

An evaluation of the English language teaching provision in a Libyan University

Ebtesam Esgaiar

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of Liverpool

John Moores University for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

PhD

January 2019

Abstract

The limited English language skills among Libyan learners threatens their ability to interact with the international environment. Therefore, improvement in the provision of foreign language programmes is imperative, and can be carried out using different methods such as evaluation to critically examine a programme in order to improve its effectiveness. This study aims to evaluate the current English language teaching (ELT) provision provided by the English department in the faculties of education at Zawia University in Libya. It seeks to establish whether the current English language programme has ever been validated or updated, and to what extent it is fit for purpose in terms of preparing the graduates for the world of work. Moreover, this research analyses the strengths and weaknesses of the current ELT provision.

This study employed both quantitative and qualitative methods to collect the data, which were gathered through a questionnaire, semi-structured interviews and document analysis. The quantitative data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences programme, while content analysis was applied to the quantitative data. Furthermore, this evaluative case study is based on the context, input, process and product model of evaluation.

The evaluation of the current English as a foreign language programme at Zawia University revealed a number of inadequacies in terms of the course design, teaching resources, delivery and the balance of language skills taught. Moreover, the findings revealed a level of dissatisfaction reported by the lecturers and alumni with some aspects of the programme including the teaching resources, the assessment method, the absence of evaluation and the neglect of students' needs in the context of designing the teaching materials. Additionally, the findings revealed that the stakeholders are not satisfied with the content of the courses, as they do not apply equal attention to the four language skills, with greater emphasis placed on developing the reading and writing skills as opposed to the aural and oral skills that is, listening and speaking.

This study concludes by presenting a number of recommendations targeting the decision makers and key stakeholders (i.e. the lecturers, students and alumni) of Zawia University in order to improve the English language programme moving forward.

Academic publication arising from this thesis

Esgaiar, E. (2018). A critical review of the English syllabus of the English language department at Zawia University, Libya. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Development*, 5(12).

Acknowledgements

First, I thank and praise Allah, who has given me the strength and patience to continue this PhD journey towards its conclusion.

Special thanks are extended to my supervisory team, Dr Amanda Mason, Ms Brigitte Hordern and Dr Scott Foster for their guidance, encouragement, endless patience and tremendous support.

I would also like to thank all of my PhD colleagues in the research room at Liverpool Business School at LJMU.

My gratitude and thanks are conveyed to my husband, Abdalfatah, and my two adorable children, Mohamed and Baraa, for their eternal support, belief and encouragement.

Particular thanks must also be extended to Mr Alfarrah for his wonderful support.

I would like to extend my deepest appreciation to my dear parents, Ridwan Esgaiar and Embarka Abuhmida, to my brothers Osama, Abdalsalam and Ahmed, and to my sister Fadwa. Particular thanks are also conveyed to my father-in-law Dr Nasr Omar, and my mother-in-law Fijra Mohamed, my sisters-in-law Aisha and Ayah, and my brother-in-law Omar, who continued to encourage me and have made my doctoral journey possible.

Declaration

This submission is my own work and contains no material previously published or written by another person nor material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma of the University or other institute of higher learning, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text, in the United Kingdom or overseas.

Table of Contents

Abstract.....	i
Academic publication arising from this thesis	ii
Acknowledgements.....	iii
Declaration.....	iv
List of Tables.....	x
List of Figures	xii
List of Abbreviations.....	xiii
1 Chapter One: Introduction	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 The aim of the study	1
1.3 Background of the study	1
1.4 Statement of the problem	5
1.5 Justification of the study	6
1.6 Research questions.....	7
1.7 Research objectives	7
1.8 Thesis outline	8
1.9 Summary of the chapter	9
2 Chapter Two: Context of the Study	10
2.1 Introduction.....	10
2.2 The Libyan education system: an overview	10
2.2.1 Higher education in Libya.....	11
2.2.1.1 Challenges of higher education in Libya.....	12
2.2.1.1.1 Political instability.....	12
2.2.1.1.2 Quality assurance	13
2.2.1.1.3 Economic challenges	14
2.2.1.1.4 Lack of technology.....	14
2.2.1.1.5 Lack of teacher development and training programmes	15
2.2.1.1.6 Social impact on English language teaching.....	16
2.3 English language teaching in Libya: a brief history.....	16
2.3.1 Current ELT scenario in Libyan universities	17
2.3.2 The impact of current Conflict on Libyan higher education.....	19
2.4 Chapter summary	20
3 Chapter Three: Literature Review	21
3.1 Introduction.....	21

3.2	The significance of learning English worldwide	21
3.3	Teaching the four language skills	24
3.4	English language teaching: methods and approaches	25
3.4.1	Grammar translation method.....	26
3.4.1.1	The grammar translation method in the Libyan EFL setting.....	27
3.4.2	The direct method	28
3.4.2.1	The direct method in the Libyan EFL setting	28
3.4.3	The audio-lingual method.....	29
3.4.3.1	The audio-lingual method in the Libyan EFL setting.....	30
3.4.4	The communicative approach	31
3.4.4.1	The communicative approach in the Libyan EFL setting	32
3.4.5	Task-based language teaching	35
3.5	Assessment of the four language skills	37
3.5.1	English language assessment in Libya	40
3.6	Validity, reliability and washback in language assessment.....	41
3.7	The concept of curriculum	43
3.7.1	Language curriculum design	46
3.7.2	Language curriculum evaluation.....	49
3.8	An overview of syllabus design.....	49
3.8.1	Syllabus.....	49
3.8.1.1	Language syllabus design	51
3.8.1.2	Types of language teaching syllabi	52
3.8.2	Teaching material and its evaluation	56
3.9	The importance of needs analysis in English language teaching	58
3.9.1	Studies on needs analysis in English language learning.....	60
3.10	Defining the programme evaluation and its function	62
3.10.1	Categories of evaluation.....	63
3.10.1.1	Formative vs summative evaluation	63
3.10.1.2	Product vs process evaluation	64
3.11	The classification of programme evaluation approaches	65
3.12	Models of programme evaluation.....	66
3.12.1	The Kirkpatrick model.....	67
3.12.2	Outcome-based evaluation model.....	68
3.12.3	Stufflebeam's CIPP model	68
3.12.3.1	Justification for using the CIPP model	71

3.13	Evaluation of language programme research in Arab and non-Arab settings	71
3.13.1	Non-Arab settings	72
3.13.2	Arab settings	76
3.14	The difference between assessment and evaluation	79
3.15	The importance of benchmarking as a tool for improvement	79
3.16	Summary and gaps in the literature	80
4	Chapter Four: Research Methodology and Methods	82
4.1	Introduction	82
4.2	Research questions	82
4.3	Objectives of the study	82
4.4	Research and its significance	83
4.5	Methodology vs research methods	84
4.6	Research philosophy	84
4.6.1	Ontology	86
4.6.2	Epistemology	86
4.6.3	Positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism	87
4.7	Research design and data collection methods	91
4.7.1	Case study and its justification	92
4.7.2	Insider research	95
4.7.3	The researcher role as insider-research	96
4.7.4	Research methods	96
4.7.4.1	Quantitative research method	97
4.7.4.1.1	Questionnaire	98
4.7.4.1.1.1	Emailed questionnaire	100
4.7.4.1.2	Validity and reliability of the questionnaire	101
4.7.4.2	Qualitative research methods	102
4.7.4.2.1	Interviews	103
4.7.4.2.1.1	The emailed interview	107
4.7.4.2.1.2	Validity and reliability of interviews	109
4.7.4.3	Document analysis	109
4.7.4.4	Mixed methods	111
4.7.4.4.1	Justification for using mixed methods	112
4.8	Sampling	114
4.9	Triangulation	116

4.10	Pilot study	116
4.11	Data collection instruments.....	117
4.11.1	The questionnaire.....	118
4.11.1.1	Procedures for the questionnaire data analysis	119
4.11.2	Interviews	119
4.11.2.1	Procedures for the interview data analysis.....	120
4.11.3	Written documents	121
4.12	Ethical considerations	122
4.13	Chapter summary	123
5	Chapter Five: Data Analysis	124
5.1	Introduction.....	124
5.2	Quantitative data analysis.....	124
5.2.1	Descriptive statistics' analysis, demographic data analysis....	125
5.2.1.1	The internal reliability of the questionnaire's items	126
5.2.1.2	The questionnaire's statistical analysis.....	127
5.2.1.3	Collapsed mean and standard deviation score for the questionnaire variables	127
5.2.1.4	The frequency and percentage of the key participants' responses 128	
5.2.1.4.1	Variable two: Lecturers' perceptions about skills that are challenging for students	131
5.2.1.4.2	Variable three: Lecturers' opinions about teaching	134
5.2.1.4.3	Variable four: Lecturers' perceptions on teaching materials..	137
5.2.2	Parametric tests	137
5.2.2.1	Pearson correlation analysis	138
5.2.2.2	One-way Anova and teaching experience.....	140
5.2.2.2.1	Duncan test for lecturers' perceptions on the teaching materials variable	141
5.3	Summary of the questionnaire data analysis	141
5.4	Qualitative data analysis.....	143
5.4.1	Data analysis of the semi-structured interviews	143
5.4.1.1	Data analysis of the lecturers' interview	143
5.4.1.1.1	Background information for the English lecturers.....	143
5.4.1.1.2	Themes and main findings	144
5.4.1.2	Data analysis of the alumni interviews.....	156
5.4.1.2.1	Themes and key findings.....	156
5.4.2	Document analysis findings.....	159

5.5	Triangulation of data.....	163
5.6	Chapter summary.....	164
6	Chapter Six: Discussion.....	165
6.1	Introduction.....	165
6.2	Population and sampling.....	165
6.3	Discussion of the findings in relation to the research objectives.....	166
6.3.1	Research objective 1.....	166
6.3.2	Research objective 2.....	177
6.3.3	Research Objective 3.....	178
6.4	Chapter Summary.....	180
7	Chapter Seven: Conclusion and Recommendations.....	181
7.1	Introduction.....	181
7.2	Summary of the research.....	181
7.3	Summary of the key findings.....	181
7.4	Recommendations.....	183
7.4.1	Recommendations for the decision makers at Zawia University 184	
7.4.2	Recommendations for the English language lecturers at Zawia University.....	186
7.5	Contribution to knowledge.....	187
7.6	Limitations of the research.....	188
7.7	Directions for future research.....	189
7.8	Chapter summary.....	190
8	References.....	191
9	Appendices.....	231

List of Tables

Table 3.1 Student-centred learning elements	36
Table 3.2 Comparison between traditional and alternative assessment	39
Table 3.3 Summary of previous studies evaluating language programmes	77
Table 3.4 Differences between the processes of assessment and evaluation	79
Table 4.1 Research philosophy.....	85
Table 4.2 Ontologies.....	86
Table 4.3 The difference between positivism and interpretivism	87
Table 4.4 The deductive and inductive approaches.....	90
Table 4.5 Initial benchmarking exercise.....	117
Table 5.1 Questionnaire's response rate	125
Table 5.2 Participants' gender	125
Table 5.3 Participants' years of experience	125
Table 5.4 Reliability statistics.....	126
Table 5.5 Collapsed mean and standard deviation scores for the questionnaire variables	128
Table 5.6 English language courses in the programme are helpful for developing English reading skills	128
Table 5.7 English language courses in the programme are helpful for developing English listening skills.....	129
Table 5.8 English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing English-speaking skills.....	129
Table 5.9 English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing English writing skills.....	130
Table 5.10 Students have difficulty listening in English.....	131
Table 5.11 Students have difficulty understanding English texts	131
Table 5.12 Students have no difficulty speaking English	132
Table 5.13 Students have difficulty writing in English	133
Table 5.14 Programme's courses satisfy students' needs.....	134
Table 5.15 Appropriacy of having a native speaker to teach English.....	135
Table 5.16 English culture has been integrated into the courses.....	135
Table 5.17 The English language cannot be learned effectively without integrating English culture.....	136
Table 5.18 The existing English materials are sufficient for students' needs	137
Table 5.19 Skewness and kurtosis tests	138
Table 5.20 Pearson correlation of the four variables of the questionnaire	139
Table 5.21 One-way Anova and teaching experience for the four variables of the questionnaire	140
Table 5.22 Background information for the English lecturers.....	143
Table 5.23 Themes and main findings from the lecturers' interviews.....	144
Table 5.24 Themes and key findings from the alumni's interviews	156
Table 5.25 Document analysis: summary of the findings.....	160
Table 5.26 Summary of the teaching hours by language skill	162
Table 5.27 Triangulation of data	163

Table 6.1 Strengths and weaknesses of the English language syllabus....	175
Table 7.1: Summary of the recommendations list base on the their importance	187

List of Figures

Figure 1.1 Zawia university situation	2
Figure 3.1 A framework of the course development process	51
Figure 3.2 The process of designing a task-based syllabus	55
Figure 3.3 Determining programme worth or merit	67
Figure 3.4 Components of the CIPP model of evaluation	69
Figure 4.1 Sequential explanatory design of data collection	92
Figure 4.2 Evaluation procedure	95
Figure 4.3 Forms of electronic interview	108
Figure 4.4 Content analysis model.....	121
Figure 5.1 Duncan's test and scree plot.....	141
Figure 6.1 Framework to enhance the provision of the English language..	179

List of Abbreviations

CIPP	Context, Input, Process and Product
EFL	English as Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
L2	Second Language
LSRW	Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

1 Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the aim of the study and provides a summary of the background of the research. Information about the research problem and the rationale for undertaking this investigation is presented before the research questions and research objectives are stated. The final section outlines the structure of the thesis.

1.2 The aim of the study

This study aims to evaluate the current English language teaching (ELT) provision provided by the English department in the faculties of education at Zawia University in Libya. It seeks to establish whether the current English language programme has ever been validated or updated, and to what extent it is fit for purpose in terms of preparing graduates for the world of work, while the strengths and weaknesses of the current ELT provision are also analysed. Finally, recommendations are drawn from the findings to facilitate the development of an effective evaluation framework to enhance the quality of the English language provision at the university.

1.3 Background of the study

The English language is taught throughout the Libyan higher education sectors, including higher technical and vocational institutions, training institutions and university education. The University of Zawia, previously titled 'Seventh of April', is one of the most important institutions in terms of university education in the Libyan higher education sector. It was established as an independent university in 1988, and is located in west of Libya (see figure 1.1).



Figure 1.1 Zawia university situation, source (Rhema and Miliszewska, 2010)

The university consists of 32 faculties for education, medical technology, arts, law, engineering, economics, agriculture and veterinary medicine (University of Zawia, n, d). All these different faculties serve the western regions of Libya. This study includes the five education faculties within Zawia University. This research is regarding Zawia University where the researcher works as English language lecturer. The researcher nominated by Zawia university to award a PhD Degree as a part from the teacher development programme and the study is completely sponsored by the Libyan ministry of higher education because the universities in Libyan do not have individual budget. Through conducting this research, it was expected that I could identify the weaknesses and strengths of the English language programme and suggest some solutions to enhance the programme delivery and students' performance by summarising this PhD thesis into report and submit it to the Dean of the University for further actions.

The English language was introduced to the Libyan education system in the 1950s, but, in 1986 the language was prohibited from school and university curricula due to the development of political tensions between the Libyan government and the UK in particular, and Western countries in general, which negatively impacted the educational system at that time (Sawani, 2009).

The regime's decision to prohibit the English language from education curricula continued about eight years. The negative consequences of this policy become evident in the mid-1990s, where evidence began to emerge that university graduates had a very limited grasp of English (Alkhalidy, 2012; Orafi and Borg, 2009).

Despite the tuition of the English language being re-introduced around 1994, many challenges were encountered because of the negative impact resulting from the ban on learning and teaching English for many years. In 2000, new English curricula were introduced to the primary and secondary school language programmes (Youssef, 2012) based on communicative principles that enhance the students' interaction and language use, whereas the old curricula were focused on grammar and memorisation. Consequently, a gap emerged between what the teachers of English had formerly studied during their Libyan university education and what they were ultimately being obliged to teach in schools (Orafi and Borg, 2009; Aloreibi and Carey, 2017).

The exclusion of the English language from education in Libya has had a long-term impact on higher education because it affects students, graduates and teachers alike. As stated by Otman and Karlberg (2007:110), the prohibition of English in Libya *'proved to be a fundamental and disastrous mistake it has set back Libya, in terms of educational quality, by two generations'*. In the author's experience as a lecturer of English in the studied university, the negative impact of excluding the English language from higher education institutions has become evident. For example, some Libyan students who were sent overseas to study in different fields failed to meet the minimum language requirements for academic admission at the universities, while those students of the English language field, also failed to achieve the required scores on the international proficiency tests such as the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) and the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) compared to their counterparts in other countries. For those students who are able to fulfil the language requirements of overseas universities after spending twelve to eighteen months studying English, they are recommended to join a corresponding course prior to joining the required

programme, in order to ensure they are able to participate through the English language. This reveals that the ELT programmes employed in Libya do not meet the standard of international accreditation (Jha, 2015).

While the Ministry of Education produces curricula and publications for teachers and students during the school level, designing curricula at the higher education level is the responsibility of the teachers, which is the case in most countries. There is a tendency to design lectures for modules depending on personal preference as opposed to meeting certain standards. Since the lecturers are free to teach what they deem to be appropriate to their students, courses at the university level are primarily driven by individual effort rather than by policy.

In Libya, the government has invested heavily in ELT in schools and universities in order to progress towards the development of global commerce, science, and technology (Eldokali, 2014). Furthermore, graduates are sent abroad to study and English speakers are recruited from overseas to teach. However, English as foreign language (EFL) programmes are not performing as expected, which negatively impacts on the EFL learners' proficiency in English that falls below expectations (Fareh, 2010).

The key target of teaching the English language in Libya is to communicate effectively with other nations in order to achieve improved social and economic development. With Youssef (2012:368) pointing out that '*the main objective of teaching English language at schools and colleges in Libya is to use the language and communicate effectively with the outside world for a better knowledge economy and social development*'. Nevertheless, students at all education levels are not performing to their full potential in the language with regard to literacy and the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing (LSRW) (Eldokali, 2014).

1.4 Statement of the problem

This study presents an evaluation of the English language provision provided by the English department in the faculties of education at Zawia University in order to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the current English language provision and to investigate whether it effectively prepares Libyan students for the world of work. This programme has not yet been able to meet the needs of learners, which has led to the poor performance of the English language students (Orafi and Borg, 2009; Fareh, 2010; Abukhattala, 2014; Jha, 2015). Moreover, the English Proficiency Index included the world language ranking of 71 countries by order of English skills, with the data calculated using the results of online testing showing that Libya scored very poorly in terms of English proficiency, being positioned at 70. Therefore, the English language performance of the Libyan students is unsatisfactory and their capabilities are insufficient (Al-Hussein, 2014; Altabit and Omar, 2015; Aloreibi and Carey, 2017).

This lack of English competency is a problem partly caused by the lack of clear English language education policies and standards in higher education in Libya, and Zawia University is no exception. In addition, there are no clearly established curricula, which results in the absence of learning standards and objectives. Despite the numerous attempts to reform English education in Libya, the school curriculum is still grammar-based. Furthermore, no stable curricula have been introduced at the university level, resulting in non-standardised curricula being employed (Aloreibi and Carey, 2017).

In fact, most Libyan and non-Libyan university lecturers are recruited without receiving pre-service or in-service training, and are left to their own means of self-development in order to independently acquire pedagogical knowledge. Consequently, the majority of Libyan teachers are sent abroad to receive the necessary training and postgraduate degrees, while the Ministry of Higher Education has been forced to recruit overseas teachers to deliver the English language programmes with no supporting guidelines (Harathi, 2012; Jha, 2015; Suwaed and Rahouma, 2015). Other issues, which also appear to be a cause for concern, are related to the outdated teaching materials (Rupp,

2009), with numerous institutes throughout the Middle East being operated by under-qualified teachers utilising dated materials for instruction. Instead of developing critical thinking and problem-solving skills, students in many countries continue to memorise content and structures, and are then only expected to regurgitate that information on examination. Furthermore, the absence of the Internet and the outdated books available in the libraries are additional issues (Alkhalidy, 2012), with the English language being taught in a futile manner due to the inadequate supporting textbooks.

1.5 Justification of the study

The rationale for this study is to investigate whether the current English language provision prepares Libyan graduates for the world of work. In addition, it will support the language departments at Zawia University to identify the strengths and the weaknesses of the current provision. This study offers value because it will benefit the key stakeholders by providing valuable information that will facilitate reforms and improvements through designing a more effective language programme. The research is significant due to its aim of identifying the difficulties facing students in the English language department at Zawia University, since such in-depth understanding of the challenges that face these students will enable recommendations to be developed in terms of enhancing the design and delivery of the English programme at Zawia University. The study will also provide new insight into applied linguistics in general, and language programme evaluation in particular, because language programme evaluation is a core contributor within applied linguistics. This study will also contribute to programme evaluation in a manner that bridges the existing gaps in current language research and practice within the Arab world and specifically countries with similar political and economic situation.

In short, this study has a number of practical implications. Firstly, it will benefit Zawia University management to understand the source of the deficiencies of the current English programme, which has not been evaluated for more than thirty years (Attuwaybi, 2017), and thus will provide them with recommendations on how to respond to the challenges of evaluating the

provision of the English programme at the institution. Secondly, it will help to formulate a programme evaluation strategy in order to design a competitive and efficient English programme that meets international standards. Thirdly, this study will extend the existing literature on English language programme evaluation, which will be of benefit to future researchers and wider context. The study also contributes to knowledge in the field regarding the operation of higher education institutions within political instability.

1.6 Research questions

This study's research questions are presented as follows:

1. Has Zawia University's management ever evaluated or updated the English language provision to assess its strengths and weaknesses?
2. To what extent does the current English language provision at Zawia University prepare its graduates for the world of work?
3. What are the views and perspectives of the key stakeholders (both lecturers and graduates) regarding the provision of the English language programme at Zawia University?

1.7 Research objectives

This study's objectives now follow:

1. To evaluate the current English language provision at Zawia University.
2. To assess the perceptions and perspectives of the key stakeholders (lecturers and graduates) regarding the provision of the English language programme at Zawia University.
3. To form recommendations based on the findings of this study and to design a framework that enhances the quality of the English language provision at Zawia University by highlighting the strengths and weaknesses of the current programme.

1.8 Thesis outline

This study aims to examine the English language provision offered by the English department in the faculties of education at Zawia University. The thesis consists of seven chapters, described as follows: Chapter One provides the aim and the background of the study. It also offers information regarding the research problem and the rationale for conducting this research. In addition, the research questions and research objectives are established. Chapter Two presents the context of Libya, in which this study has been conducted. It provides an overview of the Libyan educational system, higher education and its challenges. In addition, a brief history of ELT in the Libyan university context and the current scenario of ELT are included, which forms the foundation of the present study. Chapter Three primarily focuses on the significance of learning English worldwide. In addition to highlighting the different methods and approaches of teaching English language skills and assessment, definitions are generated for syllabus and language syllabus design, as well as the types of language teaching syllabi. Furthermore, language programme evaluation and its types are introduced, with the gaps within the relevant literature identified. Chapter Four introduces the methodology and methods employed in organising and conducting this research. The various research philosophies, approaches, strategies and methods of data collection used in research are explored, with the reasons for the methodological choices adopted in this study being justified in relation to the objectives of the research, with the aim of providing the most efficacious output for the recommendations, suggestions and conclusions within the research area. Chapter Five presents the overall procedures that were applied in analysing the data for this case study research. It begins with an analysis of the data emerging from the questionnaire, followed by the analyses of the interviews and documents. The chapter concludes with the triangulation of the data. Chapter Six involves the interpretation of the main findings of this quantitative and qualitative research, with the focus on how these findings respond to the research questions, and thus satisfy the research objectives. Chapter Seven provides the conclusion to the study and its recommendations, which are drawn from the discussion,

while also stating the research limitations, contribution to knowledge, and suggestions for further research.

1.9 Summary of the chapter

This chapter provided the background of the study. It formulated the statement of the problem and established the research questions and research objectives, while also highlighting the motivation for undertaking this study. Finally, the outline of the thesis was described. In the subsequent chapter, the research background is highlighted.

2 Chapter Two: Context of the Study

2.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the study context of Libya, providing an overview of the Libyan education system, with a focus on higher education and its current challenges. In addition, it considers ELT in Libyan universities, which forms the foundation for the present study. The ultimate purpose of this chapter is for the reader to acquire a broader understanding of the research context.

2.2 The Libyan education system: an overview

Libya has one of the lowest levels of illiteracy in North Africa, and has always been keen to provide appropriate education for all members of society (Rhema and Miliszewska, 2010). Education in Libya is free for all citizens, from elementary school to university, including postgraduate study at home and abroad. Moreover, educational institutions are distributed throughout the country to encourage learning (David, 2009).

The Libyan education system is divided into two main phases: the school stage and the university stage. El-Hawat (2006) reported that elementary schooling in Libya consists of six years, followed by three years of junior high (preparatory school) and three years of secondary school. Then, students can continue to study at the university level. The English language is introduced to Libyan students from the fifth grade of elementary school up until the third year of secondary school. English as a subject is taught at the school level for only three hours a week, divided into four 45-minute classes. At university, the students of non-English departments have to study general English once a week for two hours in their first and second years of university, and they must pass general English examinations at levels 1 and 2 (Alkhaldy, 2012).

In the English classrooms a traditional learning approach is followed where the teacher stands in front of the students and uses Arabic (the official language) to teach grammar, explain the meaning of English words and texts, and to provide instruction to the students. However, this does not enhance the development of the students' English level or any of the four skills since the

students do not have any other opportunity to practise the language outside these classes (Najeeb, 2013).

2.2.1 Higher education in Libya

Higher education in Libya is governed and financed by the Ministry of Higher Education, and is provided by public and private universities and higher technical and vocational institutions (Rhema and Miliszewska, 2010). There are ten universities and 109 institutes affiliated with the higher education sector across Libya. Those institutions award bachelor's degrees and diploma certificates depending on the number of years studied. In addition to those universities, there is the Academy of Graduate Studies in Tripoli that awards master's and doctorate degrees (Lai et al., 2016). According to the Committee of Higher Education's instructions, since 1990 all universities in Libya require applicants to have score of 65% or above in their final national school examination (El-Hawat, 2003). In order to gain excellence, some specialised fields such as medical studies and engineering require admission scores that exceed 75%. Students who pass the national school examination with a score of below 65% are admitted to higher training and vocational institutes.

University education is divided into three tiers: bachelor's degree, master's degree and doctorate degree:

1. Bachelor's degree: awarded following four to five years' study at a university or higher institute.
2. Master's degree: awarded after two to three years of study post-bachelor's degree, and offered primarily by established universities such as Tripoli, Benghazi and Zawia.
3. Doctorate degree: awarded after two years of research and following the submission of a thesis in certain fields such as Arabic and Islamic studies. However, many students are sent abroad to obtain their doctorate degrees (Clark, 2004).

Private education is considered to be a new sector due to its relatively recent role in the national education system (Hamdy, 2007). More than 1,000 private primary and secondary schools, and approximately 9 private universities were established in the 1990s. According to a United Nations Educational, Scientific

and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) report in 2007, Libya had the third highest number of people in higher education of any Arab country apart from Jordan and Palestine. However, the higher education system in Libya is under stress and struggles to meet the students' expectations.

After the fall of the Gaddafi regime in 2011, the Ministry of Higher Education arranged a massive scholarship programme abroad to allow more than 80,000 teachers and students to study for master's and doctorate degrees in different Western countries. This strategy was considered to allow broader opportunities to improve the teaching and learning of English in Libya (The International Association of Universities, 2009).

2.2.1.1 Challenges of higher education in Libya

Conducting research to track the challenges facing higher education in developing countries such as Libya represents an essential step to achieving progress in relation to the global dimensions of higher education. A number of studies conducted to address the challenges that face Libyan higher education revealed a significant gap in higher education levels due to the changes of systems and policies in Libya (Tamtam et al., 2011). Higher education in Libya is thus encountering some major challenges, which will potentially influence its development in the near future. These challenges are discussed in the following sub-sections:

2.2.1.1.1 Political instability

A top-down approach is applied to managing the education system in Libya, which has resulted in education being highly politicised. The Libyan political system has driven the education agenda according to its inclinations towards Western countries, which was particularly the case during the Gaddafi regime (Aloreibi and Carey, 2017). For instance, when a number of Western countries accused the Gaddafi regime of orchestrating several terrorist activities, this resulted in foreign language departments being closed for about 8 years, which meant that Libyans were educated at the school and university levels without exposure to foreign languages. The prohibition on languages in Libya

deprived many students of the opportunity to study modern sciences written in foreign languages, which negatively affected the standard of higher education. After the fall of the Gaddafi regime on the 17th of February 2011, the higher education situation deteriorated due to the excessive failures of the Ministry of Higher Education and the increase of misuses (Libyan Organization of Policies and Strategies, 2016). In addition, the conflict brought about a lack of stability at the political level, which made it impossible to develop long-term strategic planning for the development of the higher education sector. Moreover, the political situation forced many foreign and local expatriate teaching staff members to leave Libya, causing a lack of human resources in the higher education sector (Libyan Organization of Policies and Strategies, 2016; Tempus UNIGOV, 2016).

2.2.1.1.2 Quality assurance

Quality assurance in education is an organisation's guarantee that the standards and quality of an institution's educational provision are being maintained and improved. The Libyan Centre for Accreditation and Quality Assurance was established in 2006, with the aim of providing an evaluation system for public and private higher education institutions. With regard to the administration and finances of the institution, the centre is self-sufficient, but it is directed by the General People's Committee of Education and Scientific Research. Establishing a quality assurance office in each higher education institution is compulsory so that each institution can work closely with the quality assurance centre. In order to develop principles of quality at these institutions, workshops, seminars and conferences are organised. However, these activities at the time of writing are only theoretical, due to the challenges of putting them into practice because of the ongoing instability in the Libyan context (European Commission, 2012).

Harathi (2012) claimed that quality assurance in higher education can only be effective if a number of conditions are met: i) the availability of qualified academic staff; ii) lecturers should only be employed in one full-time job in one institution; and iii) the existence of sufficient physical, electronic and administrative support services.

2.2.1.1.3 Economic challenges

Prior to the discovery of oil in the region, Libya was not a wealthy country, featuring a small, uneducated population and a limited number of schools. Subsequently, Libya became a relatively stable country with approximately 95% of its economy supported by oil revenues. However, despite the massive investment in education from 1970 to 2010, higher education is still plagued with numerous problems; some are fundamental, such as the absence of development guides, while others are institutional-level problems like the overcrowding of classrooms and lecture theatres (Lai et al., 2016).

A Libyan Organisation of Policies and Strategies (2016) report highlighted incorrect practices by the Ministry of Higher Education that were due to the difficult economic conditions prevailing in the country. In addition, new obligations that had no allocated provisions in the budget were noted, while the size of spending on scholarships had increased year on year with no payoff commensurate with the volume of spend. Therefore, all these financial challenges negatively affect the development and the reform of the higher education sector. Essentially, Libya known as '*the richest country among the Mediterranean countries*' (Aloreibi and Carey, 2017: 107). Therefore, it should have a far stronger education sector.

2.2.1.1.4 Lack of technology

The Internet was officially established in Libya in 1998, but the service is unsatisfactory and accessibility remains an issue. The main constraints on the Internet use in Libya are related to poverty, the poor quality of the Internet services and unreliable electricity supplies (Elzawi et al., 2013). According to a Tempus UNIGOV report (2016), the lack of basic technology is considered to be the greatest challenge that restricts the development of higher education in Libya, in addition to the shortage of experts and the limited access to certain information technology equipment, which does not support e-learning processes and research activities. Therefore, information technology in Libyan

education still appears to be in its infancy (Salem and Mohammadzadeh, 2018).

This lack of technology in Libyan education has primarily affected the quality of teaching and learning of EFL. The lack of laboratories, computers and smart boards in classrooms has forced many teachers to rely on traditional teaching methods; in addition, the majority of foreign language teachers have limited knowledge about the effective use of technology in education (Abukhattala, 2016).

2.2.1.1.5 Lack of teacher development and training programmes

The quality of learners at the university level is largely determined by the quality of their lecturers. During the development of the education sector in Libya, some of the university lecturers were classified as being unqualified due to the unavailability of training courses for them, which may have led to poor participation and a decline of the quality in the system. The absence of training for university lecturers is essentially based on the belief that the majority of university lecturers hold postgraduate or doctorate degrees, and therefore they are already qualified and do not require further training. Thus, most Libyan and non-Libyan university lecturers are recruited without receiving pre-service or in-service training, and are left to rely on their own motivation to acquire or develop pedagogical knowledge and experience (Alkhalidy, 2012; Harathi, 2012; Suwaed and Rahouma, 2015). Moreover, Libyan ELT practitioners lack 20% of the characteristics that such a practitioner should possess, when compared to their counterparts in other international settings, with Libyan ELT teachers not being provided with the means to develop motivation, interactivity, socio-affective skills, pedagogic knowledge or professional competence (Jha, 2015). The lack of high-quality teachers of English is believed to be the main reason that the entire process of teaching and learning English remains ineffective. This deficiency refers to the Libyan government's undeveloped accreditation procedures for universities, programmes and courses (Aloreibi and Carey, 2017). Although the Ministry of Higher Education in Libya has sponsored numerous teachers to travel abroad in order to obtain the required knowledge and skills, it is clear that these

teachers still suffer from a lack of professional development and training (Alzain et al., 2014).

2.2.1.1.6 Social impact on English language teaching

The Libyan society has vital influence on the learning and teaching of foreign languages. Previously, in the time of colonialism of Turkey and Italy, Libyans did not enrol their children in schools because the focus was on the Turkish and Italian language, consequently, Libyans show a negative attitude towards foreign language learning (Youssef, 2012). English language teaching structured according to the Libyan society. Elabbar (2011:11) points out that the *'Libyan teachers learned to be Libyan teachers in a particular social context, using a particular kind of knowledge at a particular time, therefore their practices are socially constructed. The practices of Libyan teachers teaching English as a foreign language at the university level can be seen as raised from their cultural background'*. Sinosi (2010) in his turn, states that, it is difficult for the Libyan English teachers to join the structure of the English language with the social meanings in relation to the English language use. The lack of motivation to English learning in Libya may perhaps be one of the key reasons for continuing use a traditional style of teaching (Aloreibi and Carey, 2017).

The above section presented an overview of the higher education challenges in Libya that are preventing higher education from achieving its aims. Therefore, an urgent solution needs to be found to address these problems, with the goal of standardising higher education in Libya.

