn English as a second language and thereby open opportunities to participate more widely in what the educational set-up offers (Jameson, 2007). Omar (2014) maintains that Libyan students do not receive strong familial support in the sense that parents or interested parties do not regularly solicit information from teachers about their academic progress nor do they intervene to pressurise authorities when learners are underperforming. The social networks which build aspiration and establish prestige are universal, and shared by most cultures. They include the home, the wider community, school and occupation, ethnic group place of worship and terrestrial and social media. In Libya, only schools can be relied upon to act as community based support for learners.

Attitude is an important concept because it plays a key role in language learning and teaching. A successful learner possesses positive attitudes towards the target language. There is a consensus that positive motivation and attitudes towards a language, its culture and people assist in language acquisition. Chalak and Kassaian (2010) claim that "teachers, learners and researchers all agree that a high motivation and a positive attitude towards a second language and its community help second language learning". There are some reasons why Libyan learners of English may lack positive attitudes towards the target language. Youssef refers to the 30 per cent of Libyan students who are not interested in the study of English because they are sure to get employment and “live lively with knowledge of the Arabic language” (Youssef, 2012). He does not say why “they are sure to get employment and ‘live lively’ “by relying solely upon Arabic”, although it may reflect a sense of entitlement based on nepotism, an inherited sense of wealth and power, an inward-looking sense of national pride, learners’ set of beliefs about the target language culture and the learners' own culture or the habit of dependence on state largesse in place since oil revenues began to fund the Libyan economy in the early 1960s. The fact that this sense of learner

complacency is held by a minority is revealing in itself. Were the majority to hold such beliefs, the prospect of Libya's emergence as a modern country competing for resources in a globalised market would be diminished.

If as the literature suggests, the type of the task students perform influences the quality of their participation, and if task motivation is co-constructed by the task participants (Ellis, 2008, p. 809), then it follows that how English lessons can be made interesting, and how, where possible, creative activities can be assimilated into learning tasks should become a topic for teacher/student negotiation and classroom discussion (Dornyei, 2002, p.156). The implementation of situation-specific task motivation is associated with and influenced by the design of stimulating and relevant tasks. Lecturers must encourage student-centred learning and give students autonomy to make decisions. However, in a culture such as Libya that lacks a developed sense of learner autonomy and does not promote individualism, it is the responsibility of teachers, and also a challenge to them, to remember that helping students to keep a positive social image, while having to perform anxiety inducing speaking and listening tasks with a limited language code, is essential to their confidence.

MacIntyre (2002, p. 65) claims that anxiety can be crucial in generating individual differences in language achievement. In common with other motivational factors, "anxiety contributes in differing degrees in different learners, depending on motivational orientation and personality" (Ellis, 2008, p. 697).

For instance, for strong pedagogical reasons, Dornyei points out that "the most important specification for a task is the identification of its boundaries" (2001, p.139). But students may tend to prefer easily followed information provided by their teacher. In this study, nearly half of students surveyed state that their preference in learning is to follow their teachers' instructions and they are not motivated to seek extra information independently. Kuhl claims that lecturers must engage their students and encourage them to participate in more challenging activities by responding attentively and with encouragement, but "only after students have first expressed a sense of difficulty" (Kuhl, 2000, p. 691). Kuhl suggests that lecturers must introduce difficulty awareness. For example, "before initiating a difficult segment of curriculum, the teacher can explain to students that this work will be harder than usual, and try to generate some positive feelings to counterbalance the expected drop in positive affect" (ibid., p. 691).

Kuhl maintains that teachers can play a vital role in enhancing learners' confidence to come back from negative influence related to failure experiences and think instead, "what benefits could this experience have for me?". Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation by providing supportive and constructive feedback can certainly improve learners' satisfaction. A cooperative rather than a competitive classroom reward and goal structure is desirable.

A central tenet of this study is supported by anecdotal evidence and the literature, which states clearly that student motivation is directly associated with the teacher's influence. Therefore, any interventions to change goal oriented "maladaptive motivation must begin with attention to students' social and emotional needs" (Wentzel, 1999, p. 80). Nevertheless, in the high student-teacher ratios associated with Libyan conditions, this can be demanding and requires planning and considerable time. It is not easy for students to raise their doubts and their lack of motivation, whether openly in the classroom or in personal conversation. It will not be easy for the teacher to accept criticism any more than it is only for the learner to expose themselves, but it might be helpful for all involved in the classroom practices to engage in an open discussion. Certainly, there are students who lack the ability to express their views and opinions in a public forum, and may feel challenged by the demands of a different culture. It is well established that students favour clarity, fairness and legitimate praise from their teachers. Their limited understanding of the second language may increase their anxiety at ambiguity and may be linked to their desire for clear instructions. But with regard to motivation, the difficulty in learning a second language and comprehend abstract linguistic theories is often complicated by cultural and social boundaries to the appearance of questioning authority. In this study, 44% of the 332 surveyed students say they only abide by the knowledge and content provided by their teachers and therefore, they rarely seek information from different resources. This acceptance stems from students' belief that this is unnecessary or unacceptable behaviour of questioning their teachers' capabilities. The following sections will elaborate teaching quality and how it can be measured.

3.3 Teaching Effectiveness

Research has consistently shown that teaching effectiveness is related to student academic achievement. The combination of population growth and free university education in Libya has put considerable pressure on education delivery. The term good teaching or teaching effectiveness in higher education implies a value judgement and is therefore, a "contested concept" with "varying definitions" (Trigwell, 2001). It is not easy to give a precise

definition for effective teaching as we do not know what exactly constitutes effective teaching. However, various studies conclude that research can assist with a formulation of what elements constitute good teaching. Ramsden, et al. (1995) and Light & Cox (2001) point out that effective teaching must provide a learning environment which supports learners to absorb knowledge as critical thinkers. Similarly, Barnett (2000) describes teaching effectiveness as a teaching and learning method that enables students to be prepared for the unpredictability, uncertainty and super-complexity which constitutes the world that awaits after university. So, the commitment of lecturers to their practice becomes an integral part of their profession. The primary objective of lecturers is to provide students with knowledge that they did not previously possess and enable them to find their own path and face challenges in the post university environment. Ramsden, et al. (1995) propose in the Teaching Professor elements of the practices that contribute to making a good teacher.

First, good teachers who are good learners learn through their own reading by participating in a variety of professional development activities, by listening to their students, by sharing ideas with their colleagues, and by reflecting on classroom interactions and students' achievements. Good teaching is therefore, dynamic, reflective and constantly evolving. Second, good teachers display enthusiasm for their subject and a desire to share it with their students. Third, good teachers know how to modify their teaching strategies according to the particular students, subject matter, and learning environment. Fourth, good teachers encourage learning for understanding and are connected with developing their students' critical thinking skills, problem-solving skills, and problem-approach behaviours. Fifth, good teachers demonstrate an ability to transform and extend knowledge, rather than merely transmitting it. Lastly, good teachers show respect for their students; they are interested in both their professional and their personal growth, encouraging their independence and sustain high expectations of them.

Hativa, et al. (2001, pp. 701-702) suggest four main dimensions of effective teaching: interest; clarity; organisation; and positive classroom climate. They describe several characteristics of effective teaching and classroom teaching behaviours, some of which appear to overlap: "exemplary university teachers are well prepared and organised, present the material clearly, stimulate students' interest, engagement and motivation in studying the material through their enthusiasm/expressiveness, have positive rapport with students, show high expectations of them, encourage them, and generally maintain a positive classroom environment".

Kember & McNaught (2007) identify ten principles of effective teaching and base their findings on a clear methodology. Forty-four teachers from Australia, nominated by their university as exemplary teachers, and a set of eighteen award-winning teachers from Hong Kong were interviewed. All of them were asked about their teaching practices. Their answers were rigorously analysed and a range of shared teaching principles were derived. These principles are:

- 1- Teaching and curriculum design need to be focused on meeting students' needs by implying the development in students of several generic capabilities, for example, critical thinking, team work and communication skills.
- 2- Students must have a thorough understanding of fundamental concepts even if that leads to less content being covered.
- 3- Establish the relevance of what is taught by using real-life, current and local examples, and by relating theory to practice.
- 4- Students' beliefs must be challenged in order to establish appropriate ways of learning and beliefs, and to deal with misconceptions of fundamental concepts.
- 5- In order that meaningful learning takes place, a variety of learning tasks must occur to engage students. Discussion for example, is one of the important learning activities that must be promoted.
- 6- Genuine and empathetic relationship with individual student must be properly established to secure successful interaction with them.
- 7- Teachers must be aware of the need to motivate students. Motivation comes through encouraging students, teacher's enthusiasm, enjoyable classes, relative material, and a variety of active learning approaches.
- 8- Curriculum designs and planning programmes must ensure that aims, fundamental concepts, learning activities and assessment are consistent with achieving learning outcomes related to future needs.
- 9- Lessons must be effectively planned but flexible so that appropriate adaption can be made in the light of feedback obtained in class.
- 10- Assessment must be consistent with the desired learning outcomes and should therefore be authentic tasks for the discipline or profession.

This section presents views on the teacher's role, attitude, behaviour, and activities which a teacher can employ to promote effective teaching and learning. Many writers (Ramsden, et al. 1995; Ramsden, 2003; Kember & McNaught, 2007; Kyriacou, 2009) place teachers as the

predominant factor in the success of teaching and learning process. For example, Kyriacou (2014) mentions that “effective teaching is primarily concerned with setting up a learning activity for each pupil which is successful in bringing about the type of learning the teacher intends” (p. 1).

The concept of teaching effectiveness has been widely discussed by researchers and various views and claims were suggested. It does not follow that, once a consensus is reached on its constituent qualities, good teaching can be implemented by the flicking of a switch. People change, fashions change, expectations change and notions of good teaching change. That is why continual reflection on teaching processes is required and why a commitment to fostering independent and lifelong learning skills is a guarantor that a teacher will not become stranded on the tide of generational change. A conscientious and well informed Libyan teacher can maintain high standards by providing constructive feedback to students and attempt to design a relevant curriculum that aligns learning outcomes with teaching methods and assessments. Good teaching is context and value bound - it does not exist in a vacuum and its impact is likely to be diluted by high pupil - teacher ratios and under resourced classrooms. Another important aspect is the considerable change taking place in today’s education which may have a negative impact on the teacher’s capabilities to perform to their maximum potential, and “unless profound attention is paid to the processes of teacher development that accompany these innovations” (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 11). Change may involve two aspects in education; first, teachers need to acquire new teaching methods and techniques for various purposes, and appropriate assessment procedures that fit with each method. Second, there are a lot of technology tools and teaching applications that can be incorporated in universities to facilitate work and foster interaction. Teachers need to learn about these technologies in the context of their subject matter and pedagogy.

Thus, it can be argued from the description above that university academic staff need to be professionally developed and trained continuously, in order to equip them with knowledge and skills of effective teaching to promote teaching and education in higher education institutions.

3.3.1 Evaluation of Teaching Effectiveness

The ultimate aim of evaluating teaching effectiveness in universities is to improve teaching quality and learning outcomes. Teaching evaluation programmes mainly aim at assessing the quality of classroom teaching. However, as teaching involves other activities additional to

classroom instruction, teaching evaluation has to include more than classroom performance. The literature on the efficacy of employing multiple evaluation methods is equivocal. For example, Seldin (2006) asserts that the most effective teaching evaluation programs will use multiple evaluators (student, peers, administrators, and alumni). Canale and Herdklotz (2012) studied 30 colleges in the USA to find evidence for their teaching evaluation practices. The study found that “the most common teaching evaluations outside of student surveys include: peer evaluations (done by a colleague or senior faculty), classroom observation (third party), small group instructional diagnosis, and use of the teaching portfolio” (p. 3). Also, Salsali (2005) conducted a study to investigate the perceptions of nursing educators and students in Iran with respect to actual and preferred evaluation methods. The study found that academic staff preferred self-evaluation and students prefer student evaluation. However, both teachers and students perceived that performance observation, student achievement and rating scales were the most common current evaluation practices in their institution. Many researchers indicate a number of teaching aspects which can be included in teaching evaluation programmes (Cashin, 1989; Felder & Brent, 2004; Berk, 2005). These aspects for example, the quality, amount and level of classroom instruction, curricula improvement e.g. new textbooks and classroom materials, assessing students’ performance.

Thus, to ensure evaluating teaching aspects mentioned above, Cashin (1995) states that in order to carry out thorough and fruitful assessment programmes, these different aspects are best evaluated by different stakeholders. Stakeholders may include:

- Self
- Students
- Peers
- Expert

1- Self-evaluation

One of the most important tools of teaching assessment for many reasons. First, it helps improve teacher’s educational experiences they provide to their students. Second, it assists teachers to identify their professional and educational needs to further develop and improve their capacity to perform their duties. Third, it helps assist teachers’ readiness to apply for promotion and/or tenure. Hence, as teachers become able to identify their needs, they can then consider what other source of evaluation suits them.

2- Students Evaluation of Teaching

Research shows that student evaluation of teaching is reliable and valid in that it is relatively free of bias and, to an extent, agree with evaluations made by other observers. Students are able to provide balanced insights in terms what enhanced their learning and what impeded them. According to Theall and Franklin (2001), students are the most qualified sources to report on the extent to which the learning experience is productive, informative, satisfying, or worthwhile. While opinions on these matters are not direct measures of instructor or course effectiveness, they are legitimate indicators of student satisfaction, and there is substantial research linking student satisfaction to effective teaching (p. 49).

Research shows that students' rating of teaching has a high level of validity. Felder & Brent (2004) argue that students are best placed to assess particular facets of teaching. For instance, students will have firm views on the appeal and efficacy of teaching styles and behaviours and, amongst their peer group, will rate particular individuals for clarity, interest, and fairness. Students can also tell how a teacher has influenced their attitude towards a course subject, their enthusiasm to learn and their self-confidence. Felder & Brent caution that relying solely on student ratings cannot accurately demonstrate other facets of teaching quality, for example whether a course is up-to-date, and content and learning aims are germane to the course's intended role in the department. In this case, only staff members and/or educational experts are equipped to make such assessments (p. 200).

Centra et al. quoted in Cashin (1995) identified six aspects of teaching which students are competent to rate. These are; (1) course organisation and planning, (2) clarity and communication skills, (3) teacher student interaction- rapport, (4) course difficulty-workload, (5) grading and examinations, and (6) student self-rated learning (p. 1).

Furthermore, research has shown that teachers and students have different values on different dimensions of teaching. For example: students place great emphasis on stimulation of their interest, and clarity and organisation. Teachers put more focus on enabling students' independence, providing intellectual challenge, and encouraging students. However, both teachers and students agree on: (1) teacher's respect for their students, (2) quality for course material employed, (3) the quality of feedback to students, and (4) engaging students in classroom discussions.

3- Peer Evaluation of Teaching

Peer review/evaluation involves a process of collegial feedback on the effectiveness of teaching processes. The process of peer review is often reciprocal so that no one individual may come to feel victimised by having excessive criticism directed at them. Being the target for the critical judgement of one's peers is acceptable to teachers because reciprocity guarantees turn-taking; the subject of today's peer review will tomorrow become an empathetic critical reviewer. In addition to its democratic quality, peer review is an empathetic process because it is based on observation of teaching practice. Critics are therefore well informed about which particular areas of teaching present the greatest challenges to the inexperienced, and are unlikely to rush to judgment or deliver harsh criticisms concerning processes they themselves have overcome through dedication and trial and error. Peer evaluation is a reliable source of information about different aspects of teaching. These aspects, for example, include the coherence and design of teaching approaches, the effectiveness of planning and preparation for teaching, and the teacher's ability to review and develop their teaching practices.

4- Expert Evaluation of Teaching

Experts' assessment of teaching quality is necessary to evaluate the appropriateness of teachers' content in both scope and depth. Moreover, to assess whether teaching skills are germane to the demands of their field. Experts often carry out their assessments through different approaches, such as: surveys, questionnaires, focus group and observation feedback.

From the literature, a few studies which conducted teacher performance evaluation in Libya were found. For example, Alhmali (2007) surveyed the educational experience of Libyan students in terms of their attitudes and perceptions. However, there has been little research on student evaluation of teaching in Libyan higher education. This instrument is not used in Libyan universities because there is a lack of a systematic teacher evaluation programmes and the issue of performance evaluation in a conservative society is sensitive.

3.3.2 Objectives of Teaching Evaluation

The lack of teaching assessment is a concern in Libyan higher education institutions because measuring and evaluating performance provides opportunities to identify professional weaknesses and improve standards. Teaching assessment has a great impact on students' learning and achievement. Goldhaber (2009, p. 2) states that "the effect of increases in teacher quality swamps the impact of any other educational investment, such as reductions in class size".

In the literature, teacher evaluation has two broad objectives. First, it aims at improving the teacher's own performance by establishing strengths and weaknesses for further development - the improvement function. Second, teacher evaluation seeks to maintain best delivery in order to increase students' learning – the accountability function. Teacher assessment for improvement involves providing sufficient support and feedback to improve teaching practices, namely through development programmes. These programmes allow teachers to learn about, reflect on, and develop their classroom performance. The process of teacher evaluation activities takes place within the institution context, so staff development opportunities are aligned with the organisation's development scheme. However, the accountability function of teacher assessment holds teachers accountable for their practices by rating them to a series of consequences for their profession. It sets incentives for teachers to deliver at their best (Santiago, et al., 2009). It entails performance-based career advancement and salaries, or perhaps sanctions for underperformance.

Many authors emphasized that the application of both improvement and accountability functions in a single teacher evaluation process pose significant difficulties. Teachers' willingness to reveal their weaknesses increases when the evaluation is conducted towards the performance development within the institution; in the expectation that disclosing information will develop useful changes in terms of improvement needs and training. But teachers tend to hide their weaknesses when confronted with potential consequences of evaluation of their career and income. Therefore, achieving performance development through accountability creates tension. A focus on accountability may lead teachers to become insecure and their appreciation of their work declines (OECD, 2009b). By contrast, Avalos and Assael (2006) state that teachers anticipate opportunities of social recognition of their work and opportunities for performance improvement through the use of a formative approach of teacher assessment.

Teacher evaluation for improvement may benefit from conditions such as:

- (a) A non-threatening evaluation context.
- (b) A culture of mutually providing and receiving feedback.
- (c) Clear individual and collective objectives with regard to improving teaching within the school as well as a sharing of school objectives.
- (d) Simple evaluation instruments such as self-evaluation forms, classroom observation, and structured interviews.

- (e) A supportive school leadership.
- (f) Opportunities to enhance competencies as well as resources and means to improve practice
- (g) Teacher evaluation integrated in a system of school self-evaluation and quality assurance.

Conversely, teacher evaluation for accountability may benefit from conditions such as:

- a) An independent and objective assessment of the teacher's performance.
- b) National-level standards and criteria across schools.
- c) An evaluation component external to the school and more formal processes.
- d) Well-established rules regarding the consequences of the evaluation.
- e) Clear individual objectives with regard to all aspects of a teacher's performance.
- f) Well-trained, competent evaluators of teaching performance.
- g) Impact on professional development plan.
- h) Possibilities for appeal for teachers who feel they have not been treated fairly.

(Santiago, et al., 2009)

In Libya, the Inspectorate Department, a division of the Ministry of Education, plays an important role in monitoring and evaluating teacher performance mainly in middle and high schools. Its role is to enhance and strengthen the quality of teachers and schools. Inspectors act as evaluators and provide mentoring to teachers and school administrators, (El Hassan and Al-Hroub, 2013). However, the issue of teacher performance evaluation in higher education remains an issue not only for Libya but also for the Arab countries (Abushafa, 2014). Unlike middle and high schools, teacher performance evaluation in Libyan universities lacks stability and consistency. According to Abushafa, in 2009 Libya's five-year plan was initiated to enhance teacher performance in universities in order to improve student learning and promote learning organisation. Due to the security situation and political instability this five-year plan has come to a sudden halt, although there is no indication that there will not continue to be investment in improving the quality of the higher education organisations (p. 54).

3.4 Staff Training and Development Programmes

As mentioned earlier, due to tremendous pressures and changes influencing higher education, universities are confronted with the need for a significant redefinition of their roles and the need to re-educate staff members. Therefore, comprehensive research on the

status of teaching effectiveness, and strategies to improve staff performance in the Libyan context is required to enhance students learning and secure professional growth.

In the following subsections, definitions and roles of staff development as well as strategies and approaches of staff development are discussed.

3.4.1 Definitions and Roles of Staff Development

Many scholars assert that staff development in higher education implies re-educating staff members to improve their professional skills. The literature applies several terms when referring to staff performance development; staff development, in-service training (INSET), professional development (PD), or continuing professional development (CPD).

According to Torrington & Weightman (1994, p. 47) staff development is “the whole process of identifying training needs, conducting training where necessary, examining individual performance and looking at career development”.

Hounsell (1994) also defines staff development as the academic or professional activities that are concerned with enhancing the quality of teaching and learning. These activities may involve short courses, workshops, forums and seminars. In his research on staff development, Wan (1999, p. 33) states that staff development roles are to “expose new ideas while at the same time offering teachers the opportunity to check and reflect on their current performance and capabilities”.

3.4.2 Staff Development and Training Programmes in Libyan Universities

There are a few training programmes for teachers including courses for pre-primary and primary school teachers, secondary school and higher education teachers in Libya. Novice teachers receive professional training for four years in public higher education institutes centres for in-service training at intermediate school level, which were introduced in Libya in 1990s. Secondary school teachers are also trained for three years at higher education institutions (Rhema & Miliszewska, 2010). According to the Resolution of the LGPC No. 285, 2006, on staff members in universities, lecturers' recruitment should be based on their teaching qualification, and undergoing a training course for one year for new teachers. It is important to note that there are no particular activities during this year of training; rather it is a testing stage until the lecturer is fully employed. When it comes to training programmes, a sink or swim approach is applied to new university recruits. In a system of scarce resources, there is a certain logic to not

investing valuable training time in a fledgling recruit who is deemed unworthy of a permanent contract. To western notions of recruitment and professional development, the practice is flawed because weeding out bad practice at the outset of the career of otherwise capable recruits will be less onerous than extirpating, in subsequent years, entrenched teaching styles which match the self-interest of lecturers more than they satisfy the range of learner needs.

Lecturers who have MAs can become assistant lecturers, and after teaching for three years they are promoted to lecturer's status. After teaching for four years and writing at least four articles in peer reviewed journals or conferences, they can become assistant professor. Lecturers are promoted to the status of Professor after a five-year period as joint Professor (Regulations for National Staff Members, 2006). University staff members have another type of training opportunity after teaching for four years in the university. One year sabbatical leave is granted to lecturers during which they are dispatched locally or abroad to train in their field and to strengthen their practice throughout their career. However, currently this training opportunity is not offered in the Libyan universities due to lack of management and staff shortage in many colleges (Bait-Almal, 2012). In addition, other difficulties such as poor and undeveloped infrastructure, and the scarcity of ICT savvy teachers pose major challenges to the implementation of development and training programmes.

Although Libyan education system has played a significant role in preparing many indigenous employees to work in administrative posts in different public and private companies since 1970s, the focus was more on theoretical aspects of education rather than practical ones. The lack of facilities and trained and qualified teachers results in teachers employing one-way direct methods of teaching which provide little opportunities for students to learn and think for themselves. Instead, students now tend to learn by memorization rather than reasoning and meaningful learning (GPC of Education, 2008). In addition, based on observation on the quality of higher education, Libyan Delegation (2008) reported that university teachers lack professional training and performance appraisal, despite their high qualifications, and suggested that providing adequate staff training and development must be given priority.

3.4.3 Elements of Staff Training Programmes

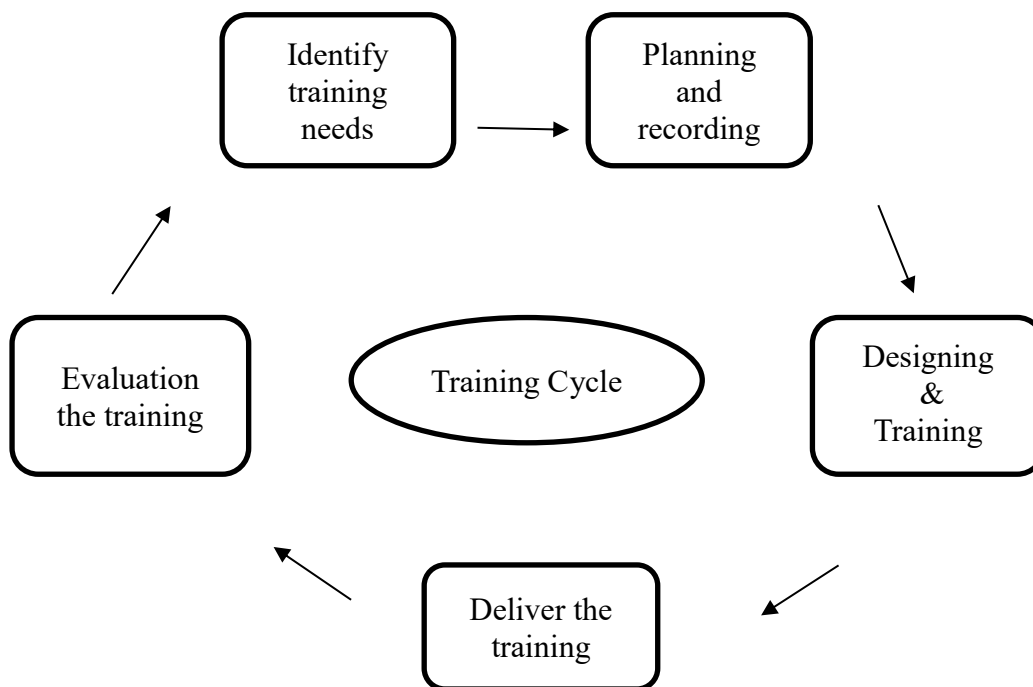
According to Hackett (2007), there are several elements for successful training process, known as (Training Cycle). This approach emphasizes that a number of steps must take place before training activities can start. She points out that the training process often begins with an analysis of staff needs and ends with evaluation.

Hackett (2007) asserts that the training cycle enables institutions to set up the perfect training for their staff. The elements of training cycle are:

- “Identifying training needs in the light of the overall organisational objectives and requirements.
- Planning and recording.
- Designing and delivering.
- Evaluating effectiveness”.

(Hackett, 2007, p.1)

Figure 3.1: Training Cycle



In order to achieve maximum results from training activities, it is always suggested that participants are consulted and supported especially during the process of identifying training needs, delivering the training, and applying new knowledge after the completion of training.

3.4.3.1 Training Needs

Training needs are skills that teachers need to acquire in order to improve their performance, competences, attitudes and behaviours, based on their job requirements and needs. Moeini (2008) points out that the identification of teachers’ specific needs is essential for designing teacher professional development programmes. Boydell & Leary quoted in Hackett (2007, p. 28) propose a simple framework for analysing training needs; this differentiate three levels of performance which can be used by educational institutions, groups, or individuals:

- “Level 1: implementing –bridging the gap between present and desired performance, measured against existing standards.
- Level 2: improving – to achieve continually rising standards.
- Level 3: innovating- achieving something new and better-to produce change”.

Table 3.3: Organisational, Group, and Individual Needs at Various Levels of Performance.

Level of business benefit	Area of needs		
	Organisational	Group	Individual
Implementing – doing things well	Meeting current organisational objectives	Working together to meet existing targets and standards	Being competent at the level of existing requirements
Improving – doing things better	Setting higher objectives and reaching them	Continuous improvement teams	Having and using systemic, continuous improvement skills and processes
Innovating – doing new and better things	Changing objectives and strategies	Working across boundaries to create new relationships and new products and services	Being able to work differently and more creatively with a shared sense of purpose

(Source, Hackett, 2007, p. 28)

The availability of adequate training equipment for training also plays a vital role. The training location must have teaching and learning tools that are safe, healthy, comfortable, and accessible. Library facilities and media aids used for delivering training materials are essential in the implementation process. Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) indicate that training facility should be both comfortable and

convenient. In addition, organisers must avoid negative factors such as noise, distractions, and long distances to training rooms.

3.4.3.2 Programme Design and Planning

Effective implementation of teacher training depends on good design to understand their professional needs, and then develop a number of training goals which take them into account. It should improve the practices and skills of trainees and provide new knowledge. Another element is the support from top management and peers (Punia & Kant, 2013). A good training programme is designed to address staff needs and problems within the available resource infrastructure, therefore, it is especially useful that trainers take part in the process of programme design (MSH, 2012).

According to Hackett (2007), the key elements of a training programme involve “designing a programme involves identifying relevant competencies, clustering and sequencing them, defining specific learning objectives, determining resources, choosing learning methods and providers, deciding how to monitor, evaluate and setting up an administrative system” (p. 111).

The differences in teachers’ experience, skills, and abilities should be considered when planning a training programme. Kauffeld & Willenbrock (2010) agree that in many training and teaching situations it is not possible to identify trainees whose needs, experience and ability levels closely match each other. Therefore, training sessions often comprise trainees who have different levels of education, abilities, expectations, needs, and objectives. This may place additional burden on the training facilitators to ensure that the needs of all participants are addressed, while not causing any frustration or boredom for trainees who are already aware of certain parts of the information and skills being provided. As such, it is often helpful for trainers and participants to carefully plan training activities with the purpose of minimising potential frustrations and negative reactions as far as possible. Training content, handouts, and learning resources must be provided prior or during the training sessions. Charney & Conway (2005) argue that offering materials to trainees does not necessarily achieve success. Learning materials need to be used properly by the trainees.

Table 3.4: Internal and External Resources

Internal resources	External resources
Subject expertise	Reputation – does the supplier have a good name for delivering what it promises?
Coaching skills	The skills and resources offered
Commitment to helping others learn	Cost
Competence in using relevant learning methods	The geographical location
Credibility with trainees	Availability at the required time
Availability – at the times and in the locations where training will take place	

Adopted from Hackett (2007, p. 55)

According to Hackett (2007, p. 55), trainers should identify the methods of training and prepare training plan which should be devised to address the needs and objectives of trainees and their institutions. Hackett (ibid., pp. 55-56) also asserts that “training providers are the best judge of how to meet the objectives. So, when selecting providers, the choice should be between internal or external sources”, and the selection policy must be based on several aspects as shown in the table 3.4.

3.4.3.3 Evaluation of Training Programme

Evaluation is the assessment of the usefulness of the training activities. It enables whether the training objectives set in planning and design stage were achieved. Robson (2011) emphasizes the significance of training evaluation, considering it as an important part of effective training programmes. He claims that in addition to establishing worthiness, the purpose of evaluation is to confirm that aims are being met. It often provides new insights or new ideas that were not anticipated, and it assists in the improvement of policy, practice or service. Evaluation processes are seen as meeting the intended goals of the programmes, and guiding decision making. More importantly, evaluation is carried out to explore and find out the impact of a particular training programme that has been implemented, and to assist an educational institution to improve its performance.

Evaluation provides useful information for managers in deciding the current and future course. Robson (2011, p. 180) presents a range of purposes of evaluation with some questions

associated with these purposes. According to him, evaluation may be used to find out if trainees' needs are fulfilled, to improve a programme, and to evaluate its outcomes and effectiveness. Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006, p. 3) propose ten factors that must be included in planning and implementing an effective training programme: "first, training needs have to be determined and objectives set; then the subject content of the training should be determined. Trainees must be selected according to their training needs and the best schedule that suits their convenience while not affecting the institution's productivity should be developed. Appropriate training facilities have to be chosen; at this stage, it is also important to think of the audio-visual aids and presentation tools required and how the training should be co-ordinated. Methods for the trainees to properly evaluate the programme should be worked into the design of the training". Finally, assessing training effectiveness which often entails using the four-level model developed by Donald Kirkpatrick (1998). Each step gives important feedback which help trainers to conduct effective training activities:

- "Reaction of students - what they thought and felt about the training
- Learning - the resulting improvement in knowledge or capability.
- Behaviour - extent of improvement in behaviour and capability and implementation/application.
- Results - the effects on the institution or environment resulting from the trainee's performance".

(Donald Kirkpatrick,1998, pp. 19-24)

Despite the importance of training evaluation, Eseryel (2002, p. 4) states that "there is evidence that evaluations of training programs are often inconsistent or missing". This can possibly be linked to financial constraints, insufficient time allocated for assessment, and lack of highly qualified management.

3.5 Managing Change

Introduction

Change management is a structured approach to transitioning people and organisations from a current state to a desired future state. It is a process which aims at empowering employees to adopt and embrace the new cultures and behaviours. According to Bennett, et. al. (1992), change is not just the creation of new plans and policies to implement external mandates. It is also about the development of personal strategies: personal change as much as organisational

change. Managing change is viewed as an uneasy task to achieve particularly for educational managers. Moreover, profound understanding of the processes of planning, monitoring and evaluation are valuable skills to ensure successful change that leads to the accomplishment of professional growth (Briggs, et al., 2002). In a report produced by the Department of Human Resources, University of Ryerson in Canada (2011) states that change management has several aspects, for example: 1) as a systematic process for organisational change including a systematic approach and application of knowledge, 2) as a means of changing people, this change is a critical part of any project which leads, manages, and enables people to accept new systems, structures, processes, technologies, and values. It is the set of activities that helps people transition from their current state to the desired way of working, and 3) as a competitive tactic and a continuous process of aligning an organisation with its marketplace in a more responsively and effectively than competitors.

3.5.1 Effective Change Management

There are two main factors that underpin the effectiveness of change in an educational organisation. First, stakeholders- lecturers, students and managers. Engaging stakeholders in planning, policy-making and decision-making is vital throughout the process of change. Its key advantage is that by owning the decision and knowledge, it is more likely that they will put it into practice and support it. The second is continuing support of head and senior managers by encouraging, reinforcing, allocating time, and providing administrative advice, by developing an organisational climate of creativity and collegiality, institutional growth can be achieved.

Many studies on managing change (Quinn, 1996; Burnes, 2009; Robbins, et al., 2013) conclude that change is likely to be successful if it is congruent with the current practices in the institution. Moreover, participants must understand and communicate change effectively. However, conversely, if change is over complex, not understood, poorly communicated and over demanding on the participants and existing resources, then it is likely to be unsuccessful. Successful and effective change needs to occur in response to “felt need” (Morrison, 1998). Therefore, this research relied on stakeholders’ (lecturers and students) needs to implement change in order to gain their confidence and commitment to the new process.

3.5.2 Models to Change Management

There are many models of change management, however, in the following sub-sections, four common models are presented.

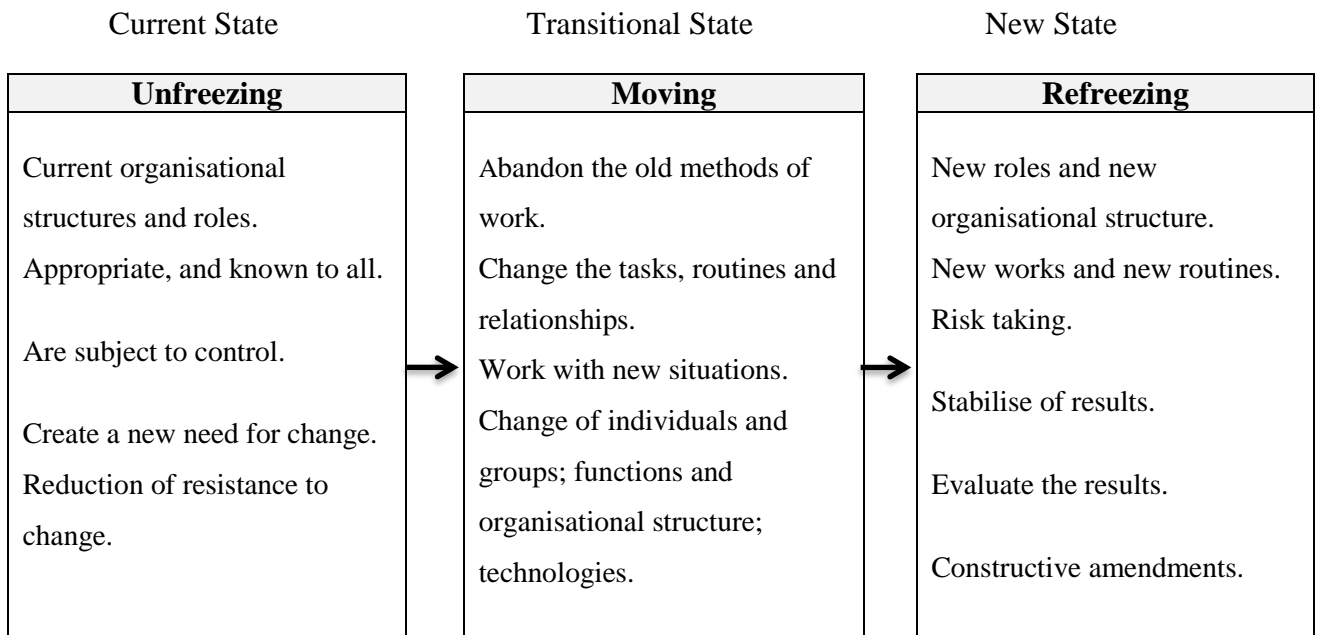
3.5.2.1 Lewin's Three-step Model of Change

The term “planned change” was first mentioned by Kurt Lewin to distinguish change that is deliberately devised and instigated by an institution as opposed to any other kinds of change that may occur by accident, or even forced on an institution. Lewin used the concept of “action research” in the mid- 1940, and conceived this concept as a two-pronged process. “Firstly, it emphasizes that change requires action, and is directed at achieving this. Secondly, it recognises that successful action is based on analysing the situation correctly, identifying all the possible alternative solutions and choosing the one most appropriate to the situation at hand” (Burnes, 2009, p. 336). In 1950s, Kurt Lewin developed one of the cornerstones models within what are known as ‘planned approaches’ for understanding organisational change. Lewin presented three-step model to realise successful change which starts with unfreezing which means in order to implement change, deadlock must be removed and the prevailing status quo in the organisation be abandoned. Then moving, which requires immediate transition to a new level, and lastly, refreezing which is the re-establishment of the new culture.

In this model, before dealing with the utilization of new behaviours, an institution should effectively try to remove the old ones and then the new behaviour becomes acceptable. But this method concentrates on the importance of a feeling of the need for change and the possible ways available to achieve it.

Unfreezing: it is an important step to overcome the strains of individual resistance and group conformity, and it can be achieved by using these methods: a) increase the driving forces and direct behaviour away from the current situation or status quo, b) decrease the restraining forces that negatively affect the existing behaviour ‘equilibrium’, and c) find a combination of the two methods including activities that can assist in the unfreezing step, for example, motivating participants, building trust and recognition for the need of change, and actively participating in recognising problems and putting forward solutions within the group (Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 583).

Table 3.5: The Kurt Lewin Model of Change



(Source: developed from Burnes, 2004b)

Moving: it is necessary to move the target system to a new level of equilibrium. There are three actions that can assist in the movement step: a) persuading employees to agree that the status quo is not beneficial to them and encouraging them to view the problem from a fresh prospective, b) work together on a quest for new, relevant information, and c) connect the views of the group to well-respected, powerful leaders that also support the change (Kritsonis, 2005).

Refreezing: the final step of this model needs to be applied after the change has been implemented in order for it to be successful. If this step is not followed, it is quite possible that change will be short lived and the employees will revert to their old behaviours. The aim of refreezing is to stabilise the new behaviours realised by the change by balancing both the driving and restraining forces. One action can be taken to implement refreezing is to reinforce new patterns and institutionalise them through formal and informal mechanisms including policies and procedures (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

It can be seen from table 3.6 that Lewin’s model illustrates the effects of forces that either promote or inhibit change, particularly driving forces promote change and restraining forces oppose change. Therefore, change will take place when combined strength of one force is greater than the combined strength of the opposing set of forces (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

3.5.2.2 Bullock and Batten Four-phase Model of Planned Change

Since its formulation, Lewin's theory of change has been reviewed and modified. For example, based on a review and synthesis of over 30 models of planned change, Bullock and Batten (1985) developed a four-stage model consisting of exploration, planning, action and integration. Burnes (2009) presents this method of change in four phases:

“Exploration phase. In this state, an organisation has to explore and decide whether it wants to make specific changes in its operations and if so, commit resources to planning changes.

Planning phase. The change processes involved in this stage are collecting information in order to establish a correct diagnosis of the problems; establishing change goals and designing appropriate actions to achieve these goals, and persuading key-decision makers to approve and support the proposed changes.

Action phase. In this state, an organisation implements the changes derived from the planning. The change processes involved are designed to move an organisation from its current state to a desired future state, and include establishing appropriate arrangements to manage the change process and gaining support for the actions to be taken; and evaluating the implementation activities and feeding back the results so that any necessary adjustments or reinforcement can be made.

Integration phase. This state commences once the changes have been successfully implemented. It is concerned with consolidating and stabilising the changes so that they become part of an organisation's normal everyday operation and do not require special arrangements or encouragement to maintain them. The change processes involved are reinforcing new behaviours through feedback and reward systems; diffusing the successful aspects of the change process throughout the institution; and training managers and employees to monitor the changes constantly and to seek to improve upon them”.

(Source: Burnes, 2009, p. 343)

Despite its popularity, the theory of “Planned Approach” has been viewed as unable to cope with continuous change, its neglect of organisational conflict and politics, and the fact that this model advocates one best way approach to change.

3.5.2.3 Berenschot Seven Forces Model

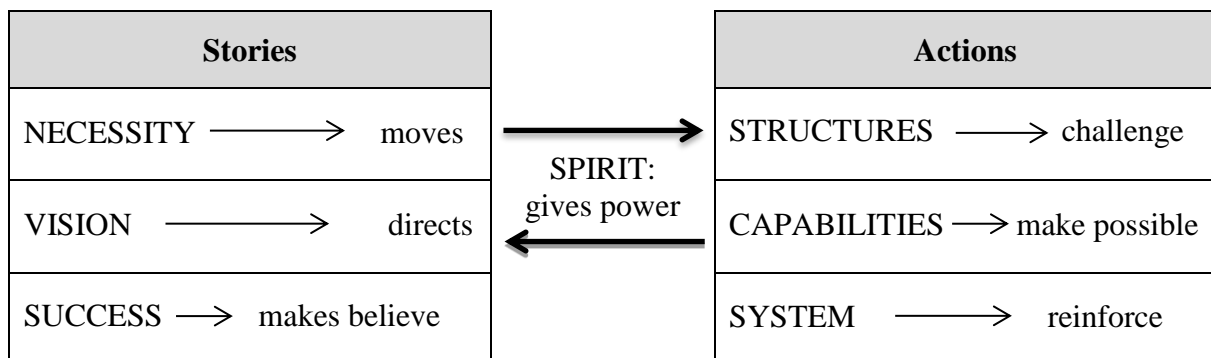
Berenschot introduced this model which he believed made changes happen. The Seven Forces Model is described by ten Have, et al. (2003) as:

- 1) “Necessity: a shock to break the inertia and to create a sense of urgency.
- 2) Vision: specific images in order to make people ‘see’ what is required of them.
- 3) Success: early successes that create a sense of confirmation the new way is ‘better’.
- 4) Spirit: the power and strength to invite and maintain a high level of commitment.
- 5) Structure: structural support at organisational level to challenge people, as well as to endorse the changes.
- 6) Capabilities: knowledge, skills, and empowerment to balance the new tasks and responsibilities.
- 7) System: information, reviews, and rewards to close the loop and confirm desired performance”.

(Source: ten Have et al., 2003, p. 179).

According to ten Have, et al., the seven forces are most effective when used integrally, although they fulfil three different functions in implementing change (see figure below). For example, necessity, vision, and success provide the organisation with a sense of purpose in the process of change. These elements are like ‘stories’, for instance, awakening, confrontation, and illustrating. On the other hand, structures, capabilities, and systems demand ‘action’ for very specific changes in the organisation’s ‘hard’ structures and systems. The last function is spirit which is a power process that support all other six forces.