2.3 English language teaching in Libya: a brief history

Arkoudis et al. (2012:1) pointed out that *"English is currently the international language of higher education. It has become an ever more commonplace medium of instruction in higher education institutions around the world"*. The learning and teaching of EFL in Libya dates back to the mid-1940s, with Youssef (2012:368) reporting that *"the main objective of teaching English language at schools and colleges in Libya is to use the language and communicate effectively with the outside world for a better knowledge*

economy and social development". The main teaching approach of that time was grammar-based, with the memorisation of facts, vocabulary and grammatical structures the focus of the second language (L2) instruction (Hashim, 1997). In English classes, the lens of focus was placed on the grammatical form rather than the meaning or general communicative ability of the students. EFL in the Libyan education system has travelled through a number of different stages. In the 1950s, the English language was taught from primary school until the completion of secondary school. Then, at the beginning of the 1970s, English language learning was pulled back to preparatory school and was a compulsory subject with approximately four classes per week, where each lesson lasted 45 minutes. This continued until 1986, when the English language was prohibited from schools and universities in Libya as a political response by the Gaddafi regime. This withdrawal of English language instruction lasted for many years, and as a consequence the English language proficiencies of university graduates were negatively affected since they engaged in their academic fields with no exposure to the English language. This, in turn, meant that teachers of English had to teach other subjects such as history or geography, while the students suffered due to the lack of qualified teachers and the limited curriculum (Najeeb, 2013).

2.3.1 Current ELT scenario in Libyan universities

According to a UNESCO report in 2013, the Libyan education sector is facing massive challenges, particularly with regard to education quality, as a result of the lack of appropriate planning processes in the past and the outcome of the 2011 revolution.

English at the university level is a compulsory subject for English and non-English fields. Students specialising in non-English subjects must attend one lecture per week in English for academic purposes, which are commonly planned, designed and delivered by English language lecturers at the same university. Students who attend these lectures are taught basic grammatical rules, vocabulary and scientific texts that relate to their field of study. On the other hand, English department students must attend intensive courses in all language skills (i.e. LSRW), in addition to other compulsory courses such as

literature, phonetics and phonology, applied linguistics, instructional strategies, teaching methodology; and non-English related subjects such as statistics, Islamic studies, Arabic and psychology. All of the courses are taught by Libyans who hold higher education degrees, or by foreign lecturers primarily from India, Iraq and African countries. English department students must study for four years before obtaining a graduation certificate from the university (Al-Naiely, 2012).

At the university level in Libya, there are no curricula in departments and the English departments are no exception (Suwaed and Rahouma, 2015; Esgaiar, 2018). Departmental teaching staff usually collaborate to establish general outlines for the subjects that students should study each year. As a result, there are no clear guidelines for the course content, and teaching standards may differ even in the same department.

Therefore, one of the vital roles that the university lecturers play is to select and present the materials that they believe are appropriate and pertinent for their students, depending on their individual knowledge of the course. Because of this phenomenon, Libyan teachers were found to have understood and implemented the syllabus according to their beliefs, which were not in agreement with the learners' needs and the objectives of the syllabi (Orafi, 2008). In addition, there are no national exams for university students, with lecturers responsible for designing exams for their students based the taught content during the academic year (Suwaed, 2011).

ELT at the university level in Libya is facing many obstacles that negatively influence both its development and any increase in the students' language proficiency. However, the Libyan education system has formally shifted to communicative language teaching, despite the grammar translation method and translation to Arabic still being practices used by English teachers. Another obstacle is the absence of information technology equipment and teachers lacking the necessary knowledge to operate educational equipment, which has a negative effect on English learners. Moreover, higher education is based on theory rather than practice. This was confirmed by Rababah (2003), who reported that the prevailing dissatisfaction with the performance of Arab students in terms of English at the university level is due to the lack of

essential standards in curriculum design and testing, as well as insufficient teaching and learning strategies.

Other new challenges that affect university teaching and which appeared after the collapse of the Gaddafi regime include the instability of the Libyan political landscape, which manifest through the suspension of study for weeks at a time and the widespread availability of weapons that threaten the students' and teachers' lives, as well as introducing a level of risk into the education domain (Rajendran, 2010; Najeeb, 2013; Suwaed and Rahouma, 2015).

2.3.2 The impact of current Conflict on Libyan higher education

Prior the 17th of February 2011 Libya had achieved the education Millennium Development Goals including disappearance of gender inequality in education by following a policy that boost girls' education in Libya, The Libya Status of Women survey found that 52% of Libyan women reached secondary education or higher, compared to 53% of Libyan men. Both men and women are achieving similar levels of higher education. Additionally, 77% of female students under the age of 25 reported having plans to complete secondary education or higher compared to 67% of men (Tayal, 2018). Another achievement is the high enrolment rate in higher education sector. On the other hand, educational quality was a concern. The long crisis of Libya has many influences on the education system's delivery and quality. Information collection about the educational institutions is limited because of the abductions and indiscriminate air strikes around the country. In addition, many academics have been kidnapped and killed, with a bit of luck; Zawia university staff have not faced this issue. Furthermore, access to education in some areas is not safe because of the widespread of illegal armed militias who made some of campuses and schools their makeshift military bases. The sad reality is that 41% of the fighters in these militias are students and Zawia University students are no exception. Accordingly, one of the huge future tasks facing higher education authorities is to re-open campuses as well as getting those students back into classrooms (Milton and Barakat, 2016). Moreover, institutions of higher education facilities were damaged in conflict-related violence (Carter, 2018). Although, the Libyan higher education system faces

vast challenges, the state has sizeable resources that can help in advancing its educational institutions and teaching resources. Higher education can play a massive role in stabilising and changing the education sector into a better position by producing jobs to reduce radicalism and dependence on foreign expertise especially in petroleum and industrial institutions. One of the beneficial steps that the ministry of higher education has started is funding massive numbers of scholarships to train academic staff abroad (Elabbar, 2014).

2.4 Chapter summary

This chapter focused on the context of the study, providing an overview of the Libyan education system and the current status of ELT. The higher education situation and some of its challenges were discussed, which have a direct impact on the quality of the sector. In the following chapter, the literature related to language curriculum, syllabus and programme evaluation will be critically reviewed.

3 Chapter Three: Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

This review will primarily focus on two aspects. The first part emphasises the importance of teaching and the assessment of language skills, in addition to defining, designing and evaluating the language curriculum. Also included are the evaluation of language teaching materials and needs analysis. Meanwhile, the second section primarily focuses on programme evaluation, its function, the types and models.

3.2 The significance of learning English worldwide

In the current era, learning English has become essential because it is the most widely learned and spoken language internationally (Alvarez-Sandoval, 2005; Crystal, 2012; Wolf and Butler, 2017; Badger, 2018). The motivation of second language learning and teaching could be related to national goals, that is, the L2 is learned to serve the needs of the country (Modiano and Sharifian, 2009; Pennycook, 2017). Many countries use the English language as the medium of instruction in schools and universities, and to engage with business, particularly in the case of multinational companies (Renandya and Widodo, 2016). Learning another language to supplement the first language may also relate to international goals, as the purpose of fostering language learning for application outside the country could include accessing research and information. Another goal behind learning a second language is individual motivation, whereby the language is learned for self-development and personal reasons such as understanding a foreign culture or changing society (Alsagoff et al., 2012; Cook, 2013). In other words, learning a second language is related to internal and external motivations, and both offer educational value to learners.

Najeeb (2013:1243) argued that “*the majority of language learners veer to English as the second language*”. In the same vein, Intarapanich (2013) claimed that the English language is the most widely learned second language worldwide. Furthermore, Kennedy (2010) states that the English language is

utilised all over the world more than any other language. However, the English language is often described as a 'global language' because it has met the two criteria that determine a language as an international language: it being established as an official national language, which as stated by Crystal (2012) is best demonstrated by English; and prioritising the language to be taught in foreign language teaching contexts. It is not surprising that the English language is taught as a foreign language in over than 100 countries (Kachru, 2006; Crystal, 2012). Hence, over 80% of information found on the Internet is written in English, while the scientific journals published in many countries are now switching from the vernacular to English. Consequently, the English language is currently the undisputed language of science and technology (Nunan, 2003; Shyamlee and Phil, 2012; Reddy, 2016).

Overall, learning the English language is considered imperative in today's globalised and interconnected world because it has become a 'lingua franca' (Seidlhofer, 2013; Low, 2014), or rather a communicative tool employed between speakers of different first languages, as described by Kennedy (2010:88) '*English often perform this function either institutionally where an English-language policy has been formally adopted, or informally with individuals' agreement*' i.e. third language as communication tool. Each country has its own unique needs in terms of learning and teaching English. For example, in Saudi Arabia, the English language is taught because it is regarded as a means for economic development, since it is utilised for communication between multi-national oil and gas corporations, and it is applied as the medium of training in many organisations (Elyas and Picard, 2010; Mahboob and Elyas, 2014).

In Sudan, the English language is viewed as being vitally important for the development of science and technology, particularly following the discovery of oil in certain parts of the country, and it represented the language of consent for the peace agreement signed with the Southern Sudanese opposition (O'Brien and Nur, 2014). Whereas in Malaysia, the teaching and learning of English is deemed to be essential due to the existence of many diverse cultures with various languages used within the society; for example, the mastery of the English language is important for teachers and students in

educational institutions in order to overcome the challenges of communication between many different native speakers (Ramlan and Maarof, 2014). Furthermore, in China, English is regarded as a tool that facilitates access to modern scientific and technological knowledge, and it is a means to communicate globally in order to strengthen the Chinese economy (Cheng, 2011). Antara (2014) asserted that the English language is important within Bangladeshi society because it is prerequisite for obtaining a prestigious job in Bangladesh.

Al-Jardani (2012) described that learning English in the Sultanate of Oman prepares individuals to be able to work effectively in business, the media and education fields. Furthermore, the English language in Jordan occupies a paramount position, even competing with the Arabic language in some sectors such as tourism and foreign affairs. Therefore, the number of people who study English continues to increase because the majority of vacancies require a certain level of English language proficiency (Drbseh, 2013). Likewise, Mahboudi and Javdani (2012) argued that speaking English in Iran is a key to successful employment and joining the international community. English is therefore considered as the lingua franca in most parts of the world. Similarly, in Egypt, English language competency is regarded as a crucial skill for success. It is required for Egyptians to access the development of information, to join the international economy, and represents one of the criteria for securing employment abroad, particularly in the Gulf states (Ibrahim and Ibrahim, 2017).

The Libyan context is no exception, and as asserted by Elmadwi and Shepherd (2014:29), "*in Libya, English is taught as a foreign language, and the purpose of learning English is for communication and to communicate efficiently*". Consequently, Libyans need to learn the English language to communicate with the rest of the world, not least because it is the language used to negotiate oil and gas trading agreements; moreover, English is the language of technology and science in the current global economy (Otman and Karlberg, 2007; Albukbak, 2008; Kirkpatrick, 2018). Having discussed the international significance of learning English, the next section focuses on the teaching of the four language skills.

3.3 Teaching the four language skills

Undoubtedly, language has myriad uses. Communication is the vital purpose of a language, and without language communication would not be possible (Lessow-Hurley, 2003). Any language has four necessary components to be learned, which are known as the four language skills of LSRW (Sadiku, 2015; Burns and Siegel, 2017). In foreign language learning, these skills are classified into input and output language skills. The former refers to the listening and reading skills, while the latter relates to the speaking and writing skills (Pachler et al., 2013). Although the LSRW skills might appear to be distinct, they are “*bound together with an inseparable bond*” (Sadiku, 2015:29). For the foreign language teaching to be successful, the four language skills have to be incorporated in effective manner. As asserted by Hinkel (2010), the teaching of language skills cannot be conducted independently. Consequently, the accuracy of LSRW will be gradual, which supports the raising of the learners' proficiency levels and advancing language learning (Donoghue, 2009; Ediger, 2010; Palmer, 2014; Harmer, 2015).

In the twentieth century, the domain of language teaching developed into an active area of educational debate and innovation (Pitt, 2005; Davison, 2011; Hayes and Burkette, 2017), with the foundations of the modern approaches to language teaching being established at the beginning of the century. This development and shift in language teaching was a reaction to the growth in demand for second and foreign language speakers (Mukalel, 2005; Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2013; Richards and Rodgers, 2014; Curtis, 2017; Richards, 2018). In order to gain deep understanding of the approaches and methods of EFL teaching, there is a need to consider unambiguous definitions for the terms ‘approach’, ‘method’, ‘procedure’ and ‘technique’.

First, an ‘approach’ refers to a set of correlative assumptions and beliefs that are concerned with the nature of language teaching and learning, or it may be related to the philosophy that a method reflects. Furthermore, an approach represents the theoretical principles that lead language learning and teaching, such as the communicative approach (Jesa, 2010; Bahumaid, 2012). Second, ‘method’ can be defined as an overall plan for presenting language material,

based on the chosen approach, with methods in the classroom guided by techniques (Richards and Rodgers, 2014; Richards, 2018). Method also refers to the used methods that have been conceptualised and constructed by experts in the field (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Third, 'procedure' is the set of systematic actions that assist in implementing a method, with these actions being referred to as 'techniques', which can be defined as "*implementational-that which actually takes place in a classroom, it is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Technique must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well*" (Richards and Rodgers, 2014:21). In other words, an approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural and a technique is implementation; the three ought to operate as one component for the success of learning and teaching the language process. In addition, comprehending the relationship between these terms can benefit a teacher in identifying the reasons behind their choices of teaching methodology (Johnson, 2015). The next section considers the methods and approaches for English language teaching in detail.

3.4 English language teaching: methods and approaches

In the past, language teaching researchers have focused on identifying the optimum method that would work for all learners in all settings. However, it has long been recognised that there never was and possibly never will be one generic method that supports all cases, and consequently some of the focus of language teaching research has shifted towards the development of classroom activities and tasks (Nunan, 1995; Johnson, 2015; Hall, 2017). There are many methods and approaches for teaching a second or foreign language. Those methods can be clustered into i) language-centred methods such as the audiolingual method, which is concerned with linguistic forms and offers opportunities for learners to perform prearranged linguistic structures through engaging with exercises in the classroom; ii) learner-centred methods such as communicative methods that are concerned with language use and learner needs; and iii) learning-centred methods that are concerned with the learning process itself (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Any language teaching method involves a number of principles established as standards that should

be applied by teachers in classrooms in order to achieve the desired level of language acquisition. In addition, the chosen method should be appropriate to the learners' characteristics and the type of learning it leads to (Coe et al., 2014).

The following section will review the dominant language methods and approaches that are currently employed by EFL teachers in Libyan universities, namely the grammar translation method, the direct method, the audio-lingual method and the communicative approach.

3.4.1 Grammar translation method

The grammar translation method is one of the main methods for teaching foreign languages, and has also been known by other titles such as the 'grammar school method', because it was developed to be used in secondary schools, and the 'classical method' due its use in teaching classical languages such as Latin and Greek. The grammar translation method is employed to support learners to read and appreciate foreign language literature. It is also expected that through the study of the grammar of the target language, learners will become more familiar with the grammar of their mother tongue (Howatt and Widdowson, 2004; Pollock and Waller, 2012; Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2013).

The grammar translation method is an efficient way of learning vocabulary and grammatical structures, which are central in terms of facilitating easier language learning. In addition, learners become acquainted with the two languages concurrently, while their reading and writing skills are widely developed (Mart, 2013). Abdullah (2015) pointed out that the grammar translation method has two key objectives: first, to develop students' reading ability in the context of reading literature in the target language; and second, to develop students' general mental discipline.

The principles of the grammar translation method can be summarised as follows: i) learners should be taught primarily through the mother tongue with little use of the target language; ii) vocabularies are taught in the form of lists of isolated words, with memorisation encouraged; iii) the grammatical

structure of the foreign language is best taught when paralleled with the mother tongue's grammatical structure; and iv) minor attention is given to oral skills and pronunciation (Brown, 2000; Abdullah, 2015).

Teaching of the grammar translation method is characterised by the translation of vocabularies and texts from the target language into the first language, in addition to the deductive acquisition of the grammar (Natsir and Sanjaya, 2014). In the grammar translation method, communication in the classroom is primarily in the first language. The teachers play a prominent role and the learners interact with the teacher, as opposed to each other (Esmaeil, 2015). However, Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2013:46) argued that the teachers' and learners' roles are very traditional, whereby the teachers have the authority in the classroom and learners must follow their instructions and commands, and thus the learners can learn only what the teachers know. Therefore, in this method, the learners perform a passive role and their opportunity to practise the target language is limited because the emphasis is placed on the written language rather than the spoken language, and the learners gain little knowledge of how the target language is used in everyday conversation.

3.4.1.1 The grammar translation method in the Libyan EFL setting

The grammar translation method, as the name indicates, relies fundamentally on the translation of the target language into the learner's mother tongue, alongside the memorisation of grammatical rules and vocabulary. According to Abukhattala (2016:262), *“at all levels of education, the grammar-translation method is still the norm of ELT in Libya”*. Libyan learners are already familiar with such methods of teaching and learning, since they are accustomed to learning by memorisation and low interaction in the majority of their subjects and at all levels of education. The grammar translation method remains highly active in the Libyan EFL setting because most Libyan English teachers were taught via certain aspects of the grammar translation method during their own learning journeys. In Libya, the grammar translation method is widely applied as a teaching technique *“to check students' understanding, help students clarify the meanings of linguistic units, increase students' vocabulary, develop*

students' ability of contrastive analysis, and assess students' overall language learning" (Mohamed, 2014:39). However, the learning styles of students are affected by quiet and weak interaction with their teachers (Elabbar, 2011).

3.4.2 The direct method

The direct method was introduced in the early twentieth century as a response to the issues experienced by those teachers who used the grammar translation method in their classrooms. It became popular due to the failure of the grammar translation method in preparing students to use the target language communicatively. The direct method is based on one cardinal rule that no translation is allowed, with the main aim of this method being to express meaning through the target language directly using realia, pictures or pantomime (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson; 2013, Curtis, 2017).

The direct method is characterised by the prohibition of the first language in the classroom. Its features are that only the target language should be used, with meanings linked directly by connecting speech forms with action, objects, mime, gestures and situations. Moreover, reading and writing should only be taught after speaking (Albukbak, 2008). Another principle is that oral communication skills should be constructed through interaction between the teacher and a small number of learners in the classroom, because smaller groups can practise the language with each other more frequently. Furthermore, correct pronunciation and grammar ought to be emphasised, while abstract vocabulary is taught through the association of ideas (Brown, 2000).

Despite the ability of the direct method to facilitate in achieving professional oral skills, to realise this the teacher must have native or near-native proficiency in the target language in order to ensure progress (Mart, 2013; Christison et al., 2015).

3.4.2.1 The direct method in the Libyan EFL setting

The direct method is generally understood by language teachers; however, the method is rarely employed in Arabic educational institutions, due to the

difficulties of adhering to its main premise of only using the target language in the classroom. Hamdallah (1999:249) claimed that *“in the Arab world, it is almost impossible to banish the learner’s first language, Arabic, when teaching English as a foreign language”*. In other words, Libyan English teachers may consider the direct method, but there is little evidence to support its use in an effective manner, unless the teacher in question is from the new generation who graduated after the postponement of English language learning in Libya. For this reason, the majority of English teachers in Libya were found to have been taught using the grammar translation method, or one of its phases (Elabbar, 2011).

Furthermore, the direct method is almost impossible to be applied in Libyan educational institutions due to the many obstacles that include i) the large numbers of students in each classroom, which limits the application of the learning activities; and ii) the local culture, which does not encourage direct communication between males and females who study in the same classroom. This restricts most teachers to selecting teaching materials that contain few practical activities (Sawani, 2009; Epri, 2016). However, the direct method is difficult to apply not only in Libya, but also worldwide. For the aforementioned reasons, language teachers in most Arabic countries are well aware of the fact that Arab learners will ask them to recourse to their first language (Arabic) in particular situations.

3.4.3 The audio-lingual method

Similar to the direct method, the audio-lingual method was proposed by American linguists in the 1950s, representing a combination of behavioural psychology and linguistics. The audio-lingual method is an oral-based approach based on the belief that a language is primarily a combination of sounds utilised for communication, with writing a subordinate system employed to record the oral language. In other words, the priority is placed on teaching the listening and speaking skills, followed by the reading and writing skills, since the objective of the audio-lingual method is to communicate through the target language effectively. As stated by Galante (2014:57), *“the Audio-lingual Method gained popularity with its overemphasis on oral drills and*

production". It trains students in the use of grammatical sentence patterns and teaches language through dialogues that rely on the habit formation of learners (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Mart, 2013).

Westwood (2008:190) argued that the audio-lingual method was strongly influenced by a belief that fluent use of a language is developed from a set of "*habits*" that can be developed with considerable practice. Therefore, the bases of audio-lingual classroom practice are dialogues for repetition and memorisation, and drills are a unique feature of the audio-lingual method.

This method is characterised by teacher dominance, whereby the teacher models the target language, controls the direction of learning and corrects the students' performance. Learners play a reactive role by responding to stimuli, but they are not encouraged to initiate interaction as this may lead to mistakes (Richards and Rodgers, 2014). However, various techniques are implemented in the audio-lingual method in order to compel the learners use the target language communicatively, including the memorisation of dialogues, repetition drills, dialogue completion, the use of minimal pairs and grammar games (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

3.4.3.1 The audio-lingual method in the Libyan EFL setting

The audio-lingual method is widely utilised in the Arab world, particularly in Libya, with Alakkam and Ryahan (2013:568) noting that "*learning by rote and repetitions principles of the audio-lingual method have been at the heart of foreign language education*". The audio-lingual method supported some EFL Libyan teachers' attitudes towards learning, because those who teach large groups favoured the drilling method for the majority of provided activities, including reading and grammar patterns (Sawani, 2009). Audio-lingual drills can be helpful for students who are struggling with the pronunciation of particular English sounds (Galante, 2014), which may be because the repetition causes a memory pattern through which they eventually recall without thinking.

3.4.4 The communicative approach

According to Howatt and Richard (2014:78), the communicative period aims to achieve “*real-life communication*” with the use of communicative language teaching, which is also known as the communicative approach. The communicative approach is a learner-centred approach that originated in the 1970s and 1980s. The aim is to develop both the accuracy and fluency from the establishment of language learning. Moreover, the learner acquires social skills in addition to grammatical competence, with the purpose of satisfying everyday needs. Since the objective of the communicative approach is to enable learners to communicate competently, the teacher plays a co-participant role and facilitates the communication process between all participants within the learning–teaching group. Additionally, he/she provides the resources necessary for communication to be effective in every context. Furthermore, the teacher plays a secondary role such as a guide for the classroom procedures and activities, a needs analyst and a counsellor (Patel, 2008; Richards and Rodgers, 2014). The learners engage in different roles to those found in the traditional L2 classrooms, whereby they should participate in the classroom activity and listen to their peers in pair or group work tasks, as opposed to merely depending on the teacher for direction (Richards and Rodgers, 2014; Sadeghi and Richards, 2015; Gursoy et al., 2017).

Klippel et al. (2012) highlighted a number of ways to set up communicative activities in the classroom: i) the buzz group, where the students are divided into small groups and discuss a topic before reporting it to the whole class; ii) the fishbowl, where all the students sit in a circle and in the centre of the circle those students who hold controversial views about the discussed topic start to debate with the other students who are sat in the outer circle, then, those students who are sat inside the circle are replaced by other students who can present their case better; iii) networking, where the class is divided into groups, with each group receiving a ball of string to be held by the speaker of the group, so as each speaker finishes his/her talk, they hold the string but pass the ball to the next speaker and thus a web develops showing who has talked the most and the least; and iv) the market way, where all the students circulate

the classroom and talk to each other. Therefore, the most important goal of the activity is achievable that is keeping the learners talk and reducing the teacher talking time.

The communicative approach is built on the notion that the aim of learning a second language is to achieve communicative competency. The learner has to be familiar with the rules of using language in order to generate language appropriate for certain situations, and should be knowledgeable of the use of different techniques to communicate effectively (Patel, 2008). Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2013:128) summarised some of the main principles of the communicative approach as follows:

- Learners should have choices in communication of *what* to say and *how* to say it.
- Cooperative relationship among learners should be encouraged such as opening chances to negotiate meanings.
- The social context of the communicative is vital.
- Authentic materials should be used.

3.4.4.1 The communicative approach in the Libyan EFL setting

With the advent of information technology and globalisation, communicative competence in English has become essential. Therefore, in 2005, the government in Libya decided to shift to top-down reforms of all curricula, including the new English language curriculum, which is based on a communicative approach to language teaching. This approach concentrates on teaching language in realistic contexts and stresses the communicative and social aspects of English (Altaieb and Youssif, 2015). The adoption of this new curriculum was power-coercive, because the teachers were not involved in the design.

The training provided to support teachers in implementing the new curriculum was also limited; they attended seminars lasting a week during which they were shown the new textbooks and given information about the curriculum. These sessions were led by ELT inspectors who themselves had been trained by the publishers of the course books.

(Orafi and Borg, 2009:245)

Using the communicative approach in the Libyan context is not easy due to the lack of teacher training and the low level of student proficiency, in addition to the large numbers of students in each classroom that is normally 50+. This might impede the successful outcome of the communicative activities and achieving quality language learning (Epri, 2016; Marais, 2016; Sahinkarakas and Inozu, 2017). Moreover, a communicative classroom requires considerable time to set up the activities, which is challenging with high-density classes. Additionally, the excessive teacher talk time restricts the amount of student talk time (Shebani, 2016), while the local culture might be another obstacle to applying the communicative approach because it does not tolerate direct communication between male and female learners. As Hedge (2000:72) argued, *“there is the issue of whether a communicative approach is appropriate to local contexts and cultures, and how it might be adapted and used by teachers and learners in relevant ways”*.

Culture plays a key role in English language learning and the teaching process, influencing the processes from a range of dimensions since teaching a foreign language cannot be effectively achieved without consideration of the prevailing culture. Ahmed (2015:160) cautioned that *“the target language cannot be fully mastered if the cultural component of the language is missing”*. Moreover, the global role of the English language is considered to be the main justification for teaching its culture as a fifth skill alongside the LSRW skills. Foreign language teaching has been described as foreign culture teaching, and foreign language teachers referred to as foreign culture teachers (Choudhury, 2014). In the Arab world, the culture has affected and influenced the education in general, and the manner of teaching EFL in particular.

Teaching in Arabic countries is inclined towards manipulating direct lecturing illustrating models with assessment depending entirely on examinations; therefore, the education system is described as an examination-oriented system that is reliant on memorising facts rather than applying concepts. This scheme is at direct odds with the teaching and assessment system found in Western countries, which relies on interactive education and assignments.

This traditional educational system is responsible for the challenges and hardships that Arab students encounter when they decide to study abroad (Mahrous and Ahmed, 2010; Derderian-Aghajanian and Wang, 2012; Ibrahim and Ibrahim, 2017). Teaching and learning the English language in Libya have been negatively affected by the local culture, as many English teachers find it difficult to apply ideas and to utilise teaching methods that are not compatible with Libyan culture. Elabbar (2014:74) asserted that “*foreign language school teachers’ knowledge of teaching are strongly controlled by the wall of culture*”. Further, Ahmed (2017) argued that many of the English language textbooks that are designed primarily for skill development and are published in English-speaking countries contain native-culture-biased materials that are sometimes criticised for their unacceptability among non-native learners.

In other words, Libyan teachers may be unable to explain or discuss a topic that is unacceptable in the local culture because the Libyan education system features mixed gender education. Another important point affecting the success of communicative language teaching is the teacher training for English language programmes, which has not improved the participants’ competency and skills because of the local educational culture, which controls the materials and methodologies.

Additionally, the English language classroom interaction in Libya is immersed in a number of social and cultural influences as English language materials and classroom activities need to be carefully filtered. For the reason that, certain sensitive topics such as marriage, alcohol or nightclubs cannot be discussed in a Libyan classroom, even though the majority of the classrooms are female students, but it is still mixed-gender (Sawani, 2009; Pathan et al., 2016). In summary, the impact of the Libyan culture is perhaps one of the key factors behind the low level of English language learners because it limits the scope of its teaching; however, “*since no two cultures are exactly identical, second or foreign language learners will inevitably encounter cultural confrontations on their learning route*” (Zhang, 2006:42). After reviewing the most commonly used ELT methods and approaches in Libya, the following section will consider task-based language teaching.

3.4.5 Task-based language teaching

The debate on which method or approach of language teaching is more effective is ongoing. Over the past thirty years, task-based language teaching has become prominent and the most preferred approach to foreign language teaching in some countries such as India and New Zealand because it is based on the assumption that learning will be more effective when it is associated with real-life tasks. Task-based language teaching developed as a consequence of applied linguists' and pedagogues' dissatisfaction with the prevailing approaches to second and foreign language teaching. A noteworthy difference between task-based language teaching and previous form-oriented approaches is that task-based language teaching classes begin with an emphasis on meaning, followed by a focus on language and finally the focus on form (Van den Branden et al., 2016; Hall, 2017).

Ellis (2003) asserted that the focus of classroom activity is the task, which drives the learners to comprehend and interact in the target language with the emphasis placed on meaning. In the literature, tasks are typically clustered into focused and unfocused types. The unfocused type is classified into pedagogic and real-world tasks that may potentially predispose learners to select from a range of activities; nonetheless, they are not designed with the use of a particular activity in mind. In other words, unfocused tasks are introduced to offer learners the opportunity to practise the target language in a communicative manner. In contrast, the focused tasks are grouped into structure-based production tasks, comprehension tasks and consciousness-raising tasks. Focused tasks are planned to afford learners with opportunities to communicate using definite linguistic features, typically grammatical structures (Ellis, 2009; Erfani and Torkamani, 2015; Ganta, 2015).

According to Nunan (2004), task-based language teaching enhances the use of the target language due to its focus on learning through communication, conveying meaning and engaging with authentic materials. It also provides opportunities for the students to focus on the learning process. Therefore, it can be described as being student-centred due to its encouragement for meaningful communication to ensue. Renandya and Widodo (2016) discussed

ten elements for language learning to be classified as student-centred, as summarised in Table 3.1 below:

Table 3.1 Student-centred learning elements (Source: Renandya and Widodo, 2016:14)

Element	Brief explanation
<i>Student and teacher as co-learners</i>	<i>Teachers learn along with students.</i>
<i>Student–student interaction</i>	<i>Teachers encourage students to share with their peers.</i>
<i>Learner autonomy</i>	<i>Students become more independent of teachers and more responsible for their own learning.</i>
<i>Focus on meaning</i>	<i>The best learning takes place when students fully understand what they are studying and why they are studying it.</i>
<i>Curricular integration</i>	<i>Students understand the link between what they study in class and life beyond it.</i>
<i>Diversity</i>	<i>Learning helps students appreciate the benefits of diversity.</i>
<i>Thinking skills</i>	<i>Students go beyond the information given to them.</i>
<i>Alternative assessment</i>	<i>Assessment broadens to include non-traditional forms.</i>
<i>Learning climate</i>	<i>Students and teachers strive for participation by all class members.</i>
<i>Motivation</i>	<i>Intrinsic motivation become predominant, as classroom climate harmonises with students' innate desire to learn.</i>

The key benefit of task-based language teaching is its communication-centred focus, as it helps students to interact spontaneously and offers them the opportunity to instinctively produce language, which will potentially lead to native-like language performance, as well as motivating students to become language users as opposed to language learners (Ganta, 2015).

On the other hand, one of the main challenges of task-based language teaching is task difficulty and task sequencing in the curriculum. Moreover, although this type of teaching is stimulating, it fails to take into account individual learner differences and does not attend to their needs. Then, despite the fact that task-based language teaching aims to enhance communication in the target language, the learners' native language is excessively used in completing the tasks (Shaikh, 2013; Ganta, 2015; Hall, 2016).

To conclude this section, in order to improve the efficiency of the ELT and learning process, teachers should be knowledgeable about a range of

elements such as the curriculum, classroom management, instructions, assessment, appropriate teaching methods for the lessons and the learners' needs (Coe et al., 2014; Natsir and Sanjaya, 2014). In addition, the focus of teaching has to be shifted from teacher-oriented to learner-oriented. Furthermore, twenty-first century education needs to train students for new modes of thinking that besides language skills should include creativity, problem solving, critical thinking and teamwork (Biggs, 2011; Griffin and Care, 2014) in order to produce a different type of graduate better equipped to contribute to the workforce and more effectively serve the needs of society (Harfitt, 2015).

This part of the literature review has recognised the importance of learning English globally, reviewing the teaching of the four language skills in general, and addressing the language teaching methods and approach applied in Libya by English university teachers in particular. In addition, task-based language teaching has been discussed. The next section will focus on the assessment of the four language skills.

3.5 Assessment of the four language skills

Language scholars have broadly defined the four skills of the language as LSRW, considering them to be macro skills that are interconnected. Those skills are linked to each other through two specifications: the mode of communication, either oral or written; and the direction of communication, through either receiving or producing the message (Aydogan and Akbarov, 2014). Learning the language skills and assessment can be said to be related. In order to improve the effectiveness of tuition, teaching methods need to be aligned with the assessment methods and learning goals. Although language skills are strongly related, they must to be assessed independently in order to determine the nature and the extent of students' learning and achievement.

It is worth mentioning that the existing range of test formats and types are the result of outcome assessment needs in language learning. Language testing is typically described as assessing learners' language knowledge including the evaluation of vocabulary, grammar and the four skills (i.e. LSRW). Prior to

identifying the types of assessment, it is pertinent to understand the meaning of the test and its types.

Brown (2004:44) defined a test as “*a method of measuring a person’s ability, knowledge, or performance in a given domain*”, while Bachman (1990) claimed that a test is a measurement instrument designed to produce a particular sample of an individual’s behaviour, and that this is what differentiates one test from another. However, before designing a test it is important to determine its purpose, objectives, scoring type and the expected feedback in order to achieve an accurate measurement of the test-taker’s ability.

In the literature, three types of language classroom tests are identified: placement test, diagnostic test and achievement test (Brown, 2004; Fulcher, 2013). Firstly, the aim of the placement test is to position the student into a particular level of a language compared to the previous knowledge and ability of a student. Secondly, a diagnostic test is designed to identify specific aspects of a language such as pronunciation, which may detect the phonological features of the language. Finally, an achievement test is associated with classroom lessons and may be based on the entire curriculum. Achievement tests are characterised by their restriction to certain materials included in a particular curriculum and delivered at a precise time. Other types of language tests include proficiency tests, such as IELTS, TOEFL and the Pearson Test of English (O’Loughlin, 2014), which are employed specifically for satisfying job applications and entrance to university.

There are two types of assessment utilised during the language learning process: formative and summative assessment (Wolf and Butler, 2017; Carola and Viebrock, 2018). Formative assessments are usually described as classroom assessment or assessment for learning while the language course or programme is ongoing (Burke, 2010). They measure English language learners in two main areas: the level of English language proficiency, and the level of content knowledge. Therefore, the main benefit of conducting formative assessment is the valuable information it offers to teachers and curriculum designers, while supporting them in refining the quality of teaching for all learners and introducing the optimum teaching materials that meet the

learners' needs. The main reason for conducting a summative assessment is to obtain information on what students have learned in a given period within a content area. Usually, summative assessments are conducted at the end of formal classroom teaching, although the results may not deliver helpful feedback to teachers in terms of improving the instruction for those students (Andrade and Cizek, 2010; Fazlur, 2011). As pointed out by Herman and Baker (2005:1), teachers *"wisely recognise that information from annual state tests is often too little, too late"*.

According to Andrade and Cizek (2010), conducting a reliable and valid formative assessment of English language learners requires five main steps: i) using a reasonable number of questions, ii) delineating the test format, iii) establishing content and construct validity, iv) avoiding the ambiguous writing of questions, and v) obtaining feedback from learners. Nevertheless, summative or formative assessments can be easily achieved for English language learners if they do not contain redundant linguistic complexity.

Another type of language assessment introduced by Coombe (2012) is the traditional versus alternative language assessment. With traditional assessment learners need to answer multiple-choice questions, true–false questions or short-answer questions. Whereas, with alternative assessment, learners are assessed on what they integrate and produce rather than what they are able to memorise and reproduce. The alternative assessment is used to acquire a dynamic picture of the learners' competence development and to raise the awareness of the learners' acquisition process (Carola and Viebrock, 2018). Bailey (1998) developed a comparison between traditional and alternative language assessments, as seen in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Comparison between traditional and alternative assessment (Source: Bailey, 1998:207)

Traditional assessment	Alternative assessment
One-short test	Continuous, longitudinal assessment
Indirect tests	Direct tests
Inauthentic tests	Authentic tests
Individual projects	Group projects

No feedback provided to learners	Feedback provided to learners
Timed exams	Untimed exams
Decontextualized test tasks	Contextualized test tasks
Norm-referenced score interpretation	Criterion-referenced score interpretation
Standardised tests	Classroom-based tests

Overall, the most important consideration in designing and developing a language test is the use-case for which it is intended. Therefore, the most essential quality of a test is its usefulness, which can be tested by the quality tests validity and reliability, as explained in section 3.4.2.

3.5.1 English language assessment in Libya

In Libya, the Ministry of Higher Education controls the assessment procedure of higher education (El Hassan and Al-Hroub, 2013). This procedure is undertaken by the traditional method of examination, including English language assessment, where the first examination is located in the middle of the academic year and the second is sat at the end of the academic year. Therefore, the students' focus will be on how to obtain high marks and pass the exams rather than the learning itself (Jha, 2015). According to this approach, no regular evaluation of the learning progress can be achieved during the study period, consequently impacting on the students' motivation to learn. However, engaging students in monitoring their learning progress is likely to provide them with a clear picture of what they have acquired or are yet to learn from the lessons (Dainton, 2010; Zagood, 2015). The English examination papers are primarily focused on reading and writing skills, with other skills such as oral communication being ignored, which leads to limitations in the students' ability to answer spoken questions in English correctly. In addition, considerable challenges arise in terms of studying fields such as medicine and petroleum engineering that require a high level of English language proficiency (Najeeb, 2013). Despite students in Libya now studying English at all levels of education as a compulsory subject, they are unable to communicate authentically through conversation (Albukbak, 2008). English language assessment in Libya tends to be summative, and has been criticised for its focus on the memorisation and recollection of information, as

well as placing students under intense pressure at certain times of the academic year (Alhmali, 2007; Orafi and Borg, 2009; Shihiba, 2011).

3.6 Validity, reliability and washback in language assessment

Validity in language testing and assessment refers to determining whether a test examines precisely what it is intended to examine, or uncovering the suitability of a given test or any of its elements as a measure of what it is intended to measure. Validity is based on the assumption that when the examiner writes a test, he/she has the intention to measure factual elements and validity is concerned with whether a certain test measures its intended objectives (Fulcher and Davidson, 2007; Uysal, 2010).

According to D'Este (2012), there are four types of validity: i) predictive validity, which refers to measurement that is obtained sometime after the test has been administered; ii) concurrent validity, which is inspected when test score and criterion score are identified at the same time, and can be observed when one test is suggested as an alternative for another; iii) content validity, which is concerned with the degree to which the items of a test are applicable to the content domain of the test; and iv) construct validity, which is used when an examiner wants to determine that a certain component is valid by linking it to another component that is assumed to be valid. However, as a test can be valid only when its content and conditions are relevant, validity is one of the most important qualities of a language test, together with reliability.

Reliability can be defined as the consistency of measurement; what is considered to be a reliable test will have scores that will be consistent across different characteristics of testing scenarios. Therefore, reliability is the function of score consistency (Bachman and Palmer, 2005), and can also mean the "*trustworthiness*" or "*reproducibility*" of test scoring (Fulcher and Davidson, 2007:23,104). According to Chiedu and Omenogor (2014) there are four types of reliability in language testing and assessment, namely test–retest, parallel forms, inter-rater and item reliability, as described below.

- **Test–retest reliability:** Obtained by conducting the same test twice during a particular period of time with a group of learners. Then, the

scores from the two tests are compared to progressively assess the constancy of the test.

- **Parallel or alternate form reliability:** Achieved through producing two forms of the same test by changing test items fairly. In this case, the reliability is the parallel between the two test scores.
- **Inter-rater reliability:** Used to measure the degree to which different assessors reach agreement on the assessment decisions of the same test as their marking approach will differ.
- **Item reliability:** Utilised in order to measure the extent to which various test items investigating the same concept offer similar results as the test items may not be reliable; for example, they might be too easy or too challenging for students.

Tester fluctuation may be the reason behind the unreliability of a test, while reliability can cause a problem when the required test is time limited such as the IELTS test, since the students' ability will be different (Cheng and Watanabe, 2004; Fulcher and Davidson, 2007).

Validity and reliability are assessed by the degree to which the test has positively affected the teaching process. On the other hand, washback indicates the extent to which a test influences the language learners' focus and the teachers' instructions (Altowaim, 2015). Washback was also referred to as "*test impact, systematic validity, measurement driven instruction, curriculum alignment and backwash*" (Beikmahdavi, 2016:135).

Although a poor test should result in a negative influence, a good test should or could generate positive washback; however, the washback influence is typically understood as being negative since tests are considered to compel teachers to unwillingly modify their practice (Alderson and Banerjee, 2001; Cheng and Watanabe, 2004). Ultimately, washback can have a harmful influence, beneficial influence or no influence on educational practice.

Taylor (2005) reported that washback can have a positive influence on language learning when the testing process encourages teaching practice. In addition, this type of washback is considered to be a criterion for evaluating language tests. On the other hand, the negative influence of washback can manifest when an examination format and content are grounded in the

restricted meaning of language ability, consequently narrowing the learning and teaching settings.

Aftab et al. (2014) introduced two further types of washback: overt and covert washback. Overt washback is harmful and contains the obvious use of test papers or samples from textbooks, which highlight the skills employed in testing. Meanwhile, covert washback refers to the assumptions of how students learn.

Another classification is provided by Cheng and Watanabe (2004), who categorised washback according to the degree of strength and weakness of the types. While a strong washback type affects the entire activities that manifest in the classroom, a weak washback type influences only some of the teaching activities.

According to Spratt (2005), there are six parts of language teaching and learning that could be influenced by washback: teaching materials, curricula, teaching methods, learning process, attitudes and feelings. Similarly, Hughes (2003) considered that washback can influence learners, teachers, educational systems, and even the entire society. For the test washback to be positive, the management of language testing must notify the testers and teachers about their effective role in terms of offering improvements at the levels of the classroom and the learning programme. Thus, awareness of the part that the testers and teachers play in the changes that take place in the educational institution may present positive washback, which may lead to life-long learning (Spratt, 2005).

In summary, validity, reliability and washback play a significant role in language assessment and are mutually complementary, since washback is related to the influence of testing on learning and teaching, and validity and reliability are attributed to the effectiveness of washback in language testing.

3.7 The concept of curriculum

Within the literature, some confusion occurs over the terms 'syllabus' and 'curriculum'. Therefore, it is important to define the difference between the two.

Defining the syllabus and curriculum

The curriculum and syllabus are both important to an educational institution, with Richards (2013:6) stating that *“the term curriculum is used to refer to the overall plan or design for a course and how the content for a course is transformed into a blueprint for teaching and learning which enables the desired learning outcomes to be achieved”*. After the content has been chosen and structured into sequenced units, a syllabus is designed. Hall (2016) highlighted that curriculum is a superordinate term, whereas syllabus is a subordinate term. Therefore, the syllabus can be seen as a component of the curriculum that focus on what units will be taught to the students. Additionally, curriculum refers to the entire content of an educational programme, while the syllabus represents a single subject or content element. Therefore, a curriculum is broader and more extensive than a syllabus.

In order to review the role of the curriculum in teaching foreign language it is important to understand its meaning by providing a number of definitions. The term curriculum has many explanations in the literature, which may be narrow or broad in relation to what is involved and what is excluded in the statement definition. Although there is no universally agreed definition of curriculum, efforts have been made by many scholars to define what the curriculum is. Luke et al. (2013) defined the curriculum as the sum total of resources that are brought together for teaching and learning by teachers, students, and the community in classrooms and other learning environments. Whereas Barrow (2015:3) defined the curriculum as *“the prescribed content for the study”*. Coleman et al. (2003) argued that a curriculum is used to describe a course of study inclusive of the whole study programme to be followed to arrive at a certain goal. While Carter and Nunan (2001:221) believed that the *“curriculum is the aims, content, methodology and evaluation procedures of a particular subject or subjects taught in a particular institution or in any educational system”*. A more general definition of curriculum was provided by the American Association for the Advancement of Science (2001) as an arrangement of instructional activities functioning in an educational institution, which may include all grades and subjects and be planned for all students or only some part of them. Other descriptions are offered by Ylimaki (2013), who classified the curriculum through five dimensions: i) the intended curriculum, which

comprises the content learners are expected to learn, employing standards, guidelines and frameworks; ii) the enacted curriculum, which refers to what learners are actually taught in all classrooms; iii) the assessed curriculum, which can be defined as the knowledge acquired by students through formative and summative assessment; iv) the learned curriculum, which refers to students' outcomes on various assessments, or in other words the effects, intended or otherwise, of the educational experiences; and v) the hidden curriculum, which is implied to students through curricular choices or where schools are structured in daily educational routines.

Thus, it can be seen that the term curriculum has been defined through myriad lenses as the teaching and learning resources, the predetermined study content, and the subject's aims, methodology and evaluation. However, many practising lecturers and administrators still view the curriculum as *"the district or state telling them to teach from lists of standards or scope-and sequence charts"* (Graves, 2016:28). For the purpose of this research, curriculum can be defined as a framework that contains the course plan, subject(s) content, aims and objectives, teaching methods, assessment guide and requirements; furthermore, all of these components should interact harmoniously through considering the students' current and future needs. In other words, the curriculum must inform the teachers and students about the general plan of the learning process and must include important considerations such as identifying students' needs, selecting and organising content, selecting teaching and learning strategies, leading assessment and evaluation procedures. Nevertheless, these considerations have to be constructed based on the learners' profiles and background knowledge.

It is worth repeating that the teaching of the English language has become necessary in Libya to communicate with the wider world and to progress global development. For these reasons, the language is taught in schools and universities, although the teaching and learning of the English language in Libya is encountering a number of challenges that are responsible for the current phenomenon of students graduating with a low level of English language performance. These problems include the learners' difficulty in acquiring the English language, inadequate teaching materials and methods,

the mismatch between the curriculum and classroom activities, the gap in English learning between the school and university levels, quality assurance issues, lack of teacher training, low degree of management in the educational institutions and the absence of any regular evaluation of the English language programmes and curriculum.

The English language curriculum of both education stages (school and university) in Libya is suffering from a range of issues. As pointed out by Vandewalle (2012), educational programmes in Libya suffer from limited and fluctuating curricula. Furthermore, Sawani (2009) stated that the teaching of English at the university level features no fixed curriculum, with the head of the English department at higher education institutions being responsible for the preparation of general English materials to be taught for non-English-department students and the course descriptions to be taught to the English department students, while the teachers themselves are free to select whatever curriculum they prefer. In the same vein, Suwaed and Rahouma (2015:694) reported that one of the greatest educational challenges in Libya is that “*there is no consistent syllabus to teach in higher education*”.

This situation causes a lack of standardisation in curricula, even between lecturers in the same department. In other words, the English language curricula at the university level are not well designed because they are led by individuals as opposed to policy. Howard and Major (2004) found that teacher-designed materials were criticised in terms of their quality, being created without guidance, clear criteria or experience, while they may contain errors and be poorly structured, as well as lacking clarity in their design.

3.7.1 Language curriculum design

The history of curriculum development in language teaching demonstrates that curriculum design has remained a debateable issue since the 1940s. Each scholar holds a different view, with Richards (2001:2) defining curriculum design as a comprehensive process that contains activities used to identify

the needs of a group of learners, to develop aims or objectives for a programme to address those needs, to

determine an appropriate syllabus, course structure, teaching methods, and materials, and to carry out an evaluation of a language programme that result from those processes.

Curriculum design can also mean the proposed organisation of certain instructional blocks over time, with directions for how to navigate between them (American Association for the Advancement of Science, 2001). Nation and Macalister (2009) argued that language curriculum designers should take into account important elements such as the learning environment and the students' needs. When considering students' needs, three basic distinctions should be noted: necessities, or rather the required knowledge for the learners to function efficiently in practising the target language; lacks, which refers to the learners' previous knowledge, and the knowledge gap that needs to be filled; and wants, or in other words what the learners believe they require. Defining students' needs is fundamental to selecting appropriate content that has the potential to guarantee successful teaching and learning. Then, following the learning principles provided by existing research is vital to obtain a valuable guide to course content and designing curriculum. Furthermore, there is the identification of learning goals, which offers particular ideas of what the students are expected to learn, since having clear goals can guide the assessment process and support the students' learning experience. The next element that should be known to curriculum designers is content and sequencing, whereby the content of the language course comprises the language items and strategies that meet the goals of the course, while the sequencing refers to the logical order of the language lesson units. In other words, the course designers must manage the lesson units and curriculum content in a reprocessed way in order to attain the desired learning results. Finally, there is the format and presentation, whereby the course material must be presented in a manner that supports learning (Christison and Murray, 2014).

Presenting the teaching material should harness appropriate teaching strategies. Establishing a format for lessons can make the objectives easier to achieve, while supporting the monitoring of the course. In other words, identifying a suitable format and an effective presentation for the course

material can lead to a harmonised and successful teaching and learning process. Finally, the monitoring and assessment of curriculum design focuses on setting valuable course goals, whereas the evaluation of curriculum design refers to assessing whether certain goals of a course were indeed achieved. The monitoring and assessing of the learning outcomes can be conducted through a formative or summative approach (Nation and Macalister, 2009). In short, for the curriculum design to be successful, it should involve continuous review and development both during and after the initial design process.

The nature of the language curriculum is different from other curricula, since the language curriculum must include a wealth of instructional and communicative activities in order to enable the students to engage with the language inside the classroom, and independently in the outside world (Al-Subahi, 2001). A language curriculum should include materials that have an impact on learners; language materials can achieve influence through novelty, variety, attractive presentation and appealing content. In addition, language teaching material should be perceived by learners as being appropriate, beneficial and able to facilitate their self-investment. Furthermore, the curriculum designers should provide the students with materials that enhance the use of the target language in order to achieve effective communication. Moreover, language curriculum designers should take into account that learners differ in terms of their learning style. In other words, language activities should vary and cater for all learning styles (Tomlinson, 2011). Despite classroom activities requiring additional time and effort to set up and carry out, they enhance the quality of teaching and maintain a positive learning environment (Bergig, 2017).

Nunez and Tellez (2009) asserted that for EFL learning materials to be effective they should be based on several key components. Initially, there is the needs assessment procedure that supports the learners and teachers to achieve effective teaching and learning settings. Secondly, it is necessary to establish goals and objectives that are adequate to meet the students' needs and support through establishing appropriate content and activities, although the selection of classroom activities must consider a range of factors such as the purpose of the course, the learners' age and their needs. Finally, the

teaching materials cannot lead to successful teaching and learning in the EFL context without being linked to the learners' needs in order to facilitate the learning process. Moreover, one of the most important components when attempting to achieve an effective language curriculum design is determining the appropriate teaching methods and approaches. The teaching methods and delivery of lessons in an organised manner should be consistent with the curriculum's goals and content, while being designed and refined according to the learners' requirements.

3.7.2 Language curriculum evaluation

There is no agreed single definition for evaluation in the literature, which has been considered to be a particularly challenging term to define. Barrow (2015:8) pointed out that *“curriculum evaluation is a matter not of evaluating pupils' performance in relation to a curriculum but of assessing whether curricula are achieving their aims or can be judged to be worthwhile”*. Curriculum evaluation is concerned with the effectiveness of all conditions, both planned and unplanned, that potentially have an influence on learning; in addition, evaluation must be adaptive to the values and philosophy underlying a given educational process (Skager and Dave, 2014). As mentioned previously, the general curriculum and the language curriculum are dissimilar. Therefore, language curriculum evaluation ought to consider specific principles grounded in language instruction and pedagogy, while the evaluation should be based on the usability of material (Al-Subahi, 2001). The evaluation of a language curriculum may include many objectives, the most important of which being whether to continue, to discontinue or to improve it. Responsible curriculum design includes the ongoing evaluation of the curriculum (Nation and Macalister, 2009).

3.8 An overview of syllabus design

3.8.1 Syllabus

Syllabi are a vital component of a higher education institution's structure, as per the students, physical infrastructure and books (Fink, 2012). According to

Parkes and Harris (2002), the word 'syllabus' was first coined in the English language in 1656, where it was used to refer to an outline of lectures. Therefore, a syllabus in general can be defined as a structured summary or outline of what should be taught and learned across the educational institution. In addition, it can be considered as the official map of any subject (Luke et al., 2013). Syllabi or curricula are one of the essential components of any language teaching programme and their function is to specify the 'what' or the content of language learning and teaching. The two terms are often used interchangeably, and although they may share similar characteristics, they are different (Kumaravadivelu, 2006).

According to Carter and McCarthy (2014), the EFL syllabus can be defined as a set of headings indicating items that have been selected, by a language planner or material writer, to be addressed in a particular part of the curriculum or in a course series. Furthermore, a well-designed language teaching syllabus should essentially aim i) to indicate the aims and objectives of learning and teaching; ii) to clarify the classroom procedures the lecturer may wish to follow; iii) to be a basis for assessing learners' improvement; and iv) its content should be appropriate to the broader language curriculum (Bareen, 2001; Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Meanwhile, Dubin and Olshtain (2000) suggested a number of items that a syllabus needs to contain: i) a list of programme objectives; ii) a list of the content for each course; iii) suggested techniques and procedures for the manner of teaching the course content; and iv) recommendations to process the assessment and evaluation mechanisms.

Despite the fact that syllabi provide the courses with a framework, learning ultimately depends on the interaction between the teacher and the students within the classroom, and on the teaching methods, activities, materials and procedures employed by the teacher (Richards and Renandya, 2002). Nevertheless, the connection or the contact between learners and teachers can be established as a result of a well-designed syllabus.

3.8.1.1 Language syllabus design

According to Kachru (2006), designing a language course includes many aspects such as how a selected syllabus will be adapted to a certain learning level and to the local context, how the lesson units will be structured, and by means of what methodology the syllabus content will be delivered to the learners. Similarly, Zheng (2013:37) claimed that *“when designing a syllabus, the teaching goal and teaching methods should be clearly included in the syllabus. Besides, topics or tasks can also be included in it”*. Moreover, the procedure of syllabus design in language teaching normally involves gauging the needs of students, selecting teaching approaches and materials, and determining the tools and criteria for assessment (Richards and Renandya, 2002). Similarly, Graves (2000) reported that designing a language course involves many stages such as establishing the learning objectives and determining the content, materials, methods and evaluation strategy. He illustrated these steps through the framework presented in Figure 3.1 below.

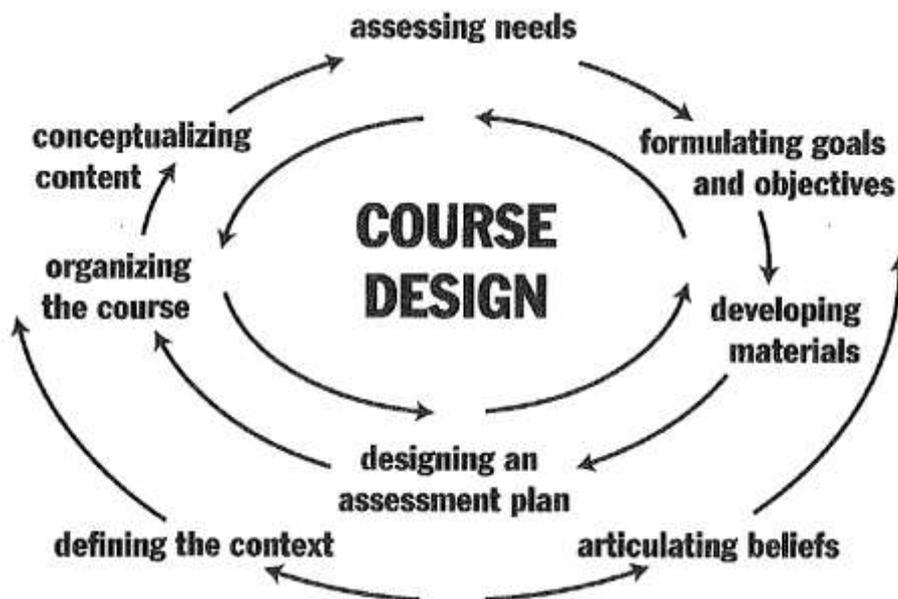


Figure 3.1 A framework of the course development process (Source: Graves, 2000:3)

The above framework illustrates that the process of designing a language course is not hierarchical and the starting point should rely on the designer's understanding and beliefs, the context and knowledge about the learners. Therefore, selecting a certain type of syllabus is an important decision in language teaching programmes that is dependent upon the setting.

3.8.1.2 Types of language teaching syllabi

Several types of language teaching syllabi have been introduced in the language teaching field. Typically, in an individual course, two or more syllabi can be combined for the reason that language syllabi tend to have a number of features in common. In addition, they are built on communicative aims that focus on communicative competence as a specific language teaching goal, as well as the interdependence of language and communication (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Rahimpour (2010) indicated six recent language teaching syllabi: the structural syllabus, notional or functional syllabus, situational syllabus, skill-based syllabus, content-based syllabus and task-based syllabus. These syllabi can be categorised as either synthetic or analytic (Thakur, 2013).

The structural/traditional syllabus is designed primarily when the purpose of tuition is to teach the basic grammatical structures and sentence patterns of the English language. The vocabularies in a structural syllabus are selected in a manner that enables the grammatical structures to be taught, with the students being taught these structures step by step to extend their grammar collection and help them to grasp the language. Structural patterns are identified as the vital components of learning and arranged according to criteria such as the structural complexity, difficulty, regularity, utility and frequency (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Knapp et al., 2009).

On the other hand, the functional-notional syllabus is one in which the contents of language teaching are organised in terms of the 'function', identified as the communicative purposes for which we use language, and the 'notion' being the concept and meanings that are expressed through language. Structural syllabi and functional-notional syllabi have faced similar criticisms of dividing

the language into disconnected parts, leading to the misrepresentation of the nature of language as communication (Nunan, 2004; Rahimpour, 2010). Moreover, the functional-notional syllabus model was criticised by British applied linguists as it merely substitutes a single kind of list, such as grammar items, with another such as a notions and functions list, while being more concerned with products than communicative processes (Richards and Rodgers, 2014).

The situational syllabus primarily aims to teach the language that takes place in real-life situations. This syllabus is described as learner-centred, with the lens of focus placed on the learner who is expected to actively perform and apply the language in a range of situations. The situational syllabus helps in terms of motivating learners to practise the language while recognising concerns regarding learner needs. However, it has many limitations such as certain real-life situations that cannot be included in this type of syllabus, while grammatical structures are not organised in an efficient manner that can benefit learners in terms of their acquisition (Rahimpour, 2010).

The skill-based syllabus is essentially designed with the aim of developing the learners' four skills by using the target language. The initial step of designing this type of syllabus is to list the target language skills that should be acquired by the learners. Then, the syllabus designers provide a series of units and topics according to the required language skills, where the syllabus's units may include grammatical forms and structures, vocabulary and pronunciation. As the skill-based syllabus is grounded in integrating the four language skills, the learners should master the ability to write well-formed paragraphs, read and listen to the main ideas (Thakur, 2013; Smriti and Jha, 2015). However, skill-based syllabi have been criticised on the basis that the ability to achieve specific tasks in a language is either dependent on or independent of overall language proficiency. Moreover, the skill-based syllabus is particularly limited in scope, which may isolate learners from other language achievements that they may require in their broader language proficiency (Rajaei et al., 2012; Jalilzadeh and Tahmasebi, 2014).

The content-based/topical syllabus is developed with the agreement of the principles of English for specific purposes. In other words, the learners employ the foreign language to enable the study of other subjects to simultaneously improve their subject knowledge and develop their foreign language skills proficiency. The advantage of using the content-based syllabus is that learners obtain new and varied information in each class. However, although the content-based syllabus was developed to enhance foreign language through content, vital language parts such as grammar may not be improved because they are not a central focus of the syllabus (Thakur, 2013; Smriti and Jha, 2015).

In contrast, task-based syllabus content is “*specified in terms of a sequence of tasks*” that the learners must perform, with these tasks identified as activities that are required in the use of the target language (Shintani, 2016:15). According to Salimi et al. (2012), the task-based approach to syllabus design can have three forms:

1. **The procedural syllabus** was first suggested in the 1970s by Prabhu. It was created on the principle that structure can be best learned when the focus is on meaning. In other words, the language can be acquired when the learners’ attention is focused on the meaning rather than the language form. This proposal of a task-based syllabus is described as being learning-centred due to its shift from a linguistic to a pedagogical focus (Baleghizadeh, 2015).
2. **The process syllabus** emphasises the entire learning process and is based on the assumption that learning is a product of negotiation. Accordingly, its focus is placed on the learner and learning as opposed to the language and language learning. The learners are significantly involved in deciding the tasks, objectives, content and methodology of the course, unlike the procedural syllabus where the learner is given a limited role in selecting the tasks that are primarily controlled by teachers, although the process syllabus has been criticised for the absence of evaluative components (Rahimpour, 2008).
3. **Task-based language teaching** is based on the belief that learners acquire language effectively when their attention is focused on tasks

rather than other language items. It provides learners with opportunities to become involved in communication with the purpose of task completion. On the other hand, the implementation of task-based language teaching is challenging because of the difficulty of task selection and sequencing for teaching and assessment (Rahimpour, 2008; Baleghizadeh, 2015; Benson, 2016).

In this context, it is valuable to consider the design of a task-based syllabus, where the foundation of the syllabus construction is specifying the tasks to be included, which comprises task selection, sequencing, type and content. To order tasks, appropriate criteria for grading their level of difficulty for the learner have to be acknowledged.

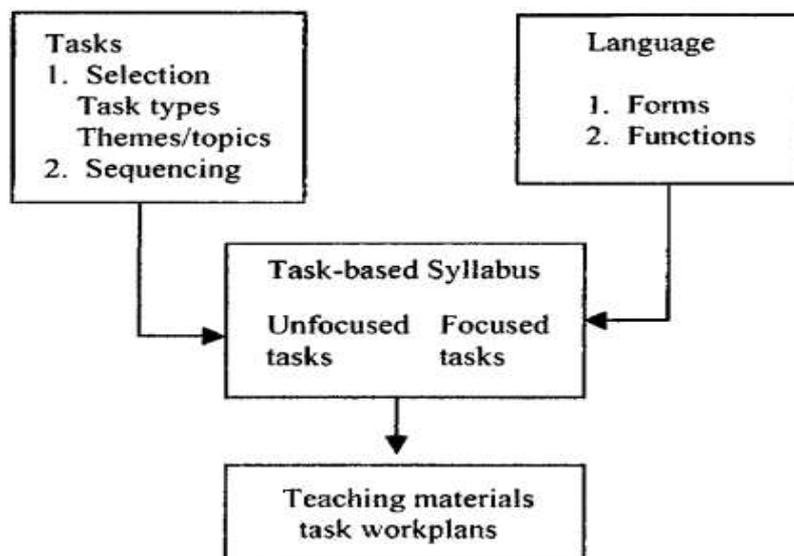


Figure 3.2 The process of designing a task-based syllabus (Adopted from Ellis, 2003:66)

To summarise, it is important to note that no single type of syllabus is applicable for all teaching contexts since each context has its own particular requirements and characteristics. In other words, during the process of designing a syllabus, all possible factors that may influence the effectiveness of a particular syllabus should be taken into consideration, which will potentially lead to the discovery of a practical solution to the issue of appropriateness and effectiveness in syllabus design and implementation. In Libya, English language students have to finish four years at university level to graduate from English language department as school English teachers. Therefore, the syllabus they study throughout these four years have to be

work-oriented syllabus i.e. prepares them to become well-trained, professional English teachers. Focusing on improving their knowledge about how to design a lesson plan, how to design various tests and how to conduct an appropriate assessment for their pupils work and provide them with the necessary theoretical and practical knowledge of teaching. It is worth mentioning that, this is the first degree that who wanted to continue further studies in translation or MA studies of English field to serve aforementioned country needs must obtain.

3.8.2 Teaching material and its evaluation

It is essential for English language teachers to have good knowledge regarding the evaluation of learning materials, and it is pertinent to define the meaning of 'materials' before defining its evaluation. Teaching materials can refer to anything that is used by teachers and learners to aid in the process of language learning and teaching, including books, videos and dictionaries. Similarly, Richards (2001:251) described teaching materials as "*a key component in most language programmes. Whether the teacher uses a textbook, institutionally prepared material, or his or her own materials*". Furthermore, materials may differ due to their reliance on the learners' needs and contexts, while materials can be distinctive to their origin and place of production, whether local or global (McGrath, 2013). In the language learning context materials can serve three functions: teacher education, exposure to the language, and an information vehicle (Mishan, 2015).

According to Ahmed (2017), language teaching materials are currently technology focused. In order to use dated teaching materials and to enhance language proficiency, classrooms have to be well equipped with audio-video equipment, computers and overhead projectors. Thus, teachers require a broad variety of sources to employ as teaching materials, for instance, films, interviews, posters, and conversations for short dialogues (Walker and White, 2013; Martín-Monje et al., 2016). In addition, with the existence of the Internet, it becomes possible for language learners to be engaged in a rich language environment that is accessible 24 hours a day with myriad opportunities to use the language they have acquired with other speakers and learners worldwide

(Satya, 2008; Renandya and Widodo, 2016). In other words, learning and using the English language is no longer restricted to the classroom.

Some teachers, however, may belittle the process of developing material, since preparing effective learning materials is not a straightforward task. In similarity with planning and teaching lessons, developing materials involves preparation, representation, selection, adaption, and tolerating learner features (Richards, 2001). In general, technology in language learning has become a necessity, since *“institutions that lag behind in integrating technology will be unable to meet the needs of knowledge and will not survive the change in paradigm of education”* (Al-Mahrooqi and Troudi, 2014:1). Unfortunately, for Libyan lecturers, teaching materials creation remain difficult because of the lack of proper resources. Therefore, lecturers have to utilise their own resources to make the learning process proceed, they use the internet cafes out of the university to get access to the Internet under their own cost and put a copy from the handout in a little stationery shop near the university to enable students buy a copy and use it during the lecture.

Materials evaluation can also be defined as a process that includes assessing the value of a collection of learning materials. The materials evaluation phase comprises forming judgements regarding the effect of the materials on the people using them and attempts to examine the credibility, validity, reliability or suitability of these materials (Tomlinson, 2014). McDonough and Shaw (2012) reported two main stages of materials evaluation: external evaluation to obtain a summarised overview of the materials, and internal evaluation to perform an in-depth examination of the learning materials.

In the literature, there are three different types of materials evaluation: pre-use, in-use and post-use evaluation. The pre-use evaluation of material involves projections regarding the potential value of the materials for their users. While in-use materials evaluation involves assessing the worth of materials while they are actually being used, or while assuming they are being used. The post-use evaluation of materials is described as the most advantageous type of evaluation, due to its assessment of the actual impact of the materials on the users (Tomlinson, 2014). However, both in-use and

post-use materials evaluations can be beneficial in focusing on the appropriateness of the materials and the selection criteria employed to choose them, since the success or failure of teaching materials can only be accurately concluded during or following their use in the classroom (Alkhaldi, 2010).

Materials evaluation can also be conducted by developing a set of criteria and sub-criteria. One means of developing criteria is to brainstorm a group of international criteria that can be utilised to evaluate language learning materials in any global location and for any learner, while another method is by developing local criteria that relate to a particular setting and are then used to assess the value of the learning materials for specific learners. Another point regarding the evaluation of materials is that materials analysis and evaluation differ in terms of the procedures and goals. An analysis focuses on introducing an objective study of the learning and teaching materials, while an evaluation is concerned with making judgements on the effects of the materials on their users (Tomlinson, 2014).

Ultimately, conducting materials evaluation in an efficient manner not only supports the collection of information regarding the effectiveness of the materials, but can also support the evaluators in terms of developing their knowledge of learning and teaching materials, while helping them to become proficient in conducting quick and effective evaluation when necessary.

3.9 The importance of needs analysis in English language teaching

It is crucial to define what is meant by 'needs' before any discussion of needs analysis. Long (2005) related language needs to language practitioners and learners' reported needs, and what they demand regarding language use such as improved language skills. In the literature, needs are categorised into many types. Nation and Macalister (2009) divided needs into two types: target needs and learning needs. Target needs refer to what the learners are required to do in the target situation, while learning needs refer to what the learners are required to do in order to learn. Target needs involve defining three elements: i) necessities, which are essential in the learners' use of language; ii) gaps, in terms of establishing where the students have a deficiency, such as a certain

skill; and iii) wants, which refer to what the learner desires to learn. Furthermore, Stufflebeam et al. (2012) identified four types of needs:

- Any defined gap between the future preferred students' language performances and what they can presently achieve.
 - Any learning goals that are desired by the stakeholders involved.
 - Whatever the learners would obviously learn given their background knowledge.
 - Any language essentials or skills that would be detrimental if absent.
- (Sadeghi et al., 2014)

Defining learners' needs is a means of notifying curriculum developers and syllabus designers about the potential goals and objectives of curriculum or syllabus (Songhori, 2008; Ramani and Pushpanathan, 2015; Yassi, 2018). Identifying needs is not an easy process, and hence the term has different definitions that may refer to requirements, demands, desires, gaps or expectations (Richards, 2001).

The needs analysis (also known as the needs assessment) is considered as an essential part of foreign language curriculum refinement and evaluation. From a language learning perspective, the needs analysis often means "*describing the difference between what a learner can presently do in a language and what he or she should be able to do*" (Richards, 2001:54). On the contrary, Brown (2016) defined the needs analysis as the analysis of all the necessary subjective and objective information to delineate the curriculum objectives that satisfies the language learning requirements of learners. Watkins et al. (2012), in turn, described the needs analysis as a tool to help teachers generate better decisions. Moreover, the needs analysis can be described as a systematic method to delineate a precise set of skills and communicative practices that a particular group of learners must acquire (Cummins and Davison, 2007). Likewise, Richards and Rodgers (2014) related the needs analysis to organised analysis intended to develop the learners' communicative needs. Defining students' needs is an important step to reduce the gap between their current level and their desired level.

The initial stage of conducting the needs analysis is to identify the purpose of the analysis, which can be carried out for many purposes: i) assessment to establish to what extent an existing curriculum is sufficient for the learners' needs; ii) to ascertain the skills learners require in order to achieve satisfactory performance in the target context; iii) to identify the gap between the learners' needs and their current capacity; and iv) to examine the efficiency of a dominant programme (Richards, 2001; Richards and Rodgers, 2014; Veena, 2016). From the above definitions, it can be said that the needs analysis in the language learning context is fundamentally conducted to gather information about the learners and their learning environment, including the teachers, classrooms, classroom activities and tasks, in order to reduce the gaps impeding the achievement of language proficiency.