Figure 3.2: The Seven Forces Model by Berenschot (1991)



(Source: developed from ten Have, et al., 2003)

3.5.2.4 The Emergent Model of Change

This model views change as rapidly occurring and unpredictable, and it cannot be implemented top down. Alternatively, it claims that change should be seen as a process of learning where the organisation responds to the internal and external factors. As suggested by Todnem (2005) that emergent model to change is more concerned with “change readiness and facilitating for change” than to provide specific pre-planned steps for each change project or initiative (p.375). Todnem indicates that the proponents of the emergent change for instance, (Kotter, 1996; Kanter, et al., 1992 and Luecke, 2003) are more united by their scepticism regarding the effectiveness of planned change. However, there are some shared suggested actions of the emergent change including developing a vision, establishing a sense of urgency, creating an effective leadership and empowering employees (Refer to appendix 3.B). Although many change leaders of the emergent model did not advocate pre-planned steps for change, however, they proposed several key principles ‘tenets’ that the organisations should apply to increase the chances of the change being successful. Burnes (2004a) for example states that “change is a continuous process of experiment and adaptation aimed at matching an organisation’s capabilities to the needs”. According to Burnes, “change is a political-social process and not an analytical-rational one, therefore, the role of managers is not to plan and implement change per se, but to create or foster an organisational structure and climate which encourages and sustains experimentation, learning and risk-taking, and to develop a workforce that will take responsibility for identifying the need for change and implement it. Burnes (ibid.) emphasizes the role of managers as “facilitators rather than doers, they also have the prime responsibility for developing a collective vision or common purpose that gives direction to their organisation. The key organisational activities that allow these elements to operate successfully are: (a) information gathering- about the external environment and internal objectives and capabilities, (b) communication- the transmission, analysis and discussion of information, and (c) learning- the ability to develop new skills, identify appropriate responses and draw knowledge from their own and other’s past and present actions (Burnes, 2009, p. 393).

The key idea of the emergent theories is that in order to implement change successfully, managers need to have an in-depth awareness of the institution, its structures, strategies, and stakeholders. Accordingly, managers will be able to choose the most suitable method to change and identify factors which act as facilitators or barriers to change process (Burnes, 1996, p. 14). However, emergent approach has been criticised for its broad-natured action

'sequences' and their application to unique organisational contexts. Some other critics suggested a more 'situational' or 'contingency' approach emphasizing that the performance of an organisation is highly reliant on situational variables. Obviously, these variables will vary from organisation to organisation, managers' methods, and techniques for change will vary as well (Dunphy & Stace, 1993).

3.5.3 Top-down and Bottom-up Approaches to Change

Methods for implementing change are often divided into two approaches: top-down and bottom-up. The former is described as "programmatic change" and consistently initiated and led from top management. The latter however, is based on incremental approaches in which change is generated from the bottom up and tied to an organisation's "critical path" (Beer, et al., 1990). Maybey and Salaman (1995) point out several perceptions about the management of change that will affect reactions to it. For example, if change perceived as 'deviant or normal' and 'threatening or desirable' (p. 73). Change judged as deviant will be viewed as imposed and outside existing cultural norms. This will possibly create resistance at certain levels. Change judged as threatening will also generate resistance and this will need to be implemented carefully to overcome the fear caused by this perception. Therefore, people's perception about the nature of change will affect their reactions to it. Consequently, the approaches used to conduct change will have a great impact in affecting the nature and strength of these reactions. For instance, whether change is carried out as top-down or bottom-up and whether the intention is incremental or transformational. Therefore, choice between these methods will have a significant effect on the degree to which change will be accepted or resisted, and whether it will be viewed as imposed "controlled" or participative (Thornhill, et al., 2000).

Top-down approaches are often associated with senior management agenda. Rees, et al. (2013) state that top-down change can stem from a managerial prerogative for maintaining control throughout the change. This approach can be used to bring about radical change in an organisation. Another use of this approach is linked to the provision of "a clear sustained direction that is well-resourced and co-ordinated" (Maybey and Salaman, 1995, p. 105). However, as this method is associated with transformational change, many questioned its impact and effectiveness. For example, Beckhard (1992) criticised this method for its transformational process affecting many aspects of an organisation and levels within it. Furthermore, there will be a need to create a new mission, future direction, alterations to the

dominant values, beliefs and perception in the organisation. Also, there will be fundamental implications for the organisational paradigm and distribution of power, new structures and methods of working. Therefore, Beckhard asserts that this approach to change is seen as radical and discontinuous. Top-down approach is ineffective because its intended change will not be generated simply by changing organisational structures and imposing new systems-change that is achieved will not be that which was intended. Ryan, et al. (2008) argue that those at lower levels may not share managers' views and willingness to change, as a result, when difficulties and issues are encountered during implementation, management's enthusiasm alone is not enough. Legge (1994) states that top-down change programmes may encounter three interrelated paradoxes. Firstly, messages of initiative, autonomy and innovation are often launched by highly bureaucratic management. For example, team briefings or company-wide training initiatives. Secondly, transformation to the new culture is usually regarded as the task of a new leader. It can be problematic if the employees see the new culture conflicts with their current occupational culture. Lastly, if the culture and values of the top management are not congruent with employees' sense of reality, the new culture may be refused and it will not be internalised into employees' assumptions.

The second approach is bottom-up which is often associated with the emergent approach to change. According to Ryan, et al. (2008), the bottom-up approach provides opportunities for direct employee participation that top-down does not provide. The term is used to describe widely different organisational arrangements that vary, especially with respect to the amount of decision-making given to staff. This change process occurs in an operational part of an organisation away from its corporate management. The process will concentrate on specific profession problem and the technique to address it will emerge through the efforts of those engaged in the process. Meanwhile, the role of senior management will be to specify the general direction and create a suitable environment of change. In order to achieve bottom-up change successfully, Beer, et al. (1990, pp. 61-64) suggest a number of stages:

- Start to ensure commitment to the change by involving people in defining the problems.
- Work jointly to develop a vision for the future of the organisation.
- Work towards common agreement of the vision, and skills and actions to carry it forward.
- Spread the changes out to other areas of the organisation.
- Confirm changes by ensuring that policies, procedures and structures support them.
- Evaluate outcomes of change and amend vision and actions as necessary.

These stages are underpinned by engaging other practices for example, team working, joint problem solving, producing a shared vision through involvement, and equipping participants with competencies which are needed for the change. Beer, et al. (1990) believe that this is an incremental change process which has to be worked out through experience rather than being imposed. Once the vision has been specified employees will have to acquire new knowledge and skills needed for the new culture. Therefore, HR (Human Resources) initiatives such as training and development activities can be vital for promoting the future desired culture. Evaluating and adjusting plans according to the problem and needs is the final stage in the process of bottom-up approach.

Bottom-up approach to change is less likely to generate resistance as in top-down approach. This is because it is basically designed to generate commitment to the process through involvement and ownership in its implementation. Being generated by developing competence and teamwork, this process is more likely to be accepted.

Maybey and Salaman (1995) indicate that there are a number of ways to reduce resistance that fit with a bottom-up approach to change. These are for example, identifying the personal improvement that can be achieved by those involved in change process in order to secure their participation. Other ways may include the opportunity to develop and advance through the evolving change process, and recognising the role of effective teamwork can play in promoting participation in change. Therefore, and based on the circumstances in the Libyan context of near war and destabilisation, the researcher is confident that bottom-up approach is more likely to achieve change. In short, the question whether to employ top-down or bottom-up approach in managing change has been discussed by Thornhill, et al. (2000, p. 79). They argue that there is a substantial body of research that advocates the use of bottom-up approach and its efficacy in achieving successful change. However, top-down approach can be useful when accurately implemented. They add that “every organisation’s culture is unique and a product of that organisation’s past as well as the wider environment within which it exists”. So, the suitability of the selected approach will depend upon what an organisation wishes to realise through change.

The researcher is aware the literature suggests that teachers resist doing whatever is being proposed because they prefer to cling to their old ways. Change often makes teachers feel uncomfortable especially when it is demanded by those who think they know what teachers should be doing in the classroom and are in a position to tell them what to do. In the context

of teaching in Libyan universities, the researcher anticipates a number of difficulties in bringing about change in teaching and learning practices. Teachers carry the ingrained influence of their learning experience which in the Libyan context emphasizes respect for teacher authority and knowledge and expects students' compliance. In this setting, teachers believe that their role as knowledge providers is central. The challenge is that shifting teacher perspective requires acceptance that students will take on more active roles as learners and that teacher's roles must also change. In addition, in the culture where Libyan students present themselves as respectful and well-mannered, students' over-reliance on teachers can lead to student complacency and rarely question received wisdom. This sensitivity may pose another challenge to students change to become pro-active by taking more responsibility for their own learning. Moreover, the influence of Quranic learning methods can be an obstacle to change their approaches to learning.

As a result, this research introduces a bottom-up change which is mainly initiated and driven by the researcher, by involving, stimulating and motivating six teachers to adapt to change. The literature suggests that teachers do engage in change that involves them in the process, and allows opportunities for exploration and choice. In the current political circumstances in Libya, many public universities including lecturers have become more autonomous, discussed in section 2.2. Therefore, in line with the new development in the Libyan society, this research aims to effect change from a traditional model of teaching and learning to a new model based on student-centred learning approach.

3.5.4 Resistance to change

There are a number of problems that organisations may encounter when attempting change. For example, ignorance of how to adequately plan and implement change. Management's failure to cede power or alternatively engage employees in designing change initiatives. Lastly, many traditional managers may still assume that employees have no skills or intelligence that would contribute to the improvement of the organisation. Quinn (1996) states that resistance to change starts as a personal resistance or unwillingness to change, followed by collective organisational resistance. Some individuals might feel more comfortable with their present state. Agocs (1997) claims that there is a fear of failure and some employees may be hesitant to acquire new culture and unwilling to learn new systems or procedures. Generally, managers underestimate the potential strength of resistance. Oreg (2006) maintains that employees' resistance to change could be linked to their personal

experience; based on misunderstanding, insecurity, a lack of trust and fear of the unknown. According to Quinn (1996), barriers to change can come from managers, organisational culture, or embedded conflict. Managers who regard themselves as saviours, without which the organisation will not succeed, ensure that change never be implemented. Their change paradigm is still confined to the single-leader, “hero model of leadership” (Axelrod, 2002). Dalin, et al. (1993) claim that there are four major barriers to change; first, value barriers, where the proposed change challenges one’s values or where one disagrees with the proposed values. Another one is the power barrier, where people may accept an innovation if it gives them more power or may resist it if it gives them less. The third barrier is a psychological one. It occurs when innovations threaten people’s self-confidence, security, self-esteem, well-being, or stress levels. Lastly, practical barriers, for instance acquiring new skills, eliminating old practices, workload increases and there is a need for resources such as: human, material, financial, time, administrative support, and expertise.

Boohene and Williams (2012) suggest that management must encourage employee participation in decision making process, build confidence, accept constructive criticism, be transparent and communicate clearly the need for change (p.135). Managers must encourage and support those who hesitate to become active in the process, further, challenging and refining the problem areas. Those who are sceptical can be the best people to describe and correct the problems that change proponents failed to recognise. Moreover, Stanely, et al. (2005) suggest that a teaching and learning approach to overcome individual resistance to change to be given. However, they insist that teaching merely as a counselling tool to assist employees adapt to change successfully.

In order to avoid resistance, management need to refocus their efforts onto the process. This will include the involvement of employees, providing feedback, listening, and encouraging employee ownership of the process (Geller, 2002, p. 37). To improve acceptance of change, employees must be fully aware of the individual components of the change process, and understand their role in the new design. Managers must seek to widen the circle of involvement and the process must be more democratic. This engagement of employees adds value to the change process and solves the problem of a lack of organisational support to change because change now becomes an institutional process. Once a change initiative is formulated, the management must generate support or buy-in from its employees (Kotter and Cohen, 2002). Open communication also plays an important role as it serves to provide employees with greater input into the change process. It also provides feedback, complaints

and otherwise for the full engagement of all employees in the process. The impetus for change initiatives is to trust employees' beliefs. Therefore, the management needs to communicate the vision and strategy through training and development (Michelman, 2007). Creating ownership in the process of change ensures that change will effectively respond to the current problems. Furthermore, it provides employees the pride and motivation to actively involve themselves in the change.

3.6 Summary and Conclusions

The literature review discussed the perspectives on lecturing and relevant issues such as purpose and features of effective lecturing/teaching. Also, students learning and orientations were discussed. Although teaching environments and cultures differ around the world, studies on teaching and learning show that there are many similarities shared by higher education institutions in different parts of the world. However, it can be argued that culture plays a vital role in shaping these differences. Recent research studies on effective teaching and learning have shown this in terms of approaches to teaching, characteristics of teacher, students learning practices, and teaching and learning context.

Lecturing- that is static delivery by the teacher and often uncritical absorption of information by the listener – remains the most common method of teaching in higher education in Libya. Despite the criticism of its ineffectiveness to students' learning, there are many researchers who still believe that lecturing approach can be more effective when accompanied by other teaching approaches in promoting understanding in students. Studies on student learning have identified three approaches of learning employed by students, namely surface, deep and strategic or achieving.

Teacher training is seen as an integral part of an organisational development strategy as it has the potential for promoting and securing staff professional growth and enhancing organisational efficiency (Jehanzeb & Bashir, 2013). This chapter presented a general overview of teacher training in Libyan Education. In addition, the discussion included students' motivation to learning a second language and students learning approaches in Libya. It provided effective strategies that English teachers in Libya can use to develop their professional experience and knowledge throughout their careers. This chapter highlighted conceptual details for staff training and development; the training process, elements of training (cycle), training needs, and training evaluation.

Lastly, to implement training programmes, management and decision makers need to be aware of strategies and approaches of conducting change successfully. Therefore, this chapter briefly discussed four models of change management and how staff resistance to change can be handled.

Chapter Four: Research Methodology

Data Collection for Phase One

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research methods and approaches and provides an overview of the research design and data collection methods for the first phase of this study. It discusses the research questions and problems addressed in need for both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection and presents the research strategy, its negotiation and application in the field, and finally, its limitation. This chapter also briefly introduces the methodology used in phase two of this study.

4.1.1 Research Problems and Questions

The research was initiated from the researcher's interest in investigating actual problems and contemporary phenomena (Yin, 1994). The research was to investigate and to understand the problems and needs of teachers and students in order to provide a plan to improve the quality education and the quality of teachers. Therefore, this study is concerned with two broad research questions:

- 1- How effective are the learning and teaching practices and activities currently in use at a Libyan Higher Education Institution- Elmergheb University?
- 2- What kind of professional training is needed to improve teaching skills and increase awareness of students thinking and reasoning?

The first phase of this study focuses on the first part of the above questions, and several specific questions are developed:

- 1- How effective are the practices of teaching and learning currently being employed at the Department of English?
- 2- What are the problems encountered by lecturers when performing in the classroom?
- 3- What are the difficulties faced by students in learning English?
- 4- What are the professional and personal needs of academic staff in Libyan universities?
- 5- What is the attitude of staff and faculty management to professional development and training?
- 6- Can staff training and development be introduced and implemented to meet the needs of students?

To answer these questions, the researcher uses what he perceives as an appropriate methodology -a case study strategy based on a mixed qualitative-quantitative and evaluative approach. The following section, 4.1.2, will look at the implications of the research problems for the strategy and the design employed in this study.

4.1.2 Introduction to Methodology

Research methodology involves employing suitable methods and techniques to collect data. In social research, which includes education, Keeves (1997, p. 19) states that it “consists of data collection and reflection about societal problems along with their dilemmas and paradoxes, tensions, as well as alternatives for political action which offer themselves”.

These insights can be used to recognise the consequences a researcher might face in conducting research. Therefore, it is important that choice of methodology should be well-structured and appropriately planned to fit the researcher’s aims and objectives. According to Yin (1994, p. 1), the choice of methodology depends on three conditions:

1. The type of research question
2. The control the researcher has over actual behavioural events
3. The focus on contemporary as opposed to historical phenomena

Leedy (1993, p. 139) argues that “the nature of data and the problem for research dictates the research methodology”. Thus, it becomes clear that the appropriateness of a method is closely related to the research problems and questions on one hand, and the chosen research strategy and the stand taken by a researcher on the other.

Qualitative and quantitative inquiry methods can be used to conduct educational research. Qualitative method is closely linked to the ‘interpretive’ approach and provides the ‘depth’ and full description of a specific programme, practice or setting (Denscomb, 2010).

According to Hertenzen (2010, p. 225) the qualitative approach is an activity that “*locates the observer in the world*”. She also adds that “it consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and memos to the self”.

The quantitative method is often associated with a ‘positivist’ approach that aims to discover knowledge by gathering numerical data and then explain it statistically (Gall, et al., 1996).

Further illustration of the distinguishing characteristics of the two methods provided by Fraenkel & Wallen (2008, p. 422) may clarify these differences (Refer to appendix 4.A).

Although some researchers claim that these two methods are incompatible due to their implicit epistemological assumptions, many educational writers (Cohen & Manion, 2007; Gall, et al., 1996; Wellington, 1996; Denzin, 1997 and Yin, 2009) have argued that employing both methods may increase the validity of data collected as both complement and illuminate each other. Furthermore, employing both methods facilitates data collection from different sources (Denscomb, 2010, p. 151). The use of both methods in educational research is validated by Fraenkel & Wallen (2008) “we believe that educational research is, and should be, a mixture of qualitative and quantitative approach”.

A considerable amount of research in education literature has been conducted using qualitative methods. Miles & Huberman (1994, p. 1) indicate that “with qualitative data one can preserve chronological flow, see precisely which events led to which consequences, and derive fruitful explanations. Then too, good qualitative data are more likely to lead to serendipitous findings and new ingredients: they help researchers to get beyond initial conceptions and to generate or revise conceptual frameworks. Finally, the findings from qualitative studies have a quality of undeniability”.

The flexibility and nature of qualitative research encouraged the researcher to employ it in this study. In addition, the inclusion of this method can widen the understanding of the educational processes in a Libyan university.

Quantitative research methods are not less effective in educational studies. They are often employed to establish causal or co-relationships. Fraenkel & Wallen’s (2008) descriptions of types of studies may illustrate the relevance of the quantitative method:

- 1- Experimental research: enables researchers not only to predict and describe phenomena, but also to manipulate these phenomena and variables, and determine the causal relationships between them.
- 2- Survey research: involves collecting information from a particular group of individuals to describe some of their aspects and characteristics. Information is gathered through asking questions, and the answers to these questions are the data of the study. In quantitative research, data are analysed statistically to discover the degree of relationship or differences that exist between sets of data.

- 3- Single-subject research: these designs are mainly used to investigate and understand the changes in behaviour a particular person shows after exposure to an intervention or a treatment.
- 4- Correlational research: investigates the possibility of relationship between two or more phenomena. It involves describing and exploring causal relationships between different phenomena.
- 5- Causal-comparative research: allows researchers to determine the cause of differences that already existed among groups of groups of individuals. Since it describes conditions that already exist, this type of research is seen as a form of associational research.

In conclusion, the researcher aims to employ a multi-method approach (qualitative and quantitative) to maximise research yield and explore the issues in depth. In the following subsections, a detailed descriptions of multi-method case study is discussed.

4.2 Research Strategies and Design

This study investigates the effectiveness of teaching and learning strategies, and answers research questions using mix of qualitative and quantitative methods.

4.2.1 Case Study Research and Design

The case study approach is chosen as the main research design and strategy, because it fits the broad aims and objectives of the research. Case study is a manageable strategy and it fits the research as “it is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context and in which multiple sources of evidence are used” (Yin, 2009, p. 18). The advantage of case study is its direct observation method which involves the use of questionnaire surveys, interviews, observation, and examination of documents. As noted by Denscomb (2010, p. 62) “case study approach fosters the use of multiple data. This, in turn, facilitates the validation of data through triangulation”.

The case study approach also helps the researcher to investigate a particular event or phenomenon by investigating practices in depth. Yin (2009, p. 11) states that case study approach: “is preferred in examining contemporary events, but when the relevant behaviours cannot be manipulated... it adds two sources of evidence not usually included in the historian’s repertoire: direct observation of the events being studied and interviews of the persons involved in the events”.

Furthermore, the proposed research is a case study of quality improvement and effectiveness in a higher education institution where the anticipated outcome is the improvement of teachers and student performance. Yin (2009) argues that case study approach is widely approved in conducting evaluation and improvement research. He states that “some case study research goes beyond being a type of qualitative evidence. In addition, case study need not always include the direct and detailed observational evidence marked by forms of qualitative research... and case studies have a distinctive place in evaluation research” (ibid., p. 19). However, the researcher acknowledges some disadvantages of case study research. Some writers view case study method as costly in terms of finance and time, and the researcher’s interest may determine the aspects of behaviour under study. Cohen & Manion (1994) state that the accounts obtained from participant-observations may be subjective, biased and lacking the quantifiable measures which are the main elements of survey research nature of the study. In addition, the findings of case study research may not be generalised for the complex. However, Yin (2009, p. 43) claimed that case study findings can be generalised, he adds: “case studies - as with experiment - rely on analytic generalisation. In analytic generalisation, the investigator is striving to generalise a particular set of results to some broader theory”.

Yin (2009, p. iii) opposed the statement that case study is inappropriate to research projects. According to him, “some people just do not know any better alternative methods”.

To sum up, the researcher concluded that case study is suitable for this study because firstly, it is manageable, useful and helpful in achieving the proposed research questions and problems. Secondly, there is little research based on qualitative accounts and evidence in Libyan higher education institutions.

4.3 Quality in Triangulation

Several research methods can be employed in conducting research. Qualitative or quantitative approaches, or a mixture of both. Cohen & Manion (2007, p. 223) state that triangulation is “the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspects of human behaviour”. Mixing both methods improves validity and gain confidence in their findings, “your confidence that you have accurate picture grows from the multiple measures you used compared to relying on just one” (Neuman, 2011, p. 146). Using more than one method in research could lead to a more refined knowledge of the complexity of human behaviour and of situations in which they interact. Denzin (1997) believes that triangulation strategies are

often best used to obtain a sound interpretation of the real world. Fraenkel & Wallen (2008, p. 558) mention three advantages of mixed-methods approach:

- 1- Mixed-method approach enables researchers to clarify and describe the relationships between variables.
- 2- It can help researchers to explore the relationships between variables in depth.
- 3- It allows us to confirm or cross-validate relationships found between variables, for example, when comparing qualitative and quantitative methods to see if they converge on a single interpretation of a phenomena.

In simple terms, combining qualitative and quantitative approaches in data collection in a single study can strengthen the quality of the data and widen the perspective of the study. Also, employing this strategy reduces the risk of bias and allows a better assessment of the generality of the explanations. Yin (2009) indicates that the most important advantage presented by using multiple sources of evidence is the development of converging lines of inquiry known as a process of triangulation (p. 115).

Some of the literature is critical of the mixed-methods approach, for instance, Fraenkel & Wallen (2008) mention that mixed-methods studies are often extremely time-consuming and too expensive to conduct. Another disadvantage is that many researchers are experienced in only one type of research, so conducting a mixed-methods study requires expertise which takes considerable time to develop. Lastly, resources, time and energy required for mixed-methods research can be demanding for a single researcher. However, this obstacle can be overcome if multiple researchers with differing areas of expertise work as a team (p. 558).

In conclusion, the researcher is confident that using mixed-method approach will make it possible to achieve the research objectives. The combination is thought especially suitable for the data related to discourses of the culture and politics in the setting. The highly-centralised nature of the Libyan Higher Education is due to strong government influence and a bureaucratic system, and the trained Libyan culture of obeying the rules where open criticism is not the normal practise. In addition, currently, there is the element of change in the political system in Libyan higher education which encourages the researcher to employ various research methods to investigate the impact of change on different stakeholders in universities. These complexities require mixed methods. Quantitative evidence cannot be used to capture real-life activities or phenomena and what it needs is the qualitative evidence. Any

quantitative evidences will be supported and triangulated by the richness of the qualitative data collected in the study.

4.4 The Instrumentation: Methods in Data Collection

Phase one of this study establishes a standards benchmark by seeking the opinions of teachers and invites teachers and students to self-assess learning strategies. It gathers data, using questionnaires and interview methods. Four methods of data collection have been used:

- 1- Pre-intervention Student Learning Questionnaire is used to collect data about students learning approaches and obtain their views regarding their learning experiences (Refer to appendix 4.D).
- 2- Semi-structured interviews are carried out with 12 teachers to build an understanding of their attitudes to how they teach English and match of behaviours and factors influencing teaching effectiveness, and identify where professional training would benefit.
- 3- Semi-structured interviews with 12 students are used to explore students' approaches and styles to learning, uncover their views on the quality of delivery and on their learning experiences.
- 4- A total of seven lectures were observed prior to the intervention. For each observed lesson, a pre-intervention questionnaire rating teacher performance was completed separately by the teacher, by 7 of the participating students. A Questionnaire for each observed lecture was also completed by the researcher. A total of seven lectures were assessed by 7 lecturers, 49 Students and the researcher, prior to the researcher's intervention, asking each participant to rate the lecturers' classroom performance according to five categories including whether they monitored learning environment, exercised good communication skills, and prepared thoroughly for lessons (See Appendix 4.E).

Field notes and documents are used (Refer to appendix 4.I). Notes and information gathered during field work will support data collected. In addition, documents, including official reports, records, and texts provide information not reachable by direct observation.

Phase two of this study – discussed further in chapter 6 – includes three stages of data collection:

- 1- Training staff: a training package is developed to train teachers to perform interactive teaching techniques discussed in 6.7.1. These are meetings to agree suitable procedures of

intervention implementation and watching educational videos of interactive teaching methods and strategies.

- 2- Video recording: teachers are asked to be video recorded in order to identify and measure their progress in terms of applying interactive teaching techniques, and how students react to these new practices and techniques.
- 3- Post-intervention questionnaires – students’ and teachers’ perceptions discussed in 6.8.

This study aims to gauge the degree to which lecturers extend the lecturer’s repertoire of techniques rather than changing her or his understanding of good teaching. This is because the “tips and strategies” approach does not make explicit the theoretical underpinnings of particular skills, and thus “can only be applied mechanically” (McMillan, 2007, p. 211). According to Porter and Brophy (1988, p. 78), it is essential to take into account the “deeper dimensions” of teaching - in other words, the principles informing good teaching practice for effective learning in universities.

Table 4.1: A Map of Research Methodology

Phase One		Date of Implementation	No. of Participants
1	Student Learning Questionnaire	November/ 2014	332 students
2	Lecturer Interviews	November / 2014	12 Lecturers
3	Student Interviews	November / 2014	12 Students
4	Pre-intervention Teaching Performance Questionnaires (7 lecturers observed)	December / 2014	7 Lecturers 49 Students 7 By Researcher
Phase Two		Date of Implementation	No. of Participants
1	Staff Training and Preparation for the Plan	June & July, 2015	6 Lecturers
2	Video Recording in Classrooms	Nov. & Dec. 2015	6 Lecturers
3	Post intervention Questionnaires (Lecturer & Students)	April, 2016	6 Lecturers 84 Students

To measure the impact of the research plan of phase two, and address research aims, students and teacher questionnaires are used four months after the intervention. The student questionnaire measures the impact of the intervention and students’ perceptions regarding learning contribution, efficiency, and negative effects. The teacher questionnaire submitted

four months after the programme ended, gathered data about teachers' perceptions regarding the application of interactive teaching techniques. The teacher questionnaire focuses on three main issues, instructional effects, general attitudes, and motivational effects.

Table 4.1 maps the methodology of this study. It provides a description of the research methods used in both phases of this study, and shows the dates and the number of students and teachers participating in each part of the study.

4.5 Questionnaire Surveys

Questionnaire surveys are used to collect a wide range of data for the proposed research questions. Survey questionnaires are useful and efficient at supplying data at a relatively low cost in terms of materials, money and time (Denscomb, 2010, p. 169). Furthermore, questions provide standardised answers which make them free from 'interpersonal factors'. However, the researcher acknowledges that the two main disadvantages of the questionnaire method are: firstly, a low return rate; significant numbers of those who receive questionnaires do not return them, and secondly, once distributed, it is not possible to modify or change questionnaires items (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005, p. 185). Another criticism of the questionnaire method is that pre-coded questions can frustrate respondents and deter them from answering (Denscomb, 2010).

4.5.1 Questionnaire Designs

This study employs four types of questionnaires, two questionnaires are used in the first phase, and another two are used in the second phase of this research - intervention.

The first phase of the study uses two types of questionnaires; the pre-intervention Student Learning Questionnaire and the pre-intervention Teaching Performance Questionnaire. These questionnaires are further discussed in section 4.5.4. And in the second phase, post-intervention questionnaires for both students and teachers are also used and discussed in 6.8. This section discusses the need to understand the risks of bias and other issues that may occur while conducting questionnaire surveys. Ensuring that the research instruments used in a study are valid and reliable is central to the process of good educational research. These are contested concepts and may require adjustment in the course of the research (Patton, 2002). For instance, Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011) describe validity as a condition in qualitative and quantitative research concerned with a demonstration that a particular instrument in fact measures what it purports to measure (p. 133). Brown and Rodgers (2002)

define reliability as the “degree to which the results of a study such as interview or other measurement test are consistent” (p. 241). The validity and reliability of the research tools are attained through the choice of methods used to gather, interpret, and analyse data.

When we encounter examples of data variation within the study’s findings, as we do in the pre-intervention responses from teachers and students rating classroom practices and performance, we must attempt to provide context to explain ostensibly contradictory evidence. Part of this context is provided by some inherent weaknesses associated with questionnaires. To be aware of these limitations allows the researcher to respond in a manner than limits their impact.

Questionnaires involve a “somewhat superficial and relatively brief engagement with the topic on the part of the respondent” (Dornyei, 2003, p. 14). Particularly if respondents are asked to make judgements about their peers, if the questionnaire calls for social or cultural judgment of colleagues, some respondents’ answers give a “perceived desirable or acceptable response, even if not true”. This bias is known as social desirability or prestige bias and a good researcher must account for it (Dornyei, 2003).

The researcher has therefore used the pilot study to rehearse questions that involve sensitive issues such as interviewees judging their peers. According to their beliefs and core values, people perceive things differently. They are likely to over-report on what they believe as a positive feature and underreport on a negative one. So, when planning questionnaires, it is essential for researchers to be aware of these issues. Some students are anxious about being judged by their peers when speaking English in the classroom. Questionnaires often interpret what the participants “report to feel or believe, rather than what they actually feel or believe”. Dornyei explains this tendency as “social desirability or prestige bias”. Questionnaire components are often transparent. They allow respondents to have a complete understanding of what the culturally acceptable answer is, and many will give this answer despite it can sometimes be untrue. The practice of presenting ourselves in a good light is a natural human tendency, but the outcome bias creates a major threat to the validity of the data (Dornyei, 2003; Creswell et al., 2003). This tendency is also related to what Romero (2015) describes as ‘optimism bias’, the inclination to be over-optimistic about the impact of educational innovations because they are new and different and appear to offer easy solutions.

Self-deception is associated with social desirability but is different in one important respect; self-deception does not involve a deliberate misrepresentation, respondents subconsciously

deceive both themselves and the researcher. As explained by Hopkins, Stanley, & Hopkins quoted in Dornyei (2003, p.12), human defence mechanisms “cushion failures, minimize faults, and maximize virtues so that we maintain a sense of personal worth”. The issue of self-delusion can possibly occur on a large scale because, for example, people may be reluctant to admit that the initially promising investment of educational hopes and dreams in the Gaddafi regime has, after forty year, disappointed.

Acquiescence bias is another serious threat encountered when self-completed questionnaires are used. It is related to the tendency to accept the ideas and suggestions when the participants are unsure or ambivalent. Acquiescent respondents are willing to agree with “anything that sounds good” and they are not ready to criticise any issue and give negative replies. The polite behaviours and compliant attitudes of some learners described in this study make it more likely than responses may include an acquiescent component.

The ‘halo effect’ refers to the human tendency to overgeneralize. “If our overall impression of a person or a topic is positive, we may be disinclined to say anything less than positive about them even if it comes to specific details” (Dornyei, 2003, p. 13). For instance, a teacher admired by students is always regarded as ‘perfect’ in everything he/she does - which in fact may not be true. Likewise, if we do not admire a teacher, we - quite unfairly - tend to underestimate his/her qualities.

Finally, if a questionnaire is too long or monotonous, participants may give inaccurate responses as a result of tiredness or boredom. This kind of bias is called “the fatigue effect”. Generally, participants have limited knowledge in a research sense and how questionnaires are completed – “an activity which typically they do not enjoy or benefit from”. Due to the fact that participants will fill in the self-completed questionnaires on their own, questionnaire items (questions) should be crystal clear and easy to follow without further explanation. Another important issue is that the researcher should avoid using double-barrelled questions, or compound questions. Double-barrelled questions are those which ask two or more questions in one, while expecting a single answer. For example, the question ‘How are your parents?’ asks about one’s mother and father, and cannot be answered simply if one of them is well and the other unwell.

Therefore, questionnaires are not suited to get in-depth responses regarding issues and can result in “superficial data” (Dornyei, 2003, p.12). It is very important to keep questions short and simple, because very often participants are not prepared to spend long time completing

the questionnaire. Inevitably, some will misread or misinterpret questions. Therefore, the findings can considerably vary from one participant to another depending on the time and care they choose or are able to give. Participants may not complete all the questions, that is because they accidentally miss some parts of the questionnaire, or they do not like them.

“The data check may highlight values that are inconsistent with the rest of the dataset”, for instance, data that is way out of the usual range. Implausible data is referred to as ‘outliers’- which can indicate an exceptional but true response, and may be created by participant’s carelessness or unreliable and unmotivated respondents (Dornyei, 2003, p. 105).

When we encounter examples of data variation within the study’s findings, as we do in the pre-intervention responses from teachers and students rating classroom practices and performance, we must attempt to provide context to explain ostensibly contradictory evidence. When data appears to be incoherent and implausible, cross-checking and validation methods such as triangulation may be done to verify certain ideas and concepts, as it is expected the researcher will run into some inconsistencies in data that need to be verified. Therefore, triangulation in methodology is used in this study to avoid similar issues and reduce the risk of bias. The mixing of both the qualitative and quantitative data is used to accomplish research aims and answer research questions.

4.5.2 Pilot Study for Phase One

A pilot or feasibility study is a small-scale study designed to test and gather information prior to the main research, particularly in studies where questionnaires and interviews are important tools for data collection. A pilot study is an initial test, on a limited scale of the validity of research tools (Thabane, et al., 2010), and can be conducted for both qualitative and quantitative research to help the researcher strengthen the rationale and the design of the study (Nyatanga, 2005, p. 312).

Pilot studies can fulfil a range of key objectives. The goals in this pilot study are as follows: first, to test the feasibility of studying the population- students and teachers – of the English department in Elmergheb University. The second goal is to test the validity of questionnaires, observation of teaching and interviews – as the chosen methods for data collection. Simple analysis of data obtained during the pilot study will enable the researcher to evaluate the clarity, accuracy and comprehensibility of the proposed questions. The third goal is to determine what finance, time and staff resources will be needed to run the study. The pilot

study offers the researcher an opportunity to practice various elements of the research methods.

4.5.3 Piloting Phase One Questionnaires (Students Learning Questionnaires & Teaching Performance Questionnaires)

A pilot study was conducted to verify that the pre-intervention Student Learning Questionnaire and & pre-intervention Teaching Performance Questionnaires were valid for the intended research purposes and to assess the clarity of these questionnaires. The pilot study was carried out in the academic year 2013-2014 in two stages: first the Student Learning Questionnaire was piloted. A total of 25 questionnaires were distributed between first to fourth year students. They were asked to include their comments on items, instructions and questions which were ambiguous or difficult to answer. As a result, important comments and suggestions regarding wording, presentation and format were followed through. In the second stage, the pre-intervention questionnaire rating teacher performance was pilot tested. Three Libyan teaching staff- one PhD and two holding MAs - were observed reflecting upon questions assessing their teaching performance. They were informed that some of their students and the researcher would also evaluate their performance using the same questionnaire. Participating teachers and students were asked to complete the questionnaire and, more importantly, to comment on vague or ambiguous questions and/or instructions to enable researcher to ask unambiguous questions when conducting the actual field study.

4.5.4 Administration of Questionnaires

The student learning questionnaire is a self-report used in this study to collect information concerning students' approaches to learning in a Libyan University, and it is employed to complement other methods regarding students' learning problems investigated in this study (e.g. student interviews).

The questionnaire is formulated in the light of the literature review (See Biggs, 1989b), and the researcher's interest in discovering and understanding the methods and styles of learning used by university students. The Biggs Test, a well-established quantitative questionnaire, was administered to find out whether students adopted deep or surface learning strategies. The Biggs 2-factor Study Process Questionnaire (SPQ) was completed by 332 students. This questionnaire is a revised version of the SPQ (Biggs 1987a, 1987b) and is a quantitative instrument devised by John Biggs to accurately establish a student approach to learning within a particular context. Although a number of research studies have employed the SPQ to

find out if students were adopting deep or surface styles to learning, Biggs in his discussion of the SPQ indicates that these tools primarily aim to ascertain what type of approaches to learning a specific course promotes among students. Therefore, this study uses Biggs' Test to identify what kind of learning approaches are students applying in the University. The questionnaire mainly investigates whether students adopted any of the two categories – the deep approach or the surface approach.

The questionnaire is divided into three sections. The first is factual questions to collect objective information from students with regard to their backgrounds. The second section is 19 objective items of 5 point Likert scale, and response categories were: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.

Due to the uncertain level of students' English proficiency, and to avoid ambiguity and ensure students provide more accurate responses, students learning questionnaire is given with a translation into students' first language (Arabic), see appendix 4D. For example, in item 1:

1 = Strongly disagree	2 = Disagree	3 = Uncertain	4 = Agree	5 = Strongly agree
I like subjects with factual content rather than subjects rely on theories				
1	2	3	4	5
أفضل المواد التي تركز على الحقائق أكثر من تلك التي تعتمد على النظريات				

The third section contains three open-ended questions to encourage students to give explanatory information about their learning experiences. The questionnaire provides brief information about the nature and aims of the research. The subjective items are analysed as quantitative data and students' responses to the open-ended questions are analysed as qualitative data. The questionnaire was employed and a total of 390 questionnaires were distributed to students, and a return rate of 85% was achieved.

Second, pre-intervention Teaching Performance Questionnaire is employed to collect descriptive data regarding teaching and learning practices, and to rate teaching effectiveness of different categories of lecturers. This questionnaire is adapted from the original version of the 2005 Students' Evaluation of Teaching and Learning from Glasgow University. Seven teachers consented to be observed and the same questionnaire was triangulated by the teacher (self-reflection), seven of the participating students, and the researcher. The researcher completed the questionnaire to complement the evaluation made by students and teachers. The items in the questionnaire evaluate the same factors from teacher, students and researcher's points of view. The introductory element of the questionnaire asks factual

questions concerning respondents' background. The second part consists of 17 questions which elicit information about students' and teachers' behaviours in the classroom, interactions in teaching and learning, and the responses to these items are: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree (See appendix 4.E). The items used in the questionnaire were seeking information about five essential elements of teaching and learning; these are: monitoring learning environment, demonstration of communication skills, teaching structure, teacher preparation, and teacher's personal qualities. For instance, in item 16 (Personal Qualities):

1 = Strongly disagree	2 = Disagree	3 = Uncertain	4 = Agree	5 = Strongly agree		
1	Lecturer showed flexibility and diversity in teaching style. (item given to students) / تتميز طرق التدريس التي يطبقها الاستاذ بالتنوع والمرونة	1	2	3	4	5
2	Lecturer showed flexibility and diversity in teaching style. (item given to lecturer)	1	2	3	4	5
3	Lecturer showed flexibility and diversity in teaching style. (item given to researcher)	1	2	3	4	5

In the last part of the questionnaire, two open ended questions on student evaluation of teaching and lecturers are provided. To avoid misunderstanding and ensure all students provide accurate responses, only student evaluation questionnaire was provided with translation of all items in students' first language (Arabic). Seven lecturers who consented to be observed were evaluated while performing their teaching routine using the three sets of performance evaluation questionnaires. The average teaching experience of the teachers was 5 years, except for one teacher who had been teaching for about 15 years. And the participants had MAs and a PhD in teaching English. However, the average students' attendance was approximately 34, and their ages ranged from 18 (first year) to 22 (fourth year) years old. By the end of each lecture, seven students were randomly asked to complete the questionnaire, as well as, the lecturer and the researcher.

4.5.5 Ethical Considerations of the Study

Ethical considerations are essential in any research study. The clarity of the invitation to participate, and the various assurances given to a research sample, will be reflected, positively or negatively, in terms of the richness and accuracy of the data gathered. To collect rich data from research participants, the individuals concerned must feel secure and

unthreatened. This needs their full understanding of the project in which they are participating, and guarantees regarding their anonymity and the confidentiality of data provided by them. The ethical procedure for gathering the data in this study was divided into two stages. At the first stage, ethical guidelines as directed by the University of York were followed and a statement of research ethics was granted by the Department of Education Ethics Committee and approved by the supervisor prior to undertaking both phases of data collection (See appendix 4.F). At the second stage, permission was obtained to collect documentary information and to interview teachers and students from the English Department in a Libyan university. Ethical approval statement was granted from Academic Audit and Governance Committee at Elmergheb University (See appendix 4.G). This approval facilitated the remainder of the data collection process in the second phase of this study.

Informed Consent Forms

Consent forms were obtained from all people (students & teachers) who participated in the study. For interviews, all potential participants were provided with a brief introduction (information sheet), both verbal and written, along with an informed consent form (See appendices 4.H.1 & 2) and they were encouraged to ask any questions they may have. It was important at this stage of scheduling appointments to keep a record of the participants. So, if the participant was willing to grant the researcher permission to conduct an interview, they were requested to sign a consent sheet, confirming their participation by selecting a convenient date and venue for the interview.

Confidentiality of the Study and Data Management

Several procedures were followed to ensure that the confidentiality of the study was maintained at all stages of data collection and analysis. For example, questionnaire responses and data were anonymized. Interview participants were given pseudonyms to conceal their identities. While analysing and presenting my data I refer to the teacher as ‘AS’ i.e. academic staff and the student as ‘ST’ so that they will not be recognised. Any identifiable data was made anonymous accordingly. During the recording of the interview, the participant had the right to decline to answer any question and request the recording to stop, at any time or to be withdrawn from the study. I also assured them that I would shred the data collected in the hard copies and delete all data from computer files after completion of the research.

4.6 Interviews

Interviews are often used as a means of gathering information about people's knowledge, beliefs and attitudes. Leedy & Ormrod (2005, p. 146) recommend the researcher to ask questions about facts; 'biographical information', people's beliefs and perspectives, feelings, motives, present and past behaviours, standards for behaviours, and conscious reasons for actions or feelings, allowing the researcher to build clear detail about a particular topic. Fraenkel & Wallen (2008, p. 446) describe the purpose of interviewing as "finding out what is on their mind - what they think or how they feel about something". Robson (2002, p. 270) argues that interviews can be used in combination with other methods. In this study, they are used with questionnaires. Robson (2002, p. 271) classifies research interview formats into three types:

- a) Fully-structured interview: predetermined questions with fixed wording, and the responses recorded on standardised schedule.
- b) Semi-structured interview: predetermined questions, but the interviewer is allowed to modify their order based upon their perception of what seems most appropriate in the context of conversation. To obtain additional information, the interviewer may include additional questions and leave out particular questions which seem inappropriate.
- c) Unstructured interview: the interviewer has a general area of interest and concern, but lets the conversation develop within the area of interest.

Semi-structured interviews conducted in this study with both lecturers and their students are elaborated more in the following sub-sections.

4.6.1 Interviews with Lecturers

The interviews with lecturers are conducted to obtain in-depth responses and information regarding different issues, such as:

- Teaching and learning practices.
- The characteristics of an effective teacher: what are the challenges.
- The impact of teacher training on teaching effectiveness.
- Evaluation: the importance of teacher performance and evaluation.
- Professional training programmes: roles of management, lecturers' expectations (Refer to appendix 4.B).

A total of 12 members of staff including the Head of English Department and Faculty Dean are interviewed about their practices, performance and their professional needs. The time taken to interview lecturers is between 40 and 60 minutes; 50 minutes is the duration of the average interview. The interviewees held a variety of qualifications, experience and positions. Five interviewees are newly appointed lecturers (between 1 and 4 years), however, the other seven are experienced lecturers (between 5 and 15 years). Table 4.2 shows the sample of interviewees and their codes which are used in the following chapters of this study.