In summary, the needs analysis has an essential role in second language learning; it is considered imperative in that it helps the components of the learning process (i.e. teachers and teaching materials) to perform in a harmonised manner that accelerates the students' learning. Regrettably, research on foreign language learners' needs has not been widely conducted in Arab countries in general, and in Libya in particular. Consequently, English language teachers do not generally have sufficient awareness about their learners' needs. Therefore, learners graduate with poor English proficiency because the analysis of their needs is not conducted properly or may not have even taken place (Huhta et al., 2013; Haque, 2014; Alqunayeer and Zamir, 2016).

3.9.1 Studies on needs analysis in English language learning

Numerous studies have been carried out in different parts of the world with the intention of assessing learners' needs and reviewing educational programmes. Boroujeni and Fard (2013) reported that the needs analysis can be beneficial in defining whether a programme should be implemented by discovering whether it matches the goals and objectives of the language learners, while it can simultaneously be helpful in refining many components of the programme and adjusting them to meet the learners' needs.

Chen et al. (2016) conducted a study to examine the needs analysis of English learning from the perspectives of learners and the real needs of employers in the workplace. The data were collected quantitatively and the findings show that the skills learned in schools do not fully match those skills required in the workplace.

Another study was carried out by Al-Hamlan (2015) to investigate learners' needs at secondary schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, with the data gathered by questionnaire and interview. The study results reveal that the students' speaking and listening skills were lower than the other skills. In addition, the findings show that the students needed technology to be included in the curriculum. The researcher proposed conducting regular needs analysis to enhance the English language curriculum, with attention to identifying the learners' needs. A similar study was carried out by Ulum (2015) to assess the needs for the development of speaking skills in a preparatory class of students at Çukurova University in Turkey. The data were collected by questionnaire, with the findings highlighting that the programme in general and the speaking course in particular were adequate to fulfil the learners' needs. However, the researcher suggested the inclusion of more helpful practice material and activities to allow the learners to achieve a higher level of speaking competency.

Sothan (2015) conducted a study to explore the English language needs of undergraduate students at Life University in Cambodia, where the data were collected by questionnaire. The findings suggest that the language programme needs to be revised to introduce more effective English language courses to meet the students' needs, such as establishing an intensive speaking course and an academic writing course.

As stated in the previous section, the needs analysis can be conducted for many purposes, with the above-mentioned studies demonstrating that conducting needs analysis, even in a certain part of an education programme, can contribute towards reviewing and refining the existing curriculum to better meet the learners' needs (Richards, 2001). However, prior to running a

language programme, it is fundamental to consider the students' needs in order to ensure that the target needs can be achieved.

3.10 Defining the programme evaluation and its function

Evaluation has different meanings to different scholars. Some researchers hold the opinion that evaluation is related to measurement and assessment, whereas others argue that it is fundamentally the process of gathering and affording information to support decision-makers to function effectively. Conducting evaluation research varies due to its dependence on different carries, using dissimilar methods and different ways of implementing the findings (Imani, 2013). According to Darussalam (2010:58), "*Programme Evaluation from the perspective of education means an assessment of a teaching programme whether it is effective or vice versa*". However, King and Stevahn (2012) defined programme evaluation as a process of systematic inquiry to provide robust information regarding the characteristics, activities, or outcomes of a programme or policy for a valued purpose. Norris (2006:579) defined evaluation as follows:

Evaluation is the gathering of information about any of the variety of elements that constitute educational programmes, for a variety of purposes that primarily include understanding, demonstrating, improving, and judging programme value. Evaluation brings evidence to bear on the problems of programmes, but the nature of that evidence is not restricted to one particular methodology.

Therefore, programme evaluation refers to the collection of relevant information on which judgment can be made surrounding the worth and the effectiveness of a particular programme, its future, whether to retain the programme as it stands, to improve or to cancel it (Hussain et al., 2011; Al-Jardani, 2012).

Programme evaluation has several purposes and tasks. It can be carried out to deliver information in order to sustain and improve programme quality, while it can also be carried out to compare alternative programmes with current or existent programmes, to examine the results and to identify any negative

effects (Posavac, 2015). The foremost purpose of programme evaluation in the education field is to support long-term programme improvement with the fundamental goal of improving student learning. Furthermore, the main concern of language programme evaluation is to ensure that acquisition is taking place, teaching techniques and strategies are beneficial, the materials are relevant and motivating, and the resources are available and adequate (Hussain et al., 2011; Zohrabi, 2011).

Evaluation typically covers the assessment of one or more of the following five programme domains: the necessity of the programme, the design of the programme, programme implementation and service delivery, programme impact or outcomes, and programme efficiency. The evaluation of any programme domain requires an accurate description of the programme performance or characteristics at issue, and the assessment of their relevant standards or criteria (Rossi et al., 2003). Yang (2009) pointed out that for a programme to be successful and to achieve its objectives it must have an in-built evaluation plan, which must be designed and fully utilised during the design phase. In addition, frequent programme evaluation may lead to new insights and information that were unexpected (Frechtling, 2002).

3.10.1 Categories of evaluation

The literature indicates a number of different types of evaluation. where identification of these types varies depending on certain goals, criteria and timing. Evaluation can offer benefit by enhancing the quality and quantity of education, which was classified as formative and summative during the 1960s (Chen, 2005). On the other hand, Houser (2014) highlighted three main types of evaluation: need, formative and summative evaluation. Each evaluation type has its own characteristics and means of implementation (Frechtling, 2002; Chen, 2005). For an enhanced understanding of the main types of evaluation, the next section will cover those types in detail.

3.10.1.1 Formative vs summative evaluation

As mentioned earlier, there are two main types of evaluation—formative and summative—in addition to other secondary evaluation types that have been

designed to support those key types. According to Flagg (2013), formative evaluation is related to the process of collecting information to guide the design, production, and implementation decisions of a programme, whereas summative evaluation is employed to assess the value of a programme. The evaluation type can be determined by the purpose for using data as opposed to the nature of collecting the data (Stufflebeam and Shinkfield, 2007; Aboulsoud, 2011; Ylimaki, 2013; Biggs and Collis, 2014). Therefore, formative evaluations emphasise issues related to programme development and improvement, while summative evaluations focus on the overall programme success (Grinnell et al., 2012). Consequently, formative evaluation results are commonly offered to those who are implementing a programme, whereas summative evaluation results are provided to decision makers (Houser, 2014). The evaluation of a language programme is the best approach to ensure that it remains valid and up to date, with Peacock (2009) reporting that the *“evaluation of English programmes is the starting point on the way towards professionalization of the field of ELT, therefore systematic evaluation should be placed at the very heart of a programme”*. Formative and summative evaluation can both be used to evaluate a language programme for the purposes of obtaining in-depth information to support its improvement and reform (Richards, 2001).

The present research can be described as a formative evaluative study as it is carried out while the programme is being taught at Zawia University. This study aims to identify the strengths and the weaknesses of the current English language programme at Zawia University with the intention of ensuring a high standard of education for EFL students at the institution.

3.10.1.2 Product vs process evaluation

The literature defines another evaluation type, which is the evaluation of the product and process of the programme. Product evaluation emphasises awareness of whether the programme has achieved its goals, whereas process evaluation is aimed at accelerating the programme’s implementation, assessing its functionality and how that leads to the achievement of the programme goals, in addition to examining the relationships that exist between

the programme's exposure and implementation (Campbell et al., 2007; Vedung, 2017).

According to Chen (2005), product evaluation is conducted to assess the qualities of a product and to determine the range of meeting the requirements of recipients. For that reason, researchers evaluate production to determine whether there is merit in continuing the programme or whether modification or improvement is required (Stufflebeam and Shinkfield, 2007). Bennett (2003) criticised product evaluation for focusing solely on the programme outcomes, while neglecting the other facets of the programme.

As mentioned earlier, process evaluation assesses the extent to which a programme is functioning as anticipated by measuring the ongoing programme tasks and responsibilities. Unlike product evaluation, process evaluation offers an opportunity to explore all aspects of a programme and allows researchers the ability to explore how the programme is delivered, besides assessing the reasons for its success or failure in terms of performance (Bowie and Bronte-Tinkew, 2008). A further aspect is that product evaluation is related to summative evaluation, while process evaluation is linked to informative evaluation.

In the present study, process and product evaluation are followed because they are part of the model of evaluation that is utilised by this study, namely the CIPP model that is concerned with the evaluation of context, input, process and product.

3.11 The classification of programme evaluation approaches

Evaluation programmes are applied in many parts of the world and across different fields for many purposes using differing approaches. Despite evaluation being well established, it is considered as a relatively young field because of its unofficial utilisation by humans (Hogan, 2007). Stufflebeam et al. (2000) defined seven development eras of programme evaluation: i) the period of reform prior to 1900; ii) the period of efficiency from 1900 to 1930; iii) the tylerian age from 1930 to 1945; iv) the innocence period from 1946 to 1957; v) the development period from 1958 to 1972; vi) the age of professionalisation

from 1973 to 1983; and vii) the age of expansion and integration from 1983 to 2000.

Hogan (2007) reported the introduction of evaluation approaches as dating back to the 1930s. Different approaches have been classified by different researchers over the years depending on the purpose of the evaluation. Worthen et al. (1997) and Fitzpatrick et al. (2004) categorised the evaluation approaches into six types: objective-oriented, management-oriented, consumer-oriented, expertise-oriented, adversary-oriented and participant-oriented. In addition, other newly emergent approaches such as CIRO and the Phillip's evaluation approach are commonly found.

Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007) grouped 26 programme evaluation approaches into five categories based on their utility, feasibility, propriety and accuracy:

- Pseudo evaluations approaches
- The questions' evaluation approaches
- Improvement- and accountability-oriented evaluation approaches
- Social agenda and advocacy approaches
- Eclectic evaluation

The context, input, process and product (CIPP) evaluation model that is implemented by this study is related to the improvement- and accountability-oriented approach. This model will be described in detail in the next part.

3.12 Models of programme evaluation

Nowadays, evaluators have more evaluation approaches to choose from as a result of the increase in twenty-first century challenges, such as the decisions-oriented approach and client-centered approach. The evaluation approach is defined as the procedure by which the evaluator undertakes the collection of data (Spaulding, 2014). Stufflebeam (2001) attempted to categorise 22 evaluation approaches depending on their suitability of the current time's challenges, which he divided into keepers and throwback after assessing their strengths and weaknesses. According to his categorisation, the most appropriate programme evaluation approaches are client-centred, decision-making, evaluative case studies and outcome evaluation. However, selecting

an evaluation approach is primarily determined by the purpose of evaluation (Stufflebeam, 2001; Worthen, 2001; Posavac, 2015), in addition to the “*philosophical ideologies, cognitive styles, methodological preferences, values and practical perspectives*’ (Tunc, 2010:21). Generally, the main reason behind any programme evaluation is to determine the programme’s worth or merit, as described by Spaulding (2014) in Figure 3.3.

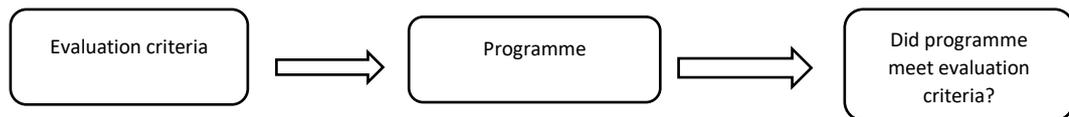


Figure 3.3 Determining programme worth or merit (Source: Spaulding, 2014:43)

It is possible for an evaluator to create one evaluation model or to employ a combination of models, depending on the purpose of the evaluation. This study applies the CIPP model since it offers a full picture of the English language programme’s strengths and weaknesses. Other models of evaluation will be summarised in the following section.

3.12.1 The Kirkpatrick model

According to McNamara et al. (2010), the Kirkpatrick model was introduced about five decades ago and categorised as a goal-based evaluation model. The evaluation achieved by employing this model can be realised by taking into consideration four separate levels of evaluation:

- **Level 1- Reaction:** what the participants thought of a programme.
- **Level 2- Learning:** the changes in knowledge, skills or attitude with respect to the training objectives.
- **Level 3- Behaviour:** changes in behaviour resulting from the programme to identify whether the learning is being applied.
- **Level 4- Results:** the outcome contribution of the training programme.

(Tamkin et al., 2002)

The Kirkpatrick model is primarily introduced to evaluate training programmes and typically in the business and industry fields, and it may not be appropriate to other programmes. Moreover, critics of this model asserted that the evaluation process may not always produce genuinely meaningful, long-term results (Wang, 2010).

3.12.2 Outcome-based evaluation model

The outcome-based evaluation model measures whether the beneficiaries of a certain programme have received their requirements and services, because it is based on the assumption that the effectiveness and efficiency of a programme can be assessed by its achieved outcomes (Wang, 2010).

Schalock (2001) reported that an outcome evaluation model utilises different types of evaluation. The evaluation of the extent to which a programme meets its objectives is referred to as 'effectiveness evaluation', measuring whether a programme makes a difference compared to an alternative programme is termed 'impact evaluation', and assessing the effectiveness of policy outcomes is known as 'policy evaluation', with all these evaluation types considering the outcomes of a programme from a different perspective.

The main advantage of outcome evaluation is that databases of outcomes are generated that can be used as a comparative base over the time, and can also be employed as a means to improved outcomes in subsequent periods. In addition, this approach is successful in terms of evaluating the learning process in classrooms due to its usage of standardised tests that enhance students' knowledge and skills. However, the outcome evaluation approach has been criticised as it is reliant on quantitative information and does not afford the in-depth documentation of programme inputs and processes, while makes slight in case of using any qualitative methods in collecting information (Stufflebeam, 2001).

3.12.3 Stufflebeam's CIPP model

The CIPP model is one of most popular evaluation models. It was developed by Guba, and further extended by Stufflebeam in 1965 (Patil and Kalekar, 2015; Stufflebeam and Zhang, 2017). It essentially provides a highly systematic means of examining many different aspects of a programme due to its evaluation of four domains—context, input, process and product. It is also designed to provide definitive and valid information for decision makers and quality assurance (Wang, 2010).

This model was introduced to confront the weaknesses of traditional evaluation approaches and has been improved many times to allow social and educational programmes to be examined in a comprehensive and systematic manner. As pointed out by Zhang et al. (2011:63), *“the model can help guide needs assessment and planning, monitor the process of implementation, and provide feedback and judgment of the programme’s effectiveness for continuous improvement”*.

In Stufflebeam’s model, four types of evaluation are identified by the acronym CIPP, which represents an entity’s ‘context’, ‘input’, ‘process’ and ‘product’, as indicated in Figure 3.4 below. The CIPP components of evaluation play an important and essential role in the planning, implementation, and assessment of a programme. The four evaluation types will be detailed in the following section.

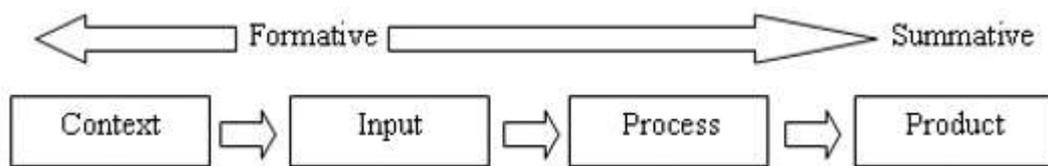


Figure 3.4 Components of the CIPP model of evaluation

Context Evaluation

Context evaluation is used to define the programme’s goals and priorities, and to verify that the goals are directed to address needs and problems. In the last part of the evaluation process the evaluator must give up-to-date, contextualised and evaluative information to assist in judging the preceding goals and priorities of the programme and to understand the consequence of the programme outcomes in consideration of both the targeted beneficiaries’ evaluated needs and circumstances in the programme’s environment (Stufflebeam and Zhang, 2017).

Input Evaluation

Input evaluation is considered as a means of establishing support systems, solution strategies and procedural designs for the future implementation of the programme, assisting in the determination of the required changes for a programme to perform successfully (Fitzpatrick et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2011).

Process Evaluation

According to Stufflebeam and Zhang (2017), process evaluation is employed to assess the implementation of a programme and to provide feedback on the extent to which the programme was deployed as expected and desired, as well as examining whether the programme's conceivably deficient outcomes were due to weak strategy or the insufficient implementation of the strategy. In addition, this component of evaluation focuses on the obstacles that may prevent the programme's success (Wang, 2010).

Product Evaluation

Product evaluation measures the achievement of a programme and assesses its outcomes, in addition to providing feedback on the extent to which the programme's goals are being achieved and the target needs of the beneficiaries are being met. Moreover, product evaluation can be divided into impact, effectiveness, sustainability and transportability evaluation in order to gain more concise information regarding the long-term effects of the programme (Wang, 2010).

A variety of models are utilised to evaluate education programmes, with each offering advantages and drawbacks. The main advantage of the CIPP model is that it was not intended to evaluate a particular type of programme. It is flexible and can be utilised in different settings as a "*comprehensive framework for guiding formative and summative evaluations of projects, programs, personnel, products, institutions, and systems*" (Stufflebeam and Shinkfield, 2007:325). Another advantage of the CIPP model is that it enables validation to take place from the preparation to the result stages of evaluation. The proactive use of the model can facilitate decision-making and quality assurance because it offers the opportunity to obtain evidence-based information, which enables clear understanding of the problems facing learning programmes (Stufflebeam and Shinkfield, 2007).

On the other hand, the CIPP model has been criticised for following a top-down approach that in practice prevents the evaluation process from proceeding in a straightforward manner. In addition, the mixture of the four areas of evaluation—context, input, process and product—is difficult since the evaluators have to deal with the problems and drawbacks linked to the aforementioned areas of evaluation. Furthermore, evaluators have a

considerable impact upon the decision-making process (Crabb and Leroy, 2012).

3.12.3.1 Justification for using the CIPP model

The CIPP model is different from other approaches and models as it is grounded in the core concept of *“not to prove, but to improve”* (Stufflebeam and Shinkfield, 2007:331), and the assumption that *“the society and its agents cannot make their programmes unless they learn where they are weak or strong”* (Stufflebeam, 2005:62). In this study, Stufflebeam’s CIPP evaluation model is implemented because it is appropriate to evaluate foreign language programmes and has been used over the last few years to evaluate language programmes in many parts of the world including Turkey and China. In addition, the model evaluates a programme from different perspectives, which enhances the information and knowledge of the strengths and weaknesses of a programme’s components and the potential to radically improve it, unlike the traditional models that are focused on one facet of a programme.

The English language programme in the faculties of education at Zawia university occurs in a setting that offered to students with a desire of meeting the programme goals and learners’ demands. Staff who support the programme follow a certain process to deliver it and the programme has an end product. Therefore, the CIPP model and its different types of evaluation appear to be the most appropriate model to be utilised in this study, while the evaluation results can support the decision makers to further develop their English programmes.

3.13 Evaluation of language programme research in Arab and non-Arab settings

This section provides information regarding those programme evaluation studies conducted in international educational institutions. As mentioned previously, there is a clear gap in the literature with regard to the evaluation of English language programmes in Arab universities in general, and in Libyan universities in particular. Language programme evaluation studies appear to

differ in terms of their purpose, focus and methodology. Some focused on the evaluation of the quality and the effectiveness of the language programmes and curricula (Mappiasse and Sihes, 2014; Karimnia and Kay, 2015), while others attempted to determine whether the language programme was sufficient for the learners' needs (Soruc, 2012). Several studies suggested changes and solutions to improve the quality of the programmes in order to better meet the learners' needs and demands (Fareh, 2010; Xiaoqiong and Jing, 2013). The requirement for programme evaluation is increasing. The reasons behind conducting evaluation, as stated by Norris (2016:169), are to

enable a variety of evidence-based decision and actions from designing programmes and implementing practices to judging effectiveness and improving outcomes, in addition to provide a heuristic for generating new knowledge; raising awareness; and transforming the educational, social, and economic circumstances of individuals and communities.

In other words, language programme evaluation normally aims to investigate whether the language programme is offering qualified language education by concentrating on its strong points and areas for improvement.

3.13.1 Non-Arab settings

There are a number of studies conducted in Turkey that investigated and evaluated the existing language teaching programmes. For example, Yavuz and Zehir Topkaya (2013) conducted research that explored the effectiveness of the changes made to the English Language Teacher Education programme by the Turkish Higher Education Council in 2006. The data were collected by questionnaire, with the findings revealing that certain changes were beneficial to the programme such as introducing new courses, while other modifications were less beneficial such as altering how the courses were run. Soruc (2012) investigated a language programme at an English school in Istanbul, with the study aiming to introduce new strategies and rationales for making curricular decisions. The data were collected through a needs assessment survey and teachers' interviews, with the results showing that the programme was sufficient for the learners' language skills.

Nevertheless, Soruc's study recommended enrichment classes with activities such as role-play, and that at the conclusion of every academic year the teachers and administrators should meet and evaluate whether the aims and objectives of the programme had been reached.

Karakas's (2012) study was broader than the two aforementioned ones, and included an evaluative review of the current English Education Programme in Turkey in general. This research employed the strengths and weaknesses documented through the analysis of the programme based on the related theories, models, empirical research and a comparison of the present programme with the previous English language programme. The findings reported that the programme had more weak outcomes than strengths. In addition, the results stated that the programme was out-dated, less practically oriented, and featured a lack of culture-specific courses. Therefore, the researcher suggested conducting a systematic evaluation of the English education programme in Turkey in order to ensure highly qualified English language teachers and successful foreign language education.

In the same vein, Dollar et al. (2014) conducted a study in Turkey to evaluate the Graduate Programme of English Language Teacher Education at a foundation university. The focus was on the strengths and weaknesses of the programme and how much it satisfied the needs of the graduate students in tending to work as teacher trainers. The data were collected through a survey, interviews, and document analysis of the curriculum, course syllabi and materials. The findings suggested that the programme should yield to regular evaluation in order to more effectively meet the learners' needs.

Another study by Uzun (2016) evaluated the latest English Language Teacher Training programme at Uludag University in Turkey, with the data gathered via a questionnaire and interviews. The questionnaire featured a list of the programme courses, each of which were ranked by the learners using three criteria: first, the influence of the courses on their personal development; second, the influence of the courses on their professional development; and third, whether the students believed that the courses had provided them with the appropriate theoretical and practical knowledge during their active

teaching life. The lecturers' and students' perceptions regarding the learning and courses were collected by interview. The study findings revealed that the English language teacher training programme was not helpful in developing the learners' knowledge and skills; consequently, the researcher suggested that the language programme should be organised in a manner that focused more closely on meeting the learners' needs and offering them more appropriate course content.

As a different example, Coskun and Daloglu's (2010) study was conducted to draw attention to the importance of programme evaluation, and not only evaluating the language programme as per the previously cited studies. The data were collected by means of questionnaires and interviews, and revealed that the programme was not effective in increasing the students' and teachers' linguistic competence; in addition, the pedagogic facet of the programme required further development.

In their study in Indonesia investigating the effectiveness of the English programme of a high school, Mappiasse and Sihes's (2014) findings showed that the current programme required upgrading, and that the only solution to improve the quality of graduates was to integrate English as part of the curriculum and as the medium of teaching in Indonesia. A similar case study conducted by Irambona and Kumaidi (2015) in Indonesia to evaluate the effectiveness of the English programme in a high school in Yogyakarta used the CIPP model. The data were gathered using mixed methods, with the evaluation result of the four components of the CIPP model showing that the context of the programme, including the programme objectives, classroom environment, students' needs and obstacles, were effective. Nevertheless, the input evaluation highlighted that the teachers were highly skilled and qualified, whereas the learners' textbooks and course designs were not appropriate. The process element revealed that the teaching and assessments were effective, while the evaluation of product section showed that the English grades, students' needs and barriers were effective. However, the teaching materials were not found to be relevant.

Aliakbari and Ghoreyshi (2013) carried out research into the effectiveness of teaching the EFL programme at Ilam University in Iran using the CIPP model of evaluation, where the data were collected through a questionnaire. The findings showed that the majority of the alumni believed that the English language programme was not as effective as expected and that the learners' needs were to some extent disregarded. Therefore, the researchers hypothesised that more practical courses should be applied and that the educational objectives of the programme should be reviewed. This study has been beneficial for the decision makers in Iran since it created a foundation for future reform of the English language programme at the undergraduate level by highlighting the learner's needs.

Another study in the Philippines was conducted by Salimi and Farsi (2016) to evaluate an English language proficiency programme for foreign students in the University of the East. The study targeted three groups who were registered on master's and doctorate courses that they had to pass before enrolling in the graduate school. The results revealed that the three groups had significant positive changes in their academic performance due to their training on the programme. Therefore, the evaluation findings revealed that the English programme was satisfactory.

Programme evaluation studies are widespread, and Karimnia and Kay (2015) carried out a study to assess the quality of a teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) programme at the undergraduate level at Islamic Azad University in Iran using Stufflebeam's (2002) CIPP model. The data were gathered through a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews, with the results revealing that the teaching materials and learning strategies had to be reviewed. In addition, considerable reform was required to the TEFL curriculum design, while the findings also stated that the pedagogical approaches needed to be updated.

In Nigeria, Babatunde (2012) conducted a study to evaluate an ESL programme using the CIPP model. The findings showed that the programme lacked the required sense of direction, which was the primary reason for the low level of competence of the programme product. Therefore, the researcher

proposed an urgent review of the ESL programme, and particularly the process of designing the English language curriculum.

3.13.2 Arab settings

As stated above, there is a paucity of studies carried out in the Arab world regarding language programme evaluation. The only study conducted on Zawia University was by Attuwaybi (2017), which was based on the students' and instructors' subjective judgment regarding the English language programme setting at the university's faculties of education. The findings highlighted that the students required additional teaching practice and language proficiency development, and moreover that the programme should pay greater attention to training the students and instructors to use information and communication technology for pedagogical purposes in the classroom.

In Saudi Arabia, Alfehaid and Alamri (2016) attempted to identify to what extent the current programme of English language of the preparatory year at Dammam University supported the learners to increase their proficiency in English language in order to pass their academic studies. This study essentially aimed to assess the students' achievement, the assessment techniques, the pedagogy, the teachers and the quality assurance. The data for the study were collected using a mixed methods approach, with the findings reporting that the English language programme did not appropriately prepare the students for the subsequent year. In addition, the courses lacked quality assurance. Therefore, the researchers recommended increased support for the programme in order to enhance its effectiveness.

By the same token, Fareh (2010) investigated the challenges encountered in teaching English in Arab countries including Jordan, Morocco, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Syria, the United Arab Emirates, the West Bank and Yemen. The data were collected using surveys and classroom observation. The overall findings of the study revealed that the inadequate preparation of teachers and unsatisfactory assessment techniques were among the major issues that rendered EFL programmes unable to deliver as expected. This is one of the motivations behind the current study.

A similar study was conducted by Taqi and Shuqair (2014) to examine the usefulness of the English language programme at the College of Basic Education in Kuwait. The study was grounded in the grades of students in the replacement test and a replica test conducted four years later. Then, the change in language proficiency was assessed. The findings highlighted a slight improvement in the language proficiency of the students between the two test periods. Therefore, the researchers proposed a number of recommendations for the programme to be more progressive: i) conducting regular evaluation of the programme; ii) that further research be carried out on the curriculum and the plan of courses of the English programme; and iii) conducting a standardised test for the graduates to identify their English proficiency.

Another study by Al-Seghayer (2014) pertained to the current major and persistent constraints facing English education in Saudi Arabia. The findings are based on analysing the Saudi EFL curriculum, with the results showing that a timely reform of the EFL curriculum must be carried out and that improvement of the teachers' quality should be achieved in order to obtain positive results that relate to the students' proficiency levels.

Table 3.3 Summary of previous studies evaluating language programmes

Researcher(s) name and year of publication	Country	Data collection instrument(s)	Participants
Yavuz and Zehir Topkaya (2013)	Turkey	Emailed questionnaire	Teachers
Soruc (2012)	Turkey	Questionnaire and interview	Students
Dollar et al. (2014)	Turkey	Survey, interviews, and document analysis	Students, professors, administrators, and graduates
Uzun (2016)	Turkey	Questionnaire	Students
Coskun and Daloglu (2010)	Turkey	Questionnaire and interview	Students and teachers
Mappiasse and Sihes (2014)	Indonesia	Document review (historical records)	No participants

Salimi and Farsi (2016)	Philippines	Questionnaire and interview	Students
Karimnia and Kay (2015)	Iran	Questionnaire and interview	Students
Aliakbari and Ghoreyshi (2013)	Iran	Questionnaire	Graduates
Alfehaid and Alamri (2016)	Saudi Arabia	Questionnaire, interviews, observations and document analysis	Students
Attuwaybi (2017)	Libya	Questionnaire	Instructors and students
Fareh (2010)	Arab world including Jordan, the West Bank, Syria, Yemen, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates	Questionnaire and classroom observation	Teachers
Taqi and Shuqair (2014)	Kuwait	Tests	Students
Al-Seghayer (2014)	Saudi Arabia	Document analysis (curriculum)	No participants

As Table 3.3 indicates, the majority of the studies were carried out in Asia and Europe. However, the above studies do share similar objectives, which are the evaluation of the usefulness of the English language curriculum and introducing solutions to address the challenges that affect ELT. In addition, the researchers attempted to address issues related to the lack of teacher training, the absence of regular evaluation of the English curriculum, and inadequate assessment techniques. However, the literature still requires further practical evidence, and particularly studies from Arabic countries such as Libya.

In this respect, the current research would be an important step to reducing the gap in knowledge in the field of ELT programme evaluation in Libya. According to Norris (2016:184):

The real contribution of program evaluation in applied linguistics and what we can learn from mainstream evaluation practice may be that it helps us to both understand our theories and ideas as they are applied in action, and to facilitate their application by real individuals and groups in ways that are meaningful, practical, and useful in the first place. Furthermore, to the extent that applied linguistics really is an applied science focused primarily on “dealing with practical problems of language and communication”.

3.14 The difference between assessment and evaluation

Educators employ two distinct processes—assessment and evaluation—to support students in developing lifelong learning skills. Assessment provides feedback on knowledge, skills, attitudes, and work products for the purpose of elevating future performance and learning outcomes, while evaluation determines the level of quality of a performance or outcome and enables decision-making based on the level of quality demonstrated. Therefore, these two processes are both complementary and necessary in education (Baehr, 2005). Astin (2012:3) pointed out that “*assessment can be refer to two different activities: (a) the mere gathering of information (measurement) and (b) the use of that information for institutional and individual improvement (evaluation)*”.

Table 3.4 Differences between the processes of assessment and evaluation (Adopted from Baehr, 2005:8)

	Assessment	Evaluation
What is the purpose?	To improve the quality of future performances	To determine the quality of present performance
Who sets the criteria?	Assessor	Client (possible consultation with evaluator)
Who uses the information?	Assessee (in future performances)	Client (to make decisions)
On what is feedback based?	Observations; and the strongest and weakest points	Level of quality based on a set standard
What is included in the report?	What made the quality of the performance strong, and how might one improve future performances	The quality of the performance, often compared to set standards
For what is the report used?	To improve performance	To make judgments

To sum up, assessment and evaluation are two parts of the same process. Assessment is the process of collecting evidence in terms of what the learners are able to complete, while evaluation is the process that follows the gathering of data, including the data analysis and those decisions based on this analysis.

3.15 The importance of benchmarking as a tool for improvement

The rapidly changing world of higher education brings with it many challenges for universities and colleges to try to keep pace with, which generates a

considerable amount of uncertainty for higher education institutions. Benchmarking is an attempt to address this uncertainty and to help to make higher education fit for the twenty-first century because it supports in guaranteeing the strategic balance of the decision-making processes of higher education institutions and improving the overall performance (Vught et al., 2010). Furthermore, benchmarking is a means to learning and adopting the best practices of other institutions, and therefore can be defined as comparing a set of products or services against the best that can be found within the sector, learning from the successful activities of the other institutions and sharing lessons between institutions (Inglis, 2005). On the other hand, Armstrong et al. (2014) claimed that benchmarking is the notion of introducing more opportunities for the individuals who produced the standards to promote a healthier shared understanding of the significance of those standards. Benchmarking is effective and can lead to improvement by offering certain opportunities to the education institutions: i) it can help in identifying the performance gap between institutions; ii) it can support in recognising their strengths and weaknesses; and iii) it may aid in identifying future opportunities and threats to the institutions (European Commission TEMPUS, 2013).

3.16 Summary and gaps in the literature

This chapter began with an overview of the significance of learning English worldwide. Then it explored the importance of teaching and the assessment of language skills, as well as defining, designing and evaluating the language curriculum. This chapter also considered the evaluation of language teaching materials and needs analysis, while primarily focusing on programme evaluation, its function, types and models. Finally, the chapter presented an overview of certain evaluation studies that took place in Arab and non-Arab settings, and explored the importance of benchmarking as a tool of language programme improvement. Despite the body of literature on the topic of English language programme evaluation, there appears to be limited research on the topic regarding language programmes used in the Arab nations, and particularly Libya. A large and growing body of literature has investigated language programme in other national contexts such as Indonesia, Turkey and

Iran. The literature showed that this study is unique because no evaluative studies regarding the language programme at Zawia University have been conducted through data reflecting the lecturers' and alumni's points of view. In addition, although a small number of studies have been conducted to evaluate the English language programme at Zawia University since 1988, the focus was primarily targeted on the improvement of teaching methods (Attuwaybi, 2017). Therefore, evaluating the English language programme at Zawia University is vital in order to improve the quality of the English language programme through the focus on evaluation from different perspectives.

4 Chapter Four: Research Methodology and Methods

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, detailed explanations are introduced of the methodology and methods utilised in organising and conducting this research that conducts an evaluation of the English language provision offered by the English language department in the faculties of education at Zawia University. This chapter analyses the various research philosophies, approaches, strategies and methods of data collection used in research, justifying the reasons for the methodological choices adopted in this study in relation to the objectives of the research.

4.2 Research questions

This study's research questions are restated as follows:

1. Has Zawia University's management ever evaluated or updated the English language provision to assess its strengths and weaknesses?
2. To what extent does the current English language provision at Zawia University prepare its graduates for the world of work?
3. What are the views and perspectives of the key stakeholders (both lecturers and graduates) regarding the provision of the English language programme at Zawia University?

4.3 Objectives of the study

This study's objectives are also restated for the reader:

1. To evaluate the current English language provision at Zawia University in Libya.
2. To assess the perceptions and perspectives of the key stakeholders (lecturers and graduates) regarding the provision of the English language at Zawia University.

3. To form recommendations based on the findings of this study and to design a framework that enhances the quality of the English language provision at Zawia University by highlighting the strengths and weaknesses of the current programme.

4.4 Research and its significance

Research in general is related to the reliable investigation of knowledge. It was defined by Kothari (2004:1) as “*a scientific and systematic search for pertinent information on a specific topic*”. Similarly, Ary et al. (2013) considered research as a systematic means of obtaining useful and dependable information that shines a light on a meaningful problem. In the same line of thought, Creswell (2012:3) highlighted that research is “*a process of steps used to collect and analyse information to increase our understanding of a topic or issue*”.

Saunders et al. (2009) stated that research is a process that is undertaken to increase knowledge by gathering data in an organised fashion. For O'Leary (2017:3), research intends “*to find something that is not known in the wider world*”. Panneerselvam (2014) offered a broader definition of research as a prearranged group of activities to study and develop a model, procedure or technique to find the results of a realistic problem supported by the literature and data.

Despite the above definitions conveying similarity, “*the term research means different things to different people*” (Richardson and Johanningmeier, 2008:65). In brief, since research is an exploration to solve a problem, the unknown can therefore be termed as research (Kothari, 2004).

According to Bryman (2015), there is no single reason why a researcher conducts research, but it is primarily to fill a literature gap or to provide insights on how to solve current issues. In addition, research transforms information into knowledge (Hair, 2015). As stated by O'Leary (2017), research offers opportunities to contribute to knowledge that might lead to real change, which can assist in tackling persistent problems and improving the current situation. Furthermore, research enables an individual to better understand the new developments in one's field. (Kothari, 2004).

4.5 Methodology vs research methods

Methodology and methods are imprecisely assumed to be synonymous and are often used interchangeably, despite their differences. Methodology is understood to be the science of studying how research is carried out scientifically, whereas research methods are all those methods and techniques that are employed to conduct research (Kothari, 2004). As highlighted by McGregor and Murnane (2010:420), the term methodology includes two nouns—method and ology—which implies a division of knowledge, and therefore

methodology is a branch of knowledge that deals with the general principles or axioms of the generation of new knowledge. It refers to the rationale and the philosophical assumptions that underlie any natural, social or human science study, whether articulated or not. Simply put, methodology refers to how each of logic, reality, values and what counts as knowledge inform research.

In contrast, research methods are the techniques and procedures followed to conduct research, which are guided by the methodology (McGregor and Murnane, 2010). It is essential for the researcher to establish the methodology and principles by which he/she decides that particular methods and techniques are appropriate to address the research problem. This implies the importance for the researcher to design a research methodology to tackle the respective research problem because these may vary (Kothari, 2004).

The conclusion that can be drawn from the above definitions is that the research methodology has several scopes and research methods represent a component of the research methodology. Therefore, the research methodology is broader than the research methods.

4.6 Research philosophy

The consideration of the philosophical concepts benefits the researcher in terms of specifying the overall research design and strategy that will guide the study and the means of proceeding from the research question to the final conclusions; in addition, it will support the researcher in making decisions

regarding those issues that affect the research design (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2015).

Easterby-Smith et al. (2012) claimed that there are three motives that encourage the researcher to understand the philosophy of research: i) understanding the philosophy can facilitate in clarifying the research design and providing good answers to the questions being investigated; ii) the knowledge of philosophy can support the researcher to identify a suitable design for the study by articulating the disadvantages of particular approaches; and iii) the research philosophy can assist the researcher in establishing designs that may be outside his or her existing experience by proposing strategies to adapt research designs according to the constraints of different subjects or knowledge structures. In other words, researcher awareness about the philosophy can help in recognising which design will work and which will not, while supporting the researcher to be more creative and investigative in their method of research and minimising the potential for adopting a flawed approach.

According to Easterby-Smith et al. (2012), the major concepts of research philosophy are ontology and epistemology, and method and methodology (see Table 4.1), which are related to each other as a unifying framework or even one unified view that is known as a paradigm.

Table 4.1 Research philosophy (Source: Easterby-Smith et al., 2012:18)

Ontology	Philosophical assumptions about the nature of reality.
Epistemology	A general set of assumptions about ways of inquiring into the nature of the world.
Methodology	A combination of techniques used to inquire into a specific situation.
Method	Individual techniques for data collection and analysis.

All these concepts ontology, epistemology, methodology and methods interrelate in various ways, depending on the more general philosophical position of the research (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2015). Ontology and epistemology express the researcher's perceptions and belief, which influence how the research is undertaken from the design to the conclusion, and can

increase the quality of the research (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). Therefore, the next section will define ontology and epistemology in greater detail.

4.6.1 Ontology

Ontology is defined as the study of the essence of phenomena and the nature of their existence (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012; Gray, 2013), while being known as a theory of the nature of social entities (Bryman and Bell, 2015; Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2015). When considering the ontological perspective of the research, the researcher should consider what is being perceived as the fundamental properties in the social world that are worth studying, because ontological assumptions are generally taken for granted (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2015).

Easterby-Smith et al. (2012:19) indicated towards four ontologies, as presented in Table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2 Ontologies (Source: Easterby-Smith et al. 2012)

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

The researchers' awareness of ontology at the onset of conducting the research process is essential as it determines the choice of the research design (Blaikie, 2010; Bryman, 2015).

4.6.2 Epistemology

Epistemology can be defined as a branch of philosophy that is concerned with the understanding of knowledge, its nature, its sources and limits (Saunders et al., 2007; Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2015; Riazi, 2016). Similarly, Gary (2013:19) stated that "*epistemology tries to understand what it means to know and epistemology provides a philosophical background for deciding what kinds*

of knowledge are legitimate and adequate”. It is important for the researcher to establish an epistemological perspective for two reasons. First, it can help in clarifying issues of the research design including the kind of evidence that is being gathered and how it is going to be interpreted. Second, it will help the researcher to distinguish which design(s) will work for the research’s objectives and which will not (Gary, 2013).

In fact, knowledge can be acquired using different philosophies, with Easterby-Smith et al. (2012) identifying positivism and interpretivism as the main philosophies in conducting social research. These are summarised in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3 The difference between positivism and interpretivism (Source: Collis and Hussey, 2013:46)

Philosophical assumption	Positivism	Interpretivism
Ontological assumption (the nature of reality)	Social reality is objective and external to the researcher.	Social reality is subjective and socially constructed.
	There is only one reality.	There are multiple realities.
Epistemological assumption (what constitutes valid knowledge)	Knowledge comes from objective evidence about observable and measurable phenomena.	Knowledge comes from subjective evidence from participants.
	The researcher is distant from the phenomena under study	The researcher interacts with the phenomena under study.

However, positivism is mainly described as quantitative philosophy, while interpretivism is more related to qualitative research. Whereas, pragmatism that is used in mixed methods research. The following section will explain the research philosophies in more detail.

4.6.3 Positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism

Eriksson and Kovalainen (2015) pointed out that positivism is a term that refers to an assumption that the legitimate knowledge existing in the world can only be obtained through applying scientific methods to investigate experiences in the empirical world. Moreover, Gary (2013) argued that positivism is closely related to objectivism, and that as the reality is external to the researcher it

must be studied through the rigorous application of scientific inquiry. However, Bryman and Bell (2015) introduced five principles to the positivist paradigm: i) information and phenomena definite by senses can genuinely be justified as knowledge, which is the rule of phenomenism. ii) the determination for the hypothesis is to produce theory that can be verified, and consequently this facilitates the clarifications of the laws to be measured, although this presents the didacticism principle. iii) knowledge is achieved through the collection of facts that give rise to the foundation for laws, and thus this principle illustrates the principle of inductivism. iv) science needs to be carried out in a manner that is value free, or in other words it must be conducted in an objective manner; and v) there is an apparent difference between scientific statement and normative statement, and a certainty that the former is the sphere of the scientist; therefore, this base is inferred by scientific statement due to the fact that the normative statements cannot be defined by the senses.

It is believed that positivism is closely associated with quantitative research; however, qualitative research can sometimes contribute to some version of positivism, principally when hypothesis testing is leading the research (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2015). In contrast, Bryman and Bell (2015:28) stated that interpretivism

is a term that usually denotes an alternative to the positivist orthodoxy that has held sway for decades. It is predicated upon the view that a strategy is required that respects the differences between people and the objects of the natural sciences and therefore, requires the social scientist to grasp the subjective meaning of social action.

In addition, interpretivism is in contrast to positivism that concerns with subjectivism, where the former philosophy is interested in how individuals interpret and understand social events and settings. Furthermore, interpretative research not only focuses on the content of empirical data, but also on how this content is produced. In addition, it assumes that many possible interpretations of the same data can be achieved that are potentially meaningful (Gary, 2013; Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2015).

Pragmatism as a philosophy originated in the late nineteenth century. It derives from the classical Greek 'Pragma' meaning 'deed' or 'act' (Garrison et

al., 2012). Philosophically, pragmatic view means human action is not possible to be disconnected with previous experience and beliefs that have grown from those experiences (Morgan, 2013). Creswell (2017) describes the pragmatism as the optimal worldview or paradigm for mixed methods research. In addition, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003) point out that pragmatism has been hailed as the foundation of mixed-method research. The concern for a pragmatist is to find out 'what works' and what enables solutions to problems (Creswell et al., 2003). Morgan (2013) describes the assumptions of Pragmatism under three categories: the first is the connection of theory and data is abductive which will be explained more in the following point. Secondly, the relationship to research process is intersubjective. Finally, inference from the data is transferable. However, there is limited published resources about pragmatic approach criticism; for example, Hall (2013: 8) critiqued pragmatic approach when pointing out "*pragmatism fails to give a coherent rationale for mixed methods due to its lack of a clear definition of 'what works'*". Another issue with pragmatic approach is that, because of it is flexibility; it does not accept the rigid nature of positivism. Moreover, some researchers such as Maxwell (2011) have claimed that the concept of a paradigm is "misleading" and should be substituted with "mental models" (Hall, 2013). Consequently, this gives the impression that there is slight consistency in what researchers classify as the main paradigms in social science research (Bryman, 2015). Pragmatism is important for methodology and should be used as a philosophical tool not be used to inform the inquiry process of research (Morgan, 2017). This research is using the pragmatic philosophy because it is robust and has been described as the best philosophy for conducting mixed method research.

Research approaches

The procedure of data gathering is led by the research approach, in the literature; there are several research approach such as inductive, deductive and abductive. According to Schutt (2011), inductive research begins with definite data that are then used to create (induce) a general explanation (a theory) for the data. Therefore, it begins at the bottom of the research circle with data and then produces the theory. On the other hand, deductive research commences by developing theory before testing it to assess whether it applies

to a particular population. In other words, the deductive approach travels from the general to the more specific.

Saunders et al. (2009) reflected on the distinctions between the focus of the inductive approach and the deductive approach as follows: the inductive approach follows a rigid structure where non-numerical data are gathered and the researcher forms part of the research process with limited emphasis on generalising the results; while the deductive approach has an organised structure, it places emphasis on the scientific principles where the researcher is part of the research, and it aims to collect a large volume of numerical data to achieve generalisability and to discover the nature of the relationships between the data (Bryman, 2015). Table 4.4. below briefly presents the differences between the two approaches.

Table 4.4 The deductive and inductive approaches (adopted from Pathirage et al., 2008:5)

Deduction	Induction
Moving from theory to data	Moving from data to theory
A highly structured approach	Flexible structure to permit changes
Explain casual relationships between variables	Understanding of meanings humans attach to events
Select samples of sufficient size to generalise conclusions	Less concern with the need to generalise

With pragmatism, the researcher will typically utilise an ‘abductive’ reasoning process, which moves back and forth between an inductive and a deductive reasoning process (Morgan, 2007). Bryman and Bell (2015) point out that abduction reasoning used to make logical inferences and build theories about the world. In addition, the abductive approach is proposed as a third way which overcomes the limitations of the inductive and deductive approaches of research. Abductive reasoning involves seeking to identify the conditions that would make the phenomenon and it is working back from an observed consequence to a probable antecedent or cause (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

4.7 Research design and data collection methods

Research design was defined by Kumar (2014:381) as “a procedural plan that is adopted by the researcher to answer questions validly, objectively, accurately and economically”. Moreover, Yin (2003:20) described research design as “a logical plan for getting from here to there, where here may be defined as the initial set of questions and there is the conclusions to these questions”. Therefore, the research design addresses the questions that determine the path the researcher is planning to take for the research journey including the choice of study design, how the respondents will be selected, how the information will be collected from the respondents, and how the data will be analysed and linked together as study findings (David and Sutton, 2011; Creswell, 2013; Kumar, 2014).

Kumar (2014) stated that research design serves two important functions: to detail the procedures for undertaking the study, and to ensure that in the case of causality, the independent variable has the maximum opportunity to have an effect on the dependent variable, while the effect of extraneous and chance variables is minimised or quantified.

However, the choice of selecting a research design and all its components needs to be properly assessed because it affects all the outcomes of the research. Robson and McCartan (2016:178) identified six types of research designs depending on the sequencing of data collection methods: i) the sequential explanatory design is characterised by the collection and analysis of quantitative data, followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data, where the qualitative data function to help explain and interpret the findings of a primarily quantitative study; ii) the sequential exploratory design, which is categorised by an initial phase of qualitative data collection and analysis, followed by a phase of quantitative data collection and analysis, where the primary focus of this design is to explore a phenomenon; iii) the sequential transformative design, which is conducted by either the qualitative or quantitative method first, with the design primarily guided by a theoretical perspective (e.g. the conceptual framework adopted); iv) concurrent triangulation design, where the qualitative and quantitative data collection are

used separately, independently and concurrently, and then the results are compared to assess their convergence; v) concurrent nested design, which involves the embedding of a secondary method within a study with one main or primary method, although the primary method can either be quantitative or qualitative; and vi) concurrent transformative design, which is guided primarily by the researcher's use of a specific theoretical perspective.

The current research was designed as a mixed method case study using sequential explanatory design in collecting the data, as illustrated in Figure 4.1 below.

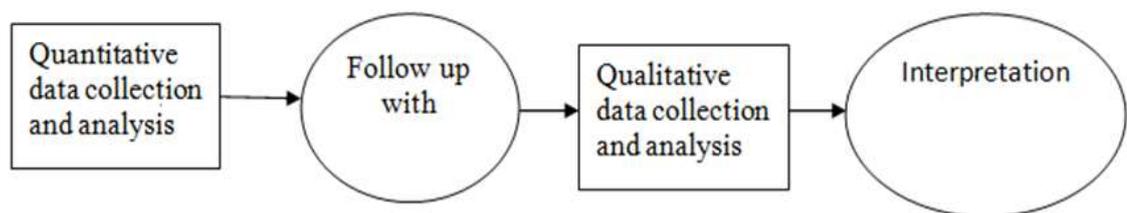


Figure 4.1 Sequential explanatory design of data collection (Source: Subedi, 2016:573)

It is felt that the mixed method case study offers the ideal conditions to evaluate the English language provision offered by the English language department in the faculties of education at Zawia University through collecting data for the purpose of acquiring an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon, in addition to achieving the research objectives and arriving at effective responses to the research questions.

4.7.1 Case study and its justification

The mixed method case study fits the purposes of the present study, which is to present an evaluation of the English language provision offered by the English language department in the faculties of education at Zawia University. Case study is chosen as the research requires the “*close examination of the programme*” (Hays, 2004:218). In addition, the researcher selected one institution (i.e. a bounded system) to focus on which is the faculties of education at Zawia University. As Creswell (2012) stated, through using case study the researcher can achieve an in-depth exploration of a bounded system based on extensive data collection. In the same vein, Noor (2008) argued that

case studies are particularly useful where one needs to understand particular problems in significant depth and within a limited timescale.

In order to evaluate the current English language provision in the study context, it is necessary to gather a range of different data sources to ensure in-depth information is collected. As Gillham (2000:2) noted, the use of multiple sources of evidence is a "*key characteristic of case study research*", while Yin (2003) pointed out that case study investigation is only successful when built on the collection and analysis of data from a wide range of sources.

The case study may be defined in different ways, some broad, and others narrow. For Thomas (2003), a case study usually consists of a description of a particular case, which range from individuals to groups, an organisation or events. Yin (2002:13) defined case study as "*a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context, especially when the boundaries between a phenomenon and context are not clear and the researcher has little control over the phenomenon and context*". Case study is characterised by focusing on one particular phenomenon and can be utilised for a number of purposes such as developing a detailed understanding of what is manifesting in complex circumstances, achieving an in-depth examination of a single individual, group, event or organisation, and gaining in-depth knowledge about a particular case or set of cases (Moore, 2006; David, 2007; Adams and Lawrence, 2014).

Moreover, the case study enables the researcher to delve deeper into the intricacies of the situation in order to describe phenomena in detail, compare alternatives, or perhaps to provide an account that explores particular aspects of the situation (Denscombe, 2014). Cohen et al. (2013:292) pointed out that case studies can be beneficial to educational evaluators or researchers for a range of reasons: case study data are robust in reality, are more easily accessible than through other types of research, and the case study can contribute towards the democratisation of decision-making. Zainal (2007) presented a further three advantages for the case study: i) the examination of the data is carried out within the context in which it takes place; ii) there is a multiplicity of instrumental and collective approaches that allow for both

quantitative and qualitative analyses of the data; and iii) the in-depth qualitative explanations produced in case studies not only support the exploration or description of the data in the real-life environment, but also aid in explaining the complexities of real-life situations that may not be possible through experimental or survey research.

Additional advantages of the case study are that it permits the researcher to expose how a multiplicity of factors have interacted to produce the unique character of the entity that is the subject of the research (Thomas, 2003), with Adams and Lawrence (2014) asserting that the holistic nature of the case study is one of its greatest strengths. Despite the case study's advantages, Stufflebeam (2001:35) highlighted that *"the main limitation of the case study is that some evaluators may mistake its openness and lack of controls as an excuse for approaching it haphazardly and bypassing steps to ensure that findings and interpretations possess rigor as well as relevance"*. Therefore, the current researcher needed to be attentive in methodically following the proposed steps.

Yin (2013) stated that research can be carried out through one of three types of case study, depending on the research purpose: exploratory case study, explanatory case study, and descriptive case study. For this study, the explanatory type was selected because the focus of this research is studying one institution (a bounded system). Furthermore, the quantitative data are gathered and analysed first.

This investigation is designed as a mixed method case study using questionnaires, interviews and documents obtained from the English department of the faculties of education at Zawia University as instruments for collecting the data. The diagram below in Figure 4.2 describes the general design of the evaluation procedure for this study.

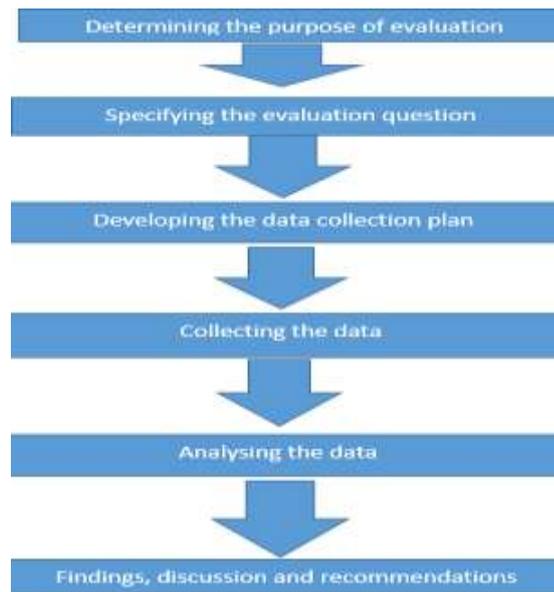


Figure 4.2 Evaluation procedure

4.7.2 Insider research

It is important for social researchers to clarify their research's position and the literature has identified two main roles for researchers insider and outsider. The insider-researcher is 'someone who shares a particular characteristic such as gender, ethnicity or culture with group being studied' (Saidin, 2017:849). Furthermore, Unluer (2012) defined the insider researcher as the person who belongs to the individuals under research. Moreover, the insider researcher has valuable knowledge, experience and understanding of the institution dynamic (Coghlan, 2019). Whereas, the outsider researchers are the individuals who conduct a study on an institution and they do not belong to it, also the outsider researcher does not share gender, ethnicity or culture with group being studied (Saidin, 2017).

The insider researcher has advantages, as indicated by Bonner and Tolhurst (2002) first; an insider will be completely aware about the politics of the institution and how it operates that will support the researcher in saving time to understand the phenomenon he is studying as he has a previous knowledge about it. Second, the insider researcher has a great deal of knowledge of the culture, which will be helpful in obtaining real information from the participants (Unluer, 2012; Saidin, 2017; Coghlan, 2019).

On the other hand, being insider means you as a researcher familiar with context of the study, which may affect the objectivity. However, the researcher attained objectivity of the study as possible as it could be because it is funded externally by the higher education ministry not the university itself. In addition, it is possible for the insider to reveal sensitive information to the research because of his ability to access those information. However, to carry out reliable insider research, the researcher have to be aware of the impact of research bias on data collection and he has to respect the ethics associated with the institution and the participants (Coghlan, 2019).

4.7.3 The researcher role as insider-research

As mentioned previously, the purpose of carrying out this evaluative study is that it is in line with my position as an English language lecturer at Zawia University who nominated me to award a PhD Degree as a part from the teacher development programme. Through conducting this research, it was expected that I could identify the weaknesses and strengths of the English language programme and suggest some solutions to enhance the programme delivery and students' performance. Considering my position in the university, it requires me to be as an insider researcher due to my deep knowledge of the institution, as I recruited at Zawia University nine years ago and I am aware about the policies of the university and the culture, religion and traditions of the society. In addition, I have access to all information needed to this study by contacting the gatekeeper of Zawia University, as I am located in the UK.

4.7.4 Research methods

A research method is a technique for collecting data that can involve specific instruments such as questionnaires, interviews or observation (Bryman, 2015). According to the history of research and research development, there are two main types of research methods: qualitative and quantitative (Henn et al., 2008; Matthews and Ross, 2014; Bryman, 2015). Whereas Creswell (2013) pointed out that with the evolution of the twentieth century a new research method coined as 'mixed method' was developed, which is based on the assumption that a combination of qualitative and quantitative research

methods can deliver a more complete understanding of the research problem than using either qualitative or quantitative methods alone.

Each research method has its own characteristics. Quantitative research methods are primarily concerned with gathering data that are structured and can be represented numerically, while qualitative research methods are concerned with gathering data that are non-numerical such as subjective understandings, feelings, opinions and beliefs. It may be possible to generalise from the data that are collected quantitatively, whereas it is not usually possible to generalise qualitative data (Matthews and Ross, 2014). The choice of data collection method(s) in research is determined by the hypotheses or research questions, and is dependent upon the type of data required to respond to the research questions (Matthews and Ross, 2014; Bryman, 2015).

4.7.4.1 Quantitative research method

Quantitative research is supported by positivist philosophy. It refers to the adoption of the natural science experiment, the measurement of phenomena and the theoretical variables influencing those phenomena (Henn et al., 2008). The quantitative research method includes collecting numerical data, which are then analysed essentially by statistical methods (Dörnyei, 2007). As stated by Dawson (2009:23), "*quantitative research generates statistics through the use of large-scale survey research*". Thomas (2003) provided two different perspectives for defining quantitative research methods. The first refers to the quantitative research method using numbers and statistical methods, while the second refers to the use of quantitative methods with the aim of producing generalisable results. Therefore, within quantitative research the focus is placed on facts and the causes of phenomena, where the information is in the form of numbers that can be quantified and summarised; moreover, the mathematical process is the norm for analysing the numeric data and the final result is expressed through statistical terminologies (Golafshani, 2003).

This research method has a number of advantages, and as indicated by Walliman (2011) quantitative data are easily analysed with a vast array of tests

that can be applied according to the nature of the data and what the researcher wants to interrogate. Choy (2014) pointed out that the quantitative approach has two significant benefits: it can be managed and evaluated quickly, and the responses can be tabulated within a short timeframe; and the numerical data gained through this approach help in drawing comparisons between participants or groups, as well as allowing determination of the extent of agreement or disagreement between the respondents. The approach also offers reliable data that can be generalised to other settings or the broader population (Dörnyei, 2007; Hennink et al., 2010). Moreover, its results are described as accurate and the quantitative approach is systematic and controlled. On the other hand, Choy (2014) stated that quantitative methods are rigid and provide fewer details on human perceptions and beliefs. Furthermore, the quantitative analysed data might be too general or complex to be understood (Saunders et al., 2009).

4.7.4.1.1 Questionnaire

The questionnaire is considered as one of the main sources for obtaining data in any research, and is primarily employed when carrying out quantitative studies, where the researcher wishes to shape the sample in terms of numbers. Therefore, the questionnaire will be the key data collection instrument employed in this research. According to Payne and Payne (2004:186), the questionnaire can be defined as a *“printed set of questions to be answered by respondents, either through face-to-face interviews or self-completion, as a tested, structured, clearly presented and systematic means of collecting data”*. Similarly, Gray (2014) described the questionnaire as a research instrument through which individuals are asked to answer a similar cluster of questions through predetermined instruction. Furthermore, Rowley (2014) defined questionnaires as documents that contain a series of open and closed questions to which the respondent is invited to provide answers. Moreover, a questionnaire can be classified as self-completion, self-administered, postal or mail (Bryman, and Bell, 2015).

A questionnaire must be designed by taking the participants into account. Gilbert (2008) highlighted that it is essential when designing a questionnaire

to include information that clarifies the purpose of the research, which should be located in the introductory section of the questionnaire, as well as offering clear instructions throughout the questionnaire and providing examples if necessary. Questionnaires may consist of questions concerned with three standard themes: i) facts such as gender, age and nationality; ii) perspectives, beliefs and attitudes; and iii) behaviour such as how many times a certain action is carried out (Rowley, 2014). As stated earlier, the participants should remain central when designing a questionnaire, so that the instrument is no longer than necessary, while the appropriateness of questions and their ability to be easily comprehended should be tested. Therefore, the researcher should pre-test the questionnaire by either trialling a draft of the instrument on people he/she knows, or by piloting the questionnaire with a small sample from the same population as the main study in order to identify any issues (Gilbert, 2008; Sekaran and Bougie, 2016).

Cohen et al. (2013) classified questionnaires into three basic types: i) structured or closed-ended questionnaires that are used to gather data in quantitative studies, where the format consists of statements with scales to rank or boxes to tick; ii) unstructured or open-ended questionnaires that are conducted in qualitative studies, where the format comprises a group of questions with a blank section for the respondents to write their answers; and iii) semi-structured questionnaires, which are a mixture of the first two types and are formed by a sequence of closed questions at the beginning and end of the instrument, with a section of open questions to gather more comprehensive answers from the participants.

This study uses the closed-ended questionnaire type to discover the teachers' perceptions regarding the provision of the current English language programme at Zawia University, as well as enabling the researcher to determine whether teachers believe the current English programme prepares Libyan students for the world of work through gauging their opinions on the success of programme and the sufficiency of the courses and their materials. Another reason for selecting this type is that closed questions are more efficient to manage than open questions: they are easily answered by the participants where only a mark is required against the chosen answer, while

the answers are easily coded by the researcher (Dawson, 2002). It is worth mentioning that the researcher emailed the questionnaires to the participants, as discussed in more detail in the following section.

4.7.4.1.1.1 Emailed questionnaire

Internet-based studies are becoming more prominent in the current era, enabling questionnaires to be transferred by email and interviews to be conducted electronically. As stated by Smith (2017), questionnaires can be conducted via post, telephone, email, voice over Internet protocol such as Skype, or online through websites. Orcher (2016) defined the email questionnaire as an email containing a set of questions or a document as an attachment that is sent by the researcher to the target participants, asking them to respond and return it. Email questionnaires are generally more economical in terms of cost and time than the other methods of collecting data because they avoid travel costs and logistical delays, as well as the problems related to other methods such as interview. In addition, the majority of the response will be received in a more timely manner. Furthermore, email questionnaires can be a more favourable method in the case of limited funds and a widespread target population (Moser and Kalton, 2017). As stated by Creswell (2012:383), "*a mailed questionnaire is a convenient way to reach a geographically dispersed sample of a population*". With the researcher and the participants being geographically distant in this study, as the researcher is currently based in Liverpool in the UK, the emailed questionnaire was deemed to be the optimal solution to collect the quantitative data.

One of the main issues with the use of email questionnaires, however, is that the researcher does not have any means for clarifying questions, and consequently the participants could misunderstand the statements in the instrument (Creswell, 2012; Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). Therefore, in order to overcome this weakness, the contact between the researcher and the participants remains open to allow further clarification in the case of ambiguity or uncertainty over the questionnaire's statements. Other criticisms encountered with the emailed questionnaire include its restriction to the online

population, the higher level of motivation required, and the potential for the respondents to send multiple replies (Bryman, 2015).

4.7.4.1.2 Validity and reliability of the questionnaire

In general, validity and reliability are treated separately, but they are closely related and interchangeable. Zohrabi (2013:258) defined validity as the concern with “*whether our research is believable and true and whether it is evaluating what it is supposed or purports to evaluate*”. Validity is also defined as the appropriateness, correctness, meaningfulness and usefulness of the particular interpretations that researchers form based on the data they gather (Fraenkel et al., 2012). Therefore, validity is a crucial standard for evaluating the quality and the adequacy of research instruments and data (Burns, 2003).

There are different types of validity that can be used to measure the quality of a research instrument. The first type is content validity, which refers to the extent to which the questionnaire produces accurate results for the questions being explored, and can be assessed through the review of the questionnaire by an expert. Based on this assessor’s comments any incomprehensible statements and questions can be revised and/or rephrased. Consequently, the supervisors and a number of PhD researchers reviewed this research’s questionnaire. The second type is internal validity, which is used to verify whether the researcher is actually investigating what he/she intends to explore, which can be achieved through applying a range of techniques such as triangulation, peer examination, member checking and research bias. Next, external validity is related to the appropriateness of the questionnaire results in other occasions and with other subjects. Finally, utility criterion is related to the extent of the usefulness of the questionnaire’s findings to the stakeholders (Cohen et al., 2005; Zohrabi, 2013). Moreover, in order to increase the validity of the questionnaire, a pilot study was carried out prior to conducting the primary quantitative data collection.

Reliability is concerned with the consistency of the outcomes attained from research over time and under different settings. Thyer (2010) indicated two main types of reliability: internal and external reliability. Internal reliability involves the consistency of gathering, analysing and interpreting the data,

where this type of reliability could be achieved when an independent researcher conducts research and obtains findings similar to the initial findings. In other words, internal reliability is confirmed by the matching of repeated research findings with the original research findings. External reliability deals with the repetition of the study, and is primarily related to the measurement of the likelihood of achieving similar findings to previous research. The external reliability of a study can be increased by considering the status of the researcher, the selection of the informants, the social situations and circumstances, the analytical constructs and premises, and the methods of data collection and analysis (Zohrabi, 2013). However, many techniques can be used to measure research instruments' reliability, with this research using the most common method: Cronbach's alpha (Bernard and Bernard, 2012).

4.7.4.2 Qualitative research methods

The qualitative research approach is directed by the concepts of the interpretive paradigm; it involves identifying issues from the inside perspective and it is primarily employed for addressing 'why' and 'how' questions, in addition to being beneficial for exploring new topics and understanding complex problems (Hennink et al., 2010). While the nature of data in quantitative methods is based on numbers and the research is centred on facts, the nature of data in qualitative methods is based upon words or images, with the research focused on meanings and the data collected in the form of naturalistic verbal reports such as interview transcripts or written accounts, where the analysis conducted on these is textual (Gray, 2013; Smith, 2015; Padgett, 2016). As indicated by Bryman (2015:374) "*qualitative research is a research strategy that usually emphasises words rather than quantification in collection and analysis of data*". Qualitative research utilises non-standardised methods of data generation that allow for the investigation of emergent issues. In addition, the obtained data are rich and detailed since they are grounded in the perspectives and accounts of the participants, while the role and perspectives of the researcher in the research process are acknowledged, and

in some cases lead to them reporting on their personal experiences in the field (Ritchie, 2013).

Qualitative research methods have been criticised for the small size of the samples, which may not allow the generalisability of the findings as the particular conditions of a small number of participants may not be broadly applicable to others. Furthermore, the results of the study can be simple and easily influenced by the researcher's opinion (Saunders et al., 2009).

4.7.4.2.1 Interviews

Interviews are one of the main sources of collecting data when conducting qualitative research. Kothari (2004) defined the interview as featuring the performance of oral-verbal stimuli and replies in terms of oral-verbal responses. In the same vein, Payne and Payne (2004:129) defined the interview as *“data collection in face-to-face settings, using an oral question-and-answer format”*. A broader definition is offered by Saunders et al. (2012:680), who defined the research interview as *“purposeful conversation between two or more people requiring the interviewer to establish rapport, to ask concise and unambiguous questions and to listen attentively”*. Punch (2005:168) asserted that representing one of the key data collection tools in non-numerical research, the interview is a highly effective means of securing the right to use individuals' perceptions and definitions of situations and the development of reality. Cohen et al. (2013) claimed that interviews are primarily conducted for three reasons: to explore or evaluate people's perceptions, attitudes and thinking on a particular phenomenon; and to examine or improve a theory.

According to Creswell (2012), the interview can ultimately be categorised into four approaches depending on the accessibility of the participants and the amount of time available. The first approach is the one-to-one interview, which is a data gathering process whereby the interviewer asks questions to and records answers from only one study interviewee at a time. The second approach is the focus group interview, where the researcher can collect the data through interviews with a number of individuals simultaneously, with the

groups usually comprising four to six participants. This type of interview can lead to rich data if the participants are motivated and cooperative within the group. The next approach is telephone interviews, which can be conducted through telephone calls between the researcher and the participants. It requires the researcher to employ an apparatus that connects the telephone and audio recorder together in order to collect a pure recorded interview. Although this approach is quick, it can be expensive and the researcher does not interact with the interviewees directly. Another approach is email interviews, which can be conducted with participants by utilising computers and the Internet to send the interview questions to the participants and receive their responses. This type of interview offers swift access to vast numbers of individuals and results in detailed, rich textual data for qualitative analysis. The approach can also support a conversation between the researcher and the interviewees through follow-up emails to extend the understanding of the research phenomenon. However, emailed interviews can face complex ethical issues in some cases. Furthermore, it can be difficult to conduct such interviews with young participants under the age of ten years who may not possess an email address. Despite these weaknesses, the selection of email interviews will potentially increase due to the dissemination of technology.

In general, there are three main interview types implemented by researchers to collect qualitative data, with each featuring its respective emphases and objectives. The research questions and the data necessary to respond to these questions will define the most appropriate type to be used (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012; Alsaawi, 2014; Kumar, 2014; Bryman, 2015). First, there is the structured interview, where the data are collected through asking the participants a series of predetermined questions that are short and easily understood. The questions are typically closed, and thus well-defined responses are required. The interviewer essentially asks identical questions to all the interviewees, which enables comparison among the responses. However, the structured interview limits the potential to obtain in-depth data. It has also been noted that this type of interview fits those researchers who know precisely what sort of information they are seeking (Dörnyei, 2007; Kielmann et al., 2012; Alsaawi, 2014; Mackey and Gass, 2015).

Next there is the unstructured interview, which is distinct from the previous interview type in that it is informal, open and narrative in nature. The unstructured interview does not follow any formal interview procedure, although the researcher could have a few questions prepared to organise the interview. The interviewer can thus direct the conversation in any direction that supports the collection of a rich narrative. Unstructured interviews have the ability to produce a vast amount of data, and therefore they are applicable for those researchers who wish to concentrate on a particular phenomenon in depth (Harris and Brown, 2010; Alsaawi, 2014). On the other hand, carrying out unstructured interviews requires good interpersonal skills, and thus interviewers who have robust relational abilities (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2015).