Table 4.2: Summary of Interview Sample of Teachers

Category of Participants	No. of Participants	Code
Faculty Dean (Experienced)	1	AS/FD
Head of the Department (Newly appointed)	1	AS/ HoD
Experienced teachers	6	AS/
Newly appointed teacher	4	AS/
Total	12	

4.6.2 Interviews with Students

The information gathered in student interviews related to issues about students' learning approaches. Questions are designed to discover which pedagogical practices students identify as most effective in the classroom (Refer to appendix 4.C). 12 students from the Department are randomly chosen by their teachers. Table 4.3 shows a summary of interview sample of students and their codes which are used in the following chapters of this study. Students are happy to share their views and learning experiences. Students are informed about the nature of the study and reassured that the meetings are for research purposes only and their views would not be disclosed. Then, their permission is obtained to audio record their responses for future transcription. It took twenty-five to thirty-five minutes to conduct a student interview. Although the informants are students of English (Year 1-4), the researcher chooses to conduct the interviews in Arabic language- students' native language. The researcher believes that using the students' mother tongue language would enable them to express their ideas and opinions more accurately and in detail.

Table 4.3: Summary of Interview Sample of Students

Year of Study	No. of Participants	Code
First year	3	ST1/
Second year	2	ST2/
Third year	3	ST3/
Fourth year	4	ST4/
Total	12	

4.7 Field Note and Documents

The literature cautions that audio data recorded from meetings and interviews may not be sufficient to reflect the informants' intentions or 'what they really mean'. Therefore, the researcher employed field note techniques during the interviews to record non-verbal reactions or behaviours that cannot be captured by audio recordings. In simple terms, informants may provide information, for example, attitudes, facial expressions or body language, which may add value to the verbal data already supplied. The content of my field notes was mainly my written account of the events which involved the researcher and the respondents. A standard format was developed by the researcher (Refer to appendix 4.I). The use of forms of document in data collection for this study is seen important and necessary because they provide information that is not reachable by direct or instant observation. Documents and records can provide useful background of the situation and valuable insights into the dynamics of the daily functioning of a particular setting. The researcher cannot be in all places at all times to observe and collect data, so these documents can provide access to information that is not easy to capture (Mertenz, 2010, p. 373). Documents which can be important include records, plans, special education files and discipline records.

4.8 Data analysis of Phase One

The qualitative data obtained from interviews and open-ended questions were indexed according to research questions and emergent themes. Each participant's interview transcript was coded according to type - student/teacher. The analysis of qualitative data was organised in quotations and classified according to the themes which emerged. The interviews were transcribed on separate sheets and coded under type of respondent, teacher and student. From the existing transcriptions, it was clear that there would be recurring themes, but there were

no prior hypotheses or preconceptions. Using thematic analysis of the participants' responses, several themes and issues have emerged (See appendix 4.J). these themes are further discussed in chapter 5. However, frequency and percentages of quantitative evidence from questionnaires was obtained.

4.9 Summary

This chapter has presented the methodology employed in this research project. It has also described research strategies and methods chosen to answer research questions. The processes and procedures of data collection of phase one has been given and the appropriateness of the use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches was discussed. In addition, a brief discussion on the methods used for data collection for phase two was provided. A detailed presentation of the methodology adopted in phase two is further presented in chapter 6.

It was argued in this chapter that a mixed method approach complement each other, and consequently provide valuable information in understanding the setting under investigation. A series of questionnaires was discussed in detail pointing out their uses and applications. Interviews and real life observations with lecturers and their students were used to explore issues addressed earlier in this study. This chapter also showed the procedures of ethical considerations followed in this study. Lastly, a discussion of piloting the questionnaires and interviews was given.

In conclusion, the choice of English Department as the setting of research was mainly made due to the fact that the researcher is a member of staff in the department. More importantly, the researcher's background and the advantage of being an insider made gaining access to the work field easy and operate within the cultural norms of respondents.

Chapter Five: The Analysis and Findings of Phase One

Introduction

Chapter five is a discussion and analysis of how the perceptions of participants - teachers and students - related to the issues of teaching effectiveness and students' learning approaches. It illustrates the findings from the analysis of qualitative data, semi-structured interviews with teachers and students, and the analysis of quantitative data collected through questionnaires. Supplementary information obtained from documents, field notes and personal communications, are also used in the analysis process. The researcher thematically classified the data to elucidate the viewpoints expressed about the effectiveness of teaching and learning. The analysis of open ended questions from the pre-intervention Student Learning Questionnaire and pre-intervention questionnaire rating teacher performance, was also grouped according to the themes emerging from the categorisation stage.

This chapter is divided into four sections; 1) the characteristics of effective university students and teachers, 2) teacher performance evaluation, 3) students learning approaches, and 4) support for training programmes.

5.1 The Characteristics of Effective University Teachers and Students

There is a plethora of research literature on the topic of the characteristics which make up the ideal teacher and the qualities required to be an effective student. Exploring students' and teachers' perspectives provide insight into how to improve the quality of teaching and learning. Although significant research has been conducted from a Western perspective less research has been carried out in the Libyan higher education institutions (Makhluaf, 2015). Therefore, this research examines Libyan students' conceptions of teaching with the aim of improving education quality and benefiting further research.

This section deals with perceptions of what qualities make effective teachers and students. The findings are drawn from the analysis of the semi- structured interviews with 12 teachers and 12 students. Two questions are asked:

- 1) What are the characteristics of an effective university teacher?
- 2) What are the characteristics of a good university student?

The findings are classified into two sets of characteristics: effective students and effective teachers.

5.1.1 The Characteristics of Effective University Students

The perceptions held by teachers and students of what constitutes an effective university student were explored. Predictably, there were many views on commitment, active learning approaches and student manners or good behaviour. For instance, while students themselves emphasized commitment and dedication, teachers identified effective students as intrinsically motivated, curious and keen to ask questions. The following descriptions of an effective student are given.

(ST4/11) He must be punctual, hard-working and listen to the teacher during lectures so they only revise when they have examinations (Student).

Students mentioned several characteristics they associate with being an effective student but in informal conversations some admitted that they did not meet their own criteria for being effective students. For example, one student said: “I think I am not an effective student because I always memorize information and I start revising shortly before the examinations” (ST3/6).

Table 5.1-a: Characteristics of An Effective University Student Suggested by Students

Characteristics	No. of Students	
	No. of Responses	Rank
Hard-working, commitment or dedication	9	1
Good manners, polite or respectful	8	2
Punctual to lectures	5	3
Pay attention in lecture, or listen to teacher	5	3
Curious, ask questions or active	4	4
Regular study or revision	4	4
Participating in lectures and contribute ideas	3	5
Seek knowledge	2	6
Independent	1	7
Try to improve themselves	1	7

Students’ main concern is passing their exams and securing their degrees. In table 5.1-a, students assess the characteristics of an effective university student.

The findings illustrate the qualities Libyan graduates associate with an effective student are hard-work, good manners and asking questions or being active. Elements of effective study skills such as regular study and revision, seeking knowledge, participating in lectures and contributing ideas are mentioned as decisive factors. Interestingly, in the Libyan educational setting, in addition to the expectation of academic achievement, teachers describe students as polite and respectful. In the interviews, two thirds of the students maintain that they are respectful and show moral values. With regard to moral values, students in the English department are reminded by their teachers to “have positive attitudes and perceptions as they were expected to be role models for their students afterwards” (2nd Year Student).

Teachers were then asked what are the positive and negative aspects about university students. They mentioned a number of characteristics that were similar to students’ responses.

Table 5.1-b: Characteristics of An Effective University Student Suggested by Teachers

Characteristics	No. of Teachers = 12	
	No. of Responses	Rank
Curious, ask questions, or active	8	1
Motivated	8	1
Hard-working, commitment or dedication	7	2
Participating in lectures and contribute ideas	6	3
Good manners, polite or respectful	4	4
Regular study or revision	3	5
Punctual to lectures	2	6
Pay attention in lecture or listen to teacher	2	6
Submit assignment on time	2	6
Independent	1	7

As shown in table 5.1-b, teachers viewed an effective student as curious and prepared to ask questions. In addition, teachers believed that an effective student must work hard, and share ideas in classroom. Teachers also emphasized the importance of being polite and paying attention, as reflected in the following quotations:

(AS/7) Curious and asks a lot of questions. Burning to learn, polite and patient (Teacher).

(AS/1) Two main characteristics, respect and punctuality in doing everything, the second is motivation which is important to achieve student's potential (Teacher).

The evidence from interviews shows that students believe that being respectful and listening to the teachers are intrinsic elements of an effective student. Teachers agree that an effective student must have good manners and pay attention to the teacher.

To sum up, the study finds that effective students are seen hard-working, committed, and curious. In contrast to the Western orientation of what it is to be an effective student, evidence from interviews demonstrates that Libyan students emphasize moral values, good behaviour and listening to their teachers.

5.1.2 The Characteristics of Effective University Teachers

Discussions in 3.3 on effective university teaching by a range of authors (Barnett, 2000; Hativa, et al., 2001; Ramsden, 2003; Kember & McNaught, 2007) focus on the theoretical features of a teacher's professional skills and personal qualities. This section investigates the perceptions held by both teachers and students of what it is to be an effective university teacher. Table 5.2-a shows the characteristics of effective university teachers mentioned by students, and 5.2-b summarises the main characteristics of an effective teacher given by teachers in the interviews. These are: teacher's knowledge, teaching skills, and personal qualities.

The emerging characteristics of an effective university teacher can be divided into two main categories. Almost half of the characteristics are linked to effective teaching skills and knowledge, and the other half relate to teacher personality. Significantly, effective teachers are viewed as knowledgeable and well-prepared. Other important characteristics are:

- a- Promotes interest and motivation
- b- Communication skills and personal qualities
- c- Friendly, flexible and uses humour
- d- Expert or qualified and active

Table 5.2-a: Characteristics of An Effective University Teacher Suggested by Students

Characteristics	No. of Students = 12	
	No. of Responses	Rank
Focus on understanding	11	1
Gives knowledge or knowledgeable	7	2
Well prepared or good planning	7	2
Communication skills	5	3
Promotes interest or motivation	4	4
Active or dedicated	4	4
Expert or qualified	3	5
Humour or friendly	2	6
Clear voice or understandable	2	6
Personal qualities	1	7
Flexible	1	7

Overall, in the above tables and interviews, students and teachers have similar views on the characteristics of effective university teachers in Libya. These are subject knowledge and the ability to deliver content effectively. Teachers were also expected to have a good personality, promote interest and motivation, and be qualified. In students' interviews, two important issues emerged in addition to the characteristics mentioned above. These were insufficient or rushed explanations leading to poor understanding of content, and class size.

First, students claimed that staff delivered their lectures too quickly and too often gave readings from the text book as a substitute for explanation. This issue was raised by students who complained that coping with teachers in the classroom was difficult; the concept of ability based differentiation is not practiced. One student reflected: "some lecturers use difficult language and explain fast so we cannot follow them, and we get nothing from the lecture" (Student, ST3/7). Another student also complained: "Teachers don't allow us to keep notes and they only keep talking fast in the lecture without writing the main elements of the topic" (Student, ST1/3). The probable reason was that teachers were too busy with heavy workload demands, and their concern was to cover syllabus content. This issue is further discussed in section 5.3.

Second, class size and its impact on interactions in classrooms was mentioned. In the interviews, students said in crowded classes, they received no personal attention and fell behind in their learning. The issue of crowded classes was also raised by the Head of the Department “huge numbers of students created a lot of issues in the classroom, and some teachers lack the skills to handle this problem” (HoD).

Another important issue is striking a balance between subject knowledge and teaching skills and adapting behaviour accordingly. One student mentioned that sound knowledge on its own is not enough. The ability to enliven lectures and increase students’ learning was valued by students.

(ST3/6) The teacher should be active in their class and his lecture should not be boring. He should know how to deliver the information, have an effective way of communication with his students (Student).

In addition, students describe effective teachers as having good planning and preparation, and effectively delivering knowledge. Good lesson planning includes defining learning goals, and as students believed “providing outlines or information”. As this student claims: “a good teacher always clarifies things and provide outlines regarding our learning aims and objectives” (Student, ST4/10).

One student asserted that some teachers were not interested in assisting them to learn which resulted in many students not liking to meet them or seeking their help. A good rapport has an effect on the learners’ behaviour, he said:

(ST4/ 12) Some teachers are not cooperative and are not friendly. We hesitate to ask them for any help or support. They also do not accept our opinions and views regarding teaching and learning and they take it as an insult or a challenge (Student).

However, teachers stated that delivering knowledge and promoting interest and motivation were their priorities. They thought effective teachers should focus on understanding, and have good communication skills. One experienced lecturer concluded that academic degrees were not enough to ensure good teaching capability. In other words, teacher training and support should be aimed at improving the quality of staff so they can develop new knowledge and skills.

(AS/8) My role is to participate in improving and developing my students' level and ensuring they understand...we need to use modern technology in teaching, classrooms are not equipped and we need to make our lectures more interesting and funny to attract students...because even if you are an MA or PhD holder, you will surely need to be improved and updated. This will help you as a teacher to overcome your difficulties (Teacher).

Table 5.2-b: Characteristics of An Effective University Teacher Suggested by Teachers

Characteristics	No. of Teachers	
	No. of Response	Rank
Gives knowledge or knowledgeable	10	1
Promotes interest or motivation	10	1
Well prepared or good planning	9	2
Focus on understanding	7	3
Communication skills	6	4
Expert or qualified	6	4
Humour or friendly	3	5
Honest	3	5
Flexible	3	5
Active or dedicated	3	5
Reads a lot	1	6
Patient	1	6

One teacher pointed out that being an effective teacher was not only one of cognitive development but also of social and affective development, such as personal values and moral traits.

(AS/4) I think teaching subject content is not the only job a teacher does, he has to establish a good relationship with students, and he has to have a good impact on their personal lives (Teacher).

From the evidence gathered, the study reveals that the perception of effective university teachers was similar to the views held by their Western counterparts, focusing on learner understanding and disseminating knowledge (Barnett, 2000; Biggs, 2001; Trigwell, 2001). Effective teachers were expected to have good personal qualities, good teaching and communication skills, and deep knowledge of their subject (Ramsden, et al. 1995; Hativa, et

al., 2001). Claims made about ineffective teachers concerned students' feelings that they were too busy, and did not respond to calls for assistance and critical questioning.

From these views, the study finds that students view effective teachers as knowledge providers but teachers must help students to achieve their learning objectives. This is discussed further in section 5.4. Teachers, on the other hand, see themselves as role models who inculcate social and moral development.

The study also investigated teachers' opinions as to whether student achievement should be regarded as a measure of teacher effectiveness, and different reactions were obtained.

5.1.3 Student Achievement as A Measure of Effectiveness

Chapter two highlights the views of a range of authors on what constitutes teacher effectiveness (Kember & McNaught, 2007; Trigwell, 2001; Biggs, 2001). The discussion focuses on the theoretical facets of teacher characteristics and the teacher's role in the profession. In the discussions, the link is made between student achievement and teacher effectiveness. Certainly, for example, in the UK, teachers receive praise and are rated highly when students perform well in their examinations, and this was pointed out by the Faculty Dean:

(AS/FD) Teachers must communicate with their students effectively and they must equip themselves with the necessary skills and knowledge. As a result, students will effectively cooperate with their teachers and this will lead to better achievement among students. I believe effective teachers must, to a great extent, facilitate students' progress and achievement (Faculty Dean).

The rationale for the views expressed by the faculty principal is based on the notions of professionalism and quality associated with an ideal teacher. However, the majority of teachers interviewed see this assumption as generalisations that the teaching profession must treat with all students and not merely high achievers. That this issue prompted mixed reactions among teachers points to its complexity. Teachers stated that a 'no failure' philosophy favoured by the faculty management was more theoretical than practical. The faculty management philosophy suggested that the majority of students must be able to achieve good results or at least pass their examinations. The rationale behind this was that students who entered the English department had already studied English as their main course in the secondary school. Therefore, the faculty Dean assumed that in a normal situation, a

teacher should be able to handle any learning weaknesses found in their students. This in turn held teachers accountable for their students' progress. Teachers insist that they should not be made scapegoats for student failures and other factors affecting students' learning must be taken into account. These factors for example, are the lack of adequate library resources, an under-resourced English laboratory and excessive teaching hours and workload. When distinguishing overall teaching and learning quality, Glover & Law (1996) cite factors such as the "learning culture" within classrooms, the scope and speed of change demanded of individuals or departments, and the availability of resources to facilitate change (p95). Although the Dean acknowledged that other factors influence student achievement, he asserted that teachers remain the most important element. Top-down strategies such as curriculum development or investment in IT infrastructure to reverse low academic standards in tertiary education are beyond the capacity of any single teacher. If he has not succumbed to resignation or cynicism induced by the failure of central government to provide basic educational resources, the lecturer with the requisite skills retains the power to stimulate and motivate by using learner participation strategies. Significantly, seven of the ten teachers were sceptical of attributing student achievement solely to teacher quality claiming it to be a misleading measure of teacher effectiveness. They concluded that achievement should be used as only one of several criteria to evaluate teacher quality.

(AS/1) I believe that students should have the intrinsic motivation first when they come to study and then comes the role of the teacher to motivate and support them. So, it is unfair to lay the blame totally on us if students fail (Teacher).

Another teacher expressed their views on this matter by relating their own experience in the department:

(AS/4) I always prepare my materials and try to use the projector in my class in order to make the lecture more interesting and captivate students' attention. However, according to my experience, few teachers employ this method in their classes (Teacher).

Another teacher comments concerning the adequacy of faculty resources:

(AS/1) I prepare my own teaching materials, I never get any support from the department, actually I bring them from different external sources. I think other staff members don't have good access to sources and materials and struggle to collect them (Teacher).

Any discussion of student achievement or under-achievement must take account of several inter-connected impediments to student learning. According to Hurst and Rust (1990) teacher achievement in the classroom is influenced by working conditions as much as they are by teaching competence. It may be argued that if teachers' perspectives have general validity, then student achievement should be regarded as one of several indications of teaching quality, but not the most important one. The fact that teachers in the English department must perform a variety of tasks intrinsically connected to the nature of the subject they teach means that faculty management have a crucial interventionist role. Both teachers and faculty management should cooperate to improve student achievement by adopting, as part of school culture, values shared by management and staff; and ensure the sufficiency of teaching and learning materials and other necessary resources.

In conclusion, data from teacher interviews indicates that teachers do not deny their influence with respect to student achievement. However, in the interview, rather than locating the teacher's capacity to influence student performance as part of a complex cultural social and administrative matrix, the faculty Dean isolates teacher effectiveness as the sole crucial factor in student achievement. This is based on the assumptions that the majority of teachers in the Department obtained their degrees (MAs and PhDs) from well-known institutions in Europe and America and therefore, must possess the status, knowledge and power to help learners succeed. Goe (2008) reports that teacher qualifications are commonly taken to be reliable indicators of teacher quality, but they are less effective at identifying teachers who can improve student achievement. Goe cautions that "educational leaders and policy makers should not embrace qualifications as unconditional or absolute gauges of teacher quality" (p. 12). Evidence gleaned from interviews with ten teachers, the Head of the English Department, and the faculty Dean, suggested that judgments made on teacher effectiveness should take into account the sufficiency of other factors such as human resources, research facilities and equipment which were seen as crucial to assist student learning of a foreign language. The over inflated status of teachers in possession of an overseas post-graduate degree may account for an over-investment in taking student achievement as a measure of teacher effectiveness. Whatever the explanation, this simplification obviates the need to overhaul, root and branch, underperforming systems which are in need of greater resources and a change of educational values to invigorate their performance.

5.3 Teacher Performance Evaluation

This section evaluates the “efficacy of teaching and learning practices and examines the problems encountered by academic staff when performing in the classroom?” (See research questions 1 and 2). To gather data, a pre-intervention questionnaire rating teachers’ performance is used. The questionnaire contains 17 items with a five-point rating scale, (See appendices (4.E.1), (4.E.2), and (4.E.3). The questionnaire has five components which rate the evidence of a) monitoring learning environment (3 items), b) effective communication skills (3 items), c) well-structured teaching (5 items), d) preparing for teaching (3 items), and e) personal qualities (3 items). In addition, open-ended questions are included in the questionnaire to collect qualitative data from teachers and students.

A total of seven lecturers were rated using this questionnaire while performing in the classroom. For each lecture, the questionnaire was completed by the teacher, seven students, as well as by the researcher. The researcher questionnaire was used to complement students’ ratings. The student questionnaire was translated into Arabic to ensure all students understood the items. Also, qualitative analysis of teachers’ and students’ statements from open-ended questions and views regarding their experiences in the University are also presented.

The level of agreement total derived from the questionnaire is shown in ‘number of responses’ and percentages of ‘agreement’ (agree and strongly agree) or ‘disagreement’ (disagree and strongly disagree). The results are as follows.

Table 5.3: Summary of Percentages of Agreement of Five Components of Teaching Observation Questionnaire

No. of Items	COMPONENTS OF TEACHING	Percentages of Agreement by Three Evaluators			
		Researcher n = 7	Students n = 49	Teachers n = 7	Overall Percentages n = 63
3 (items 1-3)	Evidence of Monitoring Learning Environment	19%	33%	62%	38%
3 (items 4-6)	Evidence of Demonstration of Communication Skills	34%	26%	62%	41%
5 (items 7-11)	Evidence of Well-structured Teaching/lecture	40%	29%	69%	46%
3 (items 12-14)	Evidence of Teacher Preparation	48%	34%	67%	50%
3 (items 15-17)	Evidence of Personal Qualities	48%	40%	71%	53%

The results from the pre-intervention teaching performance questionnaire show that teachers were inclined to rate their classroom performance more positively than ratings given by students and the researcher of the same performance.

Summary results in table 5.3 show that students' rates were lowest in Demonstration of Communication skills, and the highest in Personal Qualities. However, the researcher's percentages were the highest in Teacher Preparation and Personal Qualities items, but low in Monitoring Learning Environment (lowest) and Demonstration of Communication Skills. In addition, overall results from the observations show that evidence for Well-structured Teaching was low too. Table 5.4 shows that teachers tend to rate themselves high and learners are in disagreement with their teachers.

Teachers need improvement in two major areas, namely: monitoring learning environment and using communication skills. In the five components of the questionnaire, students provided the lowest ratings among the three evaluators. This indicates that students are not satisfied with the observed learning experience.

Female students in particular mentioned that, in the classroom, few opportunities occurred for interactions and engagement in active learning. In Libyan culture, female students are influenced by religious and cultural considerations which restrict their involvement in collaborative activities and teachers need to be aware of these issues if they are to engage students in group work.

With regard to teacher performance, there was evidence that they underestimate and undervalue their role as motivators. Their expectation is that compliant students will follow their instructions and soak up information. If the aim of completing the curriculum involved learning processes that are dull, then this is an unavoidable cost of teaching.

Each questionnaire rated the classroom performance of one teacher, and the response of seven students and the researcher (seven teachers and forty-nine students in total). By rating seven classroom performances, the questionnaire is designed to set a pre-intervention benchmark of classroom practices and standards.

Table 5.4: Summary Results of Pre-intervention Teacher Ratings Questionnaire by Three Evaluators

Components of Teacher Ratings		Teacher (n = 7)		Student (n = 49)		Researcher (n = 7)	
		Agreement	Disagreement	Agreement	Disagreement	Agreement	Disagreement
		%	%	%	%	%	%
A	Evidence of Monitoring Learning Environment						
1	Students were informed about their learning needs	71%	14%	33%	59%	29%	71%
2	The lecturer observed individual differences among students	43%	43%	39%	43%	14%	86%
3	The lecturer encouraged students to participate in classroom activities	71%	14%	27%	63%	14%	86%
B	Evidence of Demonstration of Communication Skills						
4	The lecturer stimulated students to share their own ideas in the lecture	57%	43%	22%	63%	43%	57%
5	The lecturer listened to the students throughout the lecture	71%	29%	31%	55%	29%	71%
6	The lecturer asked questions to examine students' understanding	71%	29%	24%	67%	29%	71%
C	Evidence of Well-structured Teaching/Lecture						
7	Lecturer's comments were clear and understandable	86%	0%	43%	51%	57%	43%
8	Students managed to take notes effectively	57%	14%	35%	63%	71%	29%
9	Key ideas of the lecture were stated at the end of the session	86%	14%	18%	61%	29%	71%
10	The lecturer used teaching aids effectively	14%	86%	10%	84%	0%	100%
11	The lecture was well-organised	100%	0%	37%	47%	43%	57%
D	Evidence of Teacher Preparation/Planning						
12	Lecture time was enough for the content to be delivered	29%	71%	39%	57%	71%	29%
13	The lecturer provided a summary of the subject	71%	29%	43%	51%	43%	57%
14	The objectives of the lecture were clearly presented	100%	0%	20%	59%	29%	71%
E	Evidence of Personal Qualities						
15	The lecturer was friendly and used humour	71%	29%	53%	40%	57%	43%
16	The lecturer employed diverse teaching styles	43%	57%	28%	64%	29%	71%
17	The lecturer showed enthusiasm during lecture	100%	0%	37%	51%	57%	43%

The researcher explained that one of the aims of the post-intervention phase would be to increase student motivation and to increase their awareness of becoming independent, and to

take responsibility for their own learning. Teachers' current practice is to provide students with a copy of course contents for the academic year, and reassure them that examinations would only cover topics provided in the teacher's textbook. Therefore, students restrict their reading to the textbook which covers course content and do not access other resources to expand their knowledge. Revealingly, when asked to rate 12 characteristics of an effective teacher, teachers rated their own reading outside the curriculum as least important. This study establishes that teachers perceive their role is more of role models. They measure reading by its utility and do not identify with reading for its own sake. Their students, who do not have a strong tradition of reading and writing in Arabic, are less likely to discover the value and pleasure of reading for its own sake. In September 2013, the Libyan Minister of Culture signed contracts to equip and furnish 94 public libraries and cultural centres in 22 Libyan towns and cities in a deliberate move to encourage reading, sending a message of intent to young Libyans (The Tripoli Post, 8.Sep. 2013).

Table 5.4 sets out how the three evaluators of teaching performance rated aspects of teacher planning and communications skills. With the exception of the sufficiency of teaching time available, (item 12) teachers rated themselves more positively in each observed category. Students and the researcher disagreed significantly with teachers over Item 3 which rated class participation; only 27% of students rated the occurrence of opportunities to participate in classroom activities occurred in only 27% of the lessons. The researcher rated that opportunities to participate occurred in only 14% of lessons (2 lectures). 71% of the lecturers gave a positive rating to their encouragement of student participation in classroom activities.

In item 4, 22% of students were stimulated to express their views and share ideas with their peers. 57% of teachers believed they had stimulated the expression and sharing of students' ideas. The researcher rated student involvement at 43%.

Item 6 shows a greater disparity between teacher and student perceptions of lesson delivery. 24% of students believed questions had been well directed to confirm their understanding, the researcher estimated that in only 29% of cases were students asked questions to confirm their understanding, 71% of lecturers believed they had asked questions to confirm student understanding.

Teachers spent a large amount of lecture time talking to students and transmitting knowledge, but overestimated the time spent preparing students for learning. 71% of teachers believed students were well informed about their learning needs. Students and the researcher assessed

preparation for learning occurred on only one third of observed lessons. One of the characteristics of successful learner participation in subsequent post-intervention lessons was thorough preparation and explanation of learning strategies so that learning aims were understood before the exercises. More than half of the teachers did not use diverse teaching styles. In item 16 which rates the use of diverse teaching styles, 43% of teachers rated themselves as using more than one teaching method. The researcher and students rated one third of observed lessons as using more than one teaching method. Five out of seven teachers observed did not deviate substantially from a 'chalk and talk' traditional approach when teaching. Teachers were giving students information that they could find out by using dictionaries and showing initiative, and did not involve them in the construction and discovery of meaning for themselves.

In terms of students' interactions over seven lectures, teachers rarely encouraged students to engage in group discussions and debates, both students and the researcher significantly disagreed with item number 3 "The lecturer encouraged students to participate in classroom activities". Teachers were the central focus of the lesson and the main provider of information. Practices of independent learning or student-centred learning were hardly applied. In the context of life-long learning, this is a matter of concern and reflects the 'spoon-feeding' approach where students rely on reciting the information provided by the teacher.

From the observed lectures, necessary communication skills, for instance, student-student oral interactions and small group activities were not effectively embedded during the lessons. For example, one teacher in year four, asked three students to present a topic about Sports for ten minutes. Although students were encouraged by the teacher to present their ideas about the topic to the whole class, the researcher observed that two students were merely reciting what had been written on their handouts. Students have not been exposed to strategies which involve them taking responsibility for their learning. They have little experience of grappling with new concepts. Their reliance on memorizing information rather than analysing and self-questioning is linked to teaching style. Teachers believe that their role as knowledge providers is central. When students were invited, in the open-ended questions, to choose between two learning approaches -familiar teacher-centred or unfamiliar student-centred independent study - only 30% chose a student-centred learning approach which for the most part, is beyond their regular experience. The remaining 70% were conflicted about the value of a collaborative learning environment and whether it would enable them to pass their

exams. Those who expressed preference for active engagement are in reality, participants in a system where teachers lack the time and resources to engage with and scaffold learners on a one-to-one basis, although, like all students, they are attracted to learning that is interesting; “I like using different types of learning activities and games because they make the lecture more interesting and engage students’ attention” (4th Year Student).

Evidence from the teaching performance questionnaire highlights infrequent use of teaching aids, such as illustrations, IT tools and audiovisuals, which limits options for student involvement and stimulating interest. Item 10 “The lecturer used teaching aids effectively” indicates general agreement teaching aids were rarely used.

In this respect, and from discussions with two teachers in the Department, both acknowledged the importance of using teaching tools and illustrations, but the unavailability of these tools induced a mood of resignation. One teacher said: “in teaching English, it is very important to use projectors and IT teaching aids. But these are not available in our college” (AS/7).

In conclusion, the questionnaire designed to set a pre-intervention benchmark of classroom practices and standards provided conflicting evidence. Arguably the wider culture, and certainly classroom culture is influenced by respect for teachers and authority and does not encourage students to be critical. However, under the protective cloak of anonymity, students disagreed with teacher assessments of their performance and were critical of their learning experience. The main issues raised by students related to their learning skills. For example, more than half of students indicated that teachers did not engage them in learning activities and rarely asked questions to promote their critical thinking. Other students confirmed that traditional learning methods and rote memorization was their preference because their focus was to pass exams and obtain a degree.

However, teachers’ rating of classroom activities scored consistently higher than ratings of the same activities by students and the researcher. Rating their performance more positively may be associated with a propensity to over-report on what teachers conceive as a positive aspect relating to their core values.

With regard to staff performance and teaching effectiveness, in teacher semi-structured interviews, two broad themes were raised by teachers as barriers to perform effectively: (1) teachers’ professional needs, and (2) teaching practices and constraints to resources. The following sections will look into these issues and attempt to answer the research question

“What are the professional and personal needs of academic staff in the Department of English?” (See research question 4).

5.3.1 Teachers Professional Needs

Professional and personal development is another theme emerging from the research. Due to numerous innovations in learning methods and technology diffusion, teachers in Libyan Universities are under pressure to improve their skills and meet the demands of their students and the expectation of their institutions. This study has found that staff training and development in Libyan universities is lacking. The majority of the informants raised their concern that opportunities for professional training are not provided within their organisation. It is well established that teachers who work in schools with more supportive professional environments continue to improve, while teachers in the least supportive schools actually decline in their effectiveness and their skills may gradually become outmoded. Harris (1989) states that “if a fully qualified, ideally competent staff are available, time would gradually erode that competence as conditions change and old competencies become obsolete” (p. 12). In the interviews with teachers, a member of staff for example says:

(AS/8) There are not any training and development activities in the department. We even lack regular meetings and seminars within the Department (Teacher).

The scarcity of professional development is not confined to the English Department. Many other departments and faculties within the university have similar issues as one teacher says:

(AS/2) There is no kind of staff training or development in our department, or in any other departments in this faculty (Teacher).

In the interview with the Head of the Department, he argues that the absence of staff training and development could have an impact on teachers’ performance. For example, he says:

(AS/HoD) I think in our department, we are urgently in need of presentations for the sake of training and development. We don’t have that kind of regular meetings where we can exchange ideas and consult each other regarding learning and teaching issues (Teacher).

5.3.2 Teaching Practices and Constraints to Resources

Teachers in the English Department teach a variety of modules such as Reading, Writing, Linguistics, Spoken English etc. They also supervise final year students and undertake student assessment and examination activities. Evidence from teacher and student interviews, and

qualitative data from teacher performance rating questionnaire confirmed that teachers rely heavily on traditional methods of teaching – expositional lecturing. Research shows that traditional lecturing methods are less effective than methods which fully engage students in learning. Newble and Cannon (2013), Nguyen, et al. (2014), and Coryell (2016) criticize teaching styles which are over dependent on one-way teaching and learning because they attenuate understanding, learning and motivation, as discussed in 2.1.1. Teachers responded that the pressure to meet institutional demands and the growing number of students entering the English Department increased their workload. Class size has risen over the past ten years. Currently, the average class size ranges from 40-60 students. Large number of students in the classroom may limit the use of active learning techniques making it hard to engage all students in class discussions. As a result, teachers’ main focus is to complete the syllabus before the examinations start. Many teachers emphasize that covering the syllabus and complete their modules is a core task in their job.

(AS/5) Honestly, my first priority in teaching is to cover my syllabus. My role is to help students learn and achieve good marks (Teacher).

Teachers believe that concluding the syllabus means that they had accomplished their duties. This attitude suggests that the professional culture within staff practice has a box-ticking element as a consequence of heavy workloads and a sense of dissatisfaction with the lack of professional support and training. The attitudes expressed by teachers did not include critical reflection on whether their teaching was effective in the long term. The curriculum was like an obstacle course which had to be negotiated; how it was completed was of much less importance than the fact of its completion. Another issue affecting the quality of teaching in universities, is teachers’ attitudes and beliefs. Teachers’ beliefs and experience shape their instructional practices, and the learning opportunities that learners receive. Teacher beliefs play an important role in the educational process and as such teachers must acknowledge the influence of their beliefs, philosophies and attitudes. However, beliefs, based on many cultural, societal, personal and sometimes religious influences, are not easy to understand and can be difficult to change. One experienced teacher in the Department says:

(AS/ 2) Teachers prefer to use traditional teaching practices for example (Grammar Translation Method), and they believe that this is the best way of teaching especially in huge classes. Some teachers do not attempt to change or improve themselves and they have been repeating the same knowledge and information for a long time (Teacher).

The process of changing or challenging established beliefs about teaching, or conscious or unconscious biases about how a language should be taught is not simple. Beliefs are moulded early in life as a by-product of a person's schooling and experience, and as such, teachers' beliefs about learning and education are well established by the time they complete training. In this respect, the Head of the Department adds: "In English Department, teachers come from different backgrounds and each has their own experience and beliefs regarding their teaching practices, therefore, it is very important to consider teachers' attitudes and perceptions which sometimes affects students' learning" (HoD).

These established beliefs directly affect teachers' perceptions and judgements about how they teach. The design of lesson plans, pedagogical practices and behaviour in the classroom are all directly influenced by the beliefs systems held by the teacher. These notions about the intractability of belief systems adopted early in life and conditioned by repeated practice were confirmed in the case of two male teachers (T3, and T6) who participated in the intervention in this study (Phase Two). Always polite in their responses, they gradually inserted qualifications and doubts into their initial ostensible acceptance of a more learner centred collaborative classroom. In the sense that conditioned practices become entrenched by the time they complete secondary education, the same is true of learners.

Another issue brought into focus in the interviews with students and teachers was the inadequate equipment, outdated reading materials and language laboratory. As set out in section 5.1.3, teachers rejected student achievement being used as the principal measure of teacher quality and suggested that other factors affect students' learning – access to a digitally resourced language laboratory and library for example - must be taken into account when evaluating teacher performance.

(AS/HoD) There are lots of challenges to be honest, lack of facilities for example classrooms are not equipped with the technological teaching devices to support teaching (Teacher).

The success of language teaching in the digital age is closely connected to having access to a fully equipped language laboratory. Teachers encounter difficulty in delivering certain modules without access to a laboratory although some motivated and innovative technophile teachers use their own laptops and projectors to overcome this problem. Teachers and students emphasize that opportunities to develop language acquisition skills through reading are limited because the faculty library provides very few resources and reading materials.

5.4 Students Learning Approaches and Problems

This section explains and describes students' learning approaches and answers the research questions 'How effective are students learning practices?' and 'What are the difficulties faced by students in learning English?' (see research questions 1 and 3). The study uses a pre-intervention Student Learning Questionnaire adopted from Biggs's Study Process Questionnaire (SPQ) to identify whether students are employing a deep or a surface learning approach. The questionnaire contains 19 items reflecting on student attitudes and learning approaches. Students respond to a 5-point Likert scale: 1 = strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4= Agree, and 5= Strongly Agree. The frequencies and percentages of each rating were obtained and expressed as either: Agreement, Disagreement, or a neutral response.

Tables 5.5 shows the summary percentages and frequencies for each approach which indicate a small difference among students' learning approaches. The results revealed that students used both approaches in their learning relatively in the same manner. Comparatively, however, students used surface approach slightly higher (56%) than deep (55%). From my view, there could possibly be one explanation for this pattern. From interviews, students expressed mixed views and opinions regarding effective learning approaches. Many were found to focus on understanding and memorizing for examinations and obtaining more information to score high marks; seeking to secure good job in the future. Therefore, it could be the questionnaire failed to identify precisely which learning approach was adopted by Libyan students in higher education.

Table 5.5: Summary Results of Students Learning Approaches

No. of Items	APPROACHES TO LEARNING	Agreement	Disagreement	Uncertain
9 (items 1-9)	Evidence of Surface Learning Approaches	56%	30%	14%
10 (items 10-19)	Evidence of Deep Learning Approaches	55%	35%	11%

Total Student Respondents = 332

Table: 5.6: Results of Pre-intervention Students Learning Questionnaire

A	EVIDENCE OF SURFACE APPROACH	Disagreement				Agreement				Uncertain	
		DA		SDA		A		SA		UN	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1	I like subjects with factual content rather than subjects rely on theories	28	8%	35	11%	127	38%	101	30%	41	12%
2	Students should not be expected to study materials that will not be included in exams	101	30%	90	27%	51	15%	40	12%	50	15%
3	I am aware that lecturers are more knowledgeable in their field, so I only rely on what they rather my own judgement	42	13%	85	26%	70	21%	72	22%	63	19%
4	I learn new things by going over and over them until I learn them by heart	24	7%	52	16%	97	29%	83	25%	76	23%
5	I only abide by materials provided by lecturers, as I think it is unnecessary to do anything extra	46	14%	70	21%	59	18%	85	26%	72	22%
6	I am seeking to achieve top marks in all subjects so that I will be able to select best jobs when I graduate	5	2%	38	11%	49	15%	223	67%	17	5%
7	I chose to study English only to secure a good job when I graduate	56	17%	30	9%	85	26%	130	39%	31	9%
8	I think spending time browsing around learning materials is a waste of time, so I only focus on material covered in class or in the course content	78	23%	47	14%	101	30%	51	15%	56	17%
9	I summarise suggested readings and include these as part of my notes on a topic	43	13%	51	15%	130	39%	88	27%	20	6%
B	EVIDENCE OF DEEP LEARNING										
10	The use of student-centred approach is widely promoted in the department	112	34%	80	24%	62	19%	30	9%	48	14%
11	Students are encouraged to express their own ideas and question the lecturer	102	31%	151	45%	34	10%	17	5%	28	8%
12	Students feel welcome in seeking help/advice in or outside classes	25	8%	20	6%	112	34%	154	46%	19	6%
13	Lively presentation styles are used to hold students' interest during classes	133	40%	113	34%	35	11%	23	7%	28	8%
14	I believe studying in university will widen the scope of my knowledge and give me deeper understanding of important issues in life	17	5%	34	10%	151	45%	102	31%	28	8%
15	I find studying in university is valuable and a great source of personal satisfaction	20	6%	25	8%	112	34%	156	47%	19	6%
16	In my lectures, I tend to keep well-organised notes for later review for exams or coursework	28	8%	23	7%	111	33%	133	40%	37	11%
17	I spend a lot of time on searching for information related to the subject I study	31	9%	59	18%	107	32%	62	19%	73	22%
18	I work throughout the year so that I only review things when exams are close	50	15%	25	8%	95	29%	76	23%	86	26%
19	Choosing a certain course is based on whether or not I will do very well in it	16	5%	29	9%	123	37%	143	43%	21	6%

No. of Students = 332

Several studies in Libya found that students used surface approach or rote memorization with the intention of understanding new ideas 'deep memorization'. Al-Ahmadi (2008) points to the examination system as a fundamental barrier to the evolutionary introduction of learner centred strategies because it rewards recall and recognition. Procedures of students' assessment do not as a rule reward understanding, and the power of the examination system holds control over students' attitudes towards learning. To pass their examinations, students relied on memory and the security of factual knowledge presented and understood in black and white terms. Briefly, table 5.6 shows that 82% of students who respond to item 6, state that their focus is to achieve marks and pass their exams. Also, in item 1, 68% indicate that they prefer factual contents rather than subjects rely on theories and analysis. On the other hand, 76% of students believe that studying in university will widen their scope of understanding concepts and give them deeper understanding of different issues in their field. In addition, 77% agreed that they keep their notes well-organised throughout the year for later review for coursework.

In the interviews, a first-year student explained his university selection solely in terms of extrinsic motivation "I want to improve so that I can secure a good job in the future". Also, regarding learning practices, he added "I collect all materials and start memorizing main ideas and topics so that I can pass the exam". Another third-year student said: "I only review what the teacher gave us and keep it by heart to pass my examinations". This study argues that students in English Department have mixed views on effective learning approaches. Similarly, Alhmali (2007) studied students' attitudes to learning in Libyan secondary schools. The study found that teacher-centred approaches were heavily used and students' groups between 12 and 16 were adapting to the pressure of examination requirements. Therefore, they focus on recall of information and view their teachers as the source of knowledge. In his study, Alhmali discovers that students at the age of 17 do not accept to confine their learning to only what teachers say. On one hand, they prefer tests that give them opportunities to demonstrate their ideas, on the other, they wanted to learn factual content and be examined on them in short questions. In other words, "they wanted to be free to think for themselves but fear the consequences of examinations which so dominate the education system" (ibid., 94).

Similarly, in this study, students were found to use memorization technique in order to learn and understand. A fourth-year student said, "I need my teacher's explanations, clarification, and experience so we can learn better and understand". Also, a third-year student said: "I try

to listen to my teacher and learn new ideas and information, and then write them down so I can memorize them at home later on”.

The extrinsic rewards of passing examinations influence the acceptance of teacher driven rote learning. Kember (1996), argues that students are forced to use memorization methods because their assessment procedures are based on the recall of huge amount of factual information. Examination-driven assessment restricts the impetus for change from the student perspective. He adds “to obtain a good mark it was, therefore, necessary to commit information to memory. As the students retained the intention to understand, inherent in their desire to use a deep approach, they employed a combination of understanding and memorizing” (p. 345).

An agenda that places more value on the plan than it does on the participants is not student centred. A teacher who is prepared to take a fluid and flexible approach and let serendipity play a part in the unfolding of lessons will find that a more relaxed unplanned lesson will change student attitudes. This potential gateway to integrative motivation will remain inaccessible while summative assessment dominates. The system must change before students engage in learning activity because it is enjoyable and shake off the utilitarian straightjacket which is used to justify uninspiring means to meet exam passing ends. The system is also damaged by cynicism because students have little alternative but to accept their free education in the Libyan higher education system is, or has been, damaged by bribery, corruption and mismanagement.

Arguably, the seed of rote learning is planted at primary age when pupils learn the Quran by rote memorization. Students then develop under the influence of secondary school education system where pupil teacher ratios continue to rule out personal interventions.

Hence from these arguments, students will not acquire complex skills such as critical thinking, and independent learning skills, if teachers are unable to set targeted learning goals, raise expectations, and monitor progress. Teachers need to use varied assessment tools to measure the acquisition of those learning skills. Assessments for example, tests, presentations, exercises, and group discussions aim to enable students to develop higher-level thinking skills and take responsibility for their learning.

The interviews identify three problems in relation to students’ learning experience. These problems were categorised into two themes:

- 1) Misunderstanding lectures and ineffective delivery.
- 2) Ineffective study skills.

The following sections discuss teaching and learning problems as perceived by students and teachers.

5.4.1 Misunderstanding Lectures and Ineffective Delivery

Evidence from teacher and student interviews shows that first year students in particular had difficulty understanding teaching methods and styles because they were unfamiliar with the less regulated university learning environment. Students had difficulties understanding unfamiliar concepts. The Head of Department states that: “new students also lack essential background on research and university system. They still depend on teachers in their learning and they are reluctant to work on their own. I think this is related to secondary school learning approaches”. Students also referred to the ineffectiveness of teachers in planning and performing their lectures. Students identified teachers whose preparation and delivery was disorganised indicating that lectures were disjointed. For example, students pointed out that some teachers read and depended on a single book.

(ST4/12) I expect the lecturer to clarify the lesson so I can understand, and point how the exam will be. Now a lot of lecturers don't do this. They just read through the sheet and no explanations are provided “everybody can read!” (Student).

Students mentioned insufficient teacher preparation. They claimed that teachers spoke very fast and did not allow students to take notes. As textbooks and materials are in short supply students mainly rely on notes they keep in the lecture. One third year student complained that their teachers “deal with us as MA students, while we really need more clarifications and explanation”.

(ST1/3) Teachers don't allow us to keep notes and they only keep talking fast in the lecture without writing the main elements of the topic (Student).

Other students argued that “teachers use difficult language and explain fast so we cannot follow them”. Students stressed the importance of note taking as an effective way to record important information and eventually use them for studying and reviewing for examinations. Teacher's supposed strength – their learning and expertise picked up at an overseas university – turns out in practice to be a weakness because their learning has widened rather than bridged the gap between them and their students.

5.5 Support for Training Programmes

The following sections look at teachers' views with regard to university regulations pertaining to staff training and development. It answers the research question "What is the attitude of staff and faculty management to professional development and training programmes?" (See research question 5). In addition, to shed some light on the effectiveness of top University management, as well as faculty and department support for staff development programmes. Finally, teachers' views and their willingness to participate in performance training are investigated.

5.5.1 Management Support and Leadership Commitment for Staff Training

The literature supports the efficacy of staff development and training (Elferjani, 2015). To deepen our understanding of the existing management rules and procedures, in teacher interviews, the researcher asks lecturers and the Faculty Dean what they know about regulations relating to training programmes for the university teachers. Lecturers' responses present their perception and awareness of the significant role of staff training programmes in improving their teaching skills. Seven out of ten teachers believed that no legislation or regulations relate to professional training for university teachers. They also hold the University management and the Ministry of Higher Education accountable for failing to provide academic staff development programmes. One teacher said: "as far as I know, there are no regulations and rules in our University regarding teacher training and development. I honestly never heard of these regulations" (AS/6). However, the Dean of the Faculty had a different say: "there are regulations called 'Regulations for National Libyan Universities - academic staff members' issued by Ministry of Higher Education. But these regulations state that university teachers can be offered an exceptional promotion for their work based on recommendation from their faculty or department" (Faculty Dean). He argued that this sort of promotion is not effectively practiced in the University because the legislation does not provide clear criteria as to how excellent work or contribution can be measured and recognised. Nevertheless, the Head of the Department emphasized that: "regulations for staff members included many issues related to teachers but they did not include any articles or laws regarding teacher training in universities" (AS/ HoD). One teacher mentioned that University Administrative Regulations and Procedures provide detailed rules and procedures for specified activities on how University administrators, technicians, and financial services administrators are trained and promoted. In sum, the study found that in Elmergheb

University as other public Universities, there is no clear criteria and legislation in place that require faculty and department managers to provide opportunities for teacher training and development.

To gather information, regarding leadership commitment and University management willingness to support staff training programmes, two questions were asked:

- 1) How do you feel about the current management in your department/faculty? Is it conducive to staff development activities?
- 2) Is the senior management in your University prepared to support staff development and training programmes?

It is well known that training and development programmes cannot be successfully conducted without firm support and consistent guidance from senior leadership. “Therefore, strong commitment from senior managers is crucial if staff training is to be successful” (Jack & Philips, 2016). Similarly, seven interviewees stated that commitment (management & participants) to training programmes is essential and it could help improve staff performance and lead to other education improvement procedures. For instance, the Dean stated that: “if certain scheme ‘training programme’ is approved by the University, the Faculty management will strongly support it. Personally, as a Dean, I can assure you that any further assistance to support teacher training programmes will be provided” (Faculty Dean). The Head of the Department also added that:

(AS/HoD) Definitely, I will work highly on such programmes, and I will take part in training activities (HoD).

Lecturers interviewed (6 out of 10) were optimistic that Faculty management and Head of Department would support teacher training and development programmes. One teacher said:

(AS/5) I believe that the Head of the Department will support any kind of staff training so that teachers’ performance could improve (Teacher).

Another experienced teacher in the English Department (15 years) said that lack of regulations is one issue, however, unstable management is another. He added:

(AS/3) I think because of the current circumstances in Libya, almost every year we have a new Faculty Dean and a new Head of Department, and those people are not given enough time and chances to implement any kind of changes or improvements on the ground (Teacher).

Most teachers and Faculty management in the University recognise the importance of staff professional training. There are no regulations relating to teacher development programmes in Elmergheb University. This shows the gap that exists in the organisational roles for continuous professional development and training for teachers. In addition, the current political crisis in Libya could have a negative impact on University top management performance. From my personal communications with three senior leaders from other faculties in the University, they confirmed that recently University management have been unable to meet education needs. This seems to agree with Ambarek's (2010) statement: "the problems that Libyan universities are currently facing such as student overcrowding and continually changing bylaws and leadership" (p. 1). Two lecturers mentioned that the leadership in their faculty is not efficient due to a lack of experience and management skills. They also raised another problem that the appointment of faculty deans and heads of departments are often subject to social values, political and cultural aspects rather than personal qualities and skills.

5.5.2 Responses to Staff Development

In the interviews, teachers provided positive views on the desirability of staff development and the need to improve teaching and learning in the Department. The need for teacher re-education has been discussed in chapter 2.1, and staff training is viewed as an opportunity for personal and professional improvement promising the seeds of change for both educational institutions and society. From the interviews, it was evident that teachers encounter problems, and without the support of their university management and faculty dean dealing with these problems becomes a matter for the individual teacher. The growing demands on staff - increasing student enrollment and continuous expansion of subject areas - have met with little professional support. To meet these challenges, staff development programmes must be included in the institution's vision statements and values. Significantly, the majority of teacher respondents (83%) were of the opinion that staff training programmes are crucial for their professional growth. For instance, the Faculty Dean stated that: "I am sure that staff training will encourage lecturers to improve their skills. Now, education is witnessing huge changes and progress, as a result staff need to cope with these changes and meet the demands of their students" (AS/FD).

Although teacher training programmes are not organised in the university, the evidence from teacher interviews indicates a genuine enthusiasm for them. When the researcher asked if staff were keen to participate in staff training, most teachers agreed they would participate.

(AS/7) “I will be so happy to participate and share ideas with my colleagues, and in case I have important information I will try to present it to my colleagues. I also think that other teachers will be happy to take part in such programmes because they will get the benefit” (Teacher). On the other hand, some teachers expressed their doubts that resistance to participation in staff development programmes might firstly be related to their culture and religion. Some female teachers for example, appeared reluctant to participate due to the culture and religion’s dominance upon their professional lives. Among female teachers, there was a concern about time and place where training programmes are to be conducted. They found it difficult to participate in training held outside the work place and at unsocial hours because of their commitment to family responsibilities. Secondly, resistance is linked to teachers’ unprofessional attitudes towards their job in terms of the degree of their commitment, responsibility and dedication as discussed in section 5.2.

(AS/4) “I think some teachers don’t want to change. They want to stick to traditional teaching. They don’t want to try and experience new methods and techniques and they are actually afraid to do this. Frankly speaking, some teachers are lazy to follow such programmes” (Teacher).

Other factors complicate participation in staff development programmes. For example, the issue of ‘suitability’ concerns the content, time and location of the programme. Dalin (1990) stated that the desire to develop professional knowledge and skills is driven by the challenge of doing a good job. For the development programmes to be effective, teachers must be motivated and the content must be tailored to meet their personal and professional needs. For example, training sessions should take place within the work place.

5.6 Summary

This chapter has presented the data analysis for phase one. A greater understanding of teaching and learning excellence hinged on the symbiotic relationship between teachers and students in the process of teaching and learning, and personal attitudes and motivation. Best practices of teaching and learning can be understood through the examination of teachers’ and students’ characteristics, teaching practices and learning habits (Ramsden, et al., 1995; Biggs, 2001). In the Western context, teaching and learning approaches often involve interactive teaching strategies and as a result, learners successfully grasp the core tenets of the topic through the application of critical thinking. This research identifies similar views on how teaching can be

made effective. For example, teachers aspired to improve their pedagogical knowledge, teaching competencies, and personal qualities, but did not feel these values were endorsed with resources by their educational institutions (Goldston, 2004; Catinan, 2015). Especially in the Libyan context, effective teachers are role models expected to inculcate ‘character and moral virtues’ in their students (Lumpkin, 2008). Indeed, the roots of this notion lie in classical conceptions of character and virtue. The saying that the battle of Waterloo was won on the playing fields of Eton, attributed to the Duke of Wellington, refers to the character and discipline that British officers learned at school. This view was widely held in the UK for the first fifty years of the last century. Although the notion of character education is now suspect in the UK, teaching ‘character and moral virtues’ is linked in Libya to the traditional conservative approach which rejects Western values, images and culture. A potential conflict arises concerning the use of texts and cultural artefacts associated with the target language and the role and status of teachers in a traditional society. Innovative English teachers commonly use song lyrics that learners say they enjoy, but in Libya, this practice may be rejected by those in positions of educational power and influence. It is easier to make teaching English exciting when teachers consider their students’ needs and preferences. To sustain long term learner motivation, this study argues that Libyan teachers should focus on choosing material and content that reflects the interest of the learner. If the use of cultural artefacts is considered controversial to the extent where Libyan educators adopt an embattled attitude towards intrusive foreign culture, this reinforces the unpreparedness of Libyan learners unfamiliar with sociocultural factors, such as English culture, customs and habits, which are recognised as playing a role in reading English texts, and learning a second language in general, Yin (1985). Teachers are left to resort to a more task-based direct method conversational approach that can be adapted and subsequently applied in real-life situations.

This study has examined students’ learning approaches. Students use rote learning for what Kember (1996) identifies as the ‘intention to both understand and memorize’. This study finds that teaching practice is dominated by traditional lecturing involving one-way teacher dominated exposition. Teachers characterised effective students as respectful and well-mannered. The fact that students rated good manners and politeness as a quality associated with effective students second only to ‘hard work’ confirms how pervasive this view is. The significance of this self-representation is what it tells us about how Libyan students see themselves and present themselves to the world. It is very unlikely that students from different backgrounds and countries describe themselves as bad mannered. In cultures which encourage students to be more participatory and take greater responsibility for how they learn, cultures where students pay huge

amounts for their education and hold poorly performing teachers to account, students may represent themselves as critical, or sceptical, or challengers of received wisdom. One culture's politeness may be another's compliance, one culture's good manners may be another's excessive respect for those with status and authority. The teacher-centred approach which has been complicit in the low standards associated with Libyan universities has not been threatened by this politeness or excessive respect for authority. Arguably, well-mannered or compliant students have contributed to the continuation of teacher dominated learning strategies. Teaching has remained teacher-centred. As the teacher has all the answers, independent discovery is neither expected nor encouraged by compliant students or complacent teachers.

Students have been captives of teaching methods which have directed them to follow non-participatory and overly compliant learning strategies. Students excessively use memorization in their learning, because their summative assessment methods have forced them to adopt memory skills. The researcher's observation of lectures confirmed that lecture discussions and classroom interactions between students were rare. Therefore, a change in teacher led learning practices may partly depend on a change in student attitudes. Perhaps students would agitate for change if they were making a financial contribution towards their education.

In conclusion, the most significant weaknesses were linked to the application of outmoded teaching methods. Ayeni (2011) describes teaching as a continuous process of change which reflects societal, technological and learner growth and change, through the application of teaching methods which reflect the needs and values of the individual and society. Ganyaupfu (2013), emphasizes that to reflect developmental change, learners must become more knowledgeable in ways they can adapt to gain employment and meet the needs of their economy. To accommodate different rates of change teachers must be willing to adapt teaching methods to deliver those needs. One of the aims of this research is to increase teachers' awareness of the various student-centred independent learning strategies, with the vision to improve teaching and learning quality by redirecting excessive teacher exposition towards learner participation. To do so, the researcher devised a research plan – intervention – to guide and instruct six teachers by encouraging them to begin to question and discuss the principles that inform good teaching practice and move beyond conditioned classroom responses to begin to achieve effective learning in higher education. The following chapter will look in more detail at the implementation of the research plan for phase two.

Chapter Six: Phase Two

Research Plan:

Promoting Interactive Lecturing and Active Learning in HE

Introduction

As mentioned in the previous chapter, teachers in Libyan Universities, who join the university as academics and researchers, receive no formal training to help them teach in accordance with the needs of their pupils. They take pride in their teaching and enjoy the status accorded to educational achievement. There is no contradiction between the status afforded to Libyan teachers and their use of direct methods of rote learning because Libyans have been politically and socially conditioned to accept orthodoxies and indeed, for many years, were punished for questioning received wisdom. In this context students are not required to think and learn for themselves, instead, they are expected to accept received knowledge. Traditional didactic lectures which position students as passive learners are the most prevalent teaching style in the Department of English. Therefore, based on the findings obtained from phase one that teachers are over-reliant on traditional lectures as a mode of delivery and their focus is on transmitting knowledge rather than promoting student engagement through active learning, the researcher decided to implement a second phase – feasibility study - in order to address these issues. This is a feasibility study for introducing active learning in the context of teaching English in a Libyan university. The objective of this study is to increase staff awareness of different active/ interactive teaching methods, train them to perform a range of teaching styles and consequently align teaching styles with the demands of the labour market and instill values of lifelong learning.

Active/ interactive teaching methods “include a wide range of activities that share the common element of involving students in doing things and thinking about the things they are doing” (Bonwell & Eison 1991). The term interactive teaching or lecturing “involves an increased interchange between teachers, students and the lecture content. The use of interactive lectures can promote active learning, heighten attention and motivation, give feedback to the teacher and the student, and increase satisfaction for both” (Steinert & Snell, 1999).

In addition, the study aims to introduce learner participation by encouraging teachers and learners to begin to question and discuss what principles inform good teaching practice to

move beyond conditioned classroom responses and begin to achieve effective learning in higher education. This will necessitate shifts in the pedagogical positions of teachers who will have to re-orientate their role, their privileged ownership of the knowledge they are dealing with and their expectations of learners. The learners must be encouraged and permitted to take more ownership and to become pro-active by taking responsibility for their own learning. Both teachers and learners will have to take more risks in terms of their learning as they challenge the traditional culture and forsake positions they previously adopted. The researcher proposes to stimulate teacher reflection to instigate these changes using the programme detailed below in section 6.4. The difficulty of implementing these changes by using videos in the Libyan teaching context is the cultural barrier. The researcher is aware that, due to religious and social values, the use of video recording may restrict the participation of some teachers and students, especially females. In this study two female teachers decided to withdraw from the interventions in order to avoid being filmed. In addition, some female students also left the classrooms while the interventions were taking place mainly because they refused to be filmed.

However, before embarking on the discussion of the research plan, it is worth reviewing the literature on interactive lecturing to gain deep understanding and insight into what education research reveals about the benefits and the impact of interactive lectures upon student learning.

6.1 Teaching Methodology in Higher Education: introduction

Although researchers claim that traditional lecturing may be useful when transferring knowledge, it is not effective for deeper understanding or problem solving. Many education researchers acknowledge the lecture as the least engaging method of teaching because students are not involved. If teaching is a continuous process of change and adaption to reflect societal, technological and learner growth and change, the developed world has pushed change in a direction which complements the decision-making choice-rich world of digital technology. However, although Apps are one of many devices that encourage self-generated learning, they are not a magic solution. Students need to be led to be active participants in their own learning and they need to be explicitly taught learning skills - how to find information, learning through doing and practising skills and techniques, and making wider connections with their learning and setting it in context. They see, then, that individual teachers need to become more effective in their classrooms and that students need to develop

greater confidence in mastery of learning, both in class and in their individual study time outside of formal classes. Most people see that these improvements need to come, first and foremost, from university teaching staff using more effective means of instruction, being clearer about course objectives, using, when possible, small group teaching methods to promote genuine interactions with students, and relating the assessment of students directly to course objectives, and not merely to examination success. The question is; can Libyan learners be provided with opportunities to focus, not only on language but also on the learning process itself?

One question particularly concerns learners, teachers and leaders of programmes and courses - those administrators in charge of centrally funded universities whose attempts to monitor standards are frustrated at a national level by armed conflict and at local level by under-resourced de-motivated teachers in over-crowded lecture halls. This question asks how are these desirable changes in practice and behaviours brought about? These are concerns also for prospective students and for business and the wider community who need well prepared graduates for employment (Alnassar and Dow, 2013). Rather than offering general platitudes and advice as if learning and teaching issues are the same in every country and at all times, we must take notice of the historical and cultural context – described in chapters 2 and 3 in this study - in which educational standards and practices are rooted. The response must take into account the culture of the society, the rate of progress of educational development and the health and priorities of the economy which drive its vocational aspirations.

Teachers in Libya continue to apply the principles of grammar translation method by focusing on teaching grammatical rules and explaining them in Arabic, and they also use the audio-lingual method by focusing on drills and repetition. Those who have smaller class size and who are experienced and well organised introduce elements of the communicative approach. Using the communicative approach requires teachers to select and design their materials and tasks and use interactive activities such as group work. The Internet is a useful source for learning about different team-building exercises, but, in most universities, it is not available as a planning resource to reduce the significant time and organisation required to integrate learner involvement in lesson planning. Their concern is that the organisational demands of making their instructions understood, along with the reluctance to participate, based on shyness may induce a loss of control. Concerns about class disruption are based on the relative unfamiliarity of the concept and not on disciplinary issues. Libyan students are universally described as polite and respectful

to a fault. They are generally well behaved and motivated and extremely respectful of their teachers. This same compliance may arguably militate against participatory strategies which work best when students demonstrate an element of audacity and a penchant for self-expression in a public place which takes time for students to learn and practice. Richards & Renandya (2002) echo the approach set out by Mohamed (2014) and described below, which states that fostering students' independent learning is closely linked to securing conditions for enhancing students' motivation, curiosity and self-confidence, which in turn depend on the tone of the educational environments characterised by flexibility and openness to meet students' needs and make them feel comfortable.

Within the bounds of consideration for others, school values in the UK encourage the individual 'to shine', that is to be capable of articulating and where necessary to self-project a distinct individual viewpoint as a sign of self-confidence. The tone in a Libyan school puts more emphasis on public displays by the group rather than the individual, and to value public deeds rather than public words. For example, a Libyan school does not have an amateur dramatic society where young men are praised for performing publicly. This unfamiliarity means that observers may fail to invest in group and pair discussion because in their minds they have not connected independent action and independence. Paradoxically, like any other skill, students need to be explicitly taught independent learning skills. However, they need the permission and encouragement to undertake the responsibility for their own learning. Teachers will need practice before they can train students as responsible learners, and indeed, train themselves to develop positive attitudes towards this approach. Just as for practical and cultural reasons memorization has worked efficiently to inculcate values and beliefs, there may be some concern that a more questioning and reflective individual approach could work to dilute or even threaten some beliefs. One of the reasons for teachers using traditional methods of teaching is that teaching practice is influenced by teachers' own experience as students, as pedagogically speaking, the tendency is to repeat one's experience and rely upon tried and tested methods. Traditional roles and techniques characterise teaching practice in most Arab countries. To supplant traditional techniques, the independent learner must overcome the behaviourist belief that language learning is a culturally and socially determined activity of habit formation and the less widespread belief that independent learning poses a threat to orthodoxies outside the classroom.

6.1.1 The Traditional Lecturing Style

A traditional lecturing style persists because, in large unwieldy classes of students who are unaccustomed to projecting themselves - 'showing off' might be the pejorative criticism of their peers - teachers find it has both utility and is the least demanding and troublesome strategy.

Audio lingual procedures involving repetition and drills suit those who lack confidence in their ability and whose knowledge of the target language is limited. The lecture is the most common teaching strategy used in higher education. Lecturers are effective for transmitting knowledge, but are less effective for encouraging skills of higher-order thinking. They do little in terms of inspiring or changing students' attitudes towards learning. The limitations of lectures are related to the way students learn (Nicholls, 2002). Student learning occurs through active engagement with the subject matter and lectures do not allow such engagement (Ramsden, 2003).

Furthermore, transmission of information and its transformation into knowledge are not the same (Race, 2007). For this transformation to occur, students need an opportunity to engage in deep processing of the subject matter. Teaching methods where active discussion is used are found to be more effective when retention of knowledge, transfer of knowledge to new situations, problem solving and attitude changes are measured. Sustained and unchanging low-level activity such as listening to a lecture lowers concentration, while at the same time requiring concentrated effort to follow lecture content (Biggs, 1999). The attention span of students under these conditions can only be maintained for 10-15 minutes, after which time learning drops off rapidly (Bligh, 1998). Where the goal is to turn students into thinkers and not merely containers of information, effective learning requires the active participation of the learner. Studies indicate that learners remember 10% of what they read, 26% of what they hear, 30% of what they see, 50% of what they see and hear, 70% of what they say, and 90% of what they say as they are engaged academically. Simply getting students active or talking in groups will not alone produce learning (Leamson, 2000).

The static delivery associated with lecturing style has its advantages. Lectures can convey information to a large number of students. When introducing a new topic, they easily integrate subject matter and provide a framework of theories and ideas. A well planned and presented lecture may succeed in gaining student attention (Curzon, 2004). While the traditional didactic lecture has been criticised for failing to facilitate active student participation, it still has an important role in that it can co-exist with other strategies and can be enhanced by providing an opportunity for greater student dialogue and reflection (Jones, 2007).

Fetouri perceives a link between the fact that graduates make up a majority of the estimated 20 percent unemployed and the poor quality of an education that uses “outdated curricula and painstaking rote memorization in hermetically sealed classrooms” (Fetouri 2010). He writes; the “disastrous consequences of this drum-it-into-them system, which characterises all areas of education in Libya, only really becomes visible at university level” (Fetouri, 2010). Academic research in the universities simply does not exist. The result of this state of affairs is that students without intellectual curiosity or initiative are completely dependent on their teachers; the vicious circle of drummed-in education in anti-research, rote-learning-based, curricula remains unbroken.

Munson (1992) argues that the lack of interaction is “one of the major limitations of the lecturing method”. Modern educational aims cannot be achieved through employing traditional didactic strategies which will not deliver the learning outcomes required for the digital age and in demand from 21st century employers. Therefore, there is a need for more varied teaching methods and strategies that develop creativity among students and promote student-centred learning approaches. Barkley, et al. (2005) describe some of the qualities associated with a well-rounded modern education “a properly structured lecture can capture students’ interests and attention, engage them in self-learning, efficiently cover important topic areas, and increase retention of information”. The first step to change is to involve interactive lecturing methods that promote the concept of “students as knowledge and skill acquirer, meanwhile, the teacher should no longer play the role of knowledge provider” (Močinić, 2012). In the literature, there is sufficient evidence for a change in teaching practices in higher education institutions. Interactive lecturing methods combine information rich lectures with practices that allow students to engage in learning and maintain their attention. Several researchers found that teachers covered less content when they used interactive lecturing. However, covering less content need not necessarily be a negative aspect in every context of interactive teaching. In their study, Ruhl, et al. (1987) found students retain more knowledge when lecturers spoke 6 minutes less to encourage group discussion. They also found this technique led to significant improvement in students’ short and long term recall of the lecture. Some lecturers may feel they are sacrificing course content while others believe explication and understanding are improved. Many writers emphasized that the advantages of interactive lecturing outweigh the drawbacks. And to cover more content, it is reasonable to suggest that teachers adopt ‘interactive windows’ within their lectures to increase student engagement and attention. Several studies comparing didactic lectures with interactive teaching styles, (from USA, Eison, 2010; from Pakistan, Sajjad, 2010;

and from Croatia, Močinić, 2012) concluded that greater student engagement with interactive lectures is rooted in the learner's sense of satisfaction at being included in, and participating in the learning process. A more connected approach to learning, and longer-lasting knowledge retention arises from the process of learner participation in the negotiation of meaning. Most learners would choose active participation in knowledge negotiation rather than passive absorption of it. They maintain that the interactive lecture is a low-risk high-impact alternative to the traditional lecture. Interactive lectures transfer knowledge to students by deepening their conceptual understanding and retention of knowledge. Eison (2010) maintains that interactive lectures are "presentations that provide students with multiple brief opportunities for structured engagement". In contrast to the traditional lecture, interactive lectures involve both a) several relatively brief segments of instructor talk or mini-lectures, and b) explicit opportunities for student thinking and responding. Eison also provides several differences between traditional method and interactive lecturing (See Appendix 6.A).

6.2 Implementation of Interactive Lecturing

Interactive lecturing is frequently contrasted with traditional lecturing where students passively receive the information from their teacher. For some writers, interactive lecturing involves a two-way interaction between the teacher and their students. For others, it refers to increased discussions and interactions among students (Steinert & Snell, 1999). According to Rao, et al. (2001), classroom interaction promotes discussion, reduces the monotony of passive learning, and increases students' ability to synthesise and integrate material. Active learning can enhance student engagement with course content and facilitate learning. Interactive lecturing has been the focus of many researchers for several decades. It is viewed as a radical change from traditional lecturing methods and it is supported by university teachers seeking alternatives to one-way teaching and learning (Prince, 2004). It is arguable that the high numbers of learners in a classroom or lecture hall setting makes it difficult to plan and execute interactive learning. Certainly, university teachers complain that organising many students into smaller self-motivated interactive groups is time consuming and difficult to plan. The lecturer's role in delivering active learning is that of facilitator and it is often necessary to modify course material to ensure the fluidity of the lesson. Several characteristics are associated with active learning activities: a variety of learning approaches can be used to promote analytical and critical thinking skills. In an age where computers function as information storage devices, there is less focus placed on knowledge transmission and more on shared cognitive interaction. Critical thinking is extended to the course material

and even encouraged. Activities and feedback are the hallmarks of active learning because by symbolizing and endorsing agency, they equip the learner to meet the demands of a digital economy. In the literature, many authors state that interactive teaching: 1) places less emphasis on the transmission of information and greater emphasis on developing analytical and critical thinking skills, 2) enables varied learning practices, 3) promotes cognitive interaction with the others, whether adults or peers, 4) encourages students do something other than simply listen passively, 5) puts more emphasis on exploring attitudes and values held about course material, 6) encourages students to adopt higher-order thinking - critical thinking, analysis, evaluation, 7) allows both students and teachers receive more and faster feedback, and 8) promotes student engagement in activities. (Bonwell, 1995; Roa, et al., 2001; and Močinić, 2012).

Many researchers emphasize the effectiveness of active learning in higher education institutions. For instance, McKeachie, et al. (1987) conducted research comparing the lecture method of instruction to group discussion techniques, and concluded that: “in those experiments involving measures of retention of information after the end of a course, measures of problem solving, thinking, attitude change, or motivation for further learning, the results tend to show differences favouring discussion methods over lecture” (p.70).

Active learning develops students’ interest and attention. This is essential given the tendency for students’ attention to ‘wax and wane’. Thomas (1972) found that students’ concentration and attention declines sharply after the first ten minutes of class time. By adopting active learning methods, teachers maximise student attention by collaborating with students in the construction rather than the absorption of knowledge. Some studies refer to the advantages of interactive lecturing methods in improving students’ examination scores. It is hypothesised that students’ increased enjoyment of these methods may, in turn, increase their involvement with learning materials inside and outside the classroom. As a result, student results are positively influenced in the long term. However, this study aims to promote the use of interactive lecturing focusing mainly on developing students’ creativity and students’ learning gains i.e. students’ understanding of course content, their skills and attitudes, and their progress as individual learners. To achieve these gains, this study introduces several interactive teaching techniques, namely, the pause procedure, breaking the class into small groups, questioning the students, and using simulations and audio visual.

6.2.1 Challenges and remedies

According to Bonwell and Eison (1991, pp. 4-5) university teachers may encounter barriers which prevent them from employing active learning strategies. Their study presented several barriers, as well as, evidence-based suggestions to overcome these barriers. These barriers are:

- 1- “Teachers cannot cover as much course content in the time available.
- 2- Devising active learning strategies takes too much pre-class preparation.
- 3- Large class sizes prevent implementation of active learning strategies.
- 4- Most instructors think of themselves as being good lecturers.
- 5- There is a lack of materials or equipment needed to support active learning approaches.
- 6- Students resist non-lecture approaches”. In addition, Eison (2010) provides a number

of notes and suggestions to meet the above six barriers:

- 1- Admittedly, the use of active learning strategies reduces the amount of available lecture time that can be devoted to content coverage. Faculties which regularly use active learning strategies typically find other ways to ensure that students learn assigned course content (e.g., using reading and writing assignments, through their classroom examinations etc.).
- 2- Though the amount of pre-class preparation time needed to implement active learning strategies will be greater than that needed to “recycle old lectures” it will not necessarily take any more time than that needed to create thorough and thoughtful new lectures.
- 3- Large class size may restrict the use of certain active learning strategies (e.g., it is difficult to involve all students in discussion in groups larger than 40. For example, large classes can be divided into small groups for discussion activities, writing assignments can be read and critiqued by students instead of the instructor.
- 4- Most teachers see themselves as good lecturers and therefore see no reason to change. Though lecturing is potentially a useful means of transmitting information, teaching does not equal learning; this can be seen clearly in the painful disparity between what we think we have effectively taught, and what students indicate they have learned on the examination papers that we grade.
- 5- The lack of materials or equipment needed to support active learning can be a barrier to the use of some active learning strategies but certainly not all. For example, asking

students to summarise in writing the material they have read, or to form pairs to evaluate statements or assertions does not require any equipment.

- 6- Students resist non-lecturing approaches because active learning alternatives provide a sharp contrast to the very familiar passive listening role to which they have become accustomed. With explicit instruction in how to actively participate and learn in less-traditional modes, students soon come to favour the new approaches.

(Source: Eison, 2010, pp. 3-4)

With regard to obstacles, Jim Eison (2010, pp. 4-5) states that teachers are likely to encounter another two types of difficulties when integrating interactive teaching techniques into their classes. First, there is the risk that students will not (a) “participate actively, (b) learn sufficient course content, (c) use higher order thinking skills, and (d) enjoy the experience”. Second, there is the possibility that faculty members will (a) “have difficulty controlling the class, (b) lack confidence, (c) not initially possess the skills needed to use active learning instructional strategies effectively, and (d) be viewed by others as teaching in an untested fashion”. While attempting any new instructional approach will always involve a certain level of risk for both teachers and students, many faculty members have found it helpful to start by using active learning strategies set at “a comfortable risk level” (Eison, 2010). He contrasts several general characteristics of low- and high-risk active learning instructional strategies (Refer to appendix 6.B). In this study, a number of low-risk instructional techniques are adopted and will be described further in section 6.3.

6.3 Strategies for Transforming Traditional Lectures into Interactive Lectures

There is a wealth of literature on teaching methods and strategies that teachers may use to increase students’ opportunities to learn. However, according to Sajjad, (2010, p. 29) “there is no rule book on which teaching methods match up best to which skills and/or content that is being taught”. Similarly, according to Hargreaves (2000), there is not a single teaching method that can be used to fit all situations, and teachers are not able to master all teaching methods. He adds that “no one teacher can be a virtuoso performer of all of the strategies. And no one method can be conclusively or comprehensively shown to be scientifically superior to the rest. What matters is how the strategies are selected and combined to meet the needs of particular and unique groups of students in any setting. Drawing judiciously on the

knowledge base, teachers working together in one school or department can fulfil this task collectively much better than they can alone” (p.163).

As more institutions begin to adopt interactive lecturing, and research establishes which of the techniques are most effective, new strategies to transform didactic lectures into effective lectures, and to promote deeper learning will emerge due to recent advances in our understanding of the cognitive sciences on learning and memory. However current research shows that interactive lectures are effective because learning is an active process, and considered to be educational best practice (Michael and Modell 2003; Sandhu, et al., 2012).

This intervention introduces various types of interactive teaching and learning techniques, for example small groups discussion, and questioning the students. There is a substantial literature on how to improve lectures and facilitate deeper student learning. Several researchers (Eison, 2010, and Bachhel & Thaman, 2014) suggest a number of low-risk and high-impact activities that can easily be integrated into traditional lectures. However, this study encourages three interactive teaching techniques; a) breaking the class into small groups, b) questioning the students, and c) using simulations and audiovisuals. In addition, Morley (2002), points out the effectiveness of using authentic materials to improve students learning of English. She states that teachers of EFL can incorporate more realistic materials in order to attract students’ attention and provide them with effective motivational incentive to engage in learning English, especially in Listening and Speaking classes. Morley highlights that realistic materials may include a variety of real life aspects, such as the use of video or audio clips describing local places, events, or traditions. Therefore, the researcher aims to encourage teachers ‘whenever possible’ to incorporate authentic materials in their lesson plan so that students learn English using real life situations. The findings of phase one played an essential role in initiating and planning the intervention of the second phase of this study. The selection of these techniques is influenced by two main factors. The findings from phase one of this study revealed that the one-way teaching approach favoured in English Department is often “unaccompanied by discussion, questioning or immediate practice” which makes learning ineffective (McIntosh, 1996). Therefore, lectures were not engaging and student participation was limited. The second factor is that in the literature and according to Ishiyama (2012), the selected interactive teaching techniques are frequently mentioned as essential tools for an interactive lecture. The chosen techniques are discussed in the following sections.

6.3.1 Breaking the Class into Small Groups

This technique is useful for promoting the discussion of ideas and concepts, for problem solving, and communication skills during the lecture. Small group discussions allow teachers to assess student attitudes and beliefs. There are numerous studies which incorporate small group teaching methods into lectures (Steinert & Snell, 1999; Exley & Dennick, 2004; Mills & Alexander, 2013). This method of teaching in general is to divide the class into small groups using judicious rearrangements of seating if necessary (Gibbs, et al., 1996). The class can be divided into small groups of between two to four neighbours without much movement, and larger well motivated groups can be formed fairly quickly. The teacher's intended objectives determine the most appropriate grouping of students. Gibbs, et al. (ibid.) indicate that small groups can be engaged in limited topic discussion for short periods of time (called "buzz groups" because of the noise in the lecture), or they may be required to discuss broader issues for a longer period.

6.3.2 Questioning the Students

Asking questions of students is one of the most commonly used strategies in interactive lecturing. Engaging students in questions can stimulate students' interest, attract their attention, serve as an ice breaker, and provide useful feedback to the teacher and students (Knox, 1986). In addition, there are several questioning methods that can be employed to support students' learning of lecture content and assist with re-focusing of attention. Many reviews of the literature on questioning methods point out the following techniques:

6.3.2.1 Straightforward Questions

Many writers highlighted the importance of asking direct questions (Silver and Rath, 2002; Van Dijk & Jochems, 2002; ElDin, 2014). In asking questions, it is always important to remember to pose them in a non-threatening way, to allow sufficient time for a response, and to ensure that more than one student has the opportunity to answer. Another effective way of using this method is to encourage students to ask questions of the teacher. Straightforward questions should be interspersed in the course of the lecture, because this allows the teacher to re-organise students' responses and introduce his own approach to the discussion (Silver and Rath, 2002). The additional advantage of questioning is that it acknowledges student's knowledge of the subject and the teacher's role is switched from the all-knowing transmitter of knowledge to the facilitator, a facilitator who conducts discussions and helps organise information extracted from students.

6.3.2.2 Think-Pair-Share

Think-Pair-Share is a commonly used and highly effective strategy to promote brief structured group interaction within traditional lectures. In this activity, developed by Frank Lyman (1981), the lecturer poses a question, preferably one demanding analysis, evaluation, or synthesis, and students are instructed to respond in writing. Students then turn to partners and share their responses, thus allowing time for both rehearsal and immediate feedback on their ideas. During the third and last stage, student responses can be shared within learning teams, within larger groups, or within the entire class during a follow-up discussion (Millis, 2012). Think-Pair-Share is a collaborative learning strategy that a) is effective in very large classes, b) encourages students to be reflective about course content, c) allows students to privately formulate their thoughts before sharing them with others, and d) can foster higher-order thinking skills (Eison, 2010).

6.3.2.3 Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a process where students are stimulated to produce a number of ideas- in response to a specific question - and where the judgment of students' response is initially suspended. Brainstorming can be used at any point of the lecture, though Newble & Cannon (2013) believe it can be of value in the beginning of a lecture to generate students' interest in the topic. This approach encourages "lateral" and "divergent" thinking as the whole class is required to offer ideas and suggestions. Then those suggestions are categorised and used as basis for further discussions by the teacher. In this environment students are the initiators of the elements of the discussion (ibid., p. 12).

6.3.2.4 Rhetorical Questions

Rhetorical questions are defined as questions asked only for effect to emphasize a point, and no answer is anticipated (Webster's Dictionary, 2010). Rhetorical questions are used to stimulate thoughts without requiring a response. They are frequently used at the beginning of a lecture to attract attention and stimulate interest.

6.3.3 Using Simulations and Audiovisuals

Employing simulations and visuals in classrooms has distinct advantages over traditional lecturing in terms of interaction and trying out real life situations in a safe setting. This technique provides a good learning environment for the setting (English learners) because it reinforces good grammar and improves students' listening and speaking skills. Visual aids

such as overhead projectors, flash cards and pictures can be used to help learners easily understand the main points they have learned in the lecture. Visuals can also help students to understand the deep meaning of the topic. According to Bamford (2003), visual aids are one of the most effective means of passing information, constructing knowledge, and building successful educational outcomes. Kemp & Dayton (1985) cited in Bradshaw (2003) argue that visual materials aid motivation and attention span by adding variety and making the lesson more exciting.

6.4 Research Plan: Research Questions and Aims

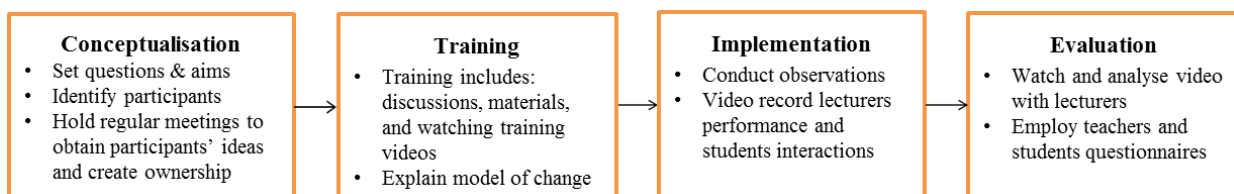
The proposed intervention plan is designed to achieve several objectives, for instance, actively involve students in learning more than listening, put less emphasis on transmitting information, promote student critical thinking skills, and engage students in activities e.g. reading, writing and group discussions. The intervention is built upon Kurt Lewin’s Three Steps model of change. The programme has four important operational characteristics, (1) conceptualisation: selection of participants and setting questions and aims, (2) training and awareness (3) implementation and (4) evaluation.

6.4.1 Research Questions

For Phase Two, the researcher has developed the following research questions:

- 1- Can student-centred independent learning be introduced in Libyan universities?
- 2- Can video-based research be used to improve teaching and learning in the context of Libyan Higher Education?
- 3- Are Libyan teachers prepared to redirect excessive teacher exposition towards learner participation?
- 4- Are Libyan teachers and students ready to effect a cultural change by allowing students take control of their learning?

Figure 6.1: Structure of Intervention Programme



The first step of this intervention is conceptualisation and setting goals. The current intervention programme aims to achieve the following broad aims:

1. To design a professional training plan, specifically tailored to the specific teachers' and students' needs and challenges identified in this study.
2. To increase teachers' awareness of interactive teaching methods, train them to implement active learning practices, and measure their perceptions of the integration of interactive lectures.

The research plan also has the following specific aims:

- 1) Including lecturing, the study aims to introduce multiple interactive teaching methods (e.g. brainstorming, group discussions and think-pair-share technique) discussed in 6.3.
- 2) Encourage teachers to think about instruction differently and become more student-centred in the approach while simultaneously using interactive teaching techniques.
- 3) To allow opportunities for students to clarify concepts.
- 4) To allow students to explain their reasoning and clarify their thinking.
- 5) To facilitate peer to peer interactions to improve understanding concepts.

6.5 Participants and Research Context

As mentioned earlier, the data for this research comes from the Department of English. Staff training and preparation for the intervention is carried out between June and July 2015. In this programme, six lecturers are encouraged to perform a variety of interactive teaching styles. The six lecturers participating in this intervention teach the following modules: Writing I & II, Linguistics III, Syntax IV and Spoken English II. These modules recur regularly in the curriculum i.e. they are taught from year one to year four, and require more stimulation and active facilitation by the lecturer. As shown in table 6.1, four lecturers are male and two are female, holding MAs and a PhD.

Video recordings are made between November and December 2015 as shown in appendix 6.C. Each lecturer is video recorded three times (50-60 minutes each) and they are given a chance to see and discuss their own videos to discover any strengths and weaknesses and ensure appropriate interactive procedures are adopted in the following lecture.

Table (6.1): Summary of Intervention Samples of Teachers

Teacher's Code	Qualification	Subject	Gender	No. of Students
Teacher 1: T1	PhD	SYNTAX IV	Female	32
Teacher 2: T2	MA	WRITING II	Female	32
Teacher 3: T3	MA	LINGUISTICS III	Male	37
Teacher 4: T4	MA	WRITING II	Male	29
Teacher 5: T5	MA	SPOKEN E. II	Male	36
Teacher 6: T6	MA	WRITING I	Male	32

The interventions are part of the participants' teaching routine, in other words, only methods of teaching are required to be changed - start using interactive strategies, however, the content of the lecture is not changed. The aim of video recording is to capture teaching and learning interactions and discussions, and to assess how lecturers and students adapt to the new culture. Video recording aids to capture the obstacles to the implementation of interactive learning. There are between 25-40 students in each class, and their age ranged from 18 to 22. Students are native speakers of Arabic studying English as their core major. Students are informed that particular lecturers would apply different styles of teaching and learning, so they are prepared for the new experience and interact with their peers and lecturers accordingly. Lecturers are informed about the model of change being implemented, so it is fundamental to generate support and buy-in by obtaining their views and suggestions regarding best practices to successfully realise change in their lectures.

6.6 Why Using Videos in Classroom Research

Teacher training programs have long employed video as a tool to help teachers improve their teaching practices. Microteaching, for example, when a teacher is video recorded delivering a lesson the video can be used to reflect with peers and/or with master teachers, is a common technique used for staff training. These methods provide opportunities for teachers to better pinpoint areas that need improvement. According to MET Project (2012), research sponsored by the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, teachers who are trained using video, asserted that they made many changes in their teaching styles after watching the recorded session. In the report, participants stated that they changed immediately certain things that they didn't like

about their performance. Additionally, they explained how videos enabled them to identify particular elements that could not be seen otherwise.

6.6.1 Affordances of Implementing Video in the Classroom

Although several authors point out that the implementation of video research does not come without problems, others assert the advantages of videos as an observational tool (Ruhleder & Jordan, 1997; Erickson, 2006; Barron, 2007). The literature identifies a number of advantages. First, video research in education records complex social processes and enables fine-grained analysis of social organisation, culture and communication. Replaying the events - video recordings capture behaviours which can be examined from different angles.