The third and final type is the semi-structured interview, which is a combination of the two aforementioned types stated above. The questions are prearranged in advance of the interview, but the researcher provides the interviewees with the opportunity to give details to specific issues by using open-ended questions (Alsaawi, 2014). The key benefit of the semi-structured interview is that the data are organised and inclusive, while the interview remains informal (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2015). However, it may be difficult to analyse and compare the data due to the excessive freedom permitted to the participants during the conversation in order to obtain a richer narrative (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2015; Mackey and Gass, 2015). Interviews can also be divided into standardised and non-standardised, or respondent and informant interviews (Saunders et al., 2009).

In contrast to questionnaires, interviews are more flexible due to the ability of the interviewer to explain the questions and modify them to suit the situation. In this research, semi-structured interviews were employed to obtain information about the reasons behind the unsuitability of the courses and their materials to students' needs. In addition, they were utilised to elicit information about the assessment criteria being used to assess students' work, as well as to gain information about the availability of staff training programmes. The interviews were completed by the participants at Zawia University and were sent to the researcher by email. Although the researcher had intended to

conduct the interviews face to face, the current security situation in Libya prevented her from receiving official permission from the university to conduct the interviews in Libya. Therefore, the most appropriate medium for the interviews to be carried out was through email (The next section provides further detail about the emailed interviews). Prior to this, a critical evaluation of the interview should be carried out. In order to collect data about a certain phenomenon in a manner that allows the gathering of rich and detailed information, the interview method should be used because it offers researchers the opportunity to discover information that may not be accessible using other data collection methods (Blaxter et al., 2006; Harris and Brown, 2010). In addition, the interview provides researchers with an opportunity to examine phenomena that are not directly observable, while they can elicit additional data if the participants request for the rephrasing or simplification of unclear questions (Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey and Gass, 2015). Another advantage of the interview is that it is not only a data collection method, but also a natural means of interaction that can occur in different situations with different types of population (Blaxter et al., 2006).

On the other hand, conducting interviews is time consuming and the quality of the information obtained is affected by the quality of the interaction between the researcher and the participants (Kumar, 2014). To conclude, with regard to the benefits and drawbacks, the interview is a dominant method in obtaining information on individuals' perceptions and beliefs, which can be mixed with other methods to delve deeper than would be possible when used as the sole data collection instrument (Alshenqeeti, 2014). Therefore, this study employed mixed methods to gather in-depth information about the research problem, with the interview instrument used to support the findings from the questionnaire.

According to Dawson (2009), there are different types of interview analysis such as comparative analysis, thematic analysis and content analysis. Content analysis will be used to analyse the interviews in this study, which is defined by Bryman (2015) as an approach to the analysis of documents and texts that can be printed or visual, and which aims to quantify content in terms of prearranged sets in an organised and replicable manner. Furthermore, content

analysis is classified as the best technique to reduce qualitative data and to code and analyse open-ended questions (Cohen et al., 2013).

4.7.4.2.1.1 The emailed interview

Internet usage offers major advantages where the target population and the researcher are geographically dispersed. Different scholars defined the emailed interview in a similar manner. Flick (2014) referred to the emailed interview as transferring the face-to-face interview to the Internet domain. In the same vein, Cassell and Symon (2004) defined the electronic interview as electronic communication that facilitates access to participants, and which can be conducted online, offline or via email. Another detailed definition was introduced by Saunders et al. (2009), who stated that an emailed interview involves of a chain of email messages, with each containing a small number of questions rather than one long email containing the full series of questions.

The process of arranging an emailed interview is challenging. In the first email, the researcher needs to explain in detail how the interview process will work, while this initial email may also contain a participant information sheet and consent form as attachments (Morris, 2015). Practically, conducting emailed interviews is different from face-to-face interviews. As asserted by Cassell and Symon (2004), in electronic interviews a number of emails are exchanged between the interviewer and the participant over an extended period of time. Initially, a small number of questions will be asked and the interviewee will reply, expressing their points of view and ideas. Then, the interviewer will have to respond precisely to those ideas, asking follow-up questions or clarifications, and generally opening up the discussion to elicit more information (Flick, 2014). Therefore, the researcher contacts the participants by email more than once, using the follow-up emails to generate more data.

It is worth mentioning that the electronic interview can be grouped into two types: asynchronous and synchronous. The former asynchronous interview can be categorised into the email type and Internet forum type, whereas the synchronous form has only one type, which is chat rooms. Figure 4.3 below

describes this categorisation, where it can be seen that the current study employs the asynchronous type by sending the interview via email.

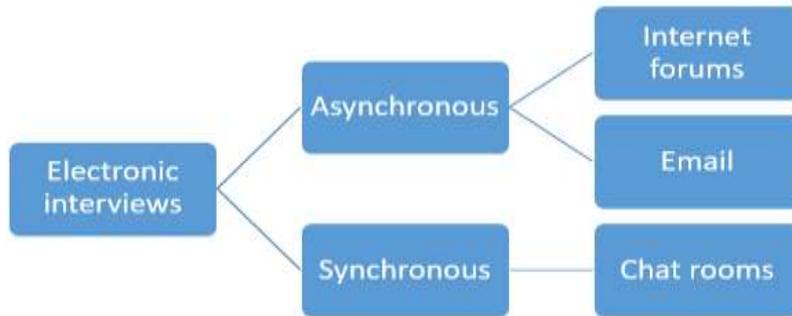


Figure 4.3 Forms of electronic interview (Source: Saunders et al., 2009:350)

Electronic interviews can be beneficial as they provide opportunities to both the researcher and the participants to reflect on the questions and replies before providing the final responses, which can increase the respondents' role in the research process and enhance the quality of their answers (Morris, 2015). In addition, increased and in-depth research rapport can be generated. Furthermore, emailed interviews can be an effective method of gaining access to those participants who live remotely, as per the case of this research where the researcher is situated in the UK and the participants in Libya. Moreover, emailed interviews create data in the form of text, which saves time transcribing the dialogue from audio-recorded interviews, while the researcher can conduct multiple interviews simultaneously. A final advantage of the emailed interview is that the participants can remain anonymous (Cassell and Symon, 2004; Saunders et al., 2009; Flick, 2014). Despite the aforementioned advantages, emailed interviews may last for weeks and delays in the responses are possible, while it is possibly that the quality of answers will differ, and consequently the researcher may need to send follow-up questions according to the participants' responses, which should be done in an appropriate manner to maintain the momentum and motivation. Nevertheless, some interviewees may become disinterested and discontinue responding to the follow-up emails. Meanwhile, ambiguity in the interview questions may lead to misinterpretation, and therefore it is imperative that all interview questions are clear and concise (Saunders et al., 2009; Morris, 2015). On balance, the

researcher concluded that the benefits of emailed interviews outweigh the drawbacks.

For this study, semi-structured interviews were conducted with English language lecturers and alumni of the faculties of education at Zawia University.

4.7.4.2.1.2 Validity and reliability of interviews

Assessing the research instruments and research findings is a vital procedure in a study. However, there is ongoing debate about whether the terms validity and reliability are applicable to evaluate qualitative research due to the inappropriateness of the application of tests and measures used to evaluate validity and reliability in quantitative research being applied to qualitative research (Noble and Smith, 2015). Moreover, some researchers disagree with the notion of using such approaches in qualitative research, while others reject the entire idea and suggest alternative criteria such as truth–value, confirmability and consistency to ensure the reliability and validity of the findings (Flick, 2014; Leung, 2015; Rubin and Babbie, 2016). On the other hand, Cohen (2013) proposed a number of principles to ensure validity in qualitative research: i) the foremost source of data is the natural setting; ii) the researcher is a part of the researched world and the main research instrument; iii) the emphasis is placed on processes rather than the outcomes; and iv) the data should be analysed inductively. In summary, researchers should follow techniques that support retaining the maximum validity and reliability of the interview. This can be achieved by avoiding asking leading questions to the interviewees in order to prevent the interviewer influencing the participants' responses. In addition, to enhance the validity and reliability of the interview the research question(s) should be in line with the research objectives. However, in this study the interview questions are based on the questionnaire findings, and that instrument has already been validated.

4.7.4.3 Document analysis

Documents are a valuable source of information when conducting qualitative research. In similarity to the other methods of qualitative research, documents need to be analysed in order to elicit information. Bowen (2009) defined

document analysis as a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents, regardless of whether they are hardcopy or electronic material. In addition, Creswell (2012) described document analysis as a source of beneficial information that supports the researcher to understand dominant phenomena in qualitative studies. The documents can present in different forms such as agendas, policy documents, programme proposals, letters, and background papers, and they can also be public or private documents (Yin, 2003).

According to Bowen (2009), documents can offer four purposes as a part of research activity: i) data and insight that supports researchers in their understanding of the historical roots of particular concerns upon which the phenomenon is being investigated; ii) the information contained in documents can lead to questions that need to be asked and contexts that need to be observed as a stage of the research, for instance, where analysing documents may lead to the generating of interview questions that help in gaining supplementary data about the problem under investigation; iii) documents can provide an opportunity to track changes and development, since where different drafts of a particular document are accessible, the researcher can compare them and determine the amendments; and iv) documents may help in verifying the results or validate data from other sources. In summary, documents help to describe the background and setting, resulting in additional questions to be asked, supplementary data to be analysed and allowing the corroboration of results from other data methods.

As there are many types of documents, there are also many procedures for collecting documents. Creswell (2012) provided guidance for the collection of documents for qualitative studies. First, identify the required type of documents. Second, use both public and private documents as sources of information for the research. Third, when the documents are sited, seek permission to utilise them in the research. Finally, examine the appropriateness and relevance of the documents to the research and record the required information.

One of the key advantages of documents is that they do not require transcription. They are ready for analysis once they have been obtained. In addition, documents are an efficient method for the collection of information as the process is cost-effective and faster than other methods as the data are already gathered. Another benefit is that documents are normally accessible and in the public domain. However, some documents may be difficult to obtain and their information may be not accessible to the public (Bowen, 2009). Although documents as a research method can support in acquiring in-depth information about a certain phenomenon, they often contain insufficient detail because the documents were created for specific purposes unlikely to echo the research objectives. Moreover, documents may be difficult to retrieve.

As mentioned earlier, this study features a combination of quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments known as the mixed method. To secure the necessary data, the quantitative data were collected through the questionnaire and the qualitative data were collected through emailed interviews and written documents including the syllabus and a sample of examination papers for the writing and grammar subjects for years 1, 2, 3 and 4. The next section will explore the mixed method approach in detail.

4.7.4.4 Mixed methods

Although initially employed solely in the social sciences, mixed methods research has more recently expanded into other sciences, where its processes have been developed and refined to suit a range of research questions (Creswell et al., 2003). According to Johnson et al. (2007:123), mixed methods research can be defined as *“the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration”*. Meanwhile, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) described the mixed method as the third wave or third research movement.

Greene (2007) claimed that there are five rationales for mixed methods research: i) triangulation, which means seeking the combination of results from different methods; ii) complementarity purpose, which seeks for the enhancement of the results from one research method with the results from the other method(s); iii) development, through exploiting the findings from one research method to help in developing the other method(s); iv) initiation, which involves the search for new perspectives of frameworks, the recasting of questions or results from one method with the questions or results from the other method(s); and v) the expansion of investigation by using several methods for different inquiry components.

The mixing of qualitative and quantitative research methods can help researchers in achieving a more complete understanding of the research problems than possible through either approach alone (Creswell, 2013). Furthermore, since all methods of data collection have drawbacks, the use of mixed methods can reduce or nullify some of the disadvantages of certain methods, and therefore using a mixed methods approach can strengthen research (Abbas and Charles, 2003). As stated by McKim (2017:203), "*mixed methods research is the only way to be certain of findings*".

On the other hand, using a mixed method in research can be time-consuming and incur greater costs, while more resources are required than single method studies as well as skilled researchers with knowledge of both quantitative and qualitative research (Saunders et al., 2009; Creswell, 2014; McKim, 2017). In order to achieve findings in complementary strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses, the researcher must mix the research methods in an effective manner by considering all the relevant features of quantitative and qualitative research (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). In order to increase the effectiveness of the current study and gain in-depth information, the mixed methods approach was used to collect the data.

4.7.4.4.1 Justification for using mixed methods

As mentioned earlier, there are three types of methodology: quantitative (numeric data), qualitative (non-numeric data), and mixed methods (using both types of data) (Hughes, 2016). Although each research type has its own

weaknesses and strengths, mixed method research has compounded the opportunities for creative development in methodology and contributes to our understanding of important and complex problems in different fields (Mertens et al., 2016).

Mixed methods research couples the strengths of qualitative and quantitative data to respond to complex research questions in addition to enabling a deep and broad understanding of the phenomenon than possible with either approach alone. In other words, the using of a mixed method approach heightens legitimacy, since the qualitative analyses involve descriptive precision and the quantitative analyses ensure numeral precision (Mills et al., 2010). Furthermore, mixed methods enhances the research value by increasing knowledge, improving accuracy and completeness, and informing and contributing to the overall validity of the findings. Mixed method research also provides readers with greater confidence in the results and the conclusions they draw from the study. Moreover, the mixed method approach benefits researchers through cultivating ideas for future research (McKim, 2017).

Therefore, this study uses mixed methods because of its strengths and the researcher's aspiration to benefit from the advantages of each research method to collect a broad variety of data while achieving a deep understanding of the research phenomenon. In summary, the first method involved a questionnaire aimed at identifying the teachers' perceptions regarding the provision of the current English language programme at Zawia University. The second method entailed carrying out semi-structured interviews with the lecturers and alumni to allow for further understanding. While the third method comprised of analysing written documents obtained from the English language department at Zawia University, including the syllabus and a sample of examination papers for the writing and grammar subjects for years 1, 2, 3 and 4. It is unfortunate that the observation could not be conducted as a fourth research method because of unstable situation of Libya Research Ethics Committee of Liverpool John Moores University refused to provide the author with permission to travel to Libya as a researcher.

4.8 Sampling

Sampling is a key component in research, referring to the choice of a part of a group or the entire population with the target of gathering comprehensive data. The selected part that defines the characteristics of the full population is known as the sample (Khan, 2011). The sample must be in agreement with the research questions, objectives, methods and the expected target of the research conclusions (Hallebone and Priest, 2009).

Kumar (2008) identified two types of contrasting sampling procedures: non-probability sampling and probability sampling. Non-probability sampling means that the study participants are not randomly selected and the individuals are not offered an equal opportunity to become the part of a research sample. Therefore, the sample choice depends on the researchers' subjectivity. Non-probability sampling involves many techniques. First, there is snowball sampling, in which the researcher selects a small number of participants as a sample for the study, and those chosen participants suggest other candidates who possess similar experience and characteristics for inclusion in the study (Bryman, 2015). Second, there is convenience sampling, which relates to including research subjects who are simply accessible and available to the researcher, while there are no geographical or time constraints preventing the required sample size from being reached (Etikan et al., 2016). Next, there is purposive sampling, whereby the researcher selects a research phenomenon of interest and establishes a number of criteria or characteristics for the sample and then attempts to locate participants who hold these criteria to be invited to participate as the research sample (Creswell et al., 2003). Purposive sampling and convenience sampling share the same limitation, which is involving the non-random selection of research participants that can lead to subjectivity and bias. Finally, there is quota sampling, which although rarely used in social sciences research is widely utilised in commercial research, where it is applied to collect data through categorising the applicable population into different classifications and then selecting a particular size of a sample within each classification (Bryman, 2015).

Etikan et al. (2016) asserted that the main reason for using non-probability sampling is that it is relatively economical and quicker than probability sampling. On the other hand, probability sampling refers to the random selection of the research sample. In other words, the whole population has a similar opportunity of being part of the research sample, which decreases the likelihood of bias. Probability sampling includes a number of classifications. To begin with, there are systematic sampling and cluster sampling, which share the same structure where the population is divided into primary units and each single primary unit contains secondary units.

In systematic sampling, each major unit is composed of minor units drawn in a systematic style from throughout the population, while in cluster sampling each key unit involves a cluster of secondary units that are located in close proximity to each other (Khan, 2011; Thompson, 2012). The next classification is stratified sampling, which is similar to quota sampling, whereby the population is grouped into categories and the research sample is selected from each category, with the reason behind this selection being to select a representative sample for the population (Acharya et al., 2013; Cohen et al., 2013). The last type is simple random sampling, which is defined as a sampling procedure that endeavours to be representative of the entire population by offering equal opportunities for every individual to be a part of the research sample (Greener, 2011; Gray, 2013; Etikan et al., 2016).

In this study, none of the above sampling techniques were applied for the lecturer participants because the researcher was able to include the entire population. As Saunders et al. (2009:212) reported, "*for some research questions it is possible to collect data from an entire population as it is of a manageable size*".

Therefore, all of the English language lecturers from the education faculties at Zawia University were invited to participate in the study, where the population comprised of 220 individuals. In the case of the alumni, purposive sampling was applied and the researcher established certain criteria for the participants as follows: they must have graduated from the faculties of education at Zawia

University, and that their period of study coincided with the application of the obtained English language syllabus.

4.9 Triangulation

Triangulation can be defined as an attempt to clarify more fully the complexity of the research phenomenon by studying it from more than one standpoint using both quantitative and qualitative data (Cohen et al., 2013). As the triangulation is a powerful means of demonstrating the concurrent validity of the data, it requires more than one method or source of data in studying the phenomena (Bryman and Bell, 2015).

According to Yin (2013), case studies that employ multiple sources of evidence are considered to be of higher quality than those that use a single source of data. In addition, the multiple sources of evidence essentially provide multiple measures of the same phenomenon. Therefore, triangulation supports the case study by strengthening the construct validity.

This study employs the CIPP model of evaluation, which also requires the use of different data collection methods. Consequently, it accommodates data triangulation, which in turn enhances the validity of the evaluative findings.

4.10 Pilot study

An additional method for increasing research instrument is to examine its design through conducting a pilot study, which is “*a smaller scale version of the main study and is designed to check that the design is doing the job it is supposed to do*” (Hall, 2008:79). A pilot study does not only offer the advantage of generating data, but also helps to identify any drawbacks with the research instrument’s design, which can then be refined before conducting the full study (Saunders et al., 2009; Bryman and Bell, 2015). A pilot study was carried out for this study to test for the ambiguity of meaning and inadequacy of wording in the questionnaire. In other words, the questionnaire was piloted to ensure that all of its statements were comprehensible and concise.

A preliminary questionnaire was emailed to the gatekeeper of the faculties at education Zawia University, and then distributed to 30 English teachers at

Zawia University; however, 25 questionnaires were valid to use in the pilot study. Some lecturers included comments about certain statements such as No. 4: (*The main objectives of the programme is to teach English language and culture*), where they stated that the answer would be different if the word ‘culture’ was retained or deleted from the statement, because from their point of view the main objective of the programme is solely to teach English. Statements 40, 43 and 44 contain the word ‘book’, and the pilot respondents claimed that this was ambiguous because the statements do not indicate what type of books the researcher refers to. The data from the piloted questionnaire were analysed using version 24 of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), and the Cronbach’s alpha of the piloted questionnaire was found to be 0.775. Based on the feedback received from the pilot study participants and the results, the research instrument’s initial reliability was improved and it was ultimately valid for the full investigation after making the necessary amendments in response to the pilot feedback.

Furthermore, the researcher completed an initial benchmarking framework by emailing a number of colleagues from the English department at Zawia University who had previously complete the IELTS test and were fully aware of its criteria and descriptions, with the findings used in an attempt to understand the undergraduate Libyan students’ level of English, as presented in Table 4.5 below.

Table 4.5 Initial benchmarking exercise

Year	Qualification	Libyan students’ comparative IELTS level
End of secondary level	Secondary certificate	Below 4
End of 4 th year university	Licentiate	4.5

4.11 Data collection instruments

Data collection is an essential component of conducting any research study. There are numerous data collection methods that can support the researchers to systematically gather information about any research phenomenon and its context. In addition, (Creswell, 2013; Sani CIn, 2013). This study employs three methods of data collection: questionnaire, interviews and document

analysis. The next sections introduce detailed explanations about their particular structure and use.

4.11.1 The questionnaire

The questionnaire is the main data collection instrument for this study. It was adapted from a study by Yilmaz (2011), entitled “*Evaluating the Turkish language curriculum at Jagiellonian university in Poland*”. The questionnaire is a closed-ended type, used to discover the teachers’ perceptions about the provision of the current English language programme of the faculties of education at Zawia University. In addition, the instrument supported the researcher in determining whether the teachers believe that the current English programme prepares Libyan students for the world of work through assessing their opinions on the success of the programme and the sufficiency of the courses and the respective materials. The questionnaire employed in this study features a five-point Likert scale with responses ranging from 1 to 5 (1= strongly disagree, 2= agree, 3= neutral, 4= agree and 5= strongly agree). The questionnaire includes 52 statements and it is divided into five parts. The first part is used to gather general demographic information about the participants including the gender and years of professional experience. The second part collects information about the students’ language skills development at Zawia University, featuring statements 1 to 11. The third part, entitled *challenging skills for students*, investigates the opinions of lecturers on which of the four skills students have difficulty in, featuring statements 12 to 27. The fourth part gauges the lecturers’ opinions about teaching through statements 28 to 38. The fifth and final part is entitled *teaching materials* and investigate the lecturers’ opinions about the sufficiency of the teaching materials to meet the students’ needs, comprising statements 39 to 52. Completion of the questionnaire was estimated to require 15–20 minutes of the participants’ time.

Since this study is grounded in the Libya context, the Research Ethics Committee of Liverpool John Moores University advised against traveling to the country because of the current insecurity. Consequently, the researcher sent the questionnaires by email to the gatekeeper of the faculties of education

at Zawia University, who in turn invited the lecturers of the English language department to complete the questionnaires and returned them to the researcher.

4.11.1.1 Procedures for the questionnaire data analysis

The questionnaire was analysed using SPSS, while the Cronbach's alpha measurement test was run to ensure that the questionnaire had a satisfactory reliability. The Cronbach's alpha was .805, and therefore the questionnaire can be considered as a valid instrument. In order to achieve the research objectives and respond to the research questions, the researcher utilised five techniques in analysing the questionnaire data: descriptive statistics, mean scores, Pearson correlation and one-way Anova. The initial procedure was applying the descriptive analysis to the data in order to obtain the frequency and percentage of the participants' responses. In addition, the scores' mean was calculated to indicate the lecturers' level of agreement or disagreement with the questionnaire's constructs. Secondly, three parametric tests were conducted to compare the variables. First, a Pearson correlation analysis was employed to determine the relationship between the four constructs of the questionnaire (i.e. programme delivery, students' skills, teaching implementation and teaching materials). Then, the one-way Anova was conducted to explore the difference in the mean scores of the candidates' responses according to the questionnaire's constructs. The one-way Anova analysis was run with a Duncan's post hoc test, which was utilised to fragment the groups into homogeneous subsets and determine where the differences were.

4.11.2 Interviews

The interviews were additional instruments to support the findings of the questionnaire. Two sets of interviews were conducted in this study, with each being of the semi-structured interview type. The first interview was conducted with six English language lecturers at Zawia University to gain information about the courses' content, delivery and student assessment.

The interview features a total of 23 interview questions, with five sections. Section A is composed of three questions to gather general information about the participants' such as the type of English course taught. Section B contains two questions about the course aims and objectives. Section C includes four questions about the course content and its appropriateness to the students' needs. Section D comprises twelve questions exploring the course delivery and student assessment. Section E contains only one question where further comments about the English language programme structure, content and delivery can be added.

The second interview was conducted with four alumni of the English language department who had graduated in the past few years. The interview was translated into the Arabic language in order to attain clear and in-depth information, and consists of six questions to discover the level of the participants' satisfaction with the programme that they participated on. However, as mentioned earlier, the researcher could not travel to Libya to conduct these interviews face to face, and consequently both sets of interviews were sent and returned by email.

4.11.2.1 Procedures for the interview data analysis

The two interview sets were analysed using content analysis. The initial step of commencing the interview analysis involved reading the interview transcripts repeatedly in order to understand exactly what the participants were trying to convey. After that, the researcher named each transcript to make it easier to differentiate between them. Following that, information related to the research questions were highlighted. Then, the identified data were coded and divided into categories and themes. Moreover, in an attempt to reduce the data, the researcher merged similar information and determined that which were distinct. Finally, the data were analysed and the findings emerged.

To ensure the validity and reliability of the interviews, the questions were based on the questionnaire findings which had already been validated. Furthermore, the interviewer effect was completely avoided due to sending the

interviews via email. The steps followed in applying the content analysis can be seen in the model presented in Figure 4.4.

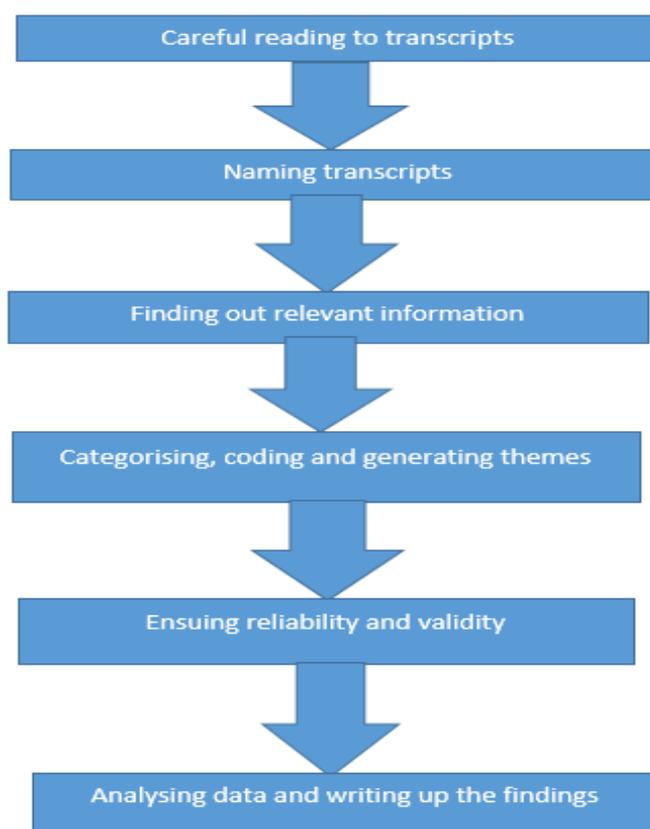


Figure 4.4 Content analysis model

4.11.3 Written documents

In this research, documents related to the English language department at Zawia University were gathered for analysis. The documents included the syllabus and sample of examination papers for the writing and grammar subjects for years 1, 2, 3 and 4 for the 2016 and 2017 academic years. The English syllabus was designed in 2009 and was still in use during this research period. The intention was for this document to provide information about the aim, objectives, content and recommended sources for each course in the four years of the English language programme at the institution. The analysis of this syllabus followed a number of steps, which will be discussed in detail in Chapter Five.

4.12 Ethical considerations

Gaining ethics approval is considered as one of the key steps that the researcher must fulfil when conducting research. As Wellington (2015:4) pointed out, *“ethical concerns should be at the forefront of any research project and should continue through to the write-up and dissemination stages”*. Meeting ethics standards is necessary to ensure that research remains systematic and accountable by controlling the access to information and the researcher’s behaviour (Sarantakos, 2012; Hair, 2015). Therefore, ethics refer to the morality of human conduct, moral deliberation, choice and accountability on the part of the researcher throughout the research process (Miller et al., 2012). In addition, ethics are defined as a procedure or viewpoint for determining how to act when analysing complex problems (Gajjar, 2013). In other words, for research to be reliable, it should be ethical (Wellington, 2015).

Gajjar (2013) identified five reasons why researchers should follow ethical standards: i) ethical rules promote the aims of research; ii) ethical norms enhance the values that are crucial to cooperative work because research regularly involves many individuals from different institutions and fields; iii) ethical standards ensure that researchers can be held accountable to the public; iv) ethical rules can aid in building public support for the research; and v) many of the standards of research encourage the diversity of moral and social values, such as human rights. Therefore, any ethical gap in research can be considered harmful to both the participants and the public (Guillemin and Gillam, 2004).

For the present study, the researcher completed the ethics proforma and was evaluated and approved for the pilot and final study by the Research Ethics Committee at Liverpool John Moores University, based on the institution’s ethical codes guide. As stated by Saunders et al. (2009), remaining mindful of the ethical concerns will enhance the reliability and credibility of the research.

4.13 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the methodology, research design, research methods and procedures that were applied in analysing the data. It also discussed the sampling techniques employed for this case study that used quantitative and qualitative data to ensure that the findings are in-depth and reliable. The next chapter presents the findings that emerged from the data analysis.

5 Chapter Five: Data Analysis

5.1 Introduction

This chapter comprises two main sections. The first features the analysis of the quantitative data collected from the questionnaire. Its analysis was conducted using SPSS (version 24) and includes two main parts: the first part involves descriptive analysis of the demographic data, the internal reliability of the questionnaire's items and the collapsed mean and standard deviation scores of the questionnaire variables, in addition to the frequency and percentage of the participants' responses. The second part presents the application of two parametric tests: the Pearson correlation and one-way Anova. The second section comprises analysis of the qualitative data emerging from the semi-structured interviews using content analysis, with the documents analysed using codes and categories to support content analysis.

5.2 Quantitative data analysis

The questionnaire was the main instrument for collecting the quantitative data in this study. It was employed to reveal the lecturers' perceptions regarding the provision of the current English language programme at Zawia University. In addition, the questionnaire was utilised to enable the researcher to determine whether the lecturers believe that the current English programme prepares Libyan students for the world of work through gauging their opinions on the success of the programme and the sufficiency of courses' content and materials, as well as the students' skills. The questionnaire was primarily a closed-ended type, asking the participants to register the extent of their agreement or disagreement with the statements presented.

All the English language lecturers at Zawia University (n= 220) were invited to complete the questionnaire. Therefore, two hundred and twenty questionnaires were emailed to the English language lecturers at the institution, with one hundred and fifty valid and completed questionnaires returned. As Table 5.1 indicates, the response rate is quite high, perhaps because the researcher had been nominated by the university to study abroad.

In addition, the participants were emailed many times and they expressed interest in the topic of study.

Table 5.1 Questionnaire's response rate

Total number of questionnaires distributed	Total number of valid questionnaires returned	Response rate
220	150	68.1%

5.2.1 Descriptive statistics' analysis, demographic data analysis

The first part of the questionnaire was used to gather general information about the participants, including their gender and years of experience teaching the English language, as shown in Table 5.2

Table 5.2 Participants' gender

GENDER					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	47	31.3	31.3	31.3
	Female	103	68.7	68.7	100
	Total	150	100	100	

As depicted in the above table, the percentage of female respondents was 69%, whereas the percentage of male respondents was 31%. This suggests that there are fewer male lecturers in the English language department at Zawia University than female lecturers.

The participants' experience of teaching English was divided into five groups, as seen in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Participants' years of experience

EXPERIENCE					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	less than 1 year	10	6.7	6.7	6.7
	from 1 to 5 years	20	13.3	13.3	20
	from 6 to 10 years	40	26.7	26.7	46.7
	from 11 to 15 years	60	40	40	86.7
	more than 15 years	20	13.3	13.3	100
	Total	150	100	100	

The above table illustrates the five groups of participants' teaching experience. The first group includes 10 lecturers (7%) with experience less than one year. The second group has 20 lecturers (13%) with teaching experience of between 1 and 5 years. The third group comprises 40 lecturers (27%) with experience from 6 to 10 years. The fourth group includes 60 lecturers (40%) with experience from 11 to 15 years. While the final group has 20 lecturers (13%) with more than 15 years of teaching experience. Therefore, from the results it can be asserted that the English language department includes lecturers with a range of professional experience.

5.2.1.1 The internal reliability of the questionnaire's items

The researcher needed to ensure that all the items of the questionnaire were reliable. Therefore, Cronbach's coefficient alpha test was used as an index of reliability to provide a measurement of the internal consistency. The result of the Cronbach's alpha test was above the acceptable values of alpha, which are 0.70 for each variable and all variables combined. The Cronbach's coefficient alpha for all variable combined is .805, with variable 1= .718, variable 2= .708, variable 3= .702 and variable 4= .735. Consequently, the result indicates a good internal consistency of scale data, as shown in Table 5.4 below. It can therefore be supposed from the results that further parametric and non-parametric analysis can be conducted.

Table 5.4 Reliability statistics

Variable	Items		Cronbach's Alpha
	from	to	
Lecturers' opinions regarding skills' development	1	11	.718
Lecturers' perceptions about skills that are challenging for students	12	27	.708
Lecturers' opinions about the teaching	28	38	.702
Lecturers' perceptions on teaching materials	39	52	.735
All variables	52		.805

5.2.1.2 The questionnaire's statistical analysis

The questionnaire employed in this study has a five-point Likert scale with responses ranging from 1 to 5 (1= strongly disagree, 2= agree, 3= neutral, 4= agree and 5= strongly agree). The questionnaire involves 52 statements and it is divided into five parts. The first part seeks general information about the participants, including the gender and years of teaching experience that were analysed in section 5.2.1.1 above. The second part aims to gather information regarding the students' language skills development at Zawia University, through statements 1–11. The third part investigates of the opinions of lecturers regarding which of the four skills is challenging for students, through statements 12–27. The fourth part gauges the lecturers' opinions about teaching through statements 28–38. The fifth and final part investigates the lecturers' opinions about the sufficiency of the teaching materials to meet the students' needs through statements 39–52.

Descriptive tests were used to identify the collapsed mean score and standard deviation of each variable of the questionnaire's response. A score below three determines the participants' disagreement with the questionnaire's variables, while any score above three indicates the respondents' agreement with the variable.

5.2.1.3 Collapsed mean and standard deviation score for the questionnaire variables

Table 5.5. below depicts the cumulative mean and standard deviation of the four variables of the questionnaire (All statements' mean and standard deviation results can be found in Appendix 2). It can be noted that variables 2, 3 and 4 have an average mean score of between 2.96 and 2.98, which indicates the participants' disagreement with the given statements. On the other hand, retaining a score of three as the midpoint, variable 1's collapsed mean score is 3.0400, which reflects the agreement of the respondents with the variable's statements.

Table 5.5 Collapsed mean and standard deviation scores for the questionnaire variables

No.	Variable	Items		No. of Respondents	Std. Deviation	Collapsed Mean
		from	to			
1	Lecturers' opinions regarding skills' development	1	11	150	.53097	3.0400
2	Lecturers' perceptions about skills that are challenging for students	12	27	150	.44937	2.9871
3	Lecturers' opinions about the teaching	28	38	150	.47118	2.9673
4	Lecturers' perceptions on teaching materials	39	52	150	.54943	2.9719

5.2.1.4 The frequency and percentage of the key participants' responses

This section presents the frequency and percentage of the key statements obtained from the sample, since the researcher used these as the basic for the interview questions (The entire result can be found in Appendix 2).