Repeated viewing can reveal the social, didactic, linguistic and other patterns taking place in the classroom (Erickson, 1986, p. 121). Second, according to Ruhleder & Jordan (1997), the use of video eliminates the say/do discrepancy. In practice, teachers do not do as they say they do, therefore, videos provide more credible evidence of what really happens rather than questionnaires or surveys which mainly rely on recollections or opinions. On the other hand, as in this study, a post recording/post intervention questionnaire is used to obtain participants' perceptions and attitudes and this can be helpful to make clear the phenomena being observed. Third, another advantage of videos is that they provide unlimited reanalysis.

Digital video files retain their quality, the accuracy of the analysis can be verified and the coding decisions deliberated upon and justified afterwards. In addition, the same videos may be utilised for further research with different foci and hypotheses because video yields less processed forms of data than direct observations (Ulewicz & Beaty, 2001, p. 16). Therefore, this study will generate video data that can be used for further investigations of teacher-student behaviours in a Libyan university. Fourth, the use of video enables the delivery of more direct and solid research outcomes (Hiebert, et al., 2003). Video can successfully be used to present results about teaching and learning. Video-based research generates an "audio-visual glossary of teaching tools, strategies, skills, styles, pitfalls, and mistakes" (Hiebert et al., 2003, p. 8). Finally, video-based research permits the integration of both qualitative and quantitative analysis (Ulewicz & Beaty, 2001). They can be viewed by experts of different types of research and therefore, complementary perspectives about particular video recordings can be combined.

6.6.2 Teacher Professional Development

This phase of research aims to train lecturers to perform a range of teaching styles. Video recording is used to capture their new practices and observe students' reactions to these practices. The benefits of using video to instruct the teacher and reveal areas where the quality of teaching and learning can be improved have been extensively mentioned in the literature (Bass, et al., 2002; Pea & Hay, 2003; Erickson, 2007). According to Pea & Hay (2003, p. 10), videos can be used in teacher professional development and training to achieve the following aims:

- 1- Illustrate different developmental levels of student or teacher thinking.
- 2- Highlight uncommon but effective practices.
- 3- Show a variety of exemplars of a particular teaching strategy or a student misconception.
- 4- Focus attention to specific aspects of a teaching phenomenon.
- 5- Distinguish contrasting cases, such as exemplary use of a teaching strategy versus a “near miss” teaching situation.
- 6- Compress experience that would take a long time to gain on one's own.
- 7- Help teachers build categories of important pedagogical phenomena.
- 8- Provide visions for what is possible (Pea & Hay, 2003, pp. 9-10).

As we can see from the above, the merits of using video research in the classroom are immense. For instance, teachers can become teacher-researchers by capturing their own actions in the classroom. This can be carried out by the help of a videographer or simply by setting up an unmanned stationary camera in the class. Video recordings of their interactions and practices allow these teachers to see and hear themselves and their students from a different angle. This opportunity of evaluation can raise teacher's awareness and enable them to modify their practices and find better solutions. Even if the research is initiated informally, what teachers can discover from watching themselves act is of a great value in improving their teaching performance and understanding their weaknesses. Both experienced and novice teachers can benefit from video technology and analysing their classroom behaviours and practices for future improvement and development. Although the use of video recording in the Libyan context is rare and its application may encounter various challenges in a conservative society, this study introduces this method to contribute to the development of future teaching and learning in HEIs in Libya.

6.7 Ethical Considerations and Gaining Access

McKay (2006) states that if you anticipate a research project that involves learners and teachers in a particular school, “you should make initial contact with key administrators as soon as possible in order to get permission to work there” (p. 27). To gain access to the classrooms in the Department of English with an initiative of ‘Promoting Interactive Learning and Teaching’, I contacted the school administration. After getting permission to conduct the research plan and make audio and video recordings in the classrooms, teachers were informed and they volunteered for this research. Informed consent is a fundamental part of research ethics, and it was obtained by providing participants with an information sheet about the research and then they were asked to sign a form confirming their permission and participation. The researcher has worked in this institution for many years, and is now on study leave. The advantage of being an insider made gaining and negotiating access to colleagues - lecturers and administrators and students - and obtaining materials and information for the research purposes fairly easy. However, one should consider the rights of participants, especially cultural and religious aspects, when employing video recording research. These rights, according to Paul ten Have (2007, p.79) concern three basic rights to refuse:

1. To be recorded or to give access to the situation for recording purposes.
2. To grant permission to use the recording for research purposes.
3. Public display or publication of the recordings in one form or another.

Participants were informed of the research objectives and academic interests in relation to data collection procedure, and matters to do with confidentiality and duration, and reminded of their right to withdraw. With regard to the issue of anonymity, teachers were informed that identities would remain anonymous in all publications including this thesis. Ethical principles are essential in any video-based study. Privacy and confidentiality are issues that every videographer must recognise and address at the outset. Researchers’ main ethical responsibility is to those being studied, and therefore, careful advance planning and upfront communication with the participants are crucial. Some consider being videotaped as a serious invasion of privacy, and it should be the researcher’s aim to not make any feel uncomfortable before, during, or after the intervention. However, in this intervention, although many teachers and students agreed to be video recorded and signed consent forms, the researcher

acknowledges that two female lecturers felt uncomfortable to be filmed and decided to withdraw from the interventions due to cultural and religious values and beliefs. The researcher is fully aware of the context and their withdrawal was understood. In addition, and for the same reasons, a number of female students from different groups decided to leave the classrooms when the interventions were taking place in order to avoid being filmed. Predictably, some female students who attended the interventions chose to sit behind or away from the camera so that they could avoid being captured on video. This further reveals the extent of the sensitivity of these issues in the Libyan society.

Although another two female lecturers agreed to participate in this study, however, because of the cultural barriers and concerns about data protection, they are so concerned about reproducing their videos. Therefore, the researcher is wholly unable to share these videos.

6.7.1 Staff Training and Preparation for the Plan

As participants were identified and their consent was obtained, then the programme needed to be piloted to verify that it was valid and more importantly to prepare teachers - participants for this study - for their new tasks. Therefore, a training package for participants has been developed for this programme. The training package is based on three methods: readings, discussions and showing participants training videos so they learn how to perform particular interactive teaching methods and realise their uses and advantages. To secure participants buy-in and create ownership, regular meetings were held to find out their ideas and opinions regarding the best activities that can be integrated in their lectures. The researcher anticipated useful and meaningful suggestions and insights from lecturers regarding which techniques may suit their subjects. Meanwhile, the researcher's role was suggesting and instigating well-researched strategies from the literature to transform didactic lectures into more effective lectures. Training sessions took place in June and July 2015 i.e. three months before the actual intervention. A training package of three essential components was introduced in order to conduct useful and effective training. These components are:

- 1- A set of readings on active learning from the literature including key characteristics of active learning, the definition and benefits of active learning were given. Barriers and students' reactions to interactive learning which limit the use of this method were included. Further, strategies and solutions to overcome these challenges were provided (See 6.2.1). Readings on strategies to transform didactic lectures into effective lectures, and to promote deep learning were also given (See 6.3).

- 2- Meetings with participants to discuss the aims of the intervention and how lectures can be improved and consequently enhance students learning. It is important to mention that the researcher employed a bottom-up approach in conducting this programme. Therefore, during the meetings participants' views and ideas were carefully considered.
- 3- The third component is videos. Participants are shown a series of training videos to help them learn particular teaching techniques, for instance brainstorming, asking open-ended questions to stimulate discussion and allow students time to discuss with the classmate sitting close by - think, pair and share exercise - and then share with the class. Four videos, of approximately 10 minutes' duration are incorporated in the programme. The first video introduces and illustrates interactive teaching by Sarah B. Wessling from Jonston High School, Iowa-USA, illustrating strategies on how to manage, monitor and sustain a class discussion. The second video shows Interactive Teaching Methods by Professor Singh C. from University of Pittsburgh, USA. In this video, different strategies of interactive learning are shown. For example, introducing a new topic, brainstorming and stimulating group discussions. The third video presents strategies for student-centred learning by Pear Three Education. It shows the differences between a teacher-centred class and a student-centred class, it highlights how can teachers make their classes more student-centred and actively engage their students in group discussions. The last video by Rogers Chotani, is a demonstration of how a lecturer can employ a series of communication tools to complement the content. It focuses on establishing rapport with students, setting goals of the lecture, asking questions, and maintaining eye contact with students.

The training package is developed with the view that teachers are not restricted to only particular practices. They are also not required to abandon their own techniques; however, the ultimate goal is to extend and put more tools so they could use the best tools for their students in a particular lesson. As the training objectives are achieved, each participant will have the opportunity to embed the new practices into their teaching styles in the next three sessions in November and December 2015. Therefore, a number of low-risk and high-impact strategies that can be integrated into traditional lectures will be proposed and subsequently implemented. The learning objectives were clearly stated at the start of each of the 3 lectures. A clear lecture plan has been designed by dividing the approx. 55-minutes lecture into small segments (See Table 6.2).

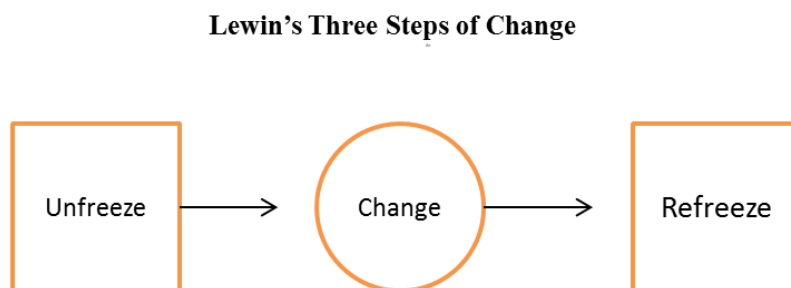
Table 6.2: Lecture Plan by Silverthorn 2006

Duration (min)	Activities
10-15	Brainstorming: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Ask questions to recall previous knowledge and/or brisk revision of key concepts of previous lecture.• Pose stimulating questions pertaining to the key concepts of the current lecture.
20-30	Delivering the main lecture comprising key ideas of the subject.
15-20	Discussion: encourage students to ask questions about the materials just taught. Several strategies can be used, for example: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Asking direct questions at random.• Showing a slide of problem based question.• Giving students time to discuss with their next sitting classmates (think-pair-share) and share with the class.
5-10	Summarising the key points by the lecturer or the students.
5-10	Short presentation of the key concepts of the next lecture. Materials, hand-outs and resources may be advised.

Different interactive strategies are provided for these segments and the lecturer may use the strategy that best matches the nature of the topic being taught. For example, brainstorming, showing a slide of problem based question, giving students time to discuss with their next sitting classmate. Other strategies may also be included such as the pause procedure, and think-pair-share (See 6.3.2.2). On the other hand, and to ensure students engagement, the teachers will explain the new learning and teaching mechanisms to their students and encourage them to participate in the process of learning.

The model of change by Kurt Lewin - discussed in 2.6.3.2 - used in this intervention was explained so that participants could build a comprehensive picture of the programme and become aware of why change is being encouraged. In this model, lecturers will first need to be ready for change and start decreasing the strength of their old attitudes and behaviours. The second stage is executing change by training and implementation of new practices and cultures, as well as supporting participants to minimise resistance. The last step is making change permanent by institutionalising and reinforcing change through new norms and operating procedures.

Figure 6.2: Lewin's Three Steps of Change



Further to training and awareness sessions of the strategies and techniques of interactive lecturing, and explaining the model of change, the next stage is implementation. As mentioned earlier six lecturers will be observed on three occasions to monitor their progress in employing new teaching strategies, as well as to capture how students react to new learning activities. The implementation of video capture as well as the effect of the observer's presence on teachers and learners' actions in the classroom is further discussed in 6.7.3.

6.7.2 Video Equipment

Achieving technical quality is crucial to the analysis process. Dimensions of technical quality include the position of the camera and its movement as well as the quality of the video and sound. Before starting filming, the researcher consulted a specialist from Research Development Team (RDT) in York University. They recommended a hard drive video camera (Panasonic HC-Full HD Camcorder -75x Intelligent Zoom), with Integral Ultima Pro 64GB memory card. The researcher used one video camera and it was positioned at the front of the classroom so that wide-angle shots were accessible. The camera automatically recorded videos in MPEG4 format, which occupies less space on the computer hard drive and is supported by many qualitative data analysis softwares. The camera was mounted on a tripod to capture all the actions performed by students or by the teacher. Although a tripod has a large footprint, it offered the most versatile option, with height adjustment and "pan-tilt" heads, allowing the camera to be pointed in any direction (Kilburn, 2014).

6.7.3 Video Recording

I commenced video recording in November 2015, and spread the recording over 7 weeks to observe whether the participants - teachers and students - practiced the different interactive

teaching and learning methodologies, for example, brainstorming and group discussions and to observe how these new practices developed over a specific period of time. I finished video recording by the end of December 2015. Each teacher was video recorded three times (approximately 50 minutes each), and a total of approximately 15 hours were video recorded. The researcher himself conducted the video recording. Although it was not possible to take detailed field notes while recording because the priority was control of the camera in terms of capturing interactions in the classroom. The researcher was able to write down notes when the videos were reviewed with the teachers. In relation to intrusion, it is essential to review the literature to explore the impact of the observer's classroom presence on students and teachers behaviour. A growing body of research indicates that the presence of an observer affects teacher's behaviour. Samph (1968) believes that observers do contribute to changes in the verbal interaction between the teacher and students but the effect is constant and minor over the course of the observations. The influence is greater when observations are used to gather information for a report that may impact the professional future of teachers. Masling and Stern (1969) point out that the effect of the observer will in large part be a function of what is observed, who is being observed and who is doing the observing? The literature suggests that over a period of several observations, the observer effect gradually diminishes and teachers accommodate to the presence of the observer. The researcher's experience in this study was that the distraction effect of the observer presence was minimal for the following reasons: staff respondents were fully aware that this was not an official evaluation of their performance. Preparatory discussions and training activities focused their attention on achieving the aims of the research programme. Secondly, the researcher has a personal and professional relationship with some of the staff respondents which helped to establish a relationship of trust. All teachers who were observed including others whom were not participants welcomed the research plan because it was of interest to them.

6.8 Data Analysis

As mentioned in section 6.1, the general aim of the current research programme is to increase staff awareness of different interactive teaching methods, train them to perform a range of teaching styles and consequently align teaching styles with the demands of the labour market and instill values of lifelong learning. In this intervention, a range of techniques that can be used in classroom are identified. The first phase - pre-intervention- of this study finds that teachers in the Department of English rarely employed student-centred independent learning, and may not be aware of the various types of interactive teaching techniques. Therefore, a

training and awareness programme is conducted to evaluate feasibility and introduce interactive teaching techniques to six teachers. The programme also includes the purposes and uses of each technique, a more thorough description, an explanation of the advantages of the techniques, the steps required for implementation, and difficulties that might arise. Teachers are video recorded while implementing active learning approaches, for instance, engaging students in group discussion, promoting analytical thinking and stimulating students to ask questions. The process of video analysis focuses on particular practices which accord with the research aims. According to Derry, et al. (2010, p. 9), researchers selecting video recordings for educational purposes are often concerned with closely describing and accounting for the relative frequency of a type of event. The researcher will adopt the whole-to-part inductive approach described by Erickson (2006) which suggests repeated viewings of video contents in which the researcher identifies major events, transitions, and themes. Erickson provides six steps on video data analysis (See Appendix 6.D). Therefore, in this study, the analysis process focuses on activities performed by teachers and students as they change their old practices in different stages of the lecture.

Finally, to measure the impact of the research plan, and address research aims, post-intervention student and teacher questionnaires are used four months after the programme. The student questionnaire measures students' perceptions concerning three factors: perceived learning contribution, perceived efficiency, and perceived negative effects. Student questionnaire aims to gauge students' perceptions of their new learning practices rather than test their knowledge or learning. A five point Likert scale of 1 to 5 is used to measure perceptions: 1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Uncertain, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly agree (Refer to Appendix 6.E). The student questionnaire contains 16 closed-ended items and two open-ended questions to allow students to add explanatory comments. A total of valid 84 student questionnaires were obtained. The questionnaire was translated into Arabic - students' native language - to avoid ambiguity and ensure that students understood all items.

The post-intervention teacher questionnaire is also submitted four months after the end of the programme to obtain teachers' perceptions of the use of interactive teaching techniques. The teacher questionnaire is based on three main issues: (a) instructional effects of interactive teaching techniques, (b) general attitudes, and (c) motivational effects, (Refer to Appendix 6.F). A five point Likert scale of 1 to 5 is used to measure 15 close-ended questions. Data analysis explaining statistically in numbers and percentages the results are also provided.

Three open-ended questions are used in the teacher questionnaire to yield in-depth responses regarding, (a) new skills gained, (b), programme impact on their instructional practices, and (c) the impact of the new instructional practices on their students.

Chapter Seven: Analysis and Findings of Phase Two

Introduction

This chapter discusses the implementation of the research programme with six lecturers in the Department of English. This intervention includes six teachers, 4 males and 2 females. Each teacher is video recorded during their class hour on three different occasions, and the study spans eight weeks. It also presents the coding framework used to analyse video capture of research data. With extensive international studies providing much relevant information on methods of video analysis, an adaptive coding framework of lesson structure analysis (Savola, 2008) is developed in this study. Lecture structure analysis is a key element of many video-based pedagogical studies. Various coding framework methods for lesson structure analysis were explored in different large-scale classroom studies, for example the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS, 1999), Video Study (Hiebert, et al., 2003), and the Learner's Perspective Study (Clarke et al., 2006). In addition, the two-pass coding approach developed by Savola (2008) is derived from the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study and the Learner's Perspective Study. This coding approach integrates function (first pass) and form (second pass). The function coding deals with the pedagogical functions of the lesson and is based on a set of predetermined elements, for example: review, introducing new content, practicing/ applying etc. The second criterion based on ideas derived from the Learner's Perspective Study (Clarke et al., 2006) and its coding practices derive from asking 'who is doing what?' and 'how are the participants interacting?', i.e. 'attitudes and behaviour'. Researchers may include different categories according to the type of interactions between teachers and students. Oser and Baeriswyl (2001) base lesson structure on two levels: the surface (sight) and the deep structure of instruction. Surface structures are the observable pedagogical elements of a lesson. These include teaching strategies and classroom interactions. So, when observing the lesson, it is possible to recognise when a teacher is using the board to introduce a new topic, when students are working in groups, or when a student is expressing his views to the rest of the class. However, deep structures concern the student's mental operations which are stimulated by classroom activities. Basis Model (BM) is a term created by Oser and Baeriswyl (2001) to identify the hidden cognitive structures underpinning learning processes. They provided a number of basis-models for example, learning through experience, problem solving, concept building, learning strategies, and social learning. The elements of learning in basis-model are

joined together like paths that can be explored, however, these cannot be directly observed. The basis-model of any learning context must be hypothetically inferred or solicited from the students (ibid., 1043). The design of the framework of video analysis is based on research questions and aims, and the above discussions of coding schemes. The following sections explore video recorded lessons and find out how successfully teachers performed the interactive teaching techniques suggested by this study. As we saw in chapter six, teachers were trained to employ several teaching techniques (e.g. breaking the class into small groups, questioning the students, using simulations and visual aids). The aim of the intervention was to encourage student engagement and improve participation. Therefore, the analysis of videos will mainly focus on two aspects: surface structures of lectures, and deep structures. First, descriptions of the surface (visible) structures of classroom interactions are given. Interactions include the teaching method or technique in use, social interactions and student communications taking place as a result of the adoption of a particular technique. The aim is to identify whether student centred learning strategies are effectively incorporated and whether teachers changed their attitudes towards how learners learn.

Secondly, analysis focuses on the deep structures of the observed lectures. A significant aim of the intervention is to introduce a shift in power relations between students and teachers; to induce a cultural change in which students and teachers take new and different positions. In this respect, lecturers encourage students to express themselves, to think critically, and reflect on their own learning. The analysis is an attempt to capture and categorise that cultural shift, and eventually establish evidence of whether improved learning as a result of the changes in teaching. Finally, the data analysis is also supplemented by a survey of the participants' opinions of the new mechanisms of teaching and learning. Four months after the intervention, teachers and students completed questionnaires which enabled their attitudes towards the success of the intervention to be compared and contrasted.

To evaluate the new teaching and learning approaches, we must have insights into teachers and learners' opinions and attitudes. By providing opinions and perceptions of the new mechanisms, the findings of this study may lead Libyan university administrators and teachers to assess the viability and desirability of incorporating interactive teaching techniques into traditional method of teaching.

After the teachers were video recorded, they watched themselves performing to reflect on their performance of new teaching practices. The following sections describe how six

teachers (T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, and T6) perform in the classrooms aiming to implement a set of student-centred learning approaches. In addition, it provides a presentation of students' reactions and responses to the new styles of teaching and learning, and assesses the learning associated with the new methods. The description will mainly focus on major new features of students' learning practices acquired as a result of this intervention.

7.1 Teachers' Implementation of Interactive Teaching Techniques - Functions

7.1.1 Teacher 1

Total number of students: 32

Academic Year: 2015/2016

This is a group of fourth year students studying English. The medium of instruction is English and all students' first language is Arabic. This mixed-gender group was in their final year of study at the time of research. The instructor is a female lecturer who holds a PhD in Applied Linguistics, and has eight years' experience of teaching. The subject being taught (Syntax IV) is a major structural aspect of language and it mainly deals with phrase, clause and sentence formation. Generally, the aim of teaching Syntax is to help students recognise word order and sentence structure. It is also to help students construct clear sentences where words, phrases, and clauses each serve their function and are correctly ordered to form a complete sentence with meaning. The topics that are suggested to be studied this year are:

- Definition of syntax
- Syntactic categories:
 - lexical categories
 - phrase structure grammar
 - sentence
- Constituent structure tree
- Basic phrase structure rules
- Diagramming sentences
- Structural/ lexical ambiguity
- Complement phrase

Session 1

Attendance: 29

Activity I: review ‘syntactic categories’ (15 minutes)

The teacher began the lecture with a review and asked some overhead questions to engage students in the review and to capture their attention. Overhead questions are those directed towards the whole class and anyone can answer leading to open discussions (Lynch & Lifton, 1998: xiii). Then, she asked students direct questions about the previous lecture’s topic ‘syntactic categories’. The teacher’s question was “what are the three parts of syntactic categories we discussed last week?”. The teacher stimulated students to respond to the question by encouraging them to give their views and provide a brief explanation of the question. The video illustrated that few students were able to respond to the teacher’s opening question. In addition, to examine students’ understanding, the teacher used a number of flash cards containing different words for the three categories: (a) lexical categories, (b) phrase structure, and (c) sentence. Randomly, students were required to categorise each word appeared on the cards for example, noun, adjective, adverb, preposition etc. To practice some abbreviations of syntactic categories (syntactic labels), the teacher asked several students to write the syntactic labels of different syntactic categories (e.g. adv. adj. n. prep.) however, this time on board. It is important to notice that this kind of action is rarely practiced in the Department, nevertheless, many students were happy to write their answers on the board and there was no refusal.

Activity II: new topic ‘Noun Phrase’ (20 minutes)

The teacher delivered a 15-minute lecture, pointing out the main points of the new topic. The teacher used different techniques for example, brainstorming. She asked students many direct questions and stimulated their thinking to attract their attention and build their interest. While lecturing, the teacher on many occasions engaged students to provide examples to illustrate the topic being presented. It can be noted from the video that despite the continued support and encouragement offered by the lecturer, many students were reluctant to share their opinions as only a few students felt able to participate with their suggestions. This behaviour may confirm the types of student learning style- mentioned in interviews earlier in this study-

where students lack independent learning skills, including studying at home, and mainly rely on the lecture content.

Activity III: practicing new ideas (10 minutes)

After the 15-minute lecture was given, the teacher provided exercises on the board and asked students to work on them. The aim was to promote learning by focusing on understanding and emphasizing active participation. In the discussions which followed, many students were hesitant to express their ideas and only a few students participated. This may be attributed to students' anxiety to take notes and record key information during the lecture. Another possible explanation is that students are not ready to discuss the new topic due to their lack of information. This was the first lecture in this group where a number of active learning strategies, such as the use of questions and flash cards were introduced. The presence of the researcher and the camera may have a quieting influence on both the teacher and students.

Session:2

Attendance: 27

In this lecture, the teacher used three different strategies to carry out today's lesson. First, the teacher asked students direct questions, second, the teacher used visual aids, and finally, students performed small group activities.

Activity I: Direct questioning (10 minutes)

The teacher started the lecture by engaging two groups of male and female students to perform a group activity on the board. In this exercise, the teacher asked each group a question and one student from the group wrote the answer on one side of the board. The aim was to encourage teamwork and mutual support among students. The teacher's role was to encourage students and coordinate these activities. The teacher asked a number of questions to each group, and they were given a specific time to think about an answer and write it on the board. Some of the exercises, for example, were: (1) Give the syntactic level of an adverb phrase. (2) To rearrange a sequence of words or a group of words arranged in grammatical constructions to make them function as a unit in a sentence. (3) Complete the names of syntactic categories illustrated in tree dialogue usually written by the initials or abbreviations of the categories. Finally, two sets of answers were on each side of the board (males' and females' answers) and the teacher engaged the whole class to find out which group provided

the correct answers. In addition, with the teacher's assistance, it seemed to be a good chance to discuss and explore students' answers and consider possible alternatives.

The researcher has observed teachers ask open-ended questions and became anxious in the pause of silence that occurs before a response is received. Whether through fear of failure or a lack of experience, this anxiety can make them impatient, leading them to answer their own question. Students' unfamiliarity with learning objectives has caused a parallel uncertainty. Unless pedagogical change is discussed and explained, they can remain stuck in their passive role of needing to be taught rather than do the work of self-teaching. Certainly, students must learn to prepare themselves for independent learning and be prepared to make student centred learning work.

Activity II: Visual aids (15 minutes)

Moving to the second activity, the teacher displayed one large poster on the board. The poster contained three different images, a family portrait, Taj Mahal in India, and the third was a picture of a group of young children. The teacher indicated that the task was to write one syntactic label next to the picture and each student need to guess a suitable label to each picture. This exercise helped students use their prior know to discover and construct new ideas. As encouraged by the researcher, the teacher had to prepare the exercise poster to carry out this activity. According to the teacher, visual aid techniques increased students' participation and attention during the exercise. She also said visual aids can help learners understand the deep meaning of the topic and identify similarities and differences between each topic. A number of students participated in this exercise and each one of them provided different labels to the image. At the end, the teacher discussed the participants' answers with all students and inaccurate answers were eliminated.

Activity III: Small group activity (25 minutes)

The teacher's plan for this activity was to engage students in small group activity. First, she informed students about the nature of the task they were to perform, and asked them to split into groups of four. Then, each group was asked to assign one person as a group leader. The teacher reminded the leaders of each group to keep on task and focused. They read the assignment to the group, manage time, and report their predicted content. The task was 15 sentences varied on their level of difficulty and complexity. The teacher clearly pointed out the instructions. In English, she wrote on the board 'Identify the syntactic categories of each

sentence? Add a syntactic label to the underlined words in the text'. The teacher made seven copies, so that each group worked on one text.

At this stage, the video shows a significant behaviour by the students when they organise themselves in groups on the basis of their gender. The video also shows that the teacher is aware of the gender issues, and the fact that some female students may not effectively work on an activity if they are joined by male students, and probably, vice versa; male students may only prefer to work in small groups of their gender. In addition, students had a similar behaviour in Activity I in this Session when two groups of males and females separately worked on the board. This is one of the issues that teachers need to deal with, because many students are influenced by their cultural considerations and religious values.

The instructions were for all groups to discuss the content of their sheet and identify the syntactic categories (labels) of each sentence and underlined words. The aim was all students use only English in their discussions and avoid using Arabic, in order to improve their understanding of the different structures of syntactic categories in the target language. In addition, the exercise aimed to help students learn how to link their previous knowledge to the topic being taught. The teacher's role was to foster discussion among students by moving from one group to another, listening to discussions and offering assistance when needed. Next, when the groups had written their answers on the sheets, the teacher invited the group leaders to explain their answers. Then, the teacher and students discussed what each group had produced.

This practice provided students with the opportunities to start thinking critically about their work and to compare their answers to other groups' answers. Teamwork can bring a competitive dimension to learning which can motivate students to work harder for results. More importantly, it exposes them to other students' thought processes and problem-solving abilities, which may provide the opportunity to develop their own skills. The missing factor here could be that some groups may go too fast for one individual and that individual feels lost, so he/she just copies. Also, the quiet students who rarely talk in the classroom might still not feel comfortable talking to a group. The issue of gender among Libyan students may, to an extent, limit students' interactions. But with good understanding of the culture, teachers can provide opportunities for students to collaborate and learn together. The video showed that the activities practiced in this session could (1) bring students together working as a team to win a competition, (2) recall prior learning to focus on the main ideas, ensure

understanding, to practice and check recall, and (3) keep students engaged in fluid classroom activities, working in groups and discovering information which encourage them to become excited about their learning. This is because the style raises student curiosity and allows them to resolve issues themselves.

Session 3

Attendance: 28

Activity I: Review (20 minutes)

This is the third and final lecture for this group. The teacher started the lecture with a review activity for the previous lesson. To carry out the activity, the teacher first invited two large groups of male and female students to work on the board. The teacher prepared seven cards with different questions and the answers to be used in the activity. When each group heard a question, they chose the card with the right answer and put it on the board. The teacher asked each group to write the answers to questions such as ‘give an example of an adjectival phrase’ and ‘which words modify verbs, adjectives, and adverbs’? According to the teacher, the questions were designed to help students reflect on what they had learned and analyse and evaluate concepts. Then, the teacher used students’ answers to stimulate discussions with the whole class. The teacher posed questions to help students uncover what had been learned and during guided discussions, the teacher asked mainly conceptual questions to elicit students’ thinking and views rather than answering the question herself. The teacher’s contributions were mainly elicitation, such as “is that what you think?” and “tell me what you think?” Within the inquiry environment, the teacher’s questioning was intended to promote learning, not merely to judge the correctness of the responses. So instead of ending the questioning cycle in evaluative statements, each group was encouraged to self-evaluate their work and justify their findings.

Activity II: New topic ‘Adjective Phrase’

Brainstorming and Think-pair-share (20 minutes)

The second activity introduced the new topic - ‘Adjectival Phrase’. The teacher wrote two main questions on the board: (1) How do we form an Adjectival Phrase? and (2) What is an Adjectival Phrase composed of? Then, the teacher allowed time for students to think about these questions for few minutes and generate as many ideas as possible. According to the

teacher, the aim of this technique was to increase personal communications necessary for students to process and retain ideas. This sort of interaction maximises the opportunities to practice speaking different forms and structures of English, as more learners speak for more of the time. In addition, interaction through pair and group work gives learners the opportunity to use English language with confidence and to measure their progress which in return should lead to an increase in motivation. After ten minutes of brainstorming and individual thinking, students were instructed to pair with a partner to discuss, compare and rehearse their ideas in preparation for sharing them with other groups. The class engaged in discussions and the teacher encouraged students to exchange their ideas and help each other. To achieve this, the teacher showed all pairs how to complete each step of the question and talked to them during the discussions. In the last step of the activity, students were given a chance to share their ideas in a larger class discussion. They were invited to present their work on the board and elaborate on ideas through talk. Meanwhile, the teacher's role was to guide the discussions and stimulate other students to raise questions and concerns to the presenter. In a polite and friendly manner, students were encouraged to express their views and opinions whether or not they agreed with those of the lecturer. This openness promotes the sense that all opinions have a value, and that making comparisons between them encourages deeper thought and learning abilities. Many students were able to effectively participate in a group discussion and present the ideas they had organised. However, some students may have been embarrassed to speak in front of the whole class, because a few were hesitant to offer their thoughts. The video shows that some students refused to share their ideas with a larger group and the teacher reported that it was the same students who lacked the confidence and were uncomfortable discussing ideas in front of the class.

In conclusion, the teacher used brain storming and several interactive teaching techniques in the three sessions. For example, brain storming and follow-up questions were used in the classroom to motivate students to freely express their ideas and thoughts. The teacher also used overhead questions and direct questions. To maintain students' attention, the teacher used visual aids and encouraged students to work on the board. Visual aids were for example, flash cards, images, and illustrations. To ensure student participation and engagement with the material, the teacher required students to engage in small and large group activities. They were constantly encouraged to ask questions and express their concerns. Students were also stimulated to participate in small and large groups, and in whole class discussions. Finally, to

enhance learning and correct students' mistakes, students were able to receive timely feedback from the teacher.

7.1.2 Teacher 2

Total number of students:32

Academic Year: 2015/2016

This group of second year students studying English use mainly English as their language of instruction. Their first language is Arabic. The instructor is a female lecturer who holds an MA in TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages), and has ten years' experience of teaching. The subject - Creative Writing II - a core course in all phases in the Department of English (Year 1 to Year 4). The core courses which are taught from year 1 to year 4 teach the four skills: Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening. This course is designed to help students communicate effectively in writing to a variety of audiences and for a variety of purposes to help students develop skills in planning writing and completing reading tasks. The following is a description of three lectures in which the teacher practices interactive teaching techniques. The overall objective is to use writing and reading for learning, thinking and communicating. The topics to be covered include essay reading and writing, and Academic writing style.

Session 1

Attendance: 26

Activity I: revision of the previous lesson (15 minutes)

The lecture commenced with a review of the key points of the previous lesson- clustering and paragraph listing. In a planned effort to draw students to higher level thinking and encourage active participation, the teacher used a high level divergent exercise. She handed out ten flashcards, each with different words e.g. driver, chef, soldier, waiter, model, singer, teacher, and carpenter. Then the teacher raised a broad question: could students think about the possible characteristics and abilities associated with the word on their card? Pairs discussed their answers and shared ideas with the class. In comparison to, for example, the limited opportunities for communicating in the target language, and the simple right or wrong responses demanded by cloze exercises, exercises which encourage use of the target language to negotiate responses (when there is no simple right or wrong answer) open genuine opportunities for interactive learning. Exploring the range of culturally bound qualities

associated with models, singers and teachers energized the discussion because these roles are contested and culturally determined, and learners enthusiastically participated to defend their points of view. Those who associated singers with youthful good looks took part in animated discussion with those who believed a distinctive musical sounding voice is the primary characteristic of a singer. The teacher listened and guided the discussion and, at the request of learners, wrote several new words to expand learner vocabulary. After this lesson, the feeling was that the teacher had successfully facilitated learning by standing back and achieving student participation by allowing learner enthusiasm to lead the discussion. The teacher displayed two contrasting images of two different singers and used them well to as a springboard for ideas. According to the teacher, when visual aids are coupled with the spoken word, this helps the teacher hold the attention of the learners and generate ideas.

Activity II: New topic ‘Clustering’ (20 minutes)

The teacher started a new lesson using another visual aid showing how clustering (listing) can be developed in writing. First, she lectured students for about 10 minutes explaining how to organise thoughts in an outline form before beginning to write, and how to think about an idea and the connections between subsets of related ideas. The teacher used the word ‘student’ to elaborate the concept of clustering. She offered subsets qualities associated with being a good student, for example: ambitious, critical, respectful, punctual, and debater. Students were then stimulated to think about how to generate more words and ideas. They were interested in the topic and responded actively to teacher’s questions. Meanwhile, as the teacher wrote students’ suggestions and ideas on the board, she asked students to decide whether their choices were ‘characteristics’ or ‘abilities’.

Activity III: Writing Exercise (15 minutes)

In the last phase of the lecture, the teacher asked students to refer to their worksheets and work on an exercise on their own. Using pre-selected vocabulary students produced a piece of text.

Session 2

Attendance: 30

Activity I: Asking questions (10 minutes)

The teacher divided the class into five groups and each group was given different instructions. These instructions, for example, were: (a) differentiate between characteristics

and abilities, (b) give some examples of characteristics, (c) give some examples of abilities, and (d) give a term for combining characteristics and abilities in writing? Each group had a representative who provided answers. While the majority of students engaged in the process of thinking and responding, the teacher posed several more questions and allowed some time for students to think and discuss their ideas. The teacher's questions progressed from the simple to the complex and required reasoning intended to develop critical thinking skills. The teacher stimulated a discussion of "what qualities make an organised paragraph?" The group gave their answer, and the teacher elaborated on the aspects and factors that contribute to an organised paragraph, for example, clarity, unity, coherence and cohesion.

Activity II: New topics, Listing and time order paragraph (15 minutes)

To introduce the new topics, the teacher started the lecture with a warm up question: "what are the main components of a paragraph?" It can be seen that the broad question prompted interest among students, as a significant number discussed the question. Although the teacher did not seek an answer from a particular student or group, she tried to ensure that all students were engaged to actively think about the question. The teacher also uses illustrations on the board to introduce the new ideas and allowed students to take notes.

Activity III: Writing exercise (25 minutes)

By the end of the lecturing phase, the teacher requested students to write in pairs for 10 minutes. Students were asked to complete the following in their writing:

Write a paragraph which includes a topic sentence, supporting sentence(s), and a concluding sentence which contains transitional signals, to practice and talk about their previous learning. The aim of this follow up exercise was to build on the lesson and also to assess how well students were able to integrate previous learning into their own writing. This activity gave the teacher the opportunity to gauge what students have learned and to ensure that students understood a variety in writing styles. After 10 minutes, students were asked to share what they had learned. The teacher moved around the class, listened to students' discussions and responded to queries. Then, the teacher asked four students to stand and read their work in front of the class. Following the presentation, the class identify particular elements used in their colleague's writing.

Session 3

Attendance: 28

Activity I: group reading and writing exercise (30 minutes)

This is the third and last session for this group. For activity I, the teacher first asked questions regarding the previous lesson. For instance, (1) what are the three elements of an organised paragraph? and (2) what are the transitional signals? The teacher's role was to guide discussions about the concept of an organised paragraph and the different types of transitional signals in writing. Finally, to ensure students were able to integrate what they learned in a piece of writing, the teacher prepared a short piece of writing which described an ancient city in Libya and needed editing in terms of organizing the ideas, and sequencing a variety of events.

The outcome of a discussion with teacher 2 was the decision that a combination of topics - such as grammar - had not been easily amenable to increased participation, that teachers had struggled to escape a style dominated by teacher exposition and blackboard work, and that poorly chosen or limited materials - the use of old fashioned textbooks - was making the transition to greater learner involvement difficult. The use of more authentic material combined with thoroughly prepared, well thought out strategies was aimed at increasing learner involvement and helping students develop reading strategies.

To achieve the aim of reading with fluency, the teacher, after discussion with the researcher, divided learners into five groups of six. This sub-division made it feasible to use strategies which involved all the class. Before learners have assembled, the teacher used the blackboard to set out clear bullet-pointed instructions in English. It was decided that clarity of instructions was fundamental to successfully achieving a learner centred lesson. Following ten minutes of instructional questions and answers, each group understood and was in a position to apply strategies of previewing to link students' prior knowledge of the topic, predicting content, briefly skimming and scanning the text to confirm their predictions and guessing the suitable answers. One person from each group was assigned the role of group leader to record predicted content and explain it on the board afterwards. The stated aim was to avoid word by word reading. Each group performed two exercises to test their comprehension. Before the teacher read the text, each group, speaking only in English, was asked to state the main idea of the text. They then had to scan the text to find, and record its main themes for the purpose of sharing their choice with the class by writing their answer on

the board. This element heightened their curiosity about what other groups had decided. They were then able by a process of deduction, to construct meaning themselves, without being informed by the teacher. It was clear from expressions within the groups that the process of figuring out comprehension had increased confidence. The learning strategies were thoroughly prepared and understood before the exercises. In addition to talking through the processes (predicting content and guessing from context) the teacher also explained that these were more than innovative ways of making learning enjoyable. She made it clear that students were expected to speak only English, and using the text, guesswork from context and cooperation with their peers, to construct and deduct meaning for themselves. Once explained and understood, most students joined enthusiastically. The missing factor had been allowing time in class (which some teachers initially regarded as wasted time) for group and individual previewing and predicting activities as preparation for reading and writing. Investing class time in these activities is repaid by participation and learning which is rooted in their experiential learning.

Activity II: Exercise (15 minutes)

In this exercise, students write two separate sentences and think about a joining device or conjunction. Then, two students demonstrate their answers on the board and explain to the whole class how the two sentences' clauses can be linked using grammatical conjunctions to form a compound sentence. The video shows that encouraging students to work with a partner, or on the board, and allowing them to articulate their ideas and views benefited many students. Students who presented their ideas to the class might gain confidence and enhance their learning and communication skills. Other students developed their interest by asking questions of their peers rather than the teacher. Although a new learning culture, students seemed to adopt well to these new practices.

Briefly, the teacher performed a number of interactive teaching strategies to improve students' learning experience. During the three sessions, the teacher used flash cards and posters, to help students develop better understanding of the material. Additionally, using authentic texts, students were frequently required to engage in various activities in pairs and in small groups. Although the teacher encouraged students to direct a variety of questions - direct, and open questions - both to the teacher and to classmates.

7.1.3 Teacher 3

Total number of students:37

Academic Year: 2015/2016

This group of third year students is studying English as a second language. The language of instruction is mainly English and students' first language is Arabic. The teacher is a male and has an MA in Applied Linguistics, with 3 years teaching experience. The subject is Applied Linguistics III, and in the English Department, this subject is only taught to third year students. Linguistics is the study of languages; it explores the sounds used and how words, sentences, and conversations are structured from their component parts. This course is designed to give students a foundation in a broad range of linguistic methodologies and approaches. The topics covered are:

- Properties of Human Language
- Phonetics and Phonology
- The Process of Word Formation
- Derivation
- Grammar
- First Language Acquisition
- Semantics
- Pragmatics
- Discourse Analysis
- Second Language Acquisition

The following is a brief description of the three lectures where the teacher is implementing various interactive techniques in his lectures.

Session 1

Attendance: 32

Activity I: Review (10 minutes)

The teacher started the lecture by reviewing topics taught in the previous lecture. The teacher stated that he was going to ask several questions, and encouraged students to offer their contributions. He then posed direct questions to the whole class, and some students were able to give answers. Some of these questions were: 'who can tell me what is linguistics?' and 'who can tell us about the property of human language?' The teacher discussed answers without indicating whether they were correct or not, in a deliberate effort to open the discussion and familiarize students with the consideration that linguistics is multi-faceted and can be approached from multiple perspectives. Perhaps the complexity of the topic contributed to their hesitancy to speak and several did not fully respond.

Activity II: New topic ‘The Process of Word Formation’ (20 minutes)

To start a new topic, the teacher posed questions about word formation. For instance, “we always ask this question: where does this word come from? how do words come to a language?” The teacher also used the board and a number of handouts to explain ‘coinage’ as a process of word formation. Several examples of how words are created and adopted in English were discussed. A diversity of product names and company names are constantly used in English and become part of it, for example, Kleenex, Aspirin, Google, Facebook etc. The teacher also provided some similar examples in Arabic to explain coinage as a process of word formation that occurs across many languages. Therefore, the teacher encouraged students to think about similar ideas in English and Arabic and find and discuss similarities and differences.

The teacher then explained the concept of borrowing between languages, and provided examples of borrowing from English to Arabic and vice versa, Italian to Arabic and French to English. Students were asked to think about other examples where a language borrows from other languages. The video evidence from this lesson showed that a minority of students participated and others though attentive, were not actively engaged in the discussions.

Activity III: Exercise (20 minutes)

Students produced their own list of words in English which should contain three word types: coinage, borrowing, and compound. Students were given five minutes before they were asked to pair up to compare their answers. This was the first time those students paired with their classmates, and some were smiling nervously and appeared shy. Students wondered about these practices that were neither habitual or common to them. The first lesson shows that the teacher is mainly concerned about providing explanations. He spends more time lecturing allowing less opportunities for students’ discussions.

Session: 2

Attendance: (35)

Activity I: continuation from previous lesson- word formation (25 minutes)

In the second observed session, the teacher established continuity by linking the previous lesson. He asked students two direct questions: (a) what are the processes of word formation? and (b) can you give examples of each process? After three minutes, students listed examples of each process and discussed how words can be formed under each category or process.

Then, the teacher introduces two more processes of word formation; ‘blending’ and ‘clipping’. Students were first asked to refer to their handouts and work for three minutes in pairs on those two processes. Four students provided examples of blending and clipping to clarify the concepts. The teacher elaborates the topic, lecturing for 10 minutes, offering more information on the board. He also uses the handout to illustrate how words can be created by blending and clipping, and in many occasions he used Arabic to explain certain terms and concepts. According to the teacher, the use of handouts was to support learning by freeing students from excessive note-taking and supplement information not available elsewhere. By the end of the activity, the teacher carries out a whole-class discussion, asking questions to stimulate the recall of prior knowledge and promote comprehension. Classroom discussions provided students with opportunities to voice their opinions and share ideas.

Activity II: New topic ‘Conversion and Acronym’ (25 minutes)

For the second activity, the teacher introduces the new topic ‘conversion’. He asks students to engage in small group discussions about the meaning of conversion and share their ideas and viewpoints. Then, the teacher raised this question: “what’s meant by conversion?” Students provide answers and to encourage and support participation, the teacher guides their responses and adds more information and examples.

Session 3

Attendance: 35

Activity I: New topic ‘Derivation in English’ (25 minutes)

The teacher first started with a brief presentation of the topic ‘derivation’, pointing out its main features. Then, students were requested to refer to their handouts and work in pairs. Students discussed the topic and shared their ideas. The video shows that active encouragement and support provided by the teacher were crucial in enhancing students’ participation. After 3 minutes, a number of students offered their viewpoints in front of the class, and more interestingly, with little hesitation. Students were actively required to ask any questions, and the teacher constantly reassured them that they will not be abandoned or embarrassed by either the teacher or students. One student for example, raised this question: “what is the difference between a suffix, an affix, and a prefix?” Because students are rarely given opportunities to discuss and share ideas with their peers, teachers face various difficulties when inviting them to express their views. The video shows more student

involvement in small group discussions, but this involvement was restricted by teacher paid less attention to the way students were seated in the classroom. With regard to seating arrangements, the practice has been for students to organise themselves in groups on the basis of gender. Teachers agreed that seating arrangements in the classroom influence the dynamics of a lesson, however, Teacher 3 was slow to make changes in the seating pattern, perhaps because some female students had a preference for working within groups of their gender and this preference was respected. However, discussion was restricted because students were seated in rows.

The teacher guided the discussion, and to increase participation he regularly raised different types of questions. For example, the teacher asked a direct question to a student: “what do we mean by conversion?”, and then asked a number of follow up questions such as “give examples” and “what kind of affix?”. The teacher also used another question: “how are words derived?”. To engage more students, the teacher redirected one student’s question at the whole class to promote discussion and student-student interaction. While students answered, the teacher used the board to elaborate their answers. Five students asked different questions about conversion, and the teacher encouraged more than one to respond to each question raised. The video evidence showed that student-student interactions created a classroom environment where students could start to take ownership of their learning process, and begin to feel safe and earn trust. Next, the teacher delivered a ten-minute lecture pointing out the main features of the lesson.

Activity II: Exercise (25 minutes)

The teacher shows examples of Conversion that can be linked to previous knowledge, for instance ‘backformation’. To perform the exercise, the teacher suggested two different types of exercise. First, he wrote a number of words on the board and randomly required students to derive certain forms (roots) from these words. For example, the teacher wrote the following words: donation, orientation, option and action, then asked students to derive verbs applying the backformation method. This exercise provided students with the opportunity to apply the concepts they have learned. Secondly, supplementary handouts with exercises were passed to students to be completed in small groups in the classroom. Students worked together on these exercises, and the teacher moved around the class monitoring and offering help. Many had questions and concerns about the exercise and the teacher replied accordingly. Students became more comfortable with the presence of the camera. By the end of the lecture, the

teacher provided a summary of the lesson and encouraged students to ask questions and offer suggestions.

Teacher 3 holds an MA from an American University. Though he has sound knowledge in his field - Linguistics - he believes his degree is evidence of the quality of his teaching standard. In the course of his three sessions, his enthusiasm for creating the opportunities to perform student-centred learning activities waned because, as he remarked in the questionnaire, “students are unable to take responsibility for their learning” and he misconceived student-centred learning as handing control to students. He explained that student-centred learning activities should only be applied to ‘the four skills of Language’, that is Reading, Writing, Listening, and Speaking. His classes lacked a real sense of effective learning, despite his attempts to encourage students to work together and ask questions, he did not create the opportunities for students to be involved in their own learning by solving problems and investigating topics, and did not vary the use of resources. His form-focused feedback was mainly intended to provide corrections to students’ utterances, rather than stimulating students’ thoughts and critical thinking.

7.1.4 Teacher 4

Total number of students:29

Academic Year: 2015/2016

This is a group of second year students studying English as a second language. Their native language is Arabic. The male teacher has an MA in Applied Linguistics & English Language Teaching, and has 15 years’ experience of teaching. The subject is Creative Writing II, designed to help students learn how to read carefully, write effective arguments, and understand the writing process. This course will guide students through the process of writing from simple paragraphs to more complex writing structures and eventually develop their academic writing skills.

The following is a brief description of three sessions where the participants - teacher and students- attempt to perform a variety of interactive teaching and learning techniques.

Session 1

Attendance: 26

Activity I: Review (15 minutes)

The teacher began the lecture by providing a brief outline of the key points of the previous lectures in English on the board. Then, he divided the board into two. On one side, the teacher listed key ideas of the previous lesson, and on the other he wrote several themes to be used as a framework for their writing exercise. And then the teacher started the discussion by asking questions to stimulate student's thinking and learning. For example, he used direct questions to focus on a particular point, such as: (a) what is a sentence? and (b) what are the two ways in which compound sentences can be joined?

Activity II: exercise (20 minutes)

The teacher writes three different themes on the board for classroom exercise, each contains a topic sentence and a conclusion. For example, theme (1) describes a classmate, theme (2) describes a family, and theme (3) describes a friend. Working in small groups, students are permitted to choose one topic of their interest and develop a short coherent paragraph, meanwhile, the teacher moves around the class to observe and to offer help and advice. Then, the teacher randomly chooses three students' answers. The teacher guided an open discussion in which these answers were analysed in terms of form and content. Different aspects were discussed by both teacher and students, including grammatical/tense errors, the use of punctuation, and spelling. From the video, using students' answers for further discussion provided them with opportunities to deepen their learning by applying concepts, comparing, and articulating knowledge they have learned. The teacher observes students' learning progress. Finally, the teacher asked students to complete the other two topics at home.

Activity III: Textbook exercise (15 minutes)

The researcher's role was to observe these lessons, and sometimes to suggest feasible activities to increase students' engagement and participation, for example, the use of authentic texts and real life situations. Some teachers agreed to the researcher's suggestions, however, Teacher 4 seemed hesitant to use complementary resources to support learning and was over-reliant on his textbook.

Moving to the third activity, the teacher engages the class to complete an exercise in their textbook. Firstly, he explained the purpose of the exercise and how students can achieve the

objective. The teacher clearly states the purpose of the exercise - to reinforce the content covered in the previous lectures, and to apply the skills which students have learned. As students work on the exercise, the teacher's attempts to support learners are restricted by lack of access to rows of inaccessible desks. and this also restricts their ability to work in pairs.

Session 2

Attendance: 27

Activity I: Review (30 minutes)

The teacher starts the lecture with a review. He first pointed out that a student's work - piece of writing from previous lecture - (a description of a family) would be used as a sample for the review and discussion. For this reason, the student's work was copied on the board to be analysed and corrected. According to the teacher, this practice was important, because it increased students' confidence and encouraged participation. All students working in pairs read their classmate's work on the board, and offered possible adjustments that could be made. However, before engaging students in this activity, the teacher deliberately restated the criteria for evaluation; evaluation of content, form, grammar, spelling and coherence. The video demonstrated that few students were able to identify the incorrect features within the text, and put forward views and suggestions based on their previous knowledge and experience.

For the second activity, students completed a gap-fill exercise in their textbook. The exercise was mainly to improve students' understanding of some grammatical issues, for example, punctuation, capitalization, and tense forms. The teacher continuously posed the questions to students at random, and allowed them a period of time to respond. Therefore, the majority of students had opportunities to participate in the exercise.

Session 3

Attendance: 28

Activity I: end of unit review (25 minutes)

The teacher first stated the main objectives of the lecture. He explained that they finished Unit One in the previous lecture, and therefore, a comprehensive end-of-unit review should be written in their textbook. The aim of the review was to prompt students to review the unit goals and reflect on what they have learned. The teacher asked questions to stimulate thinking and promote collective engagement. Then, he asked direct questions to individual

students to elicit their involvement and opinion. The end-of-unit questions covered all topics which had been taught. As a result, there was a marked increase in students' participation in the provision of answers and the asking of questions. It can be seen in the video that the review provided students with the opportunity to assess and apply their previous knowledge in more interactive learning environment.

Activity II: new topic (25 minutes)

The teacher first introduced the new chapter (Unit) and pointed out that students would learn to incorporate listing in paragraphs and order patterns of organisation. The teacher asked students to work in small groups on a textbook exercise. He assigned each group a different activity, and encouraged them to discuss ideas and interact with their peers. Students worked in groups of four. The teacher responded to the questions raised and encouraged students of less ability to think about their task. For example, he used encouragement as a motivator, "you can do it, think about what you want to be, now you are a student, I want to be ... Imagine what you can do, what and/or why do you think you are able to do it – certain abilities, behaviours, characteristics ...". The video shows he generated open-ended and challenging questions to illicit deeper and critical thinking. Questions asked for example were: (a) think about your favourite job, (b) why do you need to use this idea? and (c) anyone has more ideas? The majority completed their tasks and received feedback from the teacher. Although student-student interactions are supported by materials from the textbook provided by the teacher, yet these practices were often teacher-initiated.

Teachers themselves carry the ingrained influence of their learning experience which, in the Libyan context, emphasizes respect for teacher wisdom and anticipates students' compliance. Shifting teacher perspective requires acceptance that students will take on more active roles as learners and that teacher's roles must also change. Teacher Four's fifteen years' experience of teaching holds two implications. The teacher centred approach, teacher directed learning activities and the behaviourist values of imitation and practice which see learning as a process of habit formation are set as the foundations of his pedagogical beliefs. It is not surprising therefore that Teacher Four appeared skeptical of using supplementary materials.

7.1.5 Teacher 5

Total number of students:36

Academic Year: 2015/2016

The male teacher teaching a group of second year students has two years' experience and holds an MA in Teaching English to Speakers of Other languages (TESOL). The subject, Spoken English II, is a core course in the Department of English. The course is mainly designed to develop oral communication skills in English. The following is a description of the three sessions where the teacher and students are incorporating active learning techniques.

Session 1

Attendance: 30

Authentic Text

Before beginning the discussion, the teacher referred to the topic – Tourism and Terrorism – which the class are investigating. The topic is designed to engage students of various ability levels, and spark their interest by making learning authentic. In addition, he encouraged students to select any other topic(s) of their choice to be discussed in the classroom. Their mission is to explore, research and present in a presentation. In every lecture, two or more students discuss and present their topic to the class.

Student 1: Childhood (25 minutes)

On this occasion one student was given 10 minutes to present her topic. As students listened they were asked to write notes and/or questions. The teacher reassured the presenter (student), and he encouraged students to ask questions. The video shows that a few asked questions. The researcher communicated with students who explained, there were two main reasons for lack of participation. First, shyness and second, embarrassment born of unfamiliarity with the process and the possibility of being teased by their peers. Students emphasized their concern about making mistakes and losing face. Some believed their spoken English to be incomprehensible to other students and as a result, hesitated to speak. Accordingly, the teacher had to guide the discussions. The teacher encouraged students to prepare ideas and make notes, offering support and helping the speaker feel more confident, in control, and willing to carry on their task. He also praised the speaker and students for their participation to boost confidence and encourage others to participate.

Student 2: Dictionaries (25 minutes)

In the second part of the lecture, another student (speaker) began a new presentation - 'Electronic and paper dictionaries'. The speaker presented her topic - 'Electronic and paper dictionaries' - by pointing out the differences, advantages, disadvantages, and types of electronic and paper dictionaries. She was given 10 minutes to introduce the topic and then the teacher asked students to share ideas and raise questions. Perhaps because of their familiarity with the topic's academic content the video evidence shows greater participation in classroom discussions. Well thought out arguments were made on the use of either electronic dictionaries or paper ones. Students put forward various reasons to support their views. The teacher's role was mainly to guide students' activities, and direct their learning.

Session 2

Attendance 29

The subject for this second-year group is Spoken English. One student presents the topic and the rest listen and record notes and questions. The teacher then mentions that the class will participate in large group activities.

Student 1: Fizzy Drinks (15 minutes)

Health was the first student's topic. She chose to talk about fizzy drinks. In her ten-minute presentation, she described the types and the dangers of fizzy drinks and how they contribute to health problems. Then, the teacher began to guide student-to-student discussions, encouraging students to ask questions, voice their opinions, and answer questions from their peers. Due to students' low proficiency level, the teacher prompted them to find the right words to answer questions and complete their answers. The teacher raised a number of questions when students did not ask 'the right' questions. Conflict between learner autonomy and learner compliance could lead to uncertainty. Teaching students to be questioning and critical and not take facts and opinions at face value came up against students several times asking the teacher to give them the correct answer. To settle this apparent conflict, clear instruction from the teacher explaining the intended learning outcomes of encouraging graduates to question and critically assess what they hear and what they are told is required. A parallel process relates to gradual change in the status of the teacher. The pre-eminence of the lecturer's knowledge base must be replaced in the minds of learners by a recognition that student understanding and discovery are also important.

Collective activity (30 minutes)

The teacher prepared another task to encourage students' involvement in classroom activities and help build confidence when presenting a topic to the class. The teacher prepared three short stories with clear and simple language, and students read the stories as literary examples of how ideas are presented, how to attract an audience, and how to be organised, clear and comprehensible writing. Then, in small groups, students extracted and discussed examples of these qualities as the teacher moved around the class to listen to conversations and attend questions. He then invited four students to share examples of their writing which illustrated one or more of these qualities. While doing so the teacher comments and provides feedback on accuracy of their work.

Session 3

Attendance 27

Students have been preparing their presentation and are gaining the confidence to participate. For instance, in this session, 6 students present three-minute topics. Students spoke about authentic issues, for example, issues related to social media in Libya, higher education, and culture. The teacher's role was that of facilitator, organiser, and advisor. Using class participation to teach Spoken English has improved students' learning by increasing their interest and confidence. According to the teacher "the most significant achievement of using interactive techniques is the development of students' ability to learn by, and think for themselves".

In videos of the three sessions, it is clear that students enjoyed collective work and group discussion, therefore, their engagement and participation with the material has progressively increased and more students were able to ask questions and put forward their opinions. Gradually, fewer were timid when speaking in front of the class. The strategies used by the teacher e.g. encouraging students to speak with each other, allowing them to choose their topics and decide what they learn, and reassuring and praising students for their efforts, contributed to providing students with a shared sense of safety.

The teacher's primary focus was to develop students' abilities to verbally perform in the class and enable them express their views more fluently.

7.1.6 Teacher 6

Total number of students:32

Academic Year: 2015/2016

This is a group of first year students whose low conversational proficiency in English leads to the teacher's frequent use of Arabic and students depend heavily on translation and dictionary use. The male teacher has an MA in Translation & Interpreting Studies, and has experience of teaching English for three years. The subject, Creative Writing I, is designed as a basic foundation for writing skills.

There follows a description of the three sessions in which the teacher and his students are attempting to carry out student-centred learning activities with the aim of improving students' learning experience.

Session 1

Attendance: 25

Activity I: review (25 minutes)

The teacher started the first session by revisiting previous topics (nouns, pronouns and adverbs) and encouraged students to participate and express their views and opinions. He asked questions, giving the opportunity for any student to answer. Some of the questions were "what's meant by nouns? who can define a noun?", "what is a pronoun?" and "who can tell me the types of pronouns?" As this was the first session, to avoid embarrassment, he did not ask direct questions to particular students to secure their willingness to participate in further discussions. When some answered the questions, the teacher added more information and wrote it on the board. He offered praise to stimulate and encourage participation.

According to the teacher, his enthusiastic response to participation - students writing answers on the board -, was intended to boost confidence. Teacher Six's awareness of countering learner resignation with praise was a sign of a basic understanding of his role as a facilitator. However, his conception of learner participation - students writing answers on the board - does not suggest a deep understanding of the philosophy of what it means to be a learner-centred teacher. Learners should be the most active people in a lesson because they must actively engage in completing tasks or solving problems rather than passively attending to messages, either spoken or written, transmitted by the teacher.

Activity II: textbook exercise (25 minutes)

The teacher first asked students to work in pairs on an exercise from their textbooks meanwhile he provided information on how to complete it. According to the researcher's communication with the teacher and some students in this group, this was the first occasion students were asked to engage in an activity with their peers and a few students seemed reluctant to become involved in discussion with their colleagues. The majority were able to quickly adapt to the new practices. As a result, the teacher guided discussion to stimulate small groups activities. Students were prompted to express their views and share their ideas with the class, although in this activity, only a small number volunteered their opinions. The teacher sometimes used students' first language (Arabic) to explain certain grammatical terms to deepen understanding of the new concepts. When another task was assigned, students worked in pairs and the teacher moved around to listen to discussions. By the end of the lecture, the teacher provided a summary of the three topics discussed, and assigned a new task to be completed at home.

Session 2

Attendance 23

Activity I: new topics 'Noun markers & Prepositional phrases' (30 minutes)

The teacher began by drawing attention to the main points of the previous lesson, and then explained the upcoming lecture was about noun markers and prepositional phrases. First, he delivered a 15-minute lecture demonstrating the new concepts on the board while encouraging students to offer examples. Then, the teacher asked students to work with a partner on an exercise from their textbook - a short paragraph requiring students to fill in the gaps with the correct prepositional phrase. Gap filling exercises, known as cloze activity, is associated in the UK more with GCSE rather than graduate level. At their best, students enjoy them because they are fun. When not integrated with the lesson aims, gap-fill exercises are a humdrum filler for a teacher who is out of ideas.

At commencement of all of these observed lessons, teachers consistently and correctly share with learners the aims of the lesson. Letting them know what they are about to learn in class each day before they start, learners are able to make internal cognitive adjustments. However, teachers were less consistent when sharing learning objectives. Explanations of exactly how they would learn in upcoming lectures were either absent or not clearly stated. Then, students discussed their task for five minutes and 6 students (approximately 25%)

raised their hands and asked questions. The teacher read the exercise questions and randomly chose students to answer.

Next, the students work in small groups rewriting the same paragraph, checking and removing grammatical solecisms, such as capitalization, commas, full stops etc. Then, students worked in larger groups to share ideas, discuss issues, and compare. Although this was the second session, the video made clear that students practiced new learning activities, including discussion, thinking and analysing rather than excessive passive listening. The majority seemed comfortable with the researcher's role as an observer and the camera's presence during these sessions, because they ignored the camera, expressed their opinions and engaged in classroom activities. Then, the teacher randomly asked students to offer their answers, and he actively guided classroom discussions to encourage participation and learning. The teacher posed different types of questions to provide further opportunities for the development of thinking and communication skills, and to encourage student-student interactions. For instance, the teacher asked direct questions, and redirected some student-initiated questions or commented back to other students.

Activity II: exercise 'adverbs' (20 minutes)

For the second activity, the teacher suggested a new exercise. Students worked in small groups on an exercise from their textbook dealing with different types of adverbs, and how adverbs can be used to modify verbs. The teacher provided a brief explanation of the task and then encouraged students to work together to decide their approach. The teacher used Arabic to explain difficult terms and grammatical features of the exercise and then guided the discussion to promote deeper discussions about the topic. The teacher also used probing questions which required deeper thinking about the issue. For example, on several occasions he asked: "who can give another answer to this question?", and elaborated "I want you to think about your answers because there are several ways of answering this question". In the course of discussions, students received feedback from the teacher. The video showed that a minority of students participated and offered their opinions and suggestions, though most remained did not share their ideas in front of the class. By the end of the lecture, the teacher provided a summary of the key points and learning objectives.

Session 3

Attendance: 25

Main topic: recognising parts of speech

Activity I: review (25 minutes)

The teacher began the third session by stating the main topics studied in the previous lectures. He introduced examples in English of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives and indicated that the main topic for the lecture would be parts of speech. Despite teacher's efforts to actively engage students in learning, he essentially remained a grammar based approach and lectured for extended periods. For example, while inviting students to explain concepts such as prepositions, the focus was directed towards the blackboard where students' ideas were recorded. The teacher posed direct questions to assess learning and understanding. Direct questions asked were: "what is the definition of a preposition?" "identify the preposition in this sentence?", "what is a prepositional phrase?" and "where is the prepositional phrase in this sentence?" Follow-up questions asked: "how can I use adverbs in a sentence?", and "what are adjectives and why do we use them?". According to the teacher, these questions were used to focus on particular points and promote higher thinking among students. Meanwhile, as they responded to questions, the teacher provided written feedback. The video showed this feedback improved students' confidence and enthusiasm for learning. However, a few students - males and females, still did not participate in classroom discussion. Two principal reasons emerged from the researcher's communication with this group as to why students did not share their views; lack of confidence, and little or no experience participating in discussion. As a change from a didactic teacher delivery style, students worked in pairs on a textbook exercise. The exercise was a short passage, and students had to read it and identify adjectives, adverbs, and prepositional phrases as the teacher moved around the class observing and listening, and crouching to attend questions. Then, the teacher asked students to engage in the following discussion and organise their ideas, and offer suggestions when asked to do so. The teacher randomly asked direct questions encouraging the sharing of ideas in group discussion.

Activity II: group work (25 minutes)

For the second activity, the teacher split the class into four large groups, each of approximately 6 students. Their task was to work on a new paragraph from the textbook containing several missing words, and students fill the missing type of word (adjective,

adverb, or prepositional phrase). Students discussed the paragraph and shared their ideas, asking the teacher for help and clarification. Each group was asked to prepare one sample, so four samples were prepared for discussion. One learner from each group presented their sample, while other groups, with the teacher's assistance, offered their opinions. The teacher monitored discussions among students, offering praise to build confidence.

Teacher 6 did not fundamentally change his perceptions about how students learn. He argues that the teacher is responsible for his students learning because students - in Libya - will not effectively learn on their own without the help of their teacher. Although he agreed to take part in the intervention, he doubted the value of allowing students to talk to each other, or encouraging them to ask questions. He claims that most students' level of learning did not justify independent learning approaches. His resistance to change can be related to two influences; first, teacher 6 did not develop an understanding of the concept of constructivist learning. He continued to lecture for extended periods without shifting the centre of pedagogic gravity from teacher to students. The second, as revealed by Marshall (1991) is that teachers choose teaching methods that reflect the way they themselves learn and they teach according to the way they were taught, and teacher 6 did not appreciate the value of changing his classroom behaviour.

7.2 The Analysis of Observed Lessons and Findings - Form

The students observed in these sessions are building a knowledge base of grammar focused content but they have an underdeveloped understanding of how that knowledge is applied in conversation and acquired through learning skills. They are learning content, but not skills and there is no sense of learner self-efficacy, of knowing how they can learn more, because learning practices do not encourage initiative, and their self-discovery options - access to digital learning resources or even a well-stocked library - is severely restricted. There is little sense that students reflect on what they are learning and how they are learning it. The exercises used in these observed lessons could be described as a Present, Practice and Produce (PPP) approach. PPP offers a simplified method to language learning based upon the idea that language can be acquired in blocks from one lesson to the next. Concentrating on learning single pieces of target language may be familiar to Libyan students, but a wider exposure to language seems more closely associated with learners taking control. Teachers adopted an eclectic approach combining aspects of a grammar translation approach

examining parts of speech with greater student participation offering opportunities to use the target language to communicate and get their point across.

Although successful in its goal of increasing learner participation, the eclectic approach may not be sufficient to sustain long term learner motivation. To meet this objective, this study argues that Libyan teachers should focus on choosing material and content that reflects the interest of the learner because the lessons which used authentic material and released learners to take implicit control were the most successful in raising interest and participation. To a surprising extent, content determined levels of participation.

Using an authentic text of a historic place that all students were familiar with, Teacher 2 in Session Three, successfully designed reading materials for achieving a learner-centred lesson. The clarity of instructions, use of pictures, and the identification of task aims increased students' enthusiasm and enabled them to bridge gaps in their vocabulary by linking descriptions in the text to features in the pictures.

There is a clear correspondence between the use of authentic texts, conversation based on topics of interest and learner's engagement and participation. The few examples of task-oriented teaching encouraged learners to take control of their learning by providing real meaning by focusing on language-use tasks.

The language-analysis tasks lacked a real-life application and relevance. Task based learning motivates because it is more interesting when based on the use of authentic texts and the learner's own personal experiences when designing materials for teaching. The preparation and practice time involved means it must be introduced gradually. The value of task based learning is that it uses a wide range of lexical phrases and language forms rather than just practising one pre-selected item. The language explored arises from the students' needs. These needs and not the textbook dictates what is covered in the lesson. In comparison with the approach used in these lessons which the researcher describes as a Present, Practice and Produce approach, it has a strong functional element because students spend more time communicating in the target language. Present, Practice and Produce lessons seem teacher-centred by comparison. Unlike PPP, task based language-analysis gives learners the opportunity to analyse specific aspects of language structure and use with the purpose of developing personal strategies for learning.

Most observed lessons did not escape a rigid discourse structure consisting of teacher led 'initiate-respond- feedback'. The flashcard exercise used by Teacher 2 in Session One, benefitted from allowing a looser discourse structure determined by several factors; enthusiasm, fluency and the adjacency of pairs. In the flashcard exercise, turn-taking is regulated by the rules that govern everyday conversation, that is, speakers self-select who talks next. In the other observed lessons, conversational turn-taking is regulated by the teacher. Also, the observed lessons were characterised by teacher controlled development. For students to control topic development, lessons must be preceded by the preparation and planning associated with a task based approach. Session 3 taught by Teacher 5 is an example of students exercising choice of topic. Teacher 5 encouraged students to select a topic of their preference and produce oral presentations to be delivered and discussed in the classroom.

Teaching and learning in small groups has a vital role in improving students' learning. "It allows them to negotiate meanings, to express themselves in the second language, and to establish more intimate contact with their peers more than formal approaches allow. It also develops more instrumental skills of listening, presenting ideas and persuading" (Jacques, 1991). In Session Two, Teacher 1, effectively engaged students to perform a learner-centred task. Students benefited from the small group environment by a much-valued contact with their peers and the opportunities to reflect upon and reply to the diverse responses fellow learners bring to the questions raised.

Small group work can be very rewarding for both teachers and students. With the right tasks, and problems set, students can learn to cooperate with one another, develop interpersonal awareness, debate about a subject, and challenge orally accepted ideas that they have heard in the classroom or read in their books. In addition, teachers' awareness of learners' cultural, social, and religious values is important in promoting student-student interactions. While, the study hopes that students will acquire the skills of student-centred learning, this acquisition can at times seem painfully slow to be realised.

Feedback is inclined to be form-focussed, the teacher responds, implicitly or explicitly, to the correctness of students' utterances. In content-focussed feedback, the teacher responds to the message content of the students' utterances. The videos show that teachers' feedback mainly focussed on the accuracy of students' contributions rather than their intended viewpoint. For instance, in Session Two, Teacher Six offered immediate feedback to a number of students'

queries, however, this feedback was more of corrections to students' work, rather than analytical explanations of the intended meaning.

By their actions, Teachers 1,2 and 5 showed their interest in adding to their understanding of the process of how learning happens and changing their teacher centred method in response. Teachers 3, 4, and 6 did not express open scepticism but they generally failed to state and explain their learning objectives to make clear for learners what are the expectations in their lessons. Dornyei (2001) and Ellis (2009) emphasize the importance of presenting a task in a way that motivates learners. The multifaceted nature of motivation encompasses how we explain our past successes and failures. A learner's sense of efficacy determines their choice of the activities they attempt and therefore teachers must explain the purpose and utility of the task so that learners are confident of their ability to participate and complete it. This especially applies to Libyan learners from traditional teacher centred classrooms who "may need to be convinced of the value of a more 'experiential' approach" (Ellis 2009). In post-intervention student questionnaire, evidence shows that more than half of students (57%) stated that the use of active learning strategies did not increase their motivation (item 10). Dornyei suggests that task preparation should include techniques for whetting learners' appetites to engage in the task, by, for example, asking them to guess what the task will involve. Curiosity is a strong motivator in most aspects of life and education is no exception. Another advantage of stimulating engagement through curiosity is that it quickens the otherwise slow pace of some observed lessons. The slow pace is partly based on the absence, with some exceptions, of visual aids, leading at times to lessons which would be assessed as dull in the UK.

At the beginning of observed lessons, previous learning was correctly revisited. What was not done consistently was the preparation of students for learning about to take place. There was some emphasis on linguistic factors associated with upcoming activities, but very little emphasis was placed on the general cognitive demands of the upcoming exercise. By using flashcards, Teacher Two in activity one successfully harnessed student passion by introducing a topic of interest. To activate student interest takes flexibility, resourcefulness, and relating understanding of student needs to content, - all of which require even the most experienced teacher to plan lessons and prepare learners by informing them in advance what they need to know about the objectives of communicating and co-constructing meaning.

Increasing motivation and engagement through curiosity is a valuable learner support strategy, but it is not directly identified with, and does not require a change from, teacher to student centred teaching, still less a belief in a theory of learner support and development such as learner scaffolding associated with social constructivist theory.

Learner support and praise was widely used. When teacher values are informed by cognitive constructivism, such beliefs create a context for learning in which students can become engaged in interesting activities that encourage and facilitate learning. Sharing the pedagogical design of the learning environment, whatever it may be, improves teacher and student collaboration. To varying degrees, the researcher observed all six teachers providing support and encouragement. However, there is a categorical difference between providing support and encouragement as opposed to scaffolding learners as they construct new knowledge. There was no sustained evidence that teachers' encouragement of students was informed by a set of pedagogical values. Cognitive constructivists assert that learners build their own knowledge based on integrating their previous experience with new information, and teachers are facilitators of this process in the learning context. Pedagogical design should support and satisfy the needs of individual learners and enable teachers to scaffold learners during the learning process. Social constructivists believe that learning is promoted through interactive processes of discussion and information sharing. Scaffolding involves providing learners with just enough help that may be needed in a new context and then gradually removing the support as the learner makes progress. In general, teachers did use prompts to scaffold, but the scaffolding was directed primarily at enabling students to produce correct sentences, rather than being directed primarily at enabling students to say what they want to say. Teacher Six in activity one, for example, encouraged students to register their correct answers on the board without providing them with the opportunities to justify their choices.

The number of students in classes made it impractical for teachers to assess and support each individual so learner support was applied collectively rather than to individuals. Vygotsky refers to "the gap between what a learner is able to do alone and what they can do with the help of someone more knowledgeable". Vygotsky refers to closing this gap as with the teacher's help as scaffolding; he suggests that in order to move a learner from the unknown to the known, the teacher must provide the learner with support through scaffolding their ideas. When they feel that the student knows enough, they can reduce or remove the amount of scaffolding provided. At this stage teachers need to observe the student closely to determine what level of support they need.

The medium of instruction varies between Arabic and English according to fluency levels. Arabic is used to explain conceptual issues and the use of a particular grammatical structure. Teachers adopted an eclectic approach. They involve learners but do not always prepare in advance to maximise those opportunities.

7.3 Post-intervention Questionnaires

This study uses Student and Teacher post-intervention Questionnaires to evaluate the intervention and understand its effect on teachers and learners. In addition, the aim of the questionnaires is to find out participants' perceptions and views on their experience during and after the intervention. The findings are presented in frequencies and percentages. The next two sub-sections describe and illustrate the results obtained from these questionnaires.

7.3.1 Teacher Post-Intervention Questionnaire

Post-intervention Teacher questionnaire was completed four months after the end of the intervention. The aim of the questionnaire is to collect information about teachers' perceptions of the active learning strategies they used in the three-session intervention. The questionnaire is seeking information about three factors; (a) instructional effects of interactive teaching techniques, (b) general attitudes, and (c) motivational effects. A five-point Likert scale of 1 to 5 is used to rate 15 close-ended questions: 1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Uncertain, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly agree. In addition, qualitative evidence obtained from open-ended questions is also shown. Table 7.1 shows the results of responses to statements on six teachers' perceptions of the application of student-centred learning techniques in various regards. The consistent pattern amongst the results implies that the participating teachers have a positive perception of the use of student independent learning strategies in teaching. In addition, they perceive that the use of comprehension questions in classrooms allowed them to understand their students learning needs.

Similarly, teachers thought the use of think-pair-share and brainstorming techniques helped students learn to think, and improved their learning of English. There is also a strong positive perception among teachers that small and large group discussions increased students learning of English vocabulary, and enabled teachers to provide feedback.

The data was collected via questionnaires and may not fully demonstrate teacher's perceptions. Although teachers are saying what they believe, it may not represent their actions. Teachers may have certain beliefs but they do not act upon them. Therefore, teachers

may say they perceive the use of student-centred independent learning strategies as important factors for effective teaching, however they may not be more inclined to use them. For example, when the results for the six teachers were separately calculated, differences in the scores became clear. T3, T4, and T6 have slightly different and negative perceptions regarding four issues.

Table 7.1: Comparison of Six Teacher’s Perceptions of Intervention

Categories of Teacher Perceptions		T 1	T 2	T 3	T 4	T 5	T 6	Overall %
1	I think the use of student-centred learning techniques are essential in teaching	4	5	4	4	5	4	86%
2	Using direct questions helped me attract students’ attention	4	4	4	4	4	4	80%
3	I think the use of student-centred activities make me more efficient teacher	4	5	3	3	4	3	73%
4	The use of small group discussion improved students’ learning of English vocabulary	4	5	4	4	4	3	80%
5	I believe small group discussions allowed me to provide more feedback to students	4	5	4	4	4	3	80%
6	Using comprehension questions enabled me identify students’ learning needs	5	5	4	4	3	4	83%
7	I believe think-pair-share technique helps students improve their speaking skills	5	5	4	4	4	3	83%
8	I think students are more likely to engage in learning when pair discussion is used	5	4	3	4	4	4	80%
9	Using brainstorming technique helps students learn to think	4	5	4	4	4	4	83%
10	I think one-to-one interactions between students improve their learning	4	4	3	3	4	2	66%
11	When I used small group discussions, I spent more time for preparation of the lesson	4	5	5	3	4	2	77%
12	The use of visual aids helped me explain new concepts effectively	5	5	3	3	3	3	73%
13	I felt uncomfortable using group discussion	1	2	2	4	1	2	40%
14	I believe my students are more motivated when I use student-centred learning approaches	4	4	4	3	4	2	70%
15	I think traditional lecturing is sufficient for teaching	1	1	4	3	2	3	47%

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly agree

First, with regard to the effectiveness of the application of active learning strategies, these teachers were uncertain whether the strategies would make them efficient teachers. There could be two explanations for teachers' uncertainty; the class size problems that allow less opportunities for classroom interactions, and teachers' readiness to accept the student's role as an independent learner.

Second, while T3 and T4 indicated that they were unsure whether (item 10) student-student interactions would yield any benefits or improved learning, T6 perceived such interactions as not useful for student learning and disagreed with the statement. T4's uncertainty about the effectiveness of interactive teaching methods and the usefulness of student-student interactions can be linked to his 'discomfort' which he reported in item 13, 'I feel uncomfortable using group discussion'. The last issue concerning the use of teaching aids to facilitate learning. The study establishes that the majority of teachers are unable to use IT and teaching aids in the Department due mainly to a shortage of resources and that most teachers do not integrate these tools in their courses. Therefore, this intervention encouraged teachers to use illustrations and authentic materials such as texts, pictures and posters to stimulate students' motivation and encourage participation. However, two teachers T1 and T2 effectively incorporated flashcards and illustrations in their observed lessons, and T5 was able to engage students in stimulating discussions about real life topics which students had chosen in the first observed lesson.

The questionnaire also contained three open-ended questions to allow teachers to add more information about their experience performing active learning strategies, and the impact of these strategies on their students. In general, teachers 1, 2 and 5 were positive about the inclusion of student-centred learning practices in their lectures however, teachers 3, 4 and 6 had different views. For example, when responding to the second open-ended question 'In what ways, have you changed your instructional practices as a result of your participation in this study?' Teacher 6 says: "there was little change, I managed to increase group discussion in my classes". Although Teacher 6 agreed to take part in the intervention, during the three sessions, he argued that the teacher is responsible for his students' learning because, in his view, students in the Libyan context cannot effectively learn on their own without teacher's help. This view can be confirmed in his response to item 10, (I think one-to-one interactions between students improve their learning), as he felt student-student interactions would not improve students learning.

In addition, Teacher 3 believes that student-centred learning approaches are suitable for only particular courses. In his response to the second open-ended question he says: “in terms of interactive technique or student-centred approach, in some courses specifically ‘the four Language skills’, it may add up”. Language skills are Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening. This teacher also agrees that traditional teaching is a sufficient method when he responded to item 15 (I think traditional lecturing is sufficient for teaching).

However, some teachers provided a number of positive statements regarding their experience of performing interactive teaching and its impact on their students.

Teacher 1, for example, says: “After I participated in his study, I use a lot of different interactive teaching techniques which I believe would truly help my students to actively participate and gain more knowledge and confidence. I modified my practices to meet the needs of my students by maintaining good communication, use of humour, and give room to individualized learning needs”. Regarding the impact of the intervention on students’ learning, she also states: “most students are more active and participative during the lecture. There are students who are willing to get involved. Motivation to learn is visible in students’ attitudes towards learning”.

Lastly, Teacher 5 emphasizes the value of student autonomy and allowing them to decide what they learn to improve their learning experience and increase their confidence. In his response to the second and third open-ended questions, he adds: “Students have the opportunity to present their own topics. These presentations can improve students’ learning and increase their confidence”. And, the impact of the change is, he says, “now more students present their ideas to the class and discuss them in groups. Also, students gain confidence and ask questions”.

In conclusion, the above presentation of teachers’ perceptions of their experience performing new teaching method cannot be regarded as conclusive because of the self-report method used to collect data, and because of the small size of the sample. The post-intervention questionnaire shows that teachers’ perceptions of their experience in performing interactive teaching methods varied. They were positive on particular aspects, such as the importance of using student-centred learning strategies (item,1), and the use of comprehension questions and think-pair-share techniques to improve learning (items 6 and 7).

7.3.2 Student Post-Intervention Questionnaire

The student post intervention questionnaire was also completed four months after the intervention. It rates students' perceptions concerning three factors: perceived learning contribution, perceived efficiency, and perceived negative effects. Student questionnaire aims to gauge student's perceptions of their new learning practices rather than test their knowledge or actual learning outcomes. In addition, the study aims to compare and contrast students' opinions in this post-intervention questionnaire with those given in the pre-intervention Teaching Performance Questionnaire completed by students (Discussed in Table 5.4, p. 115). A five point Likert scale of 1 to 5 is used to measure perceptions: 1= Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly agree. The questionnaire contains 16 closed-ended items and two open-ended questions to allow students to add explanatory comments. 84 students completed the questionnaire. The questionnaire is translated into Arabic to avoid ambiguity and ensure that students understood all items.

Overall, table 7.2 shows students' perceptions of performing different styles of student independent learning activities. The findings relating to students' perceptions are presented statistically as numbers of responses and percentages. The findings demonstrate that students have negative perceptions towards four main aspects of active learning:

1) The use of pair discussion. Item 2 shows that 62% of participating students thought their learning did not improve when they engaged in pair discussion with their classmates. This could be associated with students' unfamiliarity with this technique, and their belief that they may not learn much from their peer. Nevertheless, when students were asked about group work and discussion, they were more positive and thought they would learn better in small groups, for example in items 1 and 16.

2) Students' motivation. In item 10, more than half of students (57%) indicated that active learning strategies employed in their classes did not increase their motivation to learn. This perception can be attributed to the fact that although teachers encouraged students' participation in the observed lessons by asking questions, they remained over-reliant on an outmoded textbook in place of authentic material, and continued to dominate the lesson. The axis of their lessons remained instruction, not discovery and students remained as passive observers, not active participants in their learning.

Table 7.2: Summary Results of Post Intervention Questionnaire Students' Perceptions

Rank	Item No.	Categories of Students' Perceptions	Agreement		Disagreement	
			No. of Responses	%	No. of Responses	%
1	3	The use of large group work/exercise helps us learn together	68	81%	13	15%
2	11	I think I am more engaged with course material when student-centred learning techniques are used	67	80%	10	12%
3	9	I think the use of visual teaching aids helped me learn new concepts faster	65	77%	11	13%
4	5	Comprehension questions increased my understanding of the material	61	73%	17	20%
5	4	I believe think-pair-share techniques are more effective at enabling our learning than lecturing	59	70%	14	17%
6	1	I could learn more when my teacher used group discussions	56	67%	18	21%
7	6	I believe direct questions help me remember what I learned in class	55	65%	20	24%
7	14	I look forward for my teachers using student-centred learning activities more often in my class	55	65%	21	25%
8	16	Group discussion helped me improve my speaking and listening skills	50	60%	28	33%
9	8	Active learning strategies were exciting at the beginning, but not anymore	40	48%	23	27%
10	15	Now I feel more confident to ask questions in the lecture due to the encouragement provided by the teacher	36	43%	13	15%
11	12	With student-centred learning activities, I got more opportunities to discuss ideas with my classmates - than traditional methods	34	40%	39	46%
12	10	The use of active learning strategies increased my motivation towards learning	29	35%	48	57%
13	2	The use of pair discussion improved my learning	21	25%	52	62%
14	7	The use of simulations and one-to-one interactions have increased my confidence	19	23%	40	48%
15	13	I do not feel comfortable when interactive techniques are used, because it is a new method to us	18	21%	53	63%

Number of students = 84

3) The third aspect is student confidence. In response to item 7, nearly half of students (48%) felt the use of one-to-one interactions such as, working in pairs or solving a problem with a classmate, did not improve their confidence in learning English. Again, some students seem

to prioritize learning directly from teachers, and put less value on the potential advantages of student-student interactions

4) Lastly, 43% of students believe they lack the confidence to raise questions in the classroom, and 42% of the remaining students are unsure whether teachers' encouragement could contribute to their confidence in asking more questions.

However, the results in table 7.2 demonstrate that students have formed positive perceptions about three aspects, these are; working in small groups, engagement with course material, and the use of teaching aids.

In response to item 3, significantly 81% of students believe their learning improved when they engaged in small group work. In addition, 80% of students felt more involved when student-centred learning activities were used (item 11). This indicates students have developed effective means to learning course materials, such as learning from each other and discussing difficult concepts with a more successful student. Also, students agreed that the use of visual aids and illustrations helped them learn and understand new concepts and ideas faster. Furthermore, students enjoyed lessons which purposefully set them up for learning, when, for example, either teacher questions or group discussion was tasked with recalling and measuring their knowledge of a topic prior to learning.

As we saw in table 7.2, findings from Student post-intervention Questionnaire shows that students continue to have negative perceptions regarding a number of aspects of their learning experience. However, when these results are compared with scores from the same students in the pre-intervention Teaching Performance Questionnaire, slight improvements regarding their learning experience were identified. Table 7.3 is a comparison of students' perceptions before and after the intervention, and shows the differences in students' responses to three categories in both questionnaires.

The three categories are; improved classroom participation and engagement, improved use of questions, and improved use of teaching aids. This could be a good indication that many students have developed good perceptions regarding the way they should learn. It also indicates that some teachers are adapting their teaching practices to allow students more opportunities of participation and engagement in their learning.