Variable one: Lecturers' opinions regarding skills' development

Table 5.6 English language courses in the programme are helpful for developing English reading skills

Statement		Teaching Experience										Total	
		Group 1: <1 year		Group 2: 1–5 years		Group 3: 6–10 years		Group 4: 11–15 years		Group 5: >15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
English language courses in the programme are helpful for developing reading skills	Strongly disagree	0	0%	2	10%	4	10%	2	3.3%	1	5%	9	6%
	Disagree	2	20%	6	30%	7	17.5%	12	20%	1	5%	28	18.7%
	Neutral	3	30%	2	10%	7	17.5%	12	20%	6	30%	30	20%
	Agree	5	50%	9	45%	20	50%	33	55%	11	55%	78	52%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	1	5%	2	5%	1	1.7%	1	5%	5	3.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

The results presented in Table 5.6 indicate that the majority of participants from the five groups are in agreement that the courses in the programme are helpful in developing the reading skills of the students. The level of respondents who agree with the statement from groups 4 and 5 is 55%, for groups 1 and 3 is 50%, and for Group 2 is 45%. Meanwhile, the percentage of

respondents' who disagree or strongly disagree is 24%. This result indicates that both the new and experienced lecturers hold similar views on this variable.

Table 5.7 English language courses in the programme are helpful for developing English listening skills

Statement		Teaching Experience										Total	
		Group 1: <1 year		Group 2: 1–5 years		Group 3: 6–10 years		Group 4: 11–15 years		Group 5: >15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
English language courses in the programme are helpful for developing listening skills	Strongly disagree	0	0%	2	10%	4	10%	7	11.7%	2	10%	15	10%
	Disagree	4	40%	4	20%	12	30%	19	31.7%	8	40%	47	31.3%
	Neutral	3	30%	8	40%	16	40%	23	38.3%	2	10%	52	34.7%
	Agree	2	20%	4	20%	6	15%	9	15%	6	30%	27	18%
	Strongly agree	1	10%	2	10%	2	5%	2	3.3%	2	10%	9	6%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

It is apparent from Table 5.7 that 20% of groups 1 and 2 agree with the statement that English language courses in the programme are helpful for developing listening skills in English, whereas 40% of Group 5 disagree with the statement and consider that the English language courses do not support developing listening skills of students. Meanwhile, 15% of Group 4 agree with the statement and 30% of Group 3 disagree. Despite the highest percentage of respondents tending to agree with the given statement there is significant difference in their answers, with the new lecturers' leaning towards agreement, whereas the experienced lecturers tend to disagree with the statement.

Table 5.8 English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing English-speaking skills

Statement		Teaching Experience										Total	
		Group 1: <1 year		Group 2: 1–5 years		Group 3: 6–10 years		Group 4: 11–15 years		Group 5: >15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
English language courses in the programme are	Strongly disagree	0	0%	1	5%	2	5%	6	10%	2	10%	11	7.3%
	Disagree	3	30%	9	45%	15	37.5%	18	30%	4	20%	49	32.7%
	Neutral	2	20%	3	15%	14	35%	23	38.3%	9	45%	51	34%

helpful in developing speaking skills	Agree	5	50%	5	25%	8	20%	9	15%	5	25%	32	21.3%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	2	10%	1	2.5%	4	6.7%	0	0%	7	4.7%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

From Table 5.8 it can be seen that 41% of the participants disagree or strongly disagree with the statement, thus contending that the courses in the programme are not supportive in improving the students' speaking skills. On the other hand, 26% of the participants agree or strongly agree with the given statement. Therefore, the majority of the respondents are in disagreement with the statement and believe that speaking skill development is not enhanced by the English language courses in the programme at Zawia University.

Table 5.9 English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing English writing skills

Statement		Teaching Experience										Total	
		Group 1: <1 year		Group 2: 1–5 years		Group 3: 6–10 years		Group 4: 11–15 years		Group 5: >15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing writing skills	Strongly disagree	0	0%	2	10%	4	10%	3	5%	0	0%	9	6%
	Disagree	3	30%	5	25%	7	17.5%	11	18.3%	2	10%	28	18.7%
	Neutral	2	20%	3	15%	7	17.5%	12	20%	6	30%	30	20%
	Agree	5	50%	9	45%	20	50%	33	55%	11	55%	78	52%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	1	5%	2	5%	1	1.7%	1	5%	5	3.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

As illustrated in Table 5.9 above, the majority of the lecturers believe that the courses in the programme are supportive in terms of developing the students' writing skills, with 55% of groups 4 and 5, 50% of groups 1 and 3 and 45% of Group 2 agreeing with the statement. Meanwhile, 30% of Group 1, 25% of Group 2, 18% of groups 3 and 4, and 10% of Group 5 disagree with the statement. This reveals that the novice and experienced lecturers hold similar opinions that the English programme's courses at Zawia University are helpful in developing the students' writing skills.

5.2.1.4.1 Variable two: Lecturers' perceptions about skills that are challenging for students

This element explores the opinions of the lecturers on those language skills that are challenging for the students.

Table 5.10 Students have difficulty listening in English

Statement		Teaching Experience										Total	
		Group 1: <1 year		Group 2: 1–5 years		Group 3: 6–10 years		Group 4: 11–15 years		Group 5: >15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Students have no difficulty listening in English	Strongly disagree	0	0%	3	15%	10	25%	2	3.3%	2	10%	17	11.3%
	Disagree	3	30%	7	35%	8	20%	22	36.7%	7	35%	47	31.3%
	Neutral	4	40%	4	20%	6	15%	22	36.7%	8	40%	44	29.3%
	Agree	3	30%	6	30%	12	30%	11	18.3%	1	5%	33	22%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	0	0%	4	10%	3	5%	2	10%	9	6%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	20	100%

Table 5.10 shows that most of the lecturers either disagree or strongly disagree (64 lecturers/42.6%) with the statement that students have no difficulty listening in English. The highest percentage in disagreement or strong disagreement is Group 2 (50%), while the lowest is Group 1 (30%). On the other hand, the group with the highest rate of agreement or strong agreement with the statement is Group 3 (40%), whereas the lowest rate is Group 5 (15%). This suggests that there is some variation in the responses to the given statement across the teaching groups in terms of experience. However, the majority tend to disagree.

Table 5.11 Students have difficulty understanding English texts

Statement		Teaching Experience										Total	
		Group 1: <1 year		Group 2: 1–5 years		Group 3: 6–10 years		Group 4: 11–15 years		Group 5: >15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Students have	Strongly disagree	0	0%	1	5%	2	5%	6	10%	2	10%	11	7.3%

difficulty understanding English texts	Disagree	3	30%	6	30%	16	40%	20	33.3%	5	25%	50	33.3%
	Neutral	3	30%	6	30%	13	32.5%	18	30%	8	40%	48	32%
	Agree	1	10%	7	35%	7	17.5%	12	20%	5	25%	34	22.7%
	Strongly agree	1	10%	0	0%	2	5%	4	6.7%	0	0%	7	4.7%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

As seen in Table 5.11, out of the 150 respondents 41% disagree or strongly disagree that the students have difficulty understanding English texts, while 27% agree or strongly agree. The responses from the participants are distributed into five groups according to their respective teaching experience: Group 1 (20% agree or strongly agree, 30% disagree), Group 2 (35% agree, 35% disagree or strongly disagree), Group 3 (23% agree or strongly agree, 45% disagree or strongly disagree), Group 4 (27% agree or strongly agree, 43% disagree or strongly disagree), and Group 5 (25% agree, 35% disagree or strongly disagree). Moreover, Table 5.11 reveals that Group 1 has the lowest proportion of overall agreement (20%) and disagreement (30%), while Group 2 has the highest overall percentage of agreement (35%) and Group 3 has the highest overall disagreement rate at 45%. In addition, 43% of Group 4 disagree or strongly disagree, while 35% of Group 5 are in disagreement or strong disagreement with the above statement. Therefore, the less experienced lecturers have mixed opinions, whereas the most experienced lecturers tend to disagree with the given statement and consider that students have difficulty understanding English texts.

Table 5.12 Students have no difficulty speaking English

Statement		Teaching Experience										Total	
		Group 1: <1 year		Group 2: 1–5 years		Group 3: 6–10 years		Group 4: 11–15 years		Group 5: >15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Students have difficulty speaking English	Strongly disagree	1	10%	0	0%	6	15%	3	5%	1	5%	11	7.3%
	Disagree	4	40%	7	35%	7	17.5%	11	18.3%	3	15%	32	21.3%
	Neutral	2	20%	2	10%	7	17.5%	14	23.3%	6	30%	31	20.7%
	Agree	3	30%	10	50%	19	47.5%	32	53.3%	10	50%	74	49.3%

	Strongly agree	0	0%	1	5%	1	2.5%	0	0%	0	0%	2	1.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

According to Table 5.12, the majority of the participants are in agreement with the statement that the students experience difficulties in speaking English, as the total percentage of agreement or strong agreement of the five group is 51%, with 21% neutral and 29% of the respondents disagreeing or strongly disagreeing with the statement. Fifty percent or more of groups 2–5 agree or strongly agree with the statement that students have difficulty speaking English, while around one-third of groups 2 and 3 disagree or strongly disagree and nearly one-quarter of groups 4 and 5 disagree or strongly disagree. This suggests that the majority of the experienced lecturers are inclined to agree that the students struggle in terms of their speaking English skills, whereas the less experienced lecturers expressed mixed views.

Table 5.13 Students have difficulty writing in English

Statement		Teaching Experience										Total	
		Group 1: <1 year		Group 2: 1–5 years		Group 3: 6–10 years		Group 4: 11–15 years		Group 5: >15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Students have difficulty writing in English	Strongly disagree	1	10%	4	20%	4	10%	4	6.7%	0	0%	13	8.7%
	Disagree	4	40%	5	10%	9	22.5%	21	35%	6	30%	42	28%
	Neutral	3	30%	3	15%	17	42.5%	18	30%	6	30%	47	31.3%
	Agree	2	20%	11	55%	8	20%	15	25%	7	35%	43	28.7%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	0	0%	2	5%	2	3.3%	1	5%	5	3.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

Despite the slight difference between the percentage of overall agreement (32%), disagreement (37%) and neutral view (31%) shown in Table 5.13, the disagreement ratio is the highest value. Group 1 expresses the lowest percentage of agreement at 20%, whereas the highest agreement rate is presented by Group 2 (55%). However, there is an extreme percentage of disagreement or strong disagreement indicated by Group 1 (50%), with the

smallest proportion expressed by groups 2 and 5 (30%). Therefore, the five group were mixed in their responses to the given statement.

5.2.1.4.2 Variable three: Lecturers' opinions about teaching

This variable aims to investigate the lecturers' opinions about the teaching of English at the institution.

Table 5.14 Programme's courses satisfy students' needs

Statement		Teaching Experience										Total	
		Group 1: <1 year		Group 2: 1–5 years		Group 3: 6–10 years		Group 4: 11–15 years		Group 5: >15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Programme's courses satisfy students' needs	Strongly disagree	1	10%	9	45%	8	20%	21	35%	6	30%	45	30%
	Disagree	5	50%	7	35%	12	30%	20	33.3%	5	25%	49	32.7%
	Neutral	1	10%	4	20%	11	27.5%	15	30%	8	40%	42	28%
	Agree	3	30%	0	0%	8	20%	1	1.7%	1	5%	13	8.7%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	0	0%	1	2.5%	0	0%	0	0%	1	0.7%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

As Shown in Table 5.14, a total of 63% of the respondents disagree or strongly disagree with the statement that the programme's courses satisfy the students' needs, while only 9% agree or strongly agree. That is, 6 lecturers (60%) from Group 1, 16 lecturers (80%) from Group 2, 20 lecturers (50%) from Group 3, 41 lecturers (68%) from Group 4 and 11 lecturers (55%) from Group 5 disagree or strongly disagree with the notion that the programme's course are satisfactory in terms of meeting the students' needs. Approximately one-third of the respondents offer a neutral response. On the other hand, 3 lecturers (30%) from Group 1, 9 lecturers (23%) from Group 3, 1 lecturer (2%) from Group 4, and 1 lecturer (5%) from Group 5 agree or strongly agree with this statement. Therefore, this finding reveals that the least and most experienced lecturers hold a similar opinion about the ability of the courses to meet the students' needs.

Table 5.15 Appropriacy of having a native speaker to teach English

Statement		Teaching Experience										Total	
		Group 1: <1 year		Group 2: 1–5 years		Group 3: 6–10 years		Group 4: 11–15 years		Group 5: >15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
It is appropriate to have a native speaker to teach English	Strongly disagree	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	Disagree	2	20%	4	20%	9	22.5%	22	39.7%	4	20%	41	27.3%
	Neutral	0	0%	0	0%	6	15%	1	1.7%	2	10%	9	6%
	Agree	3	30%	5	25%	7	17.5%	18	30%	8	40%	41	27.3%
	Strongly agree	5	50%	11	55%	18	45%	19	31.7%	6	30%	59	39.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

Table 5.15 highlights that the majority of the lecturers (67%) agree or strongly agree with the notion of having native speakers to teach English in the English department at Zawia University, whereas 27% are in disagreement with the given statement. In detail, 80% of groups 1 and 2, 63% of Group 3, 62% of Group 4 and 70% of Group 5 agree or strongly agree with this statement. On the other hand, 20% of groups 1, 2 and 5, 23% of Group 3 and 40% of Group 4 disagree or strongly disagree. This suggests that majority of the lecturers recognise of the importance of employing English native speakers.

Table 5.16 English culture has been integrated into the courses

Statement		Teaching Experience										Total	
		Group 1: <1 year		Group 2: 1–5 years		Group 3: 6–10 years		Group 4: 11–15 years		Group 5: >15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
English culture has been integrated into the courses	Strongly disagree	4	40%	8	40%	16	40%	21	35%	11	55%	60	40%
	Disagree	3	30%	10	50%	10	25%	18	30%	7	35%	48	32%
	Neutral	2	20%	1	5%	11	27.5%	20	33.3%	1	5%	35	23.3%
	Agree	1	10%	0	0%	3	7.5%	1	1.7%	1	5%	6	4%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	1	5%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	1	0.7%
	Total		100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

It is apparent from Table 5.16 that the majority of the lecturers (n=108, 72%) are in overall disagreement with the statement that English culture has been integrated into the courses. The highest percentage of overall disagreement (90%) is found within groups 2 and 5, while the lowest percentage of overall disagreement is seen in groups 3 and 4 (65%). On the other hand, only 5% of all groups agree or strongly agree with the given statement, with almost one-quarter of the entire sample expressing a neutral view. This reveals that the five groups of lecturers hold the same view about the notion that English culture has been integrated into the courses, namely, that this has not been successfully achieved.

Table 5.17 The English language cannot be learned effectively without integrating English culture

Statement		Teaching Experience										Total	
		Group 1: <1 year		Group 2: 1–5 years		Group 3: 6–10 years		Group 4: 11–15 years		Group 5: >15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
The English language cannot be learned well without integrating English culture	Strongly disagree	1	10%	4	20%	4	10%	1	1.7%	0	0%	10	6.7%
	Disagree	0	0%	0	0%	2	5%	2	3.3%	1	5%	5	3.3%
	Neutral	3	30%	2	10%	8	20%	21	35%	6	30%	40	26.7%
	Agree	2	20%	10	50%	9	22.5%	16	26.7%	6	30%	43	28.7%
	Strongly agree	4	40%	4	20%	17	42.5%	20	33.3%	7	35%	52	34.7%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

Table 5.17 illustrates that the group with most respondents in overall agreement with the statement that the English language cannot be learned well without integrating English culture is Group 2 (70%), and groups with the lowest number of overall agreement are group 1 and 4 (60%). Sixty-five percent of groups 3 and 5 agree or strongly agree with the statement, while only 11% of the total sample disagree or strongly disagree with the statement. Therefore, the majority of the lecturers are in agreement that the English culture is important in terms of learning EFL.

5.2.1.4.3 Variable four: Lecturers' perceptions on teaching materials

Table 5.18 The existing English materials are sufficient for students' needs

Statement		Teaching Experience										Total	
		Group 1: <1 year		Group 2: 1–5 years		Group 3: 6–10 years		Group 4: 11–15 years		Group 5: >15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
The existing English material is sufficient for students' needs	Strongly disagree	1	10%	10	50%	10	25%	24	40%	7	35%	52	34.7%
	Disagree	6	60%	7	35%	12	30%	15	25%	5	25%	45	30%
	Neutral	2	20%	0	0%	8	20%	3	5%	1	5%	14	9.3%
	Agree	1	10%	3	15%	10	25%	18	30%	7	35%	39	26%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	Total	10	100%		100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

As can be seen from Table 5.18, 65% of the respondents disagree or strongly disagree with the notion that the current English language materials satisfy the students' needs, while 26% agree or strongly agree. That is, 7 lecturers (70%) from Group 1, 17 lecturers (85%) from Group 2, 22 lecturers (55%) from Group 3, 39 lecturers (65%) from Group 4 and 12 lecturers (55%) from Group 5 disagree or strongly disagree with this statement. Nine percent of the respondents offer a neutral opinion, whereas 1 lecturer (10%) from Group 1, 3 lecturers (15%) from Group 2, 10 lecturers (25%) from Group 3, 18 lecturers (30%) from Group 4 and 7 lecturers (35%) from Group 5 agree with the given statement, although none strongly agree. Therefore, this reveals that the lesser and the most experience lecturers have parallel views, believing that the existing English materials are not sufficient to meet the students' needs.

5.2.2 Parametric tests

After measuring the normality of distribution using the skewness and kurtosis tests, and ensuring that the data are normally distributed (see Table 5.19 below), two parametric tests were run to compare the variables, namely the Pearson correlation (Table 5.20) and one-way Anova (Table 5.21).

Table 5.19 Skewness and kurtosis tests

Statistics					
Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis	Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis
1.	-.697	-.515	27	.095	-.646
2.	-.393	-.939	28	-.108	-.968
3.	-.127	-.619	29	.298	-.732
4.	-.204	-.641	30	.230	-.386
5.	-.019	-.648	31	-.002	-.361
6.	.036	-.707	32	-.117	-.467
7.	.257	-.774	33	.155	-.739
8.	-.749	-.427	34	-.529	-.715
9.	.225	-.466	35	.182	-.567
10.	.178	-.530	36	.408	-.244
11.	-.749	-.427	37	-.034	-.672
12.	-.617	-.819	38	-.123	-.638
13.	-.361	-1.026	39	.008	-1.427
14.	.002	-.655	40	.034	-1.065
15.	-.013	-.616	41	.205	-1.002
16.	-.099	-.690	42	.318	-1.035
17.	-.044	-.893	43	.118	-1.063
18.	.108	-.855	44	-.322	-1.033
19.	-.658	-.775	45	-.161	-.838
20.	.156	-.726	46	.335	-1.106
21.	.169	-.616	47	-.214	-.908
22.	-.676	-.730	48	-.353	-.883
23.	-.103	-.770	49	.114	-1.145
24.	-.166	-.747	50	-.067	-1.081
25.	-.192	-.776	51	.205	-.627
26.	-.135	-.901	52	.112	-.474

5.2.2.1 Pearson correlation analysis

Pearson correlation analysis was primarily employed to determine the relationship between the four questionnaire variables (i.e. skills' development, challenging skills for students, teaching, and teaching materials).

Table 5.20 Pearson correlation of the four variables of the questionnaire

		Correlations			
		Lecturers' opinions regarding skills' development	Lecturers' perceptions about skills that are challenging for students	Lecturers' opinions about the teaching	Lecturers' perceptions on teaching materials
Lecturers' opinions regarding skills' development	Pearson correlation	1	.158	.121	.049
	Sig.(2-tailed)		.054	.140	.549
	N	150	150	150	150
Lecturers' perceptions about skills that are challenging for students	Pearson correlation	.158	1	.509**	.467**
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.054		.000	.000
	N	150	150	150	150
Lecturers' opinions about the teaching	Pearson correlation	.121	.509**	1	.306**
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.140	.000		.000
	N	150	150	150	150
Lecturers' perceptions on teaching materials	Pearson correlation	.049	.467**	.306**	1
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.549	.000	.000	
	N	150	150	150	150

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

The value correlation differs between 1 and -1, where 1 signifies a positive correlation and -1 means a negative correlation. Relationships that show 0.05 and below are considered to be statistically significant, while scores greater than 0.05 reflect a spurious relationship between the variables.

Table 5.20 above indicates a significant positive correlation between the lecturers' perceptions on teaching and the challenging skills for students' variables ($r = .509$). The relationship correlation score between the teaching and challenging skills for students' variables is .000, indicating a statistically significant positive relationship since it is below 0.05. This suggests that teaching has a stronger relationship with the challenging skills for students.

Moreover, the lecturers' opinions regarding the teaching materials have a significant positive relationship with their opinions about the challenging skills for students ($r = .467$) with a relationship score of .000. However, according to the findings in Table 5.20, the lecturers' perceptions on teaching (.509) have a stronger relationship with their opinions on the challenging skills for students than their opinions about the teaching materials (.467).

5.2.2.2 One-way Anova and teaching experience

The one-way Anova is carried out to compare the mean score of more than two groups for one variable. In this study the one-way Anova was conducted to explore the difference in the mean score of the candidates' responses according to the teaching groups. Again, 0.05 score is used as the cut-off to show significance, with scores below 0.05 showing statistical significance and higher scores showing no difference between the groups.

Table 5.21 One-way Anova and teaching experience for the four variables of the questionnaire

Variable		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	f	Sig.
Lecturers' opinions regarding skills' development	Between groups	.917	4	.229	.809	.522
	Within groups	41.091	145	.283		
	Total	42.008	149			
Lecturers' perceptions about skills that are challenging for students	Between groups	.816	4	.204	1.010	.404
	Within groups	29.272	145	.202		
	Total	30.088	149			
Lecturers' opinions about the teaching	Between groups	.435	4	.209	.484	.748
	Within groups	32.644	145	.225		
	Total	33.079	149			
Lecturers' perceptions on teaching materials	Between groups	20.080	4	5.020	11.980	.000
	Within groups	60.759	145	.149		
	Total	80.839	149			

The one-way Anova results in Table 5.21 reveal significant differences between the teaching experience groups only in the fourth variable (.000). Whereas,

the results indicate that no significant differences among the five groups in the first, second and third variables at .522, .404, and .748, respectively.

The one-way Anova analysis was then run with a Duncan's post hoc test, which was used to fragment the groups into homogeneous subsets and to identify where the differences are in the fourth variable.

5.2.2.2.1 Duncan test for lecturers' perceptions on the teaching materials variable

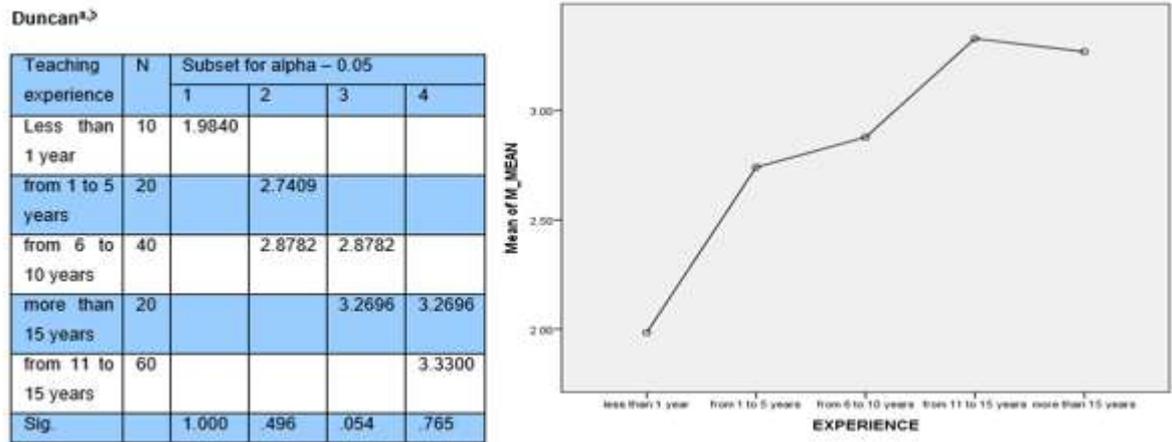


Figure 5.1 Duncan's test (left) and scree plot (right)

As evidenced from Figure 5.1 above, there is difference between the five groups' responses: Group 1 (1.9840), Group 2 (2.7409) and Group 3 (2.8782) disagree and have more or less a similar response rate; whereas Group 4 (3.2696) and Group 5 (3.3300) tend to agree with the statements in variable four concerning the appropriacy of the teaching materials. In addition, the scree plot makes it clear that the more experienced lecturers are in agreement with teaching materials being inappropriate for the students' needs.

5.3 Summary of the questionnaire data analysis

The questionnaire primarily employed closed questions requiring the participants to rate the statements in a range from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. The four variables of the questionnaire were used to gather information regarding the opinions of the lecturers in terms of the success of the English language programme and the sufficiency of the courses' content, materials and students' skills.

First, descriptive analysis was conducted to determine the collapsed means of the questionnaire variables (3.0400, 2.9871, 2.9673, and 2.9719), which show disagreement by most of the participants regarding variables 2, 3 and 4. This means that most of the lecturers have a negative perception regarding the challenging skills for students, teaching and the teaching materials being used in the English courses at Zawia University. In addition, the descriptive analysis included the frequency and percentage values for the collected data in terms of the key statements, with the results revealing that 63% of the English lecturers at Zawia University believe that the English language courses do not meet the students' needs. Furthermore, 72% of the lecturers stated that the English language courses' materials do not reflect the culture of English-speaking countries. The findings emerging from the descriptive analysis suggest that the programme facilitates in improving the students' reading and writing skills, but fails to enhance the development of their listening and speaking skills. In addition, the survey found that many lecturers (67%) feel that native English-speaking lecturers should be employed at Zawia University.

Second, the questionnaire data were analysed through three parametric tests: Pearson correlation and one-way Anova. The Pearson correlation test indicated the lecturers' opinions that teaching has a stronger relationship with students' language learning, as well as their view that the teaching materials have a significant positive relationship with the challenging skills for students. However, the lecturers' perceptions regarding teaching have a stronger relationship than their opinions about teaching materials in terms of the challenging skills for students.

The one-way Anova test was conducted to explore the impact of the teaching experience on the lecturers' perceptions regarding the English language programme at Zawia University. There were no significant differences among the groups concerning their attitudes towards skills' development, the challenging skills for students and teaching; however, there were statistically significant differences between the groups regarding the teaching materials. Consequently, the Duncan's test was conducted to recognise where the differences are, with the more experienced group of teachers holding a

different view on the teaching materials to the other groups, with Group 5 in greater agreement that the teaching materials are not sufficient to fulfil the students' needs.

5.4 Qualitative data analysis

This study employed two types of research methods to collect the qualitative data, namely, interviews and document analysis. Consequently, this part presents the data analysis resulting from both methods in detail.

5.4.1 Data analysis of the semi-structured interviews

This section of qualitative analysis provides the results obtained from the semi-structured interviews. As mentioned previously in Chapter Four (section 4.12.2.1), content analysis was applied to analyse the interviews.

5.4.1.1 Data analysis of the lecturers' interview

5.4.1.1.1 Background information for the English lecturers

As stated in Chapter Four, six semi-structured interviews were conducted with English lecturers from the faculties of education at Zawia University for this study. Their demographic data is detailed in Table 5.22 below.

Table 5.22 Background information for the English lecturers

Interviewee	Years of teaching experience in general	Years of teaching experience at university level	Highest qualification	Courses taught
Lecturer 1	14	11	MA	Grammar, composition, theoretical linguistics, applied and English for specific purposes in non-English departments
Lecturer 2	19	13	MA	Grammar, syntax, reading comprehension, morphology, phonetics and phonology
Lecturer 3	7	7	MA	Grammar, writing, reading comprehension, oral communication skills and instructional strategies
Lecturer 4	17	16	MA	Vocabulary, reading comprehension and grammar
Lecturer 5	30	25	PhD	Grammar, translation, reading comprehension, writing and general English for non-English departments
Lecturer 6	22	22	PhD	Oral communication skills, phonetics and phonology

5.4.1.1.2 Themes and main findings

Table 5.23 Themes and main findings from the lecturers' interviews

No.	Theme	Main findings
1	Design and evaluation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students' needs are to communicate effectively and become professional teachers. • The English courses do not meet the students' needs. • There is a lack of teacher training programmes. • No evaluation occurs in the university. • Students have no opportunities to give feedback on the quality of the programme, while staff opportunities to provide feedback on the programme's quality is limited.
2	Delivery	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Different teaching methods are used. • Only basic activities such as vocabulary games are employed. • There is a shortage in teaching aids • Classes are crowded. • There is limited time available.
3	Teaching resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Outdated sources are provided. • There is a lack of consistency in the level of teaching materials. • Students' perceptions are ignored when designing teaching materials. • The focus of the teaching material is on the reading and writing skills, rather than the speaking and listening skills. • There is a lack of technology-enhanced learning.
4	Language skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The focus is on reading and writing skills. • Listening and speaking skills are not enhanced. • The theoretical aspect of the language is improved to a greater extent than the practical aspect.
5	Assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exam-based. • Generic criteria employed.

Design and evaluation

In response to the question '*The survey suggested that many lecturers think that the English language courses do not meet students' needs, why do you think that is? (Please explain in as much detail as possible. You might want to include what you think the needs of students are and how you try to meet them)*', the participants referred to the students' needs of being able to communicate effectively in English and to become professional English teachers. The participants stated that the courses do not meet the students' needs for a range of reasons. Lecturers 1, 2, 4, 5 and 6 referred primarily to the traditional approach to teaching and assessment, not taking the students' needs into consideration when designing teaching materials, and the use of

out-dated sources. Meanwhile, Lecturer 5 offered an in-depth response as follows:

“This pretty sure is related to the traditional way that the courses run, the teaching is very traditional, the assessment of students is still examination based. In other words, the students test two times a year and if he/she got the full mark it means he/she will get a high mark at the end of the course, without being attention to many other skills such as speaking fluently or creativity in using the language. Moreover, there are many other reasons that do not lead to excellence in teaching the language like class size which in most cases exceed 50 for small classes. In addition, to the shortage in getting an up to date English language sources which, push the lecturer to use old sources. For students’ needs, I personally try to gage [gauge] the level of students from the first two lecturers. Then I put an outline for my lectures that suit there level and in most cases, it is not proper for the academic level that they should be in.”

Then, Lecturer 3 introduced different reasons for the failure to meet the students’ needs in the courses, stating:

“The courses do not meet students’ learning needs, because the lecturers themselves have designed their materials without any standards or criteria for example, when students of the same year have to be divided and taught by different lecturers, each lecturer design his own lectures without referring to other teachers who teach the same subject. In addition, students’ perceptions are ignored. For example, there no surveys targeting the students to know there feedback on each module. Also the absence of lack in technology enhanced learning aids such as labs is another factor.”

It can be noticed from the above responses that all the participants agree that the courses do not meet the students’ needs. Lecturer 6 reported that the students’ primary need *“is to be able to communicate with the others effectively”*.

When the interviewees were asked ‘*What are your objectives on the course you teach?*’, each lecturer stated the respective objectives based on the course(s) they deliver. For Lecturer 6, he expressed an interest *“in teaching oral skills subjects; my aims are making students use language effectively in oral manner and practicing the correct pronunciation”*.

Lecturer 5 classified the objectives of the writing course according to the academic year:

“I am teaching writing subject for year 2 and 3, my aim at the end of the course is that the students of year 2 should be able to write a full paragraph coherently with organised ideas and without spelling and grammar mistakes. For year 4, they should be able to write long essays correctly”.

A similar answer was reported by Lecturer 3 who also teaches writing courses: *“I am aiming to make students write coherently without any grammar errors and spelling mistakes”*. Whereas Lecturer 1, who expressed an interest in teaching grammar, stated three objectives for the grammar courses:

“the first object is students will be able to identify and form the present continuous tense. Second, learners will be able to know the different uses of the present continuous tense (for both present and future tense). The last objective is learners will be able to use the present continuous tense orally and in writing”.

However, the objectives of the reading courses were stated as *“developing students’ reading skills, especially how to understand a text as a whole even if they do not understand some vocabulary”* (Lecturer 2). Similarly, Lecturer 4 replied that *“for reading comprehension, my goal is to improve the students’ reading skills, particularly how to make them understand the entire meaning of a text even if they do not understand the meaning of some vocabulary”*. However, the above objectives and aims tend to be generic for specialised English learners.

In response to the question *‘In what ways would you change the content and delivery of the course you are currently teaching in the future? Why would you make these changes?’*, most of the interviewees were focused on changing the number of students in each classroom, as featured in Lecturer 5’s response.

“There are many steps should be done before doing any change or improvement to the content and delivery. The first step is each classroom should be not more than 20 students, so that each student have chance to practice the language and discuss what he/she wants with the lecturer in the classroom. Second, may be check the

difference in the academic level for each year and try to conduct an intensive sessions to the students who are very weak compared to their peers in the same year. Last, install some visual aids in each language class. The course content then can be improved by inserting more activities, shrink the lecturers' time of speaking to give more time to students. Also, exceeding the time of crucial subjects that improve students' language level."

Another lecturer was interested in changing the teaching methods: *"I would gradually introduce the communicative approach and see how it goes with the students"* (Lecturer 1).

Other lecturers explained:

"I will trying to improve my way of teaching through giving my students the opportunity to be active and I encourage them to use English as much as possible in order to interest and motivate them." (Lecturer 2)

"I would like to encourage students to do basic research about certain topic." (Lecturer 3)

Meanwhile, several of the respondents considered *"adding the use of everyday language in some areas such as speaking, listening and vocabulary study"* (Lecturer 4), in addition to *"improving oral connection skills subjects by integrating more activities to make students use the language orally"* (Lecturer 6).

The above responses show that in the lecturers' views the English language programme requires many changes and improvements.

In response to the question *'Do the students and staff have the opportunity to provide feedback on the quality of the programme? How?'*, all answers were in the negative in terms of student feedback, while in terms of staff feedback Lecturer 2 reported that *"to some extent, staff members can have meeting and give feedback on the quality of the programme but the chance to change anything based on their feedback is limited"*. This may be referred to as a *"cultural issue"*, as seen by Lecturer 1.

When discussing the question *'Does programme evaluation happen at the university level? For example, do the senior managers collect data about how well the programme is doing?'*, all participants responded *"No"*.

Again, all the lecturer interviewees replied in the negative to the question ‘*Are there any development opportunities offered to staff in the university? If so, what kind? Have you done any staff development?*’, although Lecturer 3 did perceive that this could change: “*optimistically, might be with the born of new Libya*”. Nonetheless, all the participants suggested some methods of improvement. For example, Lecturer 4 believed that “*may be short talks or workshops will be a good start for improvement*”, with Lecturer 6 reporting that “*internal and external courses could be one of the methods of development*”. However, Lecturer 5 considered development to be an individual responsibility: “*I myself, if I feel I have any shortage in any side I try to read about it and find solution for this lack. in short, improvement is your responsibility*”. Although independent improvement is important, dependent development is needed.

In response to the question ‘*Are there any other comments you would like to make about the structure, content or delivery of the programme?*’, the lecturers suggested the consideration of a range of factors to develop the programme in general. For example, Lecturer 1 stated:

“Yes, there are many factors, which I see that would improve the structure, quality and delivery. The most important for me is class size. Classes should not be packed so that the lecturer would be able to do different activities. In addition, training workshops are needed. The university should also encourage research and give funding to lecturers. The University should improve facilities like libraries and provide them with up to date books. Lecturers should sit together and share different experiences and knowledge with each other in a friendly environment. They should also encourage one another to attend each other’s lectures and give feedback.”

Another lecturer claimed: “*I believe that the problems experienced by students in learning English appear to be as much to do with the teaching methods and material as with the students’ inability to master and develop their English skills*” (Lecturer 2). However, Lecturer 3 replied: “*I recommend conducting programmes that enhance students learning and staff improvement such as conferences and seminars. The university should try to provide updated books and good infrastructure to students and the staff*”.

The results obtained from the above responses highlight that the English language programme in the faculties of education at Zawia University has many weaknesses.

Delivery

When responding to the question '*What teaching methods and classroom activities do you find are the most effective with your students and why?*', the majority of the participants reported used different teaching methods. For example, Lecturer 1 stated: "*I use the traditional methods of teaching i.e. grammar translation method not because I find them effective but because this is how the students expect me to teach them and another factor which has an impact on the choice of method is class size. Although the traditional method is to some extent effective*". Whereas lecturers 3, 4 and 5 found the direct method to be the most effective for teaching because "*the student will be away from their first language (Arabic)*" (Lecturer 3). In addition, Lecturer 4 reported that "*using direct method enable the lecturer to 'use pictures or draw to ease the meaning of vocabulary to students'*".

On the other hand, Lecturer 2 responded:

"The most effective teaching method is the communicative teaching approach because it involves students throughout the class and it emphasises language functions over forms. One of the strategies that follow the communicative approach is the reciprocal teaching strategy. It helps to enhance the ability of both proficient and less proficient students through involving them in different activities. Another effective teaching strategy is the cooperative learning. It can maximise students' learning as it helps students with various abilities to build on each other's knowledge and provide feedback on each other's activities."

The majority of the lecturers stated that the use of activities such as spelling and pronunciation exercises and vocabulary games could be an effective way to improve the students' language proficiency. Nonetheless, these can be challenging to apply as "*since all classes have big numbers, using activities is limited*" (Lecturer 5).

Teaching resources

When answering the question '*How did you go about deciding upon the textbooks and other materials you would use in the course?*', most of the lecturers replied that they review the course description for the year and the subject they are going to teach, and then they gauge their students' level in the first lecture. Following that, they decide which materials they are going to include. For example, Lecturer 1 reported: "*I chose different text books which contained a variety of examples and made handouts for my students, although the books are quite dated and limited. But I also try to use the internet when there is a connection*". For lecturers 2 and 3, the decision for which textbooks and materials to employ is based on the availability of textbooks and the Internet. A different answer was introduced by Lecturer 4, who expressed the importance of considering the students' future paths: "*I try to use textbooks, which will expand the use of the English language and will be beneficial in the future for those students*".

In response to the question '*To what extent do you think the content of the course is suitable and appropriate to the needs of the students?*', the lecturers had a range of response, with lecturers 1, 2 and 3 believing that to some extent it is suitable because each class has students at different levels with different learning abilities.

On the other hand, Lecturer 5 stated that "*frankly speaking, it does not cover what the students need, but it is suitable for their level. In my opinion, they should have higher level for the content of the courses*".

In addition, Lecturer 4 believed that "*the courses give a good basic introduction to the English language, but not to its use, I think it does need extra input to widen knowledge of students about the language*". Similarly, Lecturer 6 responded that "*the general contents of the course are basic; however it requires extra effort from the lecturer to establish special requirements for some students*".

When asked '*Which course content and materials do you consider to be the most or the least effective? Why?*', all of the lecturers concurred that the most effective materials are those that encourage the language use and provide

opportunities for the oral practice of the language while reducing the talk time of lecturers. Lecturers 1, 2, 3, 5 and 6 asserted that the least effective materials are those that decrease the students' opportunities to practise the language inside the classroom, with Lecturer 4 describing that "*the least effective part of the course is that which is geared only to exam success*".

The views above indicate that the lecturers associate the effectiveness of the course materials with the potential for the practice of language within the classrooms.

When discussing the question '*The survey suggested that the English language courses' materials do not reflect the culture of English speaking countries. To what extent do you agree or disagree? In your opinion, how important do you think it is to integrate culture into language learning and teaching?*', all of the participants agreed that the English language course materials do not reflect the culture of English-speaking countries. Lecturer 2 considered the lack of knowledge regarding the target language culture as representing "*one of the obstacles that negatively influence the students when they read a text in English*". The respondents agreed on the importance of learning the culture of the target language because it offers a real opportunity for students to increase their motivation to learn the language (lecturers 1, 3 and 6). Additionally, "*the culture of English speaking countries will encourage the students to learn more vocabulary and different situations of using the language*" (Lecturer 4), while Lecturer 5 addressed the challenges that can arise when engaging with certain aspects of Western culture:

"integrating the English culture in English language courses at Zawia University could be a helpful step in enhancing the language level in the institution, but everyone trying to avoid it because some topics are embarrassing and not acceptable in the local culture to be included in a talk between males and females".

From the above discussion, it can be noted that all of English lecturers at Zawia University are aware of the importance of the integration of the culture of English speaking countries into the courses they teach due to its crucial role in the language learning process.

Language skills

In response to the question '*The findings of the survey suggested that the programme helps in improving the reading and writing skills but it does not enhance the development of listening and speaking skills. What do you think are the reasons behind this?*', most of the lecturers cited similar reasons, with lecturers 1, 3, 5 and 6 referring back to how the lecturers themselves were originally taught (i.e. through the traditional approach). The lack of learning facilities such as computers were raised, as well as the huge student numbers compared to the available classes, leading to congested classrooms, and the restriction of available time, "*which makes it impossible to do any oral practice*" (Lecturer 1). Also mentioned was the absence of activities during lectures, as well as the teaching materials focusing on reading and writing skills as opposed to listening and speaking. Lecturer 4 claimed that the "*regular use of oral English is the only way to enhance speaking and listening skills and the chance to this is weak*".

It can be noticed from the above responses that the majority of the lecturers agreed that the programme supports the improvement of reading and writing skills, but at the expense of developing the listening and speaking skills.

When discussing the question '*The survey suggested that many lecturers think that native English-speaking lecturers should be employed at Zawia University. In what way do you think this would be beneficial to the students and the programme in general?*', the participants reported similar advantages of having native English-speaking lecturers within the institution. Lecturer 1 introduced two benefits:

"First of all the native speaking lecturer would be able to reflect and teach the English culture which would be very beneficial in learning the language. Second, the native English speaker would have different teaching methods, which could motivate and benefit the learners."

While Lecturer 3 stated:

"This will be very beneficial to students because some of the lecturers they do not speak English fluently and their pronunciation is not perfect, and presence of native speakers to the university will give the students and lecturer the opportunity to hear the correct pronunciation"

of English. In addition, this will be a live example of English culture, which the programme lack of."

Moreover, Lecturer 6 believed that *"this could be good in practicing English because, the native speaker does not know Arabic so you will be forced to speak in English"*. However, non-native lecturers can be very advantageous if they receive effective training.

Concerning the question *'Do the students make significant progress in language from their first year to the year of graduation?'*, the responses varied. For example, Lecturer 2 reported that *"most of them do"*, while Lecturer 1 gave a more granular response:

"the truth is that there is progress on a theoretical basis where students are very knowledged with theories and grammar and writing rules but they struggle with speaking and writing long essays or pieces of writing. In other words learners make good progress at graduation in knowing about the language but not its use."

Similarly, in Lecturer 3's view, *"some of them do progress but their knowledge is restricted to what their lecturers gave them"*, while Lecturer 4 reported on the students' struggles in terms of maintaining their level of English when not attending university:

"There is no doubt that there is some improvement by the end of the year. But what the students keep saying is that, there is no language practices during the summer holiday which most of the time exceeded to 3 months, when we come back we found ourselves partially forgot what we learned last year."

Lecturer 5 broke down the students' progress into the oral and writing skills, and explained the challenges that graduates experience:

"Frankly, there is progress but not in all language skills, for example the oral skills are not improved because of the absence of the proper environment to improve them. For writing, there is fair improvement but not critical writing. For the reading, there is improvement in terms of pronunciation, understanding simple texts. In summary, graduates can understand you if you speak to them in English but in some situation they cannot reply, they will say we understand and we have the answer in our mind but we cannot produce it."

In summary, the students make progress in certain aspects of their English language acquisition, but this is not balanced across the four skills.

Assessment

When asked '*What assessment methods do you use on your course and why? How appropriate do you think the methods are?*', the responses were similar, with mid-term and final examinations cited as the methods for assessing students: "*I am only allowed to use exams*" (Lecturer 4) and "*the assessment method is not the choice of the lecturer, we as lecturers have to set two exams for each subject we teach*" (Lecturer 6). Some of the respondents reported using popular music quizzes and oral tests at the beginning of each class, Nonetheless, they are not formally considered in the students' grade and are only used to gauge students' understanding or to raise their awareness about certain aspects: "*I do pop quizzes every now and then to get a full picture of what the students have learned and what they still need to practice*" (Lecturer 1). In terms of the second part of the question, the lecturers' responses reveal their dissatisfaction with using only examinations for assessment, with Lecturer 4 claiming that "*other types of assessment should be included such as assignments, presentations*". Furthermore, Lecturer 6 underscored that "*we as lecturers have to set two exams for each subject we teach, which is very traditional*".

In response to the question '*What assessment criteria do you use to evaluate your students' work?*', the lecturers' responses concurred that they do not use particular criteria for the written work: "*Since the assessment is very traditional, therefore, the criteria that I am using are the correct spelling, proper use of word meaning, correct grammar and giving a full answer for questions*" (Lecturer 6). Additionally, Lecturer 1 replied that "*if the answer is grammatically correct and gives meaning with no spelling mistakes then it is considered correct and the student gets a full mark*". On the other hand, Lecturer 2 responded that "*I use marks, the better, the more*". On the contrary, for oral skills the lecturers use certain criteria to evaluate students such as '*fluency, pronunciation, grammatical accuracy and vocabulary resource*' (Lecturer 3).

The above findings highlight that the lecturers do employ some assessment criteria to assess their students' oral work; however, correct spelling, proper use of word meaning and precise grammar are used as criteria to assess the written work. Nonetheless, these are not appropriate for the university level unless additional criteria are included.

When discussing the question '*Do you think there are any improvements that could be made in relation to assessment, and if so, what are they and why?*', the majority of the interviewees agreed that improvements should be made to the assessment criteria. For instance, Lecturer 5 suggested "*moving from traditional assessment of exams to performance assessments such as authentic assessments, in addition, assess students in other skills such as critical thinking, problem solving*". Moreover, Lecturer 1 responded: "*in my opinion, the way we assess is quite acceptable but could be improved by making sure that the tests are suitable for all the different levels*".

In Lecturer 4's opinion, "*the present arrangements are not suitable; other methods of assessment should be included such as assignments and oral tests*", while Lecturer 6 stated that "*subjects such as oral skills, I mean speaking and phonetics should not have written tests. All the exams should be done orally*".

However, Lecturer 3 highlighted logistical concerns: "*it is difficult to change the way of assessment, because every lecturer has to conduct two exams a year to his/her students which are followed by all lecturers in all departments and done at the same time of the academic year*".

From the abovementioned responses, it can be seen that lecturers essentially agree that changes should be implemented to the traditional means of assessment applied at Zawia University.

In terms of the question '*How do you normally provide feedback and why?*', most of lecturers cited similar techniques for providing feedback to students.

"If we were doing exercises on the board I would write down my feedback in my notebook then at the end of the exercise I discuss them with the students together so that I do not intimidate or embarrass any of the students. In written work I always give detailed

feedback on the same corrected piece of work.”
(Lecturer 1)

Furthermore, Lecturer 5 reported:

“If it is in writing, I try first to underline mistakes and ask them again to try to fix it; they might know the mistake themselves. If it is speaking, I leave them speak and at the end of the lesson I give them my feedback individually between him/her and me.”

Some of the interviewees such as Lecturer 2 provide feedback with motivating techniques:

“I always use encouraging terms (written and oral) such as “excellent, very good, good, not bad”. I also use some encouraging gestures like nodding with eye contact. In addition, if the answer is wrong, I write or tell them some tips to correct them. It is very important to give feedback to students to involve them in the classwork and motivate them.”

5.4.1.2 Data analysis of the alumni interviews

Semi-structured interviews were also conducted with four alumni of the English language department who had graduated in recent years in order to discover their level of satisfaction with the programme they had completed.

5.4.1.2.1 Themes and key findings

Table 5.24 Themes and key findings from the alumni’s interviews

Theme of the question	Findings
Strengths and weaknesses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Strengths <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some well-qualified lecturers • Good focus on reading and writing skills ❖ Weaknesses <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Crowded classes • The classroom talk time is teacher based. • Infrastructure
Language skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Reading and writing enhanced more than the oral skills. ❖ Grammar and vocabulary strongly enhanced.
Teaching resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Primarily depends on the lecturer’s experience and creativity of managing the teaching process. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some lecturers use teaching materials that are inappropriate for the students’ level.

Delivery	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lecturers use a range of teaching methods. • Excessive use of the grammar translation method. • Lack of technology-enhanced learning.
----------	---

Strengths and weaknesses

In response to the question ‘*What were the strengths and weaknesses of the English language programme at Zawia University?*’, the responses were almost the same in terms of the strengths of the programme: “*we had few Libyan and Iraqi well-qualified lecturers*” (Alumnus 1). Additionally, a strong focus on reading and writing was stated by Alumnus 4: “*many students become good at reading and writing in English by the time they graduate*”.

On the other hand, the programme’s weaknesses were first expressed in terms of the crowded classes:

“the difficulties that I had faced is the large number of students in each class. For example, if I did not come early to reserve a seat in the first rows, I cannot understand the lecture or get engaged to it.” (Alumnus 1)

While the lack of educational equipment was cited by Alumnus 2:

“The lab has only 30 computers and some of them they do not work. Therefore, the lecturer had to divide us into groups but only in the time of the lecture, I mean the lecture only 2 hours and we cannot get benefit from all the time you have only to study less than 1 hour, which is not enough to learn such a complex subject like phonetics.”

Furthermore, the excessive use of the grammar translation method was raised, whereby “*the use of Arabic is almost equal to English in most of the lectures*” (Alumnus 4), while in terms of the lecturer talk time:

“the lecturer keeps talking till the end of the lecture and we have to listen only, except for the oral communication skills subject, sometime the lecturer gave us chance to talk.” (Alumnus 3)

Considering the question ‘*How can the English language programme at Zawia University be improved?*’, the answers primarily focused on the infrastructure of the university. For example, Alumnus 3 stated that “*the department need to replace chalk and board with smart boards, and the Internet should be*

provided to students”, while another interviewee suggested that “by install more language labs, provide the library with new English books and divide the classes into more groups the programme will be better” (Alumnus 1).

Language skills

When discussing ‘*How did the programme enhance your language skills (LSRW)?*’, the majority of the respondents confirmed that the department programme had enhanced their reading and writing skills, but confidence in speaking in English was a serious challenge, together with understanding what had been said in the language. In contrast, Alumnus 3 reported the difficulty of developing written skills due to the teaching approach, alongside varying improvements in the other skills:

“Well, for writing skills, the lecturer who taught me, he did not encourage to write by using our own words. He usually give us a piece of writing like an example for each lesson and we have to memorise it and write it in the exam, if I did not write it exactly as it is, I cannot have the full mark. Therefore, for me I did not really improve in writing. For reading skill, it did improve in the side of pronunciation but not the meaning of the texts. for listening and speaking there is a slight improve, because we should have taken them in the labs, but we did not, because most of the computers in the lab broken-down and the labs are little for the number of students. In my opinion, I cannot say there is no improvement completely, but it is very little.”

When asked ‘*To what extent did the programme enhance your grammar knowledge and vocabulary?*’, all the alumni stated that their grammar and vocabulary were significantly improved for two reasons:

“we had to have a grammar lecture twice a week, which they were concentrating mainly on the English grammar. For the vocabulary, each lecture we had new list of words specially in reading comprehension subject.” (Alumnus 1)

“the focus of writing and reading classes was about enriching our vocabulary with correct spelling and using grammatically correct sentences.” (Alumnus 4)

Teaching resources

In response to the question '*What is your opinion on the teaching materials and activities used by teachers in the English department?*', the narratives depended on the lecturers' experience.

"Some lecturers were very good, they gave handouts that were summarised and useful about the topic exactly, some of them they gave us tens of papers each lesson written in a complicated language which were not suitable for our level and we had to read it ourselves without any guidance or explanation from the lecturer."
(Alumnus 3)

Alumnus 2 responded in a more positive vein that "*to some extent, the materials were good, some lecturer tried to use creative activities to practise language*", while Alumnus 4 reported that "*the teaching materials were usually old or hard to follow*".

Delivery

Regarding the question '*What do you think of the teaching methods that have been used by the lecturers?*', the majority of the participants answered that the lecturers used a mixture of methods, explaining that the choice of teaching method would often be related to the subject being taught. For instance, if the subject was translation then the lecturer would use Arabic and English to explain the lesson. However, Alumnus 2 expressed a preference for any approach that employed English: "*I would prefer the lecturer to use any teaching method except using Arabic*". Some lecturers were reported not to use translation but rather drawings and on occasion pictures to explain certain aspects, as described by Alumnus 1: "*well-qualified lecturers use teaching aids to explain their lessons instead of keeping translating to us*".

5.4.2 Document analysis findings

As mentioned earlier, the analysed documents included the syllabus and a sample of examination papers for the writing and grammar subjects for years 1, 2, 3 and 4. The English syllabus was designed in 2009 and was still being

used in that form at the time of analysis, with its purpose to provide information about the aim, objectives, content and recommended sources for each course in the four academic years at the university. The analysis of this syllabus followed a number of steps: 1) the English syllabus was reduced to one page by focusing on the four language-skills-related subjects including oral communication, writing, reading and grammar for all years, with those subjects considered as categories, where each category contains two codes: the learning outcomes and the book level; 2) the learning outcomes were summarised for each subject to establish the level of the recommended books and to verify whether these were appropriate for the university students in the respective years; 3) the assessment instructions for the previous subjects were considered, with oral communication added as a third code since it is the only subject where its assessment is briefly stated in the syllabus; 4) the examination papers' content was checked against the syllabus content; and 5) a professional skills category was added to extract the professional skills that should be achieved after each level, although this was clear only for the third and fourth years. Table 5.25 summarises the findings obtained from analysing the documents.

Table 5.25 Document analysis: summary of the findings

Year	Oral communication skills	Reading	Writing	Grammar	Professional skills
1 st	<p>Learning outcomes: To be able to communicate, to appreciate the differences between oral and written communication, and to learn to lead conversation</p> <p>Book level: Elementary and intermediate</p> <p>Assessment: Oral examination represents 50% and written examinations also represent 50% of the final mark</p>	<p>Learning outcomes: Develop intensive and extensive reading, enhancing vocabulary building and syntax</p> <p>Book level: Beginner</p>	<p>Learning outcomes: Writing simple correct sentences and producing them in a composition</p> <p>Book level: 1st and 2nd year beginner, 3rd and 4th year beginner and intermediate</p>	<p>Learning outcomes: Use grammatical structures in context including parts of speech (<u>nouns</u>, <u>pronouns</u>, <u>verbs</u>) and active and passive sentences</p> <p>Book level: Advanced</p>	
2 nd	<p>Learning outcomes: To be able to communicate, to appreciate the differences between oral and</p>	<p>Learning outcomes: Learn new structures and improve students' understanding</p>	<p>Learning outcomes: Writing one page based on narrative, descriptive, argumentative</p>	<p>Learning outcomes: Use grammatical structures in context including parts of speech</p>	

	written communication, and to learn to lead conversation Book level: Elementary and intermediate Assessment: Oral (50%) and written examinations (50%)	of the subject matter Book level: Beginner	and exposition modes of writing. Present outline, introduction, conclusion and show unity and internal development of the composition Book level: Beginner	(<u>adjectives and adverbs</u>) and phrasal verbs Book level: Advanced	
3 rd	Learning outcomes: To be able to communicate, to appreciate the differences between oral and written communication, to learn to lead conversation, and to imply some focus on listening aspects Book level: Elementary and intermediate Assessment: Oral (50%) and written examinations (50%)	Learning outcomes: Use the bottom-up and top-down approaches of reading to develop reading strategies and habits Book level: Beginner and intermediate	Learning outcomes: Produce two pages of composition with clear introduction, body and conclusion Book level: Beginner and intermediate	Learning outcomes: Use grammatical structures in context including <u>simple and compound sentences and English clauses</u> Book level: Advanced	Gain teaching skills that allow dealing with small groups of students by carrying out microteaching practically for four hours in the classroom. The skills are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introducing a lesson • Using examples for explanation • Fluency in questioning • Probing questions • Stimulus variation • Using blackboard • Achieving closure
4 th	Learning outcomes: To be able to communicate, to appreciate the differences between oral and written communication, to learn to lead a conversation, and to imply some focus on listening aspects Book level: Elementary and intermediate Assessment: Oral (50%) and written examinations (50%)	Learning outcomes: Use the bottom-up and top-down approaches of reading to develop reading strategies and habits Book level: Beginner and intermediate	Learning outcomes: Writing an essay or report Book level: Beginner and intermediate Assessment: Write an essay, put text in order, write a letter and join sentences	Learning outcomes: Use grammatical structures in context: <u>English phrases and English syntax</u> Book level: Advanced	To become a teacher by practising teaching in primary and secondary schools.

Table 5.26 presents a summary of the taught hours for grammar, reading, writing and oral communication skills in the university broken down by year.

Table 5.26 Summary of the teaching hours by language skill

Course	Teaching hours				total
	year				
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	
Grammar	128	128	128	128	512
Reading	128	128	128	128	512
Writing	128	128	128	128	512
Oral communication skills	64	64	64	64	256

Strengths of the English department's syllabus

- The syllabus has listed the students' needs.
- All courses have learning outcomes.
- There are lists of content for each course.
- Indicative books are stated to be used by the lecturers in designing the lectures.
- There is clear progress shown in the writing, reading and grammar courses that is gradually driven from year 1 to year 4.
- A brief explanation is included for the assessment of the oral communication skills' subject for all years, with some assessment criteria offered such as fluency and pronunciation. In addition, assessment is stated as 50% of the final mark for the written examination and 50% for the oral examination.

Weaknesses of the English department's syllabus

- The syllabus primarily focuses on the grammar, writing and reading courses, with less attention to the communication skills course. For example, although the students receive 128 classroom contact hours for writing, reading and grammar each year, they only receive 64 contact hours for communication skills.
- There is no gradual progression shown in the learning outcomes of the oral communication skills' subject, which remains the same from year 1 to year 4.

- There is discrepancy in the textbook level for the oral communication skills, writing and reading courses, which do not extend beyond the intermediate level.
- No assessment details are mentioned for the writing, reading and grammar courses in terms of criteria and method.

5.5 Triangulation of data

Table 5.27 Triangulation of data

Theme	Questionnaire findings	Interview findings	Document analysis findings
Design and evaluation	- English courses do not meet students' needs	- Courses do not meet students' needs because: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The teaching and assessment approaches are traditional • Lack of technology-enhanced learning • Students' needs and perceptions are overlooked when designing the teaching materials • Out-dated sources • Overcrowded classes • Insufficient opportunities for communication • Lack of training programmes for staff • No evaluation happens in the university • Students have no opportunities to provide feedback on the quality of the programme, while staff opportunity is limited ❖ Strong points in the programme include some well-qualified lecturers and a good focus on the reading and writing skills	- Students' needs are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To become trained English teachers • To attain a level of competency in English language and literature • To attain analytical, critical and communicative competency in preparation for teaching • To develop the capability to undertake ELT research
Teaching resources	- The existing English materials are inadequate for students' needs - The course materials do not reflect the culture of English-speaking countries	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of consistency in the level of teaching materials • Assessment is examination-based and primarily holistic, with some criteria • The focus of teaching materials is on the reading and writing skills to a greater extent than the listening and speaking skills. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Syllabus primarily focuses on grammar, writing and reading courses, rather than the other courses • Discrepancy in the level of the textbooks

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some lecturers use teaching materials that are inappropriate for the students' level • Lack of technology-enhanced learning such as computers, laboratories and the Internet 	
Delivery		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lecturers use different methods for teaching • Few activities are employed 	
Language skills		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reading and writing skills enhanced more than the oral skills • Grammar and vocabulary strongly enhanced • The theoretical aspect of the language is improved to a greater extent than the practical aspect 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There is no gradual progress shown in the learning outcomes of the oral communication skills' subject

5.6 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented the overall data analysis for this case study research. It began by analysing the data emerging from the questionnaire, followed by the interviews' analysis and document analysis. The final section of this chapter featured the triangulation of the data. In the following chapter, the researcher presents a comprehensive discussion on the analysis of the results and findings that have emerged from the study.

6 Chapter Six: Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter undertakes an interpretation of the quantitative and qualitative research findings that emerged in Chapter Five. The discussion relates those findings to the existing body of literature and research, with the lens of focus trained on how these findings meet the objectives of the study and respond to the research questions. The sections of this chapter correspond with each of the research objectives stated in Chapter One. The outline of this discussion chapter is as follows. First, the population and sampling approach are presented. Then, the research findings are discussed in relation to the research objectives and linked to the existing literature. Finally, a framework that will enhance the quality of the English language provision at Zawia University is developed and presented.

6.2 Population and sampling

This research was undertaken in Libya in the English department of the faculties of education at Zawia University, within the city of Zawia, which is situated in the west of Libya. The university comprises 21 different faculties that serve all the western regions of Libya, with five of those being education faculties. In collecting the data, the whole population of the lecturers was used, with Saunders et al. (2009) stating that it may be possible to include the entire population in the sample where the size makes this feasible. There are 220 English language lecturers at Zawia University, all of whom were included in the sample and invited to participate in the study. The questionnaire survey was emailed to all 220 lecturers at the university, with 150 completed questionnaires returned and the data inputted into the SPSS software programme. Furthermore, a number of alumni were part of the research and purposive sampling was applied in selecting them. The researcher established certain criteria for these participants' eligibility, whereby they needed to have graduated from the faculties of education at Zawia University and that their study period coincided with the application of the obtained English language syllabus.

6.3 Discussion of the findings in relation to the research objectives

The present study aims to evaluate the current ELT provision offered by the English department in the faculties of education at Zawia University. In addition, it intends to develop a framework for enhancing the provision and delivery of the undergraduate-level English language programme at the institution. The objectives that this study targeted are as follows:

1. To evaluate the current English language provision at Zawia University.
2. To assess the perceptions and perspectives of the key stakeholders (lecturers and graduates) regarding the provision of the English language at Zawia University.
3. To form recommendations based on the findings of this study and to design a framework that enhances the quality of the English language provision at Zawia University by highlighting the strengths and weaknesses of the current programme.

6.3.1 Research objective 1

As indicated above, the first objective aimed to evaluate the current English language provision at Zawia University in Libya. Regarding this, the evaluation was carried out through exploring the perceptions of the lecturers and alumni, as well as analysis of the course description, and identified both merits and challenges in the current English language provision at the institution. In the discussion of this objective, the lens will be focused on design and evaluation, teaching resources and delivery.

Design and evaluation

The findings of the study revealed that the English language courses fail to meet the students' learning needs for a range of reasons; meanwhile, there are myriad learning needs for the students, who need to develop the necessary skills to become trained English language teachers. In addition, the findings revealed that the students need to attain a level of competency in the

English language as well as acquiring analytical, critical and communicative competence in preparation for teaching. Furthermore, the findings showed that the students need to develop the capability to undertake ELT research.

Within the literature, numerous studies have been carried out to review language educational programmes and their relevance to meeting the students' needs (Dollar et al., 2014; Al-Hamlan, 2015; Sothan, 2015). Meanwhile, a number of elements have to be taken into consideration when designing language curricula such as the learning environment and students' needs (Nation and Macalister, 2009), as defining these needs informs the developers of curricula and syllabi in terms of the possible goals and objectives, in addition to identifying which parts of the programme require refinement (Songhori, 2008; Ramani and Pushpanathan, 2015). Previous research has suggested that where an English language programme does not meet the learners' needs, this may relate to the programme's components such as the institution, students, lecturers or pedagogy. The findings of this study reveal many reasons for the failure of the language programme to meet the students' learning needs, which comprise a blend of the aforementioned institution, students, teachers and pedagogy. Each of these components is discussed in greater detail below.

The first challenge is the traditional teaching and assessment employed in the English department, where traditional teaching implies the tutor guiding learners to acquire language through strategies such as memorisation and the recitation of information, whereby no development of crucial skills such as critical thinking or problem solving can occur. The result here echoes many studies in different contexts where English is taught as a second or foreign language such as Egypt (Ibrahim and Ibrahim, 2017), Iran (Sadeghi and Richards, 2015) and Turkey (Gursoy et al., 2017). Moreover, the majority of the teaching methods utilised by the Libyan lecturers such as grammar translation and audiolingualism have been criticised for their reliance on repetition and memorisation (Mohamed, 2014; Abukhattala, 2016). Furthermore, the language teaching style followed in Libya does not enhance communication, one of the learning needs of students, perhaps because the local culture does not encourage direct communication between genders,

despite all classrooms being mixed gender (Sawani, 2009). Moreover, the findings from the questionnaire indicate a significant positive correlation between the lecturers' perceptions on teaching and the challenging skills for students' variables ($r = .509$), while the relationship correlation score between teaching and challenging skills for students' variables is $.000$, which is a statistically significant positive relationship. This highlights that teaching has a stronger relationship with the skills that are challenging for the students.

This study identified that the assessment approach is examination based, which is exactly the case of the broader Libyan context, as reported by Zagood (2015), who found that the assessment for all educational levels is carried out through examination in Libya. The English language examination papers primarily focus on the reading and writing skills, while ignoring oral communication skills, which results in students finding it challenging to effectively respond to spoken English questions (Albukbak, 2008). Again, the achievement of this communication need is prevented. The findings of the current study have alignment with the research undertaken by Alfahaid and Alamri (2016) regarding the assessment of learners as one of the reasons for not meeting the students' learning needs. In their study focusing on the English language programme at Dammam University, Saudi Arabia, unsuitable assessment procedures employed to assess students' work was found to be one of the reasons behind the failure to meet the students' learning needs.

Another finding regarding the assessment procedure is that the teachers assess the students' oral and written work holistically, using criteria such as *"the correct spelling, proper use of word meaning, correct grammar and giving a full answer for questions"* (Lecturer 6 on the evaluation of written work) and *"fluency, pronunciation, grammatical accuracy and vocabulary resource"* (Lecturer 3 on the evaluation of oral work). Holistic scoring is an efficient method that can benefit those lecturers who teach large cohorts of students; however, it has been criticised and described as impressionistic or intuitive (Weigle, 2002; Alderson, 2005; Joughin, 2009). Therefore, it is surprising to find such assessment criteria employed at the university level. Regarding the potential for improvement in the assessment process, Lecturer 5 suggested *"moving from traditional assessment of exams to... assess students in other*

skills such as critical thinking, problem solving". As pointed out by Biggs (2011), besides language skills the twenty-first century requires competencies such as critical thinking, independent problem solving, creativity and teamwork. Moreover, the traditional educational system is responsible for the challenges and hardships that Arab students encounter when they decide to study abroad (Mahrous and Ahmed, 2010; Derderian-Aghajanian and Wang, 2012; Ibrahim and Ibrahim, 2017).

The second reason is the lack of technology-enhanced learning, since as highlighted by Lecturer 3 "*the courses do not meet students' learning needs... Also the absence of technology enhanced learning aids such as labs is another factor*". This result is consistent with Al-Mahrooqi and Troudi (2014), who found that without the integration of technology, the education institution will not be able to fulfil the knowledge needs of its learners. In addition, Alttuwaybi (2017) reported similar findings, where her study found that more attention should be paid to training students and instructors in the use of information and communication technology for pedagogical purposes in the classroom. Ultimately, the use of technology is a requirement for twenty-first century learning (Griffin and Care, 2014). This absence of technology-enhanced learning may be related to a number of factors such as the lack of appropriate resources, and insufficient student and staff training on technological developments.

The third reason for the failure to meet the students' learning needs in the English language programme at Zawia University is linked to the use of outdated resources for designing teaching materials, which might be linked to the aforementioned lack of technology. In addition, it could be related to the Ministry of Education, as indicated by Abudrewel (2017), who found that Libyan EFL teachers' access to resources is limited to textbooks assigned by the Ministry.

In order to include more contemporary teaching materials a variety of sources should be offered to lecturers, which can be achieved by integrating technology into the institution (Ahmed, 2017). Another reason cited by Lecturer 1 was the age, diversity and the type of publications: "*the books are quite dated and limited*". This agrees with Alkhalidy (2012:217), who reported that "*the text books in use in Libya so far have been inadequate and unsuitable*

for ELT in a meaningful way". In addition, the lack of books and Internet access may lead to the teachers employing more traditional teaching materials and prevent them from accessing up-to-date information sources that primarily exist online. Ultimately, this lack of information sources has a negative impact on the students. Alsied and Ibrahim (2017) highlighted that the greatest challenges facing EFL lecturers and students in terms of conducting research is the lack of resources available in the library, with students often spending considerable time searching for certain publications that are not available, which leads to demotivation and may result in inadequate training in research skills, thus restricting the students' ability to be capable of undertaking ELT research. Additionally, it is evident from the results of the one-way Anova test that the more experienced lecturers are in agreement with the notion of the teaching materials being inappropriate in terms of meeting the students' needs (see Table 5.21, Chapter Five).

As revealed by the study findings, another reason for not meeting the students' needs is the overcrowded classrooms compared to their physical size. This is in agreement with Epri (2016), who reported that the achievement of learning objectives and meeting students' learning needs may not be possible in conditions where the classrooms are crowded. This result also accords with the findings from Omar's (2013) study, which argues that one of the reasons for learning English being discouraging for Libyan learners is the high-density classes. Additionally, Yi's (2008) research on the impact of class size on foreign language learning found that reduced class sizes supported the students in attaining higher proficiency in terms of their reading, listening, and speaking skills. McDonough and Shaw (2012) claimed that class size and resources must be taken into consideration because they are key elements affecting the language teaching environment. Large numbers in the classroom is a widespread problem in many contexts internationally, which can present obstacles to satisfying learners' needs. Furthermore, large student numbers in the classroom inevitably restricts the amount of time available for group work interactions between the tutor and students, which does not promote communication. Moreover, in crowded classes, if students converse simultaneously or become animated, the classroom becomes unacceptably noisy, which is an unsuitable environment for communicative language

practice. In addition, the tutor's movement around the classroom becomes restricted.

The next reason for the failure of the language programme to meet the students' learning needs is insufficient opportunities for communication within the classrooms, which may be due to a number of factors. First, there is the traditional teaching style employed in Libya, which does not encourage communication inside the classroom, as the tutor talks for the majority of the contact time and the students are reduced to being passive listeners. According to Shebani (2016), excessive teacher talk time within the EFL classroom has been criticised as a reason for decreasing the students' L2 practice time. Furthermore, communication within overcrowded classroom is problematic and difficult to achieve successfully (Brown, 2000; Epri, 2016). This finding is in agreement with Diaab's (2016) research. The present study found that students are neither given sufficient opportunities