Table 7.3: Comparison of Students’ Perceptions Before & After the Intervention

Item No	Pre-Intervention Teaching Performance Questionnaire Completed by Students	Agreement %	Item No	Post-intervention Students’ Perceptions Questionnaire	Agreement %
A. Improved Classroom Participation/Engagement					
3	The lecturer encouraged students to participate in classroom activities	27%	11	I think I am more engaged with course material when student-centred learning techniques are used	80%
4	The lecturer stimulated students to share their own ideas in the lecture	22%	4	I believe think-pair-share techniques are more effective at enabling our learning than lecturing	70%
B. Improved Use of Questions					
5	The lecturer encouraged students to ask questions throughout the lecture	31%	5	Comprehension questions increased my understanding of the material	73%
6	The lecturer asked questions to examine students’ understanding	24%	15	Now I feel more confident to ask questions in the lecture due to the encouragement provided by the teacher	43%
C. Improved Use of Teaching Aids					
10	The lecturer used teaching aids effectively	10%	9	I think visual teaching aids help me learn new concepts faster	77%

In addition, students provided mixed opinions regarding their experience in applying student-centred learning activities, when asked to respond to two open-ended questions in the questionnaire.

Some students felt positive and excited about their learning, using different methods and techniques in the classroom. For example, a third-year student says: “I think the lecturer is good, he motivates and stimulates us to work hard, but other lecturers do not”. They also mentioned that traditional lectures did not give them sufficient time to process information. A 2nd year student says “I don’t feel comfortable and excited when traditional method was used in my class because it was very boring”, another student in year two also adds, “I felt bored because there were no activities in the classroom, no good communication between students”.

But many other students felt negative about their experience and stated their classes are not engaging or stimulating, and the teacher had not changed their practices. There are also claims that some teachers still continue to use the traditional method of lecturing. A second-year student claims that: “the teacher is still using the old method that the teacher is just explaining and speaking all the time and the students only listen and concentrate”.

Another student suggested that teachers must consider using various types of learning activities. For instance, this 3rd year student says: “I think we have to do group discussions and brainstorming” Other students mentioned that their teachers were not willing to consider different ideas or opinions from students. This student claims: “I think the teacher should be open-minded and accept students’ views” (1st year student).

7.4 Reflections on Barriers to Change in Libyan Higher Education

7.4.1 Libya could be “the next Norway rather than the next Somalia”

There are reasons to be optimistic about Libya’s future. If the country can overcome its tribal, geographic and technological obstacles to development, it has real potential; “if its resources are used wisely” Libya could be “the next Norway rather than the next Somalia” – (van Genugten, 2011). Oil revenues provide the financial resources to “create a well-functioning state”, however, “rentier states have a poor track record in building efficient and democratic institutions” (van Genugten, 2011, p. 70). Randall (2015) points to Libya’s “huge advantages over other Middle Eastern transition states”. It is a “resource-rich economy with a small population of six million people to sustain” Why then, despite these advantages, has it not been possible to set the foundations for a secure, prosperous state with a well-resourced educational system producing capable fit for purpose graduates? (Randall, 2015). The prevalence of outmoded traditional teaching methods and lethargic attitudes to classroom interactions has been documented in this study. To what extent can the sclerotic educational system and low motivation levels be attributed to cultural norms and the sense of entitlement ingrained in the Gaddafi years?

7.4.2 The Gaddafi Legacy and Its Influence on Students’ Motivation

In the aftermath of recent violence, the Libyan government is trying to repair and improve its higher education sector to absorb the demand from the country's young population. Higher education is tasked with teaching the next generation of graduates the skills to make them employable and help exclude them from the reach of Jihadi recruiters.

Partnerships such as the European Commission’s €10 million package to support education by improving quality assurance, governance, and increased use of information technology are desirable medium and long-term objectives. However, Libyan graduates need change now, and this study is concerned with how teachers can play a role in raising standards. It was always unrealistic to expect Libyan educational institutions to emerge from four decades of

dictatorship and achieve a rapid improvement in standards. As is clear from the discussion below, Libyan universities operate in a different cultural environment and social context from that of UK universities, and their limited power to instigate change is slowed by geographic, economic, political, sociological and technological obstacles.

Libya in its current shape, is a fragile construct. Its fragmentation is a function of both its recent and more distant history. Some of the historical reasons for the failure to develop a tradition of independent civil society institutions has been explained in section 2.4. For forty-two years, Gaddafi suppressed separate identities and enshrined decision making in a system in which responsibility was deferred to Gadhafi, who himself decided significant legislation and decrees. The educational system is not centrally administered in the style of a functioning nation state. Despite its aspirational vision statements, central government is unable to direct policy or strategy. Post Gadhafi, when civilians began to build the trappings of a modern state incorporating civil society institutions, warlords bypassed the elections to defend, they claimed, whatever tribal, religious, or ethnic group might win them support. The power of tribes and clans cuts across ideological perspectives from Islamists to secularists with the result that regional, local, and tribal loyalties trump loyalty to the state. These developments are partly the outcome of Gaddafi's legacy. Young Libyans graduating in 2016 would have deduced from Gadhafi's precepts and codes of behaviour that the values which support self-progression relate more to 'tasa'ud' - helping out a connection - than to following the rules. In terms of young Libyans' aspirations, their experience teaches them that who you know is more important than what you know. In a personal communication, Teacher 1 complained that another teacher of English at the University had been awarded a post because he had powerful connections, even though his subject knowledge was so poor that he was almost incapable of having a conversation in English. Such preferential recruitment and the poor-quality teaching it tolerates must affect student morale and motivation. Not holding teachers accountable for their classroom performance induces cynicism, blunts a belief that change will develop and therefore damages learner motivation.

The key difficulty is overcoming a "mentality of entitlement" associated with a distributive political economy that subsidises services and featherbeds its citizens (Randall 2015). Students who do not comprehend entitlement's destructive influence as an evasion of responsibility are less likely to view career advancement as reward for academic achievement. Generous state benefits and non-productive public sector employment give them easier options than hard work. Libya's distributive political economy is linked to a culture of "advancement by connection" and nepotism (Whitaker 2009; Randall, 2015).

If the learner cannot foresee a line of career progression, and if no reward awaits those who agitate for driving academic standards, even extrinsic motivation becomes tainted. The cost of challenging the status quo, of taking responsibility and challenging underperforming teachers is potentially disruptive for the individual. It is less disruptive for individual graduates to continue to rely upon promotion through favouritism rather than out of merit. A system which bypasses the mechanisms for advancement through academic achievement damages student motivation to learn. Libyans' dependence on government largesse and family ties for career advancement and economic support are obstacles to learners demanding change in the classroom.

7.4.3 Evaluation of the Interventions

In a teacher-centred classroom, the goal is for the teacher to transfer his or her knowledge to the student. When asked to rate 12 characteristics of an effective teacher, teachers rated knowledge transmission as the most important. This outlook on learning is more about the teacher than the student. Students rated a focus on understanding as the number one characteristic they associate with good teaching. Teachers rated curiosity as the number one characteristic of an effective student, perhaps because, conditioned by years of passive acceptance of what they are fed, their students have little to be curious about. The repeated process of receiving, repeating and regurgitating information appears to have robbed them of enthusiasm and a sense of wonder about learning.

Too often students were learning content rather than skills. On the positive side, when several fundamental conditions were met, students and teacher shared a palpable sense of discovery and satisfaction witnessing the vitality of learners taking the initiative. The first of these conditions is careful consideration of resources so as to match them to ability and interest. The second condition relates to clearly stated aims. It was necessary to clarify with all six teachers what is meant by 'clearly stated aims'; it was not enough to state 'today we will work in groups' to develop an understanding of whatever topic was being covered. Pre-planning was not generally practiced. When the difficulties of orchestrating and coordinating learners and resources was managed by anticipating and planning for the small but time-consuming organisational features of seating, turn-taking etc., the opportunities for success were greater.

Teachers want students to ask questions, but not questions which challenge their values and pedagogic practices, after all, their status is linked to possessing more subject knowledge than

students. Student-centred classrooms focus on co-constructing understanding in tandem with a teacher who values and facilitates learner discovery.

Dornyei (2001) recognises that motivation is dynamic rather than static; it fluctuates as it is impacted by various factors, moment to moment and over an extended period. The underlying issues related to motivation are complex, but it is clear that every person's motivation to learn is flexible, not fixed. Teachers can directly influence students' motivation to learn English. In the case of Libya, the process of change is subject to a reassessment of teachers' role within a wider context of societal change towards a meritocratic society which rewards entrepreneurial initiative.

Although regarded by many as a retrograde step, there is a history of using rewards to enhance motivation in language learning. Meyer (1995) argues that motivating students to become active readers can be achieved through national programmes that reward reading. Such a policy might work in conjunction with the Libyan programme to build libraries referred to in section 5.3. Johnson (1995) refers to such programs as "Earning by Learning" which aim to motivate "academically low achieving students" to read by rewarding them with cash and adult attention. Although intrinsic motivation is more highly regarded and longer lasting, using extrinsic rewards to motivate "academically frustrated" learners has improved self-esteem, which increases motivation (Bahous, et al., 2011). However, this study does not advocate the use of financial rewards to enhance motivation. On the contrary, it argues that state subsidised financial incentives are linked to a mind-set of damaged self-efficacy and initiative, and that the 'spoon feeding' of students by teachers is part of this process. Creating opportunities for active participation in learning will help build their self-image as successful second language speakers.

Teachers hold the power and influence to instigate change. Teachers 1, 2 and 5 succeeded in providing opportunities for students to communicate in English and improve their fluency, and move away from the focus on grammar-based competence. As the intervention progressed, Teachers 1, 2 and 5 moved from linking previous learning at the start of lessons to making explicit the learning goal for the class. As they progressed, they discussed and reflected upon the aims of student centred learning, they made more clear the purpose of activities and gave clearer explanations and instructions. They expressed some resistance to how much time was taken to prepare for learning. When successful in doing so, they were both surprised and pleased with the outcome. Even with the aid of instructional video, it was

difficult to explain to teachers the theories of learner discovery, and knowledge co-construction. However, their participation in lessons that achieved the aims of enthusing learners through their active participation proved by far to be the most successful means of instructing teachers and students about what constitutes interactive student centred learning. When the opportunity to contrast, for example, the simple right or wrong responses demanded by cloze exercises with students negotiating responses based on their experience and opinions - where no simple right or wrong answer exists - they witnessed and recognised the value of interactive learning. They agreed that student self-expression, using the target language to explore culturally bound topics, invested lessons with an energy they previously lacked. They witnessed how student understanding and discovery could replace, in the minds of learners, the pre-eminence of the lecturer's role. Teachers 1, 2 and 5 witnessed how chalk and talk methods rule out the possibility for students to challenge content by excluding learning through the process of discovery which intrinsically drives a desire to learn. Particularly where a second language is concerned, learners have to be motivated to learn. Motivation can be defined as a need that energizes and directs behaviour (Meyers, 2001). Financial needs and demands are skewed; students do not make a financial contribution towards their education, and the financial rewards are uncertain. These conditions will take time to change. What can be changed quickly is the level of involvement in and engagement with classroom participation. Before their motivation to learn is smothered by an unresponsive system, Libyan students are no different to students worldwide; they want to learn, to excel and to be recognised and rewarded for merit. It is the absence of a sense of intrinsic motivation that too often is characteristic of Libyan education. Teachers must review their conception of good teaching practice to support students to figure out and find answers themselves. If teachers accept a new role encouraging students to build their own knowledge through participation and discovery, they will be better able to reach their goals and serve the needs of an emerging modern society.

7.5 Summary and Conclusions

This chapter has presented the implementation of the research programme by six teachers in the Department of English. Their teaching - two females and four males - was video recorded on three separate sessions spanning eight weeks. The aim was to meet their students' needs by encouraging teachers to change their pedagogical positions and re-orientate their role as privileged owners of knowledge. A second aim was to encourage students to take more ownership and to become pro-active by taking responsibility for their own learning. Thus,

both will have to take risks in terms of their learning as they challenge the traditional culture and forsake positions they previously adopted.

The first section describes how the six participating teachers conducted their three sessions in terms of using active learning techniques. From the observed lessons, Teacher 1, Teacher 2, and Teacher 5 were to an extent successful in adapting their teaching practices during the course of the intervention. For example, Teacher 1, in Session Two, used visual aids to increase students' participation and employed small group work to encourage cooperative learning. Teacher Two, in Session One, used flash cards to achieve student participation by allowing learner enthusiasm to lead the discussion. In Session Three, she used an authentic text about a well-known ancient city to stimulate students' thinking and help them construct meaning without being informed by the teacher. Teacher 5, in his three lessons motivated his students to select a topic of their choice, present and discuss it with their peers. Although lacking a clear instruction from the teacher explaining the intended learning outcomes, permitting students to decide what they learn enabled students in this group to participate in oral activities. Research shows that the process of change in pedagogical practices takes time (MacGilchrist, et al., 1997). However, based on lesson observations and teachers' perceptions questionnaires, this study concludes that three of the participating teachers have, to an extent, achieved the following change:

1. Teachers are able to modify their teaching practices to meet their students' needs.
2. Teachers are more aware of the concept student autonomy.
3. Teachers have developed understanding of the value of authentic texts and materials in improving students' engagement and participation.
4. Teachers use various types of questions e.g. direct questions, open questions, and comprehension questions to diagnose students' understanding.

In addition, and based on evidence from the videoed lessons and a comparison of students' perceptions before and after the intervention, the study confirms that students have achieved the following changes:

1. Improved classroom participation and engagement. Students believe they are immersed in materials that has clear meaning and immediate value to them e.g. reading a text on a topic of personal interest.
2. Improved confidence. Students feel more confident to raise questions in the classroom due to the encouragement provided by the teacher.

On the other hand, Teacher 3, Teacher 4, and Teacher 6 were less enthusiastic in changing their practices. Although they attempted to perform interactive teaching styles, such as the use of questions and discussions, group work, and the use of supplementary materials to support learning, it was evident that they did not understand the idea of student-centred learning. They failed to engage students in the learning process to motivate them to practice higher-level critical thinking skills. Teachers' beliefs influence teaching methods. They are closely linked to teachers' strategies for coping in the classroom and they shape students' learning environment and influence student motivation and achievement. Williams and Burden (1997) maintain that "a teacher's deep-rooted beliefs about how languages are learned will pervade the classroom actions more than a particular methodology he/she is told to adopt". Therefore, any attempt to change the practice of teachers must, of necessity, involve change in their beliefs (Beswick, 2004). Based on evidence from observed lessons, and post-intervention teachers' perceptions questionnaire, the study identifies five barriers relating in particular to T3, T4, and T6, to achieving performance change, these are:

1. At least one teacher feels uncomfortable using student-centred learning method, and another two teachers are not certain whether this method will make them effective teachers.
2. Teachers are not prepared to accept the role of students as an independent learner.
3. Teachers lack confidence in students' ability to achieve successful learning through student-student interactions, e.g. pair/group discussion or cooperative work.
4. Teachers hold firm beliefs that Libyan students - in the context of teaching English - cannot effectively learn on their own without their teachers' assistance.
5. Teachers' expression of the belief that independent learning strategies are more applicable to 'the four skills', and the assumption that traditional lecturing is sufficient with other courses.

With regard to obstacles encountered by students to change their learning practices and behaviours, the study concludes the following:

1. Students rely heavily on their teachers.
2. Students lack confidence. Approximately half of participating students are unable to engage in problem solving activities or raise questions in the classroom.
3. Students lack understanding of the use and value of pair/group discussion.

Teacher beliefs and attitudes play an important role in the educational process; and as such, teachers must acknowledge the influence of their beliefs and philosophies. Also, beliefs based on many cultural, societal, personal and sometimes religious influences, are not easy to understand and can be difficult to change. In brief, the study finds that in the context of Libyan higher education, teachers have different social attitudes and perceptions with regard to their profession and their relationships with the learners. Therefore, they have mixed reactions to change their teaching styles, and some are doubtful about the usefulness of interactive teaching methods. Findings from the interventions confirm that half of the participating teachers hold positive attitudes and are prepared to adapt to change, as in our case, T1, T2, and T5. They believe in the value of shifting their pedagogical practices from the traditional approach to a more student-centred learning. They agree that students should be actively engaged in the learning tasks and activities, taking responsibility for their own learning. Meanwhile, they assert that the teacher should no longer play the role of knowledge provider, and promote the concept of student as knowledge acquirer. Student independent learning is not common in the Libyan higher education, therefore, positive teacher attitude is essential in implementing student-centred instructional approaches that give students a real voice in the process of their education. After implementing the new approach to teaching, these teachers see themselves as more creative and flexible. By contrast, the other half of the participating teachers, T3, T4, and T6, appear to hold negative attitudes and beliefs towards the inclusion of student-centred learning. Beliefs that promote student compliance and respect for authority is central, and is more important to the process than understanding. This study reveals that these teachers underestimate and undervalue their role as motivators. Their expectation is that compliant students will follow their instructions and soak up information. They perceive their role is more of role models expected to inculcate character and moral virtues in their students. Teachers resistance to change is associated with their attitudes that students are not able to achieve effective learning without their assistance.

Chapter Eight

Conclusions

Introduction

This chapter summarises and concludes the results of the first phase of this study and the analysis of the findings of the second intervention phase to draw conclusions on whether well instructed and prepared teachers can change their conception of what good teaching, and introduce learner centred strategies. Also, it identifies the necessary elements for the implementation of staff training to develop the quality of teachers' performance and enhance students learning experiences in the context of teaching English in Libya.

The recommendations are presented with each of the research objectives and the overall aim stated. Recommendations are suggested for the development of Libyan Higher education, proposing more effective strategies for learning and teaching in Elmergheb University and other universities in Libya.

8.1 General Summary

Despite a large amount of investment and spending, the Libyan higher education system still faces many problems, namely, overcrowded classrooms in public universities, low employability of graduates, low faculty motivation and the lack of academic research. The standards of university education are not adequately preparing graduates for the job market. Since Qaddafi came to power in 1969, the literacy rates have been increasing but according to the evidence obtained from the teachers and students in the first phase of this research, teaching practice is dominated by traditional lecturing involving one-way teacher dominated exposition. In addition, students still depend on teachers in their learning and they are reluctant to work on their own. There are many causes for this; for several years, the teaching of English was banned in Libya (1986 to 1995) and the qualified and experienced teachers at that time were re-directed to teach other subjects or find other employment. This resulted in a lack of proficient English teachers when the teaching of English was officially reinstated in 2005. There has been a demand for university places and the resources and facilities available have not been able to keep up with this demand. The quality of the education provided has often been compromised in the need to provide university places for large numbers of students. Other factors are overcrowded classrooms and a low professional standing for teachers, salaries were low and resources for meaningful research scarce. In Libya, these

issues are also in evidence, but they have been aggravated by the political changes and a consequent lack of strategy, leading to inconsistent standards across the country. The study establishes that exposure to the English language has been limited and the majority of teachers are unable to use IT and teaching aids in teaching English due mainly to a shortage of resources and that most teachers do not integrate these tools in their courses. The methodology for teaching English has developed in recent years and Libyan universities had no experience of interactive and communicative teaching styles. The teacher centred approach, teacher directed learning activities and the behaviourist values of imitation and practice which see learning as a process of habit formation are set as the foundations of teachers' pedagogical beliefs. Teachers believe that their role as knowledge provider is central. The seed of rote learning is planted at primary age when pupils learn the Quran by rote memorization. Students then develop under the influence of secondary school education system where pupil teacher ratios continue to rule out personal interventions. Students reliance on memorizing information rather than analysing and self-questioning is linked to teaching style.

Recently, there has been a substantial scholarship programme set up by the Gaddafi regime. The education authority promoted long term plans of funding university students and teachers to improve their skills by pursuing their postgraduate studies (Master's Degree and PhD) locally and abroad. Therefore, Libyan universities relied heavily on expatriate lecturers.

The second phase of this research introduces a bottom-up change which is mainly initiated and driven by the researcher. Using video recording, the study induces a cultural change in which students and teachers take new and different positions, by involving, stimulating and motivating six teachers to change their pedagogical practices from the one-way traditional approach to a more student-centred learning. In this respect, teachers encourage students to express themselves, to think critically, and reflect on their own learning. Although videos show that slight changes are achieved in terms of teaching and learning practices, nevertheless, in the context of this study and the current political and social circumstances, these changes are considered very valuable. The study concludes that half of the participating teachers are willing to challenge their traditional culture and forsake positions they previously adopted. They have developed good understanding of the importance and the need for using student-centred learning strategies that can improve students learning. Therefore, they used various types of questions such as open questions and comprehension questions to diagnose

students' understanding, and used authentic texts and materials in order to improve students' engagement and participation.

However, due to cultural, social, and political factors, other teachers are found to hold conflicting views, and they show less enthusiasm towards changing their pedagogical beliefs and practices. These established beliefs directly affect teachers' perceptions and judgements about how they teach. The design of lesson plans, pedagogical practices and behaviour in the classroom are all directly influenced by the beliefs systems held by these teachers. Teaching character and moral virtues is linked in Libya to the traditional conservative approach which rejects Western values, images and culture. A potential conflict arises concerning the use of texts and cultural artefacts associated with the target language and the role and status of teachers in a traditional society. Teachers see themselves as role models who inculcate social and moral development. The study finds that nearly half of participating students prefer traditional learning methods and rote memorization because their primary focus is to pass exams and obtain a degree. In addition, the summative assessment methods used in the university have forced them to adopt memory skills. The evidence from this study indicates no culture of learner involvement in the negotiation of learning practices and consequently learners have developed neither the expectation nor the skills to initiate the process. Their preference in learning is to follow their teachers' instructions and they are not motivated to seek extra information independently.

Cultural influences certainly have a significant impact in achieving change because culture represents the beliefs, values and standards that direct individuals' behaviours and thoughts. Libyan culture is very traditional and the Libyan society is based on a tribal system that respects Islamic religious values. Libyan culture is considered a contact culture, where people from the same sex can stand and walk side by side near each other. However, in communication between different genders it appears to be a strict culture. Many cultural values are based on religion, leading to gender differences in communication, behaviour and social structure. Therefore, in terms of communication practices between students in universities, there are some issues that should be considered. For example, working in pairs/groups, eye contact and the use of personal space are very sensitive issues, and can easily cause embarrassment, especially between males and females. In Islamic culture, you are not allowed to close your office/classroom door when talking to a colleague of the opposite sex. In this intervention, female students are found to have less opportunities for interactions and engagement in active learning with their peers, especially males. Female

students are influenced by religious and cultural considerations which restrict their involvement in collaborative activities. Some female students had a preference for working only within groups of their gender. Teachers need to be aware of these issues if they are to effectively engage students in group work.

8.2 Research Methods

The first phase focuses on the effectiveness of teaching and learning practices, and understanding staff's professional and training needs in terms of their teaching quality. Therefore, a case study strategy using a qualitative-quantitative and evaluative method is carried out. The methodology choice for this study is made after a review of the literature on the topic and the setting of research objectives. The findings from phase one confirm the researcher's observation based view that teaching staff in Libyan Universities are not performing to the best of their capabilities, and that examining how teachers teach and how learners learn in the classroom could stimulate self-reflection leading to a dialogue among teachers about how changes in teaching styles can stimulate student interest in the topic and raise their participation in the learning process. The first phase reveals that teacher-centred approaches were predominant, which led students towards surface learning dominated by rote memorization. The respect afforded to the teacher and the politeness that was evident in student-teacher interactions in the course of the observed classes for this research is, in many ways, admirable. However, in the pedagogical context, there is a thin line between respect shown to the teacher and student dependence, which can lead to learners' expectation that information should be delivered to them rather than constructed by them. Over-reliance on lecturers can lead to student complacency. Why question or analyse if the teacher's word is sacrosanct? As a result, based on phase one findings mentioned above, an intervention programme was developed to stimulate learner participation and encourage learners to take ownership of their topic and its content. Six teachers were trained to apply interactive teaching techniques, and encourage students to become active participants in their learning. Teachers were video recorded to identify and measure changes in their teaching performance. Overall, the analysis of videos reveals that the intervention introduced behavioural changes in which more students were actively participating in their learning; teachers delivered new styles of teaching that will have the overall benefit of increasing learning.

8.3 Review of Research Questions and Findings

This section draws through the research questions and findings of phase one and two. First, a review of research questions of **Phase One**.

Research Question One: How effective are the practices of teaching and learning currently being employed at the Department of English?

The direct answer for this research question is ineffective. Research tools used in phase one such as pre-intervention student learning questionnaire and pre-intervention teaching observations show that teaching in Libyan universities is mainly teacher-centred. The teacher has all the answers and independent discovery is neither expected nor encouraged by compliant students or complacent teachers. In addition, students have been captives of teaching methods which have directed them to follow non-participatory and overly compliant learning strategies. Students frequently use memorization in their learning because their summative assessment methods have forced them to adopt memory skills. Teacher observations revealed that lecture discussions and classroom interactions between students were rare.

Research Question Two: What are the problems encountered by lecturers when performing in the classroom?

Teachers interviews were very important in understanding the problems and difficulties teachers face when performing in the classroom. Teachers expressed their dissatisfaction with the heavy workload and class size. They also raised several issues, for example, inadequate equipment, outdated reading materials and language laboratory, and emphasize that opportunities to develop language acquisition skills through reading are limited as the faculty library provides very few resources and reading materials.

Research Question Three: What are the difficulties faced by students in learning English?

Findings from students learning questionnaires and student interviews reveal that students are influenced by learning habits they acquired in their secondary school education. They still depend on teachers in their learning and they are reluctant to work on their own. As a result, students learning approaches are not effective and practices of independent learning or student-centred learning are hardly applied. They have little experience of grappling with new concepts. Their reliance on memorizing information rather than analysing and self-

questioning is linked to teaching style which is mainly teacher-centred, and students are very concerned about getting good grades.

Research Question Four: What are the professional and personal needs of academic staff in Libyan universities?

This study has found that staff training and development in Libyan universities is lacking. The majority of the informants express their concerns that opportunities for professional training are not provided within their organisation. A significant number of teachers interviewed in this study argue that the absence of staff training and development programmes can affect teachers' performance and consequently affect the quality of education offered. In addition, teachers state that lack of adequate library resources, an under-resourced English laboratory and excessive teaching hours and workload have a strong impact on their performance.

Research Question Five: What is the attitude of staff and faculty management to professional development and training?

In the interviews, teachers provided positive views on the desirability of staff development and the need to improve teaching and learning in the University. Staff training is viewed as an opportunity for personal and professional improvement promising the seeds of change for both educational institutions and society. Significantly, the majority of teacher respondents in this study (83%) are of the opinion that staff training programmes are essential for teaching effectiveness and learning improvements.

Teachers showed a genuine enthusiasm for teacher training and agreed they would take part in professional training activities. In addition, senior management in the faculty - the Dean of Faculty and Head of English Department - expressed positive attitudes and support to teacher training and development. Some teachers expressed their doubts that resistance to participation in staff development programmes might be related to cultural and religious values.

Research Question Six: Can staff training and development be introduced and implemented to meet the needs of students?

The direct answer for this research question is yes. The positive attitudes expressed by the teachers and their encouraging responses to the questions "*How do you feel about the current management in your department/faculty?*", and "*Is the senior management in your University*

prepared to support staff development and training programmes?”, indicate that training activities can possibly be implemented in the English Department. Nevertheless, some teachers raised their doubts that some female teachers may not be able to participate in training activities outside their workplace and unsocial hours due to the culture and religion's dominance upon their professional lives. The study also found that resistance might be linked to teachers' unprofessional attitudes towards their job in terms of the degree of their commitment, responsibility and dedication.

Based on the review of Phase One research questions provided above, the researcher now has developed better understanding of the phenomena under study in terms of difficulties, problems, needs and limitations. It became clear that there was a need to effect change in how teachers teach and how learners learn in the classroom. They need to bring about a shift in their pedagogical practices from the traditional approach - currently employed - to a more student-centred learning. Therefore, after careful consideration and further discussions with supervisors, the researcher decided to conduct a second phase. A research plan - intervention - was devised in line with the findings of phase one by training six teachers to employ methods that use active learning styles and accordingly instil values of lifelong learning.

The intervention aims to guide and instruct six teachers by encouraging them to begin to question and discuss the principles that inform good teaching practice and move beyond conditioned classroom responses to begin to achieve effective learning. It introduces a change in the political basis in the classroom. A shift from a traditional order - the teacher is the expert and knowledge provider - to students actively engage in their learning. A new environment where learners are encouraged and permitted to take more ownership and to become pro-active by taking responsibility for their own learning.

Secondly, the following is a review of research questions and findings of **Phase Two**.

Research Question One: Can student-centred independent learning be introduced in Libyan universities?

The direct answer for this question is yes. The analysis of videos and post-intervention student questionnaire revealed that half of participating students were able to effectively engage in their learning processes and perform student-centred activities. The use of small group work was very rewarding for both teachers and students. With the right tasks, and problems set, students were able to learn to cooperate with one another, develop interpersonal

awareness, debate about a subject, and challenge orally accepted ideas that they had heard in the classroom or read in their books. However, the other half of students were not able to perform independent learning activities for many reasons. First, teachers hold strong beliefs that students are unable to learn independently, and second, students have little confidence that they can learn and construct knowledge by themselves. While, the study hopes that students will acquire the skills of student-centred learning, this acquisition can at times seem painfully slow to be realised.

Research Question Two: Can video-based research be used to improve teaching and learning in the context of Libyan Higher Education?

The direct answer is yes. This study establishes that nearly half of participating teachers and students have positively responded to the research intervention. Findings confirm that half of the participating teachers hold positive attitudes and are prepared to adapt to change. They agree that students should be actively engaged in learning activities, taking responsibility for their own learning. They assert that the teacher should no longer play the role of knowledge provider, and promote the concept of student as knowledge acquirer. However, the other half of the participating teachers appear to hold negative attitudes and beliefs towards the inclusion of student-centred learning. Nevertheless, continuous research using video-based studies in the Libyan context will hopefully increase teachers and students' awareness of the value of student-centred independent learning strategies.

In this intervention, teachers expressed some resistance to how much time was taken to prepare for learning. When successful in doing so, they were both surprised and pleased with the outcome. Even with the aid of instructional video, it was difficult to explain to teachers the theories of learner discovery, and knowledge co-construction. However, their participation in lessons that achieved the aims of enthusing learners through their active participation proved by far to be the most successful means of instructing teachers and students about what constitutes interactive student-centred learning.

Research Questions Three & Four:

- Are Libyan teachers prepared to redirect excessive teacher exposition towards learner participation?
- Are Libyan teachers and students ready to effect a cultural change by allowing students take control of their learning?

The direct answer to these questions is yes. Research indicates that the process of change in pedagogical practices takes time and requires continuous support in order to induce change. The second phase of this study finds that the participating teachers have a positive perception of the use of student independent learning strategies in teaching. They also perceive that the use of comprehension questions in classrooms allowed them to understand their students learning needs. At least, half of the participating teachers are willing to challenge their traditional culture and abandon practices they previously used. They have developed good understanding of the importance and the need for using student-centred learning strategies. In addition, some students feel positive and excited about their learning, using different methods and techniques in the classroom.

Videos reveal that social, religious and cultural boundaries must be taken into consideration when introducing video-based research. In the Libyan culture, female students are influenced by religious and cultural values which restrict their involvement in collaborative activities and therefore, teachers need to be aware of these issues if they are to engage students in group work.

Finally, this study hopes continuous support to teachers and students will encourage gradual shift of excessive teacher exposition towards learner participation.

8.3.1 Meeting the Objectives and Answering the Research Questions

This study investigates the effectiveness of teaching and learning styles used in a Libyan University. The findings reveal that students employ learning approaches and styles which limit their learning and understanding of materials. Lack of staff professional training and development is another major defect affecting education quality. Therefore, the two phases of this study aim to achieve the following research objectives:

8.3.1.1 Phase One

Objective 1:

To explore students' approaches and preferences to learning in a Libyan university. In addition, to explore the perceptions of the effectiveness of teaching practices, so that appropriate actions can be taken to improve learning and teaching in the University.

To achieve this objective, semi-structured interviews with ten teachers, the Head of the Department, and the Dean of the Faculty were conducted. Furthermore, twelve students from

the Department of English were also interviewed to follow through their interpretations of their behaviours and attitudes. The interviews enabled the researcher to gain deeper insights and understanding of teaching and learning practices, the difficulties faced by teachers and learners, and matters influencing: students from being effective in receiving their learning; and the teachers from being effective in implementing their professional roles and duties. Pre-intervention Teaching Performance Questionnaire was used to evaluate teaching and to serve exploratory purposes, and was triangulated by three evaluators: a) the evaluation by the students, b) the self-reflection by the teacher, and c) the evaluation by the researcher. Accordingly, findings from observations provided an understanding of teaching practices and their impact on learners, as well as, an understanding of students' learning behaviours.

Objective 2:

To find out the teachers' perceptions of effective university teachers and students. In addition, to discover students' views on teaching and learning effectiveness and identify teachers' professional needs.

To accomplish this objective, Pre-intervention Students Learning Questionnaire and teacher interviews were used to obtain descriptive data on what they believe constitutes effective teachers and learners. Findings from these instruments offered important information regarding participants' thoughts and attitudes about what constitutes effective learners and teachers.

8.3.1.2 Phase Two

Objective 1:

To design a training plan, tailored to six teachers in order to meet the professional challenges identified in phase one of this study.

To meet this objective, a research plan (intervention) and issues around teaching effectiveness, change management, and teacher training were identified from the literature review. Models of teacher training and approaches to change discussed in chapter 2 formed the basis of the intervention plan. Achieving this objective was closely based on the achievement of first phase objectives. The foundation knowledge obtained from meeting these objectives enabled the researcher to effectively create the research plan.

Objective 2: To increase teachers' awareness of interactive teaching methods, train them to implement active learning practices, and measure their perceptions of the integration of interactive lectures.

To conduct the programme effectively, the researcher carried out a training and preparation plan to test the validity of the study, identify the participants, and develop training packages for teacher training. To ensure teacher's buy-in and create ownership, the researcher employed a bottom-up approach, where participants were encouraged to put forward their opinions and views in formulating some elements of the plan. The model for using video to record teacher-student interactions was developed from the literature and discussed in chapter 6.6.1. Finally, to measure the impact of the intervention, a systematic analysis of the videos was carried out. Two main aspects of the lessons were analysed. First, functions; the pedagogical functions of the lesson which is based on a set of predetermined elements, for example: review, introducing new content, practicing / applying. The second aspect is form which provided an in-depth description of indicators of improved students engagement and improved teaching practices. Further, to find out more about students and teachers' perceptions of the intervention, post-intervention questionnaires were completed four months after the implementation of the programme.

8.4 Staff Training and Development Programme in Elmergheb University

The findings of this study reveal that the concept of staff training was unfamiliar to some and not regarded as necessary by others. Most academic staff did not appreciate the role of teacher development and training programmes and this omission attests to their restricted use in all faculties and has an enormous impact on the overall quality of teaching and learning practices, and consequently influences students and the academic standards at the University. Effective training programmes require essential elements for instance, effective training legislation, visionary management, and continuous professional development. It has been discovered that these elements did not exist in the University. There are no opportunities for teacher training, and there is no communication and coordination between teachers and their faculties in the university. Teacher's lack of awareness and knowledge of the modern methods of teaching combined with lack of adequate awareness of the use of information and communication technology in education were all discovered to be serious weakness in higher education.

8.5 Originality

A substantial contribution to knowledge from this study is a thorough assessment of the quality of teaching and learning. This study has put forward a plan to enhance the performance of teachers, and positively impact students' perception of learning quality in a Libyan University. This research is the first to be conducted in Libya into the evaluation of teaching effectiveness and implementing interventions which promote interactive teaching and learning methods. It is the first academic study to use Elmergheb University as a case study. In the literature, there is no case study investigating this topic in Libya, thus, this study contributes to the field of teacher professional development. This study identifies the challenges and barriers to implement interactive lectures and remedies for these challenges are provided. It was clear from the start that addressing the resistance to the integration of interactive student-centred approaches to teaching and learning, and change was essential for a truly successful learning. For this purpose, a suitable model of managing change and minimising staff resistance to change was adopted. This research adds to the corpus of knowledge in the field of training-related implementation impediments in Libyan HEIs. Another contribution is the introduction of a cultural change in the Department of English. A change or shift in power relations in which students and teachers have different positions. Students are encouraged to engage and react on their learning 'learning by doing' (Gibbs, 1988). Meanwhile, teachers shift their focus from traditional teaching, which positioned students as passive receivers of knowledge, to providing students with opportunities to meaningfully involve and reflect on the content. A shift in perceptions and attitudes about instruction methods and learning approaches will hopefully lead to a major change in the University culture in Libya.

8.6 Recommendations for Elmergheb University

From the findings, I recommend the following to Elmergheb University where the empirical part of this study was conducted.

- 1) The university should develop criteria for supporting academic staff and maintain effective communications between administrative staff, lecturers and their departments to encourage changes that enhance educational outcomes.
- 2) The University should introduce staff development and training policies, identify staff needs and training barriers, in order to implement successful training programmes for their teachers. As found in this study, the implementation of training sessions encouraged

positive interaction between participants and will improve future teaching performance and skills. The University should set up a unit for continuing professional development to improve teaching and learning in various faculties.

- 3) The University should place greater emphasis on staff performance appraisal. To ensure its efficiency, evaluation should be carried out at three different levels; peer evaluation, self-evaluation, and student evaluation. Teacher evaluation fulfils two main functions. The first is to improve teacher performance by identifying their strengths and weaknesses for further development - the development functions. The second seeks to ensure that teachers perform at their best to improve quality of learning - accountability function.
- 4) Teachers should become aware that the use of traditional lecturing / teacher-centred approaches may not provide students with valuable skills or with the knowledge that lasts beyond the end of the term. Alternatively, teachers should put less emphasis on lecture-based method and information transmission and place greater emphasis on the use of interactive teaching strategies such as active, cooperative, and problem-based learning.
- 5) Teachers should take appropriate measures to deal with students' learning problems and less effective learning behaviours. The quality of teaching as well as lecturers' attitudes influence students in their approach to learning. Commitment to teaching and good relationship with students are influential categories for enhancing learning. It is essential to use teaching style that offers learners a degree of freedom, for example, opportunities to choose course units, tasks, and assignments. This will promote learner autonomy where learners take more ownership of the content and process of their learning. Also, the use of authentic materials and engaging students in tasks contain real life situations will attract their attention and provide them with effective motivational incentive to learn.
- 6) Students should be taught to reduce relying on Surface Approaches to learning, for instance, studying without reflecting on a strategy or a purpose, and rote memorization. Students should be encouraged to acquire effective study skills such as, reading strategies, time management, and note taking to enhance their learning experience.
- 7) In order for learning and teaching to be successful, the University should provide essential resources and educational equipment to ensure quality education. A good library which provides a range of resources, for example, reading books, text books, journals, articles etc. Modern laboratories and ICT facilities are crucial components if improvements to the effectiveness of English teaching and learning are to take place in the University.

8.7 Suggestions for Further Studies

Based on the findings of this research study, I would like to suggest the following topics for future studies:

- 1) Further studies to investigate teaching and learning effectiveness in Libyan Universities are crucial to understand the factors affecting education quality in these institutions.
- 2) A study concerned with investigating and finding the factors hindering the establishment of Staff Development Units (SDUs) in Libyan Universities.
- 3) Further research involving issues not covered in this study, for example, government policies and regulations and the absence of effective university legislation regarding teacher evaluation and training. Thus, providing a good grounding for introducing staff development programmes.
- 4) An extensive research concerning teaching styles and learning experiences in primary and secondary schools is highly recommended in order to build a network, which provides an environment for mutual understanding, coordination, and cooperation among these institutions and universities.

8.8 Final Thoughts

This research study has been a very enriching and rewarding experience on both academic and personal levels. The study has investigated the perceptions of the effectiveness of teaching and learning practices in Elmergheb University, and the availability of opportunities of staff training. The evaluation of teaching and learning, the participants' views, and attempts to answer research questions, enabled me as a researcher and a university teacher to build a more comprehensive and rich picture of teaching and learning in Libyan higher education sector. The two phases of this research have shown that, despite barriers and obstacles, the positive attitudes regarding professional development and the readiness of some teachers to adapt to change are great indications for future improvement.

On the personal level, this study, involving teaching observations, and the interviews with lecturers, Head of the English Department, the Faculty Dean, as well as students, and better understanding their desires to improve and offer their best, has been a unique and invaluable experience that broadened my perspective regarding teaching and learning philosophies. In addition, the implementation of video-based pedagogical intervention in a conservative Libyan context, was one of the best experiences in my life. The process of training lecturers,

gaining access and consent to capture them in action, and the use of video analysis to establish whether there were changes in participants' behaviours, have all been enlightening and life enhancing experience to the researcher and to the participant teachers and students too.

APPENDICES

Appendix 3.A: Advantages and Applications of Incremental and Transformational Approaches of Change

	Incremental Change Continuous Improvement	Transformational Change Rapid Improvement
Structures	Annual review and modification of school structures, such as the school schedule, organisation of grades and teachers, meeting times, common planning time, and leadership structure.	Rapid implementation of new structures, leadership configuration and meetings (e.g. smaller learning communities, expanded common planning time).
People	Leaders and staff remain relatively consistent from one year to the next. Leaders and teachers improve professionally through collegial relationships, mentoring and professional development.	New leadership and new teachers have significant role in change efforts (e.g. turnaround leaders, new teacher leaders, significant change in leadership roles).
Policies and Conditions	Policies and learning conditions remain relatively stable and tend to reinforce the status quo (e.g. existing behaviours, beliefs, and expectations).	New policies are established or existing policies dramatically revised to ensure that the school – the principal or an external partner such as an educational organisation – has the operating flexibility, autonomy, budgetary authority needed to implement changes.
Programmes: (professional development, interventions, school reform, targeted interventions)	<p>Programmes of professional development are intended to improve but not dramatically change, instructional practices or approaches:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Traditional coaching and consulting (light-touch coaching). • Curriculum alignment and development of common assessment. • Targeted programmes that meet the students' academic or social needs. 	<p>Programmes and professional development are intended to dramatically change instructional practices approaches:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Full implementation of a whole school reform model. • Use an external provider (e.g. a lead partner) to provide consistent services and professional development. • Use of multiple external organisations or providers in integrated fashion.
The Results	In two to three years, the school will look and feel the same. Aspects of school may have improved, although the school – how it appears and its culture – will be fundamentally the same.	In two to three years, the culture, the people in the school, the beliefs of individuals and how individuals interact with each other, and most of the programmes will be fundamentally different than what exists today.

(Source: Institute for Strategic Leadership and Learning-USA)

Appendix 3.B: Comparison of the Three Models of the Emergent Change

Kanter et al. 10 Commandments for Executing Change (1992)	Kotter's Eight-stage Process for Successful Organisational Transformation (1996)	Luecke's Seven Steps (2003)
Analyse the organisation and its need to change		Mobilise energy and commitment through joint identification of business problems and their solutions
Create a vision and a common direction	Developing a vision and strategy	Developing a shared vision of how to organise and manage for competitiveness
Separate from the past		
Create a sense of urgency	Establishing a sense of urgency	
Support a strong leader role		Identify the leadership
Line up political sponsorship	Creating a guiding coalition	
Craft an implementation plan		
Develop enabling structures	Empowering broad-based action	
Communicate, involve people and be honest	Communicate the change vision	
Reinforce and institutionalise change	Anchoring new approaches in the culture	Institutionalise success through formal policies, systems and structures
	Generate short-term wins	
	Consolidating gains and produce more change	
		Focus on results not on activities
		Start change at the periphery, then let it spread to other units without pushing it from the top
		Monitor and adjust strategies in response to problems in the change process

(Source: Todnem, 2005)

Appendix 3.C: Relative Effectiveness of Top-down and Bottom-up Approaches to Actual Change Across Different Parameters

Parameter	Level of effectiveness of:	
	Top-down approaches	Bottom-up approaches
Expressiveness	High – deal in simple messages and specialise in communicating these effectively and reasonably quickly at the practice/artefact level.	Low in short term – focus on concrete problem generates lots of denial rather than a new symbol.
Commonality	Low – promoted unifying feeling often ceases after formal programme ends; methods often lead to resistance and lack of common ownership.	High – operates through shared understanding and creates a culture of trust and understanding.
Penetration	Variable – depends on ability of interventions to affect more than just practices or artefacts; highly structured programmes likely to reach all employees.	Low in short term: involves only part of the organisation. High in long term: involves discussing proposals and implications with employees.
Adaptability	Low – tend to be inflexible and imply instant fix; programmed nature implies conformity and devalues deviance.	High – concrete problem led, willing to accommodate new views and find best fit with organisational requirements.
Durability	Low – based on senior management’s desires; lack of ownership by employees likely to be highest with transformational change.	High – employees are keen to preserve what they have created; especially high when a development of existing practices which employees own rather than transformational change.

(Source: developed from Bate, 1995)

Appendix 4.A: Essential Differences between Qualitative and Quantitative Research

Quantitative Research	Qualitative Research
Preference for precise hypotheses stated at the outset.	Preference for hypotheses that emerge as study develops.
Preference for precise definitions stated at the outset.	Preference for definitions in context or as study progresses.
Data reduced to numerical scores.	Preference to narrative description.
Much attention to assessing and improving reliability.	Preference to assuming that reliability of reference is adequate.
Assessment of validity through a variety of procedures with reliance on statistical indices.	Assessment of validity through cross-checking sources of information (triangulation).
Preference for random techniques for obtaining meaningful samples.	Preference for expert (purposive) samples.
Preference for precisely describing procedures.	Preference for narrative/literary descriptions of procedures.
Preference for design or statistical control of extraneous variables.	Preference for logical analysis in controlling or accounting for extraneous variables.
Preference for specific design control for procedural bias.	Primary reliance on researcher to deal with procedural bias.
Preference for statistical summary of results.	Preference for narrative summary of results.
Preference for breaking down complex phenomena into specific parts of analysis.	Preference for holistic description of complex phenomena.
Willingness to manipulate aspects, situations, or conditions in studying complex phenomena.	Willingness to tamper with naturally occurring phenomena.

(Source: Fraenkel & Wallen, 2008:422)

Appendix 4.B: Teacher/Lecturer Interview Schedule

1- General Views on Teaching

- Are there any differences between teaching in schools and universities?
- What is the purpose of higher education?
- What are the intentions of students attending university?

2- Teacher Effectiveness

- How do you identify the characteristics of an effective university teacher?
- In your view, how does an effective teacher influence students' achievement?

3- Teaching and Learning in University

- How do you plan your lectures?
- How do you motivate your students?
- How do you help students overcome their problems in learning and study skills?

4- Students Learning and Studying

- What are the characteristics of a good university student to you?
- What are the problems you notice encountered by your students in teaching and learning? What is the most common problem occurring among them?

5- Assessment and Evaluation

- How do you assess your students' performance?
- To what extent in your opinion, is it important to obtain students' evaluation of teaching?

6- Staff Perspective on Faculty/English Department

- What is your evaluation of the current teaching quality in the English Department?
- Have you got any suggestions on how to improve teaching and learning in the department including staff teaching skills?

7- Staff Development and Training

- How effective is the staff development programme in your department?
- Do you think lecturers need to be trained to teach?
- How do you keep abreast of the recent development in education?
- In your opinion, what are the elements that can contribute to the efficiency and effectiveness of staff development and training programmes in your department?

8- Impact of Staff Development

- Do you think staff development programmes can help you become more effective teacher? Explain, please?
- What sort of staff development programmes are more appropriate/suitable in your department?

9- Management of Staff Development Programmes

- Are there any regulations relating to training programmes for the academic staff in Elmergheb University?
- How do you feel about the current management in your department/faculty? Is it conducive to staff development activities?
- Is the senior management in your University prepared to support staff development and training programmes?

10- Participation

- Are you interested to participate in staff development programmes whether in your faculty or outside?
- What sort of activities do you prefer to attend?
- Is the issue of location a concern to you?
- Can you suggest the most suitable time and duration for staff development programmes?

11- Is there anything else you'd like to say?

Appendix 4.C: Student Interview Schedule

1- General Views on Teaching and Learning

- What is the purpose of higher education?
- What are the student's intentions of attending university?
- Can you see any differences between secondary school and university?

2- Teaching and Learning in the university

- What do intend to achieve in attending lectures?
- What do you expect to get from a lecture?
- In your opinion, what are the characteristics of an effective lecturer?
- How do lecturers in your department promote effective learning?
- How do lecturers help you understand? Do they employ certain ways to improve your understanding?
- What is your opinion about teaching quality in your department?

3- Student Learning and Studying

- What are the characteristics of a good university student to you?
- Do you encounter any problems in learning in your faculty?
- How do you prepare for your examinations?
- Do your lecturers help you with your studying and learning? If yes, how?

4- Assessment and Evaluation

- Do you think you are assessed fairly?
- Is it important to obtain student's evaluation of teaching?
- Do you think lecturers should be trained to teach?

5- Is there anything else you'd like to say?

Appendix 4.D: Student Learning Questionnaire

استبيان تقييم طالب لجودة الدراسة

Dear Student,

Thank you for taking part in this study. You are kindly requested to complete this survey questionnaire as part of PhD research project conducted by Abdelnaser Abushina at University of York, UK. This survey seeks to obtain information regarding your experiences of taking subjects in the Department of English in Elmergheb University. Although there is no direct benefit to you, but the results of this study may assist in developing teaching quality in your department.

Please do not enter your name or contact details on the questionnaire as responses will be treated confidentially and any information would identify you will not be disclosed at all. You may withdraw from the study at any time for any reason. Your answers are very important to the results of this study. The questionnaire will take you 10-15 minutes to complete it. This is not a test, and there are no right or wrong answers, so please tell the truth.

Thank you for your time.

أعزائي الطلبة والطالبات

اولا اشكركم علي مشاركتكم في هذه الدراسة التي يقوم بها الباحث: عبدالناصر أبوشينة كجزء من متطلبات رسالة الدكتوراه من جامعة يورك, بريطانيا. يرجى منكم الاجابة علي هذا الاستبيان الذي يهدف الي دراسة فاعلية التعلم وتقييم اداء المحاضرين بقسم اللغة الانجليزية بجامعة المرقب. الرجاء وضع علامة في المكان الذي تراه مناسباً. اريد ان اكد ان البيانات التي ستدلون بها ستعامل بسرية تامة ولن يتم استخدامها الا من قبل الباحث فقط. كما اوكد لكم انه يمكنكم الانسحاب من الدراسة في أي وقت. تستغرق الاجابة علي هذا الاستبيان حوالي 15-20 دقيقة. هذا ليس امتحان او اختبار ولهذا نتمنى منكم الاجابة علي جميع الاسئلة

شكراً علي المشاركة

Part 1: General information

- 1- Gender: -Male -Female
- 2- How old are you? (.....)
- 3- Nationality: -Libyan -Other (specify)
- 4- Year current in university: First Second Third Fourth

Part 2: Your learning experiences in English Department: Please circle the number which indicates your level of agreement on the statement identified below:

1 = Strongly disagree	2 = Disagree	3 = Uncertain	4 = Agree	5 = Strongly agree		
1	I like subjects with factual content rather than subjects rely on theories أفضل المواد التي تركز على الحقائق أكثر من تلك التي تعتمد على النظريات	1	2	3	4	5
2	Students should not be expected to study materials that will not be included in exams الطلاب غير ملزمون بالاطلاع على المواضيع التي لن يتضمنها الامتحانات	1	2	3	4	5
3	I am aware that lecturers are more knowledgeable in their field, so I only rely on what they rather my own judgement انا واثق بأن للأساتذة دراية واسعة في مجال تخصصهم ولذلك فأنا أتلقى منهم العلوم دون الحاجة الي تحليلي الخاص.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I learn new things by going over and over them until I learn them by heart أتعلم الدروس الجديدة وذلك بتكرار قراءتها حتى احفظها عن ظهر قلب	1	2	3	4	5
5	I only abide by materials provided by lecturers, as I think it is unnecessary to do anything extra اعتمد على معلمي لإعلامي بما هو مهم حتى أقوم بدراسته لأنني اعتقد ان البحث عن غير ها ليس مهم	1	2	3	4	5
6	I am seeking to achieve top marks in all subjects so that I will be able to select best jobs when I graduate أطمح في الحصول علي درجات عالية في جميع المواد حتي اتمكن من الحصول علي وظيفة افضل بعد التخرج	1	2	3	4	5
7	I chose to study English only to secure a good job when I graduate. اخترت دراسة اللغة الانجليزية لكي اضمن الحصول علي وظيفة جيدة بعد التخرج	1	2	3	4	5
8	I think spending time browsing around learning materials is a waste of time, so I only focus on material covered in class or in the course content اعتقد انه من إضاعة الوقت ان ابحث عن معلومات في عدة مصادر، لهذا اركز علي المعلومات التي تدرس في المنهج فقط	1	2	3	4	5
9	I summarise suggested readings and include these as part of my notes on a topic الخص المواضيع المقررة واضعها مع الدفتر الخاص لكل مادة	1	2	3	4	5
10	The use of student-centred approach is widely promoted in the department. يتبع قسم اللغة الانجليزية طرق التعليم الذاتي او المستقل بشكل واسع	1	2	3	4	5
11	Students are encouraged to express their own ideas and question the lecturer يشجع الطلبة علي التعبير عن أفكارهم ووجهات نظرهم وكذلك مناقشة الاستاذ في المسائل العلمية	1	2	3	4	5
12	Students feel welcome in seeking help/advice in or outside classes يرحب الاساتذة بالطلاب عند الاستفسار او طلب المساعدة العلمية داخل او خارج القاعات الدراسية	1	2	3	4	5
13	Lively presentation styles are used to hold students' interest during classes تعطي المحاضرات بشكل ممتع وشيق لكي يزداد اهتمام الطالب بدراسته	1	2	3	4	5
14	I believe studying in university will widen the scope of my knowledge and give me deeper understanding of important issues in life أعتقد ان دراستي الجامعية ستوسع أفاقي العلمية وستزيد من فهمي للكثير من الامور الهامة في الحياة	1	2	3	4	5
15	I find studying in university is valuable and a great source of personal satisfaction اري ان دراستي الجامعية ذات قيمة كبيرة وتمنحي الشعور بالذات	1	2	3	4	5
16	In my lectures, I tend to keep well-organised notes for later review for exams or coursework أقوم دائماً بتدوين الملاحظات وارتبها جيداً حتي استطيع الرجوع اليها في اوقات الدراسة والامتحانات	1	2	3	4	5
17	I spend a lot of time on searching for information related to the subject I study. أقضي أوقات طويلة في البحث عن معلومات جديدة متعلقة بالمواد التي ادرسها بالقسم	1	2	3	4	5
18	I work throughout the year so that I only review things when exams are close أجتهد في الدراسة طول العام الدراسي وعند اقتراب الامتحانات ابدأ بالمراجعة فقط	1	2	3	4	5
19	Choosing a certain course is based on whether or not I will do very well in it أعتقد ان اختيار تخصص معين في الجامعة مبني علي مدي نجاحي فيه	1	2	3	4	5

No. of Students = 332

Part 3: Further Questions

1- What is your comment about lecturers you have had in your department?

ما هو تقييمك للأساتذة الموجودين بالقسم؟

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2- Can you identify any aspects of English department with which you are not satisfied?

ما هي الاشياء التي لست راضي عنها في قسم اللغة الانجليزية؟

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3- Would you like to add any other comments about teaching and learning in English department?

هل لديك أي ملاحظات تخص العملية التعليمية في قسم اللغة الانجليزية تود اضافتها؟

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Appendix 4.E: Pre-Intervention Teaching Performance Questionnaire rating teacher performance (1, 2, 3)

4.E.1 Lecturer's Self-reflection of Teaching

Dear colleague,

Thank you for taking part in this questionnaire which seeks information about your teaching experience in the department of English. This observation is not to test you, it collects important data for the findings of this research. Your answers will be treated confidentially and the views in your answers will not be disclosed. The questionnaire will take 10-15 minutes to complete. There is no right or wrong answer, so please express your views and attempt to answer all the questions.

Academic year: Lecture date and time:.....
Subject & Group..... Total attendance:
Place:

Part 1: General Information

1) **Age:** please mark one.

Less than 30 30-40 40-50 More than 50

2) **Gender:** Male Female

3) **Nationality:** Libyan Other (specify)

4) **Position:** Professor Associate Professor Senior

Lecturer Lecturer Assistant Other (Specify)

5) **Highest academic qualification:** First Degree (Bachelor's Degree)

Master's Degree PhD Other (Specify)

6) How many years have you been teaching in English Department?

Part 2: Teaching and Learning Assessment

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by circling the appropriate number that most closely reflects your opinion.

	1= Strongly disagree	2= Disagree	3= Uncertain	4= Agree	5= Strongly agree				
A.	Evidence of Monitoring Learning Environment								
1.	Students were informed about their learning needs				1	2	3	4	5
2.	The lecturer observed individual differences among students				1	2	3	4	5
3.	The lecturer encouraged students to participate in classroom activities				1	2	3	4	5
B.	Evidence of Demonstration of Communication skills								
4.	The lecturer stimulated students to share their own ideas in the lecture				1	2	3	4	5
5.	The lecturer encouraged students to ask questions throughout the lecture				1	2	3	4	5
6.	The lecturer asked questions to examine students' understanding				1	2	3	4	5
C.	Evidence of Well-structured Teaching/Lecturing								
7.	Lecturer's comments were clear and understandable				1	2	3	4	5
8.	Students managed to take notes effectively				1	2	3	4	5
9.	Key ideas of the lecture were stated at the end of the session				1	2	3	4	5
10.	The lecturer used teaching aids effectively				1	2	3	4	5
11.	The lecture was well-organised				1	2	3	4	5
D.	Evidence of Teacher Preparation								
12.	Lecture time was enough for the content to be delivered				1	2	3	4	5
13.	The lecturer provided a summary of the subject				1	2	3	4	5
14.	The objectives of the lecture were clearly presented				1	2	3	4	5
E.	Evidence of Personal Qualities								
15.	The lecturer was friendly and used humour				1	2	3	4	5
16.	The lecturer employed diverse teaching styles				1	2	3	4	5
17.	The lecturer showed enthusiasm during lecture				1	2	3	4	5

Part 3: Additional Questions

1- Do you think collecting students' feedback will lead to improvement in teaching quality? Why?

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2- Have you got any other comments?

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Pre-Intervention Teaching Performance Questionnaire

4.E.2 Student's Evaluation of Teaching

استبيان تقييم الطالب لأداء عضو هيئة التدريس

Dear student

Thank you for taking part in this questionnaire which seeks information about your learning experiences in the department of English in Elmergheb University. Please choose the number that most reflect your view. Your answers will be treated confidentially and the views in your answers will not be disclosed. Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may withdraw from the study at any time. The questionnaire will take you 10-15 minutes to complete it. This is not a test and there is no right or wrong answer, so please tell the truth and try to make a real effort to answer all questions.

Thank you for your participation.

أعضاء الطلبة والطالبات

اولا اشكركم علي مشاركتكم في الاجابة علي هذا الاستبيان والذي يهدف الي دراسة فاعلية التعلم وتقييم اداء المحاضرين بقسم اللغة الانجليزية بجامعة المرقب. الرجاء وضع علامة في المكان الذي تراه مناسباً

أريد ان أكد ان البيانات التي ستدلون بها ستعامل بسرية تامة ولن يتم استخدامها إلا من قبل الباحث فقط. كما أؤكد لكم انه يمكنكم الانسحاب من الدراسة في إي وقت. تستغرق الاجابة علي هذا الاستبيان حوالي 15-20 دقيقة. هذا ليس امتحان او اختبار ولهذا نتمنى منكم الاجابة علي جميع الاسئلة. شكراً علي المشاركة

Academic year:

Lecture date and time:

Subject & Group:

Place:

Part 1: General Information

1- How old are you? (.....)

2- Gender: -Male -Female

3- Nationality: -Libyan -Other (specify)

4- Year current in university: First Second Third Fourth

Part 2: Teaching and Learning Assessment: indicate your level of agreement.

	1= Strongly disagree	2= Disagree	3= Uncertain	4= Agree	5= Strongly agree
A. Evidence of Monitoring Learning Environment					
1.	Students were informed about their learning needs بين لنا الاستاذ كل احتياجاتنا التعليمية				5
2.	The lecturer observed individual differences among students لاحظ الاستاذ الفروق الفردية بين الطلاب				5
3.	The lecturer encouraged students to participate in classroom activities يشجع الطلاب على المشاركة والنقاش اثناء المحاضرات				5
B. Evidence of Demonstration of Communication skills					
4.	The lecturer stimulated students to share their own ideas in the lecture قام الاستاذ بتحفيزنا للإدلاء بأرائنا وافكارنا اثناء المحاضرة				5
5.	The lecturer encouraged students to ask questions throughout the lecture شجع الاستاذ الطلبة على توجيه الأسئلة اثناء المحاضرة				5
6.	The lecturer asked questions to examine students' understanding قام الاستاذ بتوجيه بعض الاسئلة لاختبار مدي استيعاب الطلاب				5
C. Evidence of Well-structured Teaching/Lecturing					
7.	Lecturer's comments were clear and understandable طريقة عرض الاستاذ للمعلومات واضحة ومتراطة ومنظمة				5
8.	Students managed to take notes effectively اثناء المحاضرة تمكنت من تدوين الملاحظات الهامة بسهولة				5
9.	Key ideas of the lecture were stated at the end of the session اعطي الاستاذ المحاور الرئيسية للدرس في نهاية المحاضرة				5
10.	The lecturer used teaching aids effectively استخدم الاستاذ الوسائل التعليمية على نحو فعال				5
11.	The lecture was well-organised كانت المحاضرة منظمة ومعدة بشكل جيد				5
D. Evidence of Teacher Preparation					
12.	Lecture time was enough for the content to be delivered كان وقت المحاضرة كافي لتغطية عناصر الدرس				5
13.	The lecturer provided a summary of the subject قدم الاستاذ شرحاً وافياً للدرس واعطي الملخص				5
14.	The objectives of the lecture were clearly presented تم توضيح النقاط الرئيسية للمحاضرة				5
E. Evidence of Personal Qualities					
15.	The lecturer was friendly and used humour كان الاستاذ ودوداً في تعامله ويستخدم احياناً الدعابة للفت انتباه الطلاب				5
16.	The lecturer employed diverse teaching styles تتميز طرق التدريس التي يطبقها الاساتذة بالقسم بالتنوع والمرونة				5
17.	The lecturer showed enthusiasm during lecture كان الاستاذ متحمس لإلقاء المحاضرة				5

No. of Students = 49

Part 3: Additional Questions

- 1) What sort of learning style do you prefer: teacher-centred or independent study?
Why?

ما هو نمط التعليم المفضل لديك، التعليم الموجه من قبل الاستاذ ام التعليم المستقل او الذاتي؟ ولماذا؟

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- 2) Have you got any other comments?

هل لديك ملاحظات اخري؟

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4.E.3 Researcher's Evaluation of Teaching

Academic year: Lecture date and time:

Subject & Group: Place:

Part 1: Teaching and learning assessment.

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

1= Strongly disagree		2= Disagree		3= Uncertain		4= Agree		5= Strongly agree		
A.	Evidence of Monitoring Learning Environment									
1.	Students were informed about their learning needs					1	2	3	4	5
2.	The lecturer observed individual differences among students					1	2	3	4	5
3.	The lecturer encouraged students to participate in classroom activities					1	2	3	4	5
B.	Evidence of Demonstration of Communication skills									
4.	The lecturer stimulated students to share their own ideas in the lecture					1	2	3	4	5
5.	The lecturer encouraged students to ask questions throughout the lecture					1	2	3	4	5
6.	The lecturer asked questions to examine students' understanding					1	2	3	4	5
C.	Evidence of Well-structured Teaching/Lecturing									
7.	Lecturer's comments were clear and understandable					1	2	3	4	5
8.	Students managed to take notes effectively					1	2	3	4	5
9.	Key ideas of the lecture were stated at the end of the session					1	2	3	4	5
10.	The lecturer used teaching aids effectively					1	2	3	4	5
11.	The lecture was well-organised					1	2	3	4	5
D.	Evidence of Teacher Preparation									
12.	Lecture time was enough for the content to be delivered					1	2	3	4	5
13.	The lecturer provided a summary of the subject					1	2	3	4	5
14.	The objectives of the lecture were clearly presented					1	2	3	4	5
E.	Evidence of Personal Qualities									
15.	The lecturer was friendly and used humour					1	2	3	4	5
16.	The lecturer employed diverse teaching styles					1	2	3	4	5
17.	The lecturer showed enthusiasm during lecture					1	2	3	4	5

Part 2: Additional comments:

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Appendix 4.F: Statement of Research Ethics By York University

Statement of Research Ethics

Department of Education – Statement of Research Ethics

Name (student): Abdelnaser Abushina

Supervisors: Dr. John Issitt, and Dr. Duncan Jackson

Course of Study: PhD


Title of Research: Quality and Professional Training for English Teachers in a Libyan University


		Tick where appropriate
1	I have read and discussed with my supervisor the British Educational Research Association's Revised Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research (2011).	✓
2	I have read and discussed with my supervisor the Research Code of Conduct of the University of York: https://www.york.ac.uk/media/educationalstudies/documents/intranet-postgraduate/PGR%20handbook%202020.pdf	✓
3	I am aware and discussed the relevant sections of the Data Protection Act (1998): www.hmso.gov.uk/acts/acts1998/19980029.htm	✓
4	Data collection activities involving Faculty of Arts will be conducted only with the agreement of the Head of the Department and/or other authorized representative, and after adequate notice has been given.	✓
5	The aim and the procedures of the research, and the potential benefits and costs of participating in this research e.g. the amount of their time involved, will be fully explained to the prospective research participants at the outset (see BERA, 2011, paras 10, 11,12,21).	✓
6	My full identity will be revealed to potential participants.	✓
7	Prospective participants will be informed that data collected will be treated in the strictest confidence and will only be reported in anonymized form.	✓
8	All potential participants will be asked to give their explicit, normality written consent to participating in the research, and where consent is given, separate copies of this will be retained by both researcher and participants.	✓
9	Undue pressure will not be place on individuals or institutions to participate in research activities.	✓
10	The treatment of potential research participants will in no way be prejudiced if they choose not to participate in the project.	✓
11	I will provide participants with my contact details and those of my supervisor in order that they are able to make contact in relation to any aspect of the research.	✓
12	Participants will be made aware that they may freely withdraw from the project at any time without risk or prejudice (see BERA, 2011, para 15).	✓
13	The dignity and interests of research participants will be respected at all times, and steps will be taken to ensure that no harm will result from participating in the research (see BERA, 2011, para 20).	✓
14	Research will be carried out with regard for mutually convenient times and negotiated in a way that seeks to minimise disruption to schedules and burdens on participants (see BERA, 2011, para 21).	✓
15	At all times, during the conduct of the research I will behave in an appropriate, professional manner and take steps to ensure that neither myself nor the participants are placed in danger.	✓

16	The views of all participants in the research will be respected.	✓
17	Special efforts will be made to be sensitive to differences relating to age, culture, disability, race, sex, religion and sexual orientation amongst research participants, when planning, conducting and reporting on the research.	✓
18	Data generated by the research e.g. transcripts of research interviews and videos, will be kept in a safe and secure location and will be used purely for the purposes of the research project including the dissemination of findings. No one other than, supervisors or examiners will have access to any of the data collected.	✓
19	Research participants will have the right to access the data kept on them (see BERA, 2011, para 26).	✓
20	All necessary steps will be taken to protect the privacy and ensure the anonymity and non-traceability of participants e.g. by the use of pseudonyms for both individual and institutional participants, in any written reports of the research and other forms of the dissertation.	✓
21	Where possible, research participants will be provided with a summary of research findings and opportunity for debriefing after taking part in the research (see BERA, 2011, para 31).	✓

Please outline any areas of risk, which have not been referred to above, associated with your research, and how you intend to deal with these.

There is no expected risk around the topic. I am dealing with young mature students (University Students) who are not vulnerable. Everything will be clear to them in advance and participants can withdraw from the process at any point. The participant information and consent forms will be provided in Arabic, and discussed to ensure their meaning is understood.

Signed (student):  Print Name (student): Abdelnaser Abushina Date: 19 September 2014

Signed (Supervisor 1):  Print Name (Supervisor 1) Dr. John Issitt Date: 19 September 2014

Appendix 4.G: Ethical Approval By Elmergheb University

التاريخ: / / 1435 هـ
الموافق: / / 2014 م
الإشاري:



وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي - ليبيا
جامعة المرقب
كلية الآداب/ الخمس

Ministry of Higher Education & Scientific Research-Libya
University of Elmergheb
Faculty of Arts-Khoms

Print Date: 27 July 2017

ETHICAL APPROVAL



Academic Audit and Governance Committee
Human Research Ethics Panel (HREP)
To: ABDELNASER ABUSHINA
From: Khalid Edrah, Contracts Administrator
Date: 22nd October 2014

Subject: Approval of your project by HREP

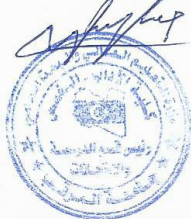
Project Title: Quality and Professional Training for English Teachers in a Libyan University

Reference: RE2014/188

Following your response to the Panel's requirements and based on the information you provided, I can confirm that they have no objections on ethical grounds to your research in the Faculty of Arts. Meanwhile, if there are any changes to the research and/or its methodology, please do contact the Panel as soon as possible.

Kind regards

Khalid Edrah
Contract Administrator



Salahedeen Aboshaina
Head of English Dept.



Appendices 4.H.1 & 4.H.2: Students and Teachers Consent Forms

Appendix 4.H.1: Student Information & Consent Form

University of *York*

Department of Education

Information Sheet for Students

The objective of this letter is to provide you with some information that you might need to consider before agreeing to take part in this study.

Researcher: Abdelnaser Abushina

Department of Education

University of York

Heslington

York

aa1235@york.ac.uk

Research Title: " Quality and Professional Training for English Teachers in a Libyan University ".

Brief Description of Study: The main aim of this study is to explore and evaluate teaching and learning effective, and staff development programmes in the University of Elmergheb, mainly Department of English. In this study, you will be asked about your teaching and learning experiences, and professional training and quality enhancement in your department. Interviews will take approximately 25-40 minutes.

اعزائي الطلبة والطالبات

اولا اشكركم على مشاركتكم في هذه الدراسة التي يقوم بها الباحث: عبد الناصر أبوشينة كجزء من متطلبات رسالة الدكتوراه من جامعة يورك، بريطانيا. تهدف القابلة الي جمع معلومات حول فاعلية التعلم وتقييم اداء المحاضرين بقسم اللغة الانجليزية بجامعة المرقب. الرجاء منكم تقديم المعلومات التي تعرفونها وتعتقدون انها المناسبة. اريد ان أكد لكم بأن البيانات التي ستدلون بها ستعامل بسرية تامة ولن يتم استخدامها الا من قبل الباحث فقط. كما اوكد لكم انه يمكنكم الانسحاب من الدراسة في أي وقت. سوف تستغرق هذه المقابلة حوالي 25-40 دقيقة. هذا ليس امتحان او اختبار ولهذا نتمنى منكم الاجابة على جميع الاسئلة. شكراً على المشاركة.

Confidentiality of Data: All data will be treated confidentially and will be securely stored on a password-protected computer. Recordings from interviews will be erased once transcribed. Your views and responses will not be disclosed to anyone, and only researchers involved in this study will have access to individual names and data.

Disclaimer: Your participation in this study is a voluntary. You are free to withdraw at any time for any reason without prejudice.

Consent to Participate in Research Programme

I have been informed about the research, and purposes and procedures of this study have been explained to me. I also have read the information sheet and hereby I fully and freely consent to participate in this research.

Participant's name:

Participant's signature:

Date: / /

Appendix 4.H.2: Teacher Information & Consent Form

University of *York*

Department of Education

Information Sheet for Teachers

The objective of this letter is to provide you with some information that you might need to consider before agreeing to take part in this study.

Researcher: Abdelnaser Abushina

Department of Education

University of York

Heslington

York

aa1235@york.ac.uk

Research Title: " Quality and Professional Training for English Teachers in a Libyan University ".

Brief Description of Study: The main aim of this study is to explore and evaluate teaching and learning effective, and staff development programmes in the University of Elmergheb, mainly Department of English. In this study, you will be asked about your teaching and learning experiences, and professional training and quality enhancement in your department. Interviews will take approximately 40-60 minutes.

Confidentiality of Data: All data will be treated confidentially and will be securely stored on a password-protected computer. Recordings from interviews will be erased once transcribed. Your views and responses will not be disclosed to anyone, and only researchers involved in this study will have access to individual names and data.

Disclaimer: Your participation in this study is a voluntary. You are free to withdraw at any time for any reason without prejudice.

Consent to Participate in Research Programme

I have been informed about the research, and purposes and procedures of this study have been explained to me. I also have read the information sheet and hereby I fully and freely consent to participate in this research.

Participant's name:

Participant's signature:

Date: / /

Appendix 4.J: The Approach of Coding Data and the Emergence of Themes

Participants	Codes used	Themes emerged from transcriptions	Examples of participants' responses
1 st Year Students	ST1/	1. Students learning problems and approaches	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (ST3/6) I try to listen to my teacher and learn new ideas and information, and then write them down so I can memorize them at home later on (Student). • (ST4/10) I need my teacher's explanations, clarification, and experience so we can learn better and understand (Student).
2 nd Year Students	ST2/		
3 rd Year Students	ST3/	2. Misunderstanding lectures and ineffective delivery	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (ST1/3) Teachers don't allow us to keep notes and they only keep talking fast in the lecture without writing the main elements of the topic (Student). • (ST4/12) I expect the lecturer to clarify the lesson so I can understand, and point how the exam will be. Now a lot of lecturers don't do this. They just read through the sheet and no explanations are provided "everybody can read!" (Student).
4 th Year Students	ST4/		
Faculty Dean	AS/FD	3. Student achievement as a measure of effectiveness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I believe effective teachers must, to a great extent, facilitate students' progress and achievement (Faculty Dean).
Head of Dept.	AS/HoD	4. Teachers professional needs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (AS/HoD) We don't have that kind of regular meetings where we can exchange ideas and consult each other regarding learning and teaching issues (Teacher). • (AS/8) There are not any training and development activities in the department. We even lack regular meetings and seminars within the Department (Teacher).
Teachers	AS/		
Teachers	AS/	5. Teaching practices and constraints to resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (AS/5) Honestly, my first priority in teaching is to cover my syllabus. My role is to help students learn and achieve good marks (Teacher). • (AS/2) Insufficient teaching and learning facilities, for example, the laboratory is essential to teach Listening, Speaking and Phonetics. The Library also is another issue, textbooks and reading materials are not available (Teacher). • (AS/HoD) There are lots of challenges to be honest, lack of facilities for example classrooms are not equipped with the technological teaching devices to support teaching (Teacher).

Appendix 6.A: Differences Between Traditional and Interactive Lectures

Traditional Lectures	Interactive Lectures
Instructor talks & students listen with minimal interruptions	Instructor talks with periodic pauses for structured activities
Student concentration can be observed dropping after 10-15 minutes	As student concentration begins to wane, a short structured in-class activity is assigned
Instructor 's questions are largely rhetorical	Instructor 's questions require responses
Students' responses to an instructor's questions are commonly made by students raising their hands	Students' responses to an instructor 's questions are commonly made by using a clicker or an IF-AT Answer Sheet
Student-to-student talk is discouraged	Student-to-student talk is encouraged
Students listen and take notes independently	Students often work with partners or in groups
Student comprehension during the lecture is not monitored explicitly	Student comprehension during the lecture is assessed directly
Opportunities to correct misunderstandings are not provided routinely during the lecture	Opportunities to correct misunderstandings are periodically provided within the lecture
Student absenteeism often is quite high	High rates of attendance often are reported

(Source: from Eison, 2010)

Appendix 6.B: A Comparison of Low-Risk and High-Risk Active Learning Strategies

Dimension	Low Risk Strategies	High Risk Strategies
Class Time Required ¹	Relatively short	Relatively long
Degree of Structure ²	More structured	Less structured
Degree of Planning ³	Meticulously planned	Spontaneous
Subject Matter ⁴	Relatively concrete	Relatively abstract
Students' Prior knowledge of the Subject Matter ⁴	Better informed	Less informed
Students' Prior Knowledge of the Teaching Technique ⁵	Familiar	Unfamiliar
Instructor's Prior Experience With the Teaching Technique ⁵	Considerable	Limited
Pattern of Interaction ⁶	Between faculty & students	Among students

¹-Short active learning strategies (e.g., the pause procedure) involve less risk that valuable class time will be "wasted" (i.e., not used productively or effectively) than longer activities.

²-More highly-structured active learning strategies (e.g., short writing activities, debates, case studies) involve less risk that course content will not be adequately covered and that the instructor will not feel in control of the class than instructional activities that are less carefully structured or scripted (e.g., role playing, informal group discussion).

³-The greater the degree of instructor planning, and the more thorough and thoughtful the instructions that are provided to students, the less the risk that an activity will take an unexpected and/or unproductive turn.

⁴-When the subject of a lesson is relatively concrete (e.g., an in-class or out-of-class reading assignment with an accompanying writing activity) and students are relatively well prepared, there is less risk that an activity (e.g., a large-class discussion) will go astray than if the subject of the lesson is relatively abstract

and/or students are not adequately prepared or informed (e.g., material supposedly covered either in high school or an assigned pre-class reading).

- 5- The more familiar and experienced students and faculty members become with a particular active learning strategy, the less the instructional risk. This is especially true when faculty and students are using relatively new and/or unfamiliar technology tools.
- 6- Encouraging the flow of communication between the faculty member and their students involves less risk that a discussion will stray off topic or that shy students will not participate than a discussion that encourages student-to-student communication without a moderator.

(Source: from Eison, 2010)

Appendix 6.C: Timetable for Teaching Observations

Date \ Time	8:30 – 9:30	10:00 – 11:00	11:30 – 12:30
Saturday 21/11/2015	SL01: WRITING I ROOM 2		RL02: WRITING II ROOM 4
Monday 23/11/2015		ML03: LINGUISTICS III ROOM 10	HL04: SPOKEN ENGLISH I ROOM 3
Wednesday 25/11/2015	SL01: WRITING I ROOM 2		LL05: SYNTAX IV ROOM 9
Saturday 28/11/2015	SL01: WRITING I ROOM 2	RL02: WRITING II ROOM 4	
Monday 30/11/2015	ML03: LINGUISTICS III ROOM 10		HL04: SPOKEN ENGLISH I ROOM 3
Wednesday 02/12/2015	AL06: WRITING II ROOM 3	LL05: SYNTAX IV ROOM 9	
Saturday 05/12/2015		RL02: WRITING II ROOM 4	
Monday 07/12/2015		LL05: SYNTAX IV ROOM 9	HL04: SPOKEN ENGLISH I ROOM 3
Wednesday 09/12/2015	ML03: LINGUISTICS III ROOM 10		AL06: WRITING II ROOM 3
Saturday 12/12/2015	AL06: WRITING II ROOM 3		

Appendix 6.D: Whole to Part “Inductive” Approaches: By Frederick Erickson-2006

Step 1. Review the entire recorded interactional event as a whole, in real time, without stopping the playback, writing the equivalent of field notes as you notice verbal and nonverbal phenomena, using a watch to note times of major transition in activity.

Step 2. Review entire event again, stopping it and if necessary, replaying it at major section boundaries, noting on a time line the occurrence of major shifts in participants (in and out of scene), of sustained postural and interpersonal distance configurations, and of major topics and/or speaking/listening activities. Look for, and locate, strips of contrasting intensity of listening behaviour by listeners, as various speakers are speaking. Construct a time line for the event as a whole, showing and labelling its major constituent parts, or episodes.

Step 3. Choose, within an episode of interest, a single strip of tape which contains a single sustained postural/distance/gaze configuration among all the participants in the interaction. Transcribe the talk and the nonverbal behaviour of the various speakers in that strip. Transcribe the verbal and nonverbal listening reactions of listeners.

Step 4. Proceed in the manner above, replaying fairly short strips of tape, until you have enough descriptive information to answer whatever research questions you have posed-for the extended strip of social interaction within the event that is bounded by sustained postural/distance/mutual gaze patterns. If necessary, transcribe all such strips within the event of interest, or transcribe only those strips that contain phenomena of research interest

Step 5. You may wish to review all or part of the event with some of the participants in it. This is usually best done after steps 1 and 2 above, i.e. before transcription and microanalysis have been done. These sessions are sometimes called "stimulated recall" sessions-there the attempt is to get the participant to remember what he or she was thinking and feeling during the event.

Step 6. Determine the typicality or atypicality of the instances you have transcribed and analysed in detail-by more general coding, returning to the initial viewing notes as an index to the whole event, or to constituent sections within it.

Appendix 6.E: Post-Intervention Student's Perceptions Questionnaire

Dear student

Thank you for taking part in this questionnaire which seeks information about your learning experiences in the three lectures. Please choose the number that most reflect your view. Your answers will be treated confidentially and the views in your answers will not be disclosed. Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may withdraw from the study at any time. The questionnaire will take you 10-15 minutes to complete it. This is not a test and there is no right or wrong answer, so please tell the truth and try to make a real effort to answer all questions. Thank you for your participation.

أعضاءي الطلبة والطالبات

أولا اشكركم على مشاركتكم في الاجابة على هذا الاستبيان والذي يهدف الي دراسة فاعلية التعلم وتقييم اداء المحاضرين بقسم اللغة الانجليزية بجامعة المرقب. الرجاء وضع علامة في المكان الذي تراه مناسباً. أريد ان أكد ان البيانات التي ستدلون بها ستعامل بسرية تامة ولن يتم استخدامها إلا من قبل الباحث فقط. كما أؤكد لكم انه يمكنكم الانسحاب من الدراسة في إي وقت. تستغرق الاجابة على هذا الاستبيان حوالي 10-15 دقيقة. هذا ليس امتحان او اختبار ولهذا نتمنى منكم الاجابة على جميع الاسئلة. شكراً على المشاركة

Academic year: 2015/2016

Lecture date and time:

Subject & Group:

Place:

Part 1: General Information

- 1) How old are you? (.....)
- 2) Gender: -Male -Female
- 3) Nationality: -Libyan -Other (specify)
- 4) Year current in university: First Second Third Fourth

Part 2: Teaching and Learning Assessment

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by circling the appropriate number that most closely reflects your opinion.

	1= Strongly disagree	2= Disagree	3=Uncertain	4= Agree	5= Strongly agree	
Categories of Students' Perceptions						
1	I could learn more when my teacher used group discussions يمكنني التعلم أكثر حينما يستخدم الاستاذ المناقشة الجماعية للأفكار	1	2	3	4	5
2	The use of pair discussion improved my learning المناقشة مع زميل تجعل الدراسة مشوقة أكثر	1	2	3	4	5
3	The use of large group work/exercise helps us learn together المناقشة الجماعية تجعل الدراسة مشوقة أكثر	1	2	3	4	5
4	I believe think-pair-share techniques are more effective at enabling our learning than lecturing اعتقد ان طريقة المناقشة الجماعية وتبادل الآراء ذات فعالية أكبر من المحاضرات التقليدية	1	2	3	4	5
5	Comprehension questions increased my understanding of the material تساعدني اسئلة الفهم علي زيادة تركيزي في المحاضرة	1	2	3	4	5
6	I believe direct questions help me remember what I learned in class اعتقد ان الاسئلة المباشرة من الاستاذ تساعدني في تذكر ما تعلمته في الفصل	1	2	3	4	5
7	The use of simulations and one-to-one interactions have increased my confidence من خلال تفاعلي مع الطلبة اثناء المحاضرة، زادت ثقتي بنفسي	1	2	3	4	5
8	Active learning strategies were exciting at the beginning, but not anymore طرق التدريس التفاعلية مشوقة في البداية فقط	1	2	3	4	5
9	I think visual teaching aids help me learn new concepts faster اعتقد ان طريقة استخدام الوسائل التوضيحية تساعدني في الفهم بسرعة	1	2	3	4	5
10	The use of active learning strategies increased my motivation towards learning استخدام طرق التدريس التفاعلية تزيد في رغيتي في التعلم	1	2	3	4	5
11	I think I am more engaged with course material when student-centred learning techniques are used عند استخدام طرق التعليم التفاعلية يزداد اطلاعي وفهمي والمامي بالمواضيع الدراسية	1	2	3	4	5
12	With student-centred learning activities, I got more opportunities to participate in the lecture خلال المحاضرات التفاعلية، لدي فرص أكثر للمناقشة وتبادل الآراء مع زملائي	1	2	3	4	5
13	I do not feel comfortable when interactive techniques are used, because it is a new method to us لا اشعر بالارتياح عند استخدام التدريس التفاعلي لأنه جديد	1	2	3	4	5
14	I look forward for my teachers using student-centred independent learning activities more often in class اتطلع بان يستخدم الاساتذة الطرق التفاعلية للتدريس بشكل اوسع	1	2	3	4	5
15	Now I feel more confident to ask questions in the lecture due to the encouragement provided by the teacher نظرا لتشجيع الاستاذ، اشعر الان بثقة أكبر في توجيه الاسئلة اثناء المحاضرة	1	2	3	4	5
16	Group discussion helped me improve my speaking and listening skills المناقشة الجماعية ساعدت في تحسين مهاراتي في التحدث والاستماع	1	2	3	4	5

No. of Students 84

Part 3: Other Comments

1. What is the impact of the new teaching and learning practices on you and your learning?

ما مدي تأثير طرق التدريس والتعلم الجديدة عليك وعلى دراستك؟

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2. Have you got any other comments about the lectures and/or the lecturer?

هل لديك أي ملاحظات تخص المحاضرات او الاساتذة بالقسم؟

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Thanks

April, 2016

Appendix 6.F: Post-Intervention Teachers' Perceptions Questionnaire:

Dear colleague,

Thank you for taking part in this questionnaire which seeks information about research programme in the department of English in Elmergheb University. This questionnaire is not to test you, it is, however, to collect important data to evaluate the process and progress of this session. Your answers will be treated confidentially and the views in your answers will not be disclosed. The questionnaire will take you 10-15 minutes to complete it. There is no right or wrong answer, so please tell the truth and try to make a real effort to answer all questions.

Date: / / 2016

Title & location of training:

Part 1: General Information

3) **Age:** please mark one.

Less than 30 30-40 40-50 More than 50

4) **Gender:** Male Female

5) **Nationality:** Libyan Other (specify)

6) **Position:** Professor Associate Professor Senior

Lecturer Lecturer Assistant Other (Specify)

7) **Highest academic qualification:** First Degree (Bachelor's Degree)

Master's Degree PhD Other (Specify)

8) How many years have you been teaching in English Department

Part 2: Your evaluation of the research plan

Please circle the number which indicates your level of agreement on the following statements:

	1= Strongly disagree	2= Disagree	3= Uncertain	4= Agree	5= Strongly agree	
Categories of Teacher's Perceptions						
1	I think the use of student-centred learning techniques are essential in teaching	1	2	3	4	5
2	Using direct questions helped me attract students' attention	1	2	3	4	5
3	I think the use of student-centred activities make me more efficient teacher	1	2	3	4	5
4	The use of small group discussion improved students' learning of English vocabulary	1	2	3	4	5
5	I believe small group discussions allowed me to provide more feedback to students	1	2	3	4	5
6	Using comprehension questions enabled me identify students' learning needs	1	2	3	4	5
7	I believe think-pair-share technique helps students improve their speaking skills	1	2	3	4	5
8	I think students are more likely to engage in learning when pair discussion is used	1	2	3	4	5
9	Using brainstorming technique helps students learn to think	1	2	3	4	5
10	I think one-to-one interactions between students improve their learning	1	2	3	4	5
11	When I used small group discussions, I spent more time for preparation of the lesson	1	2	3	4	5
12	The use of visual aids helped me explain new concepts effectively	1	2	3	4	5
13	I felt uncomfortable using group discussion	1	2	3	4	5
14	I believe my students are more motivated when I use student-centred learning approaches	1	2	3	4	5
15	I think traditional lecturing is sufficient for teaching	1	2	3	4	5

Part 3: Further Questions

1- What knowledge and skills have you gained that will enable you modify your practices to better meet the needs of students?

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2- In what ways, have you changed your instructional practices as a result of your participation in this study?

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3- What was the impact of the research programme on your students?

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Thank you for your feedback

April, 2016

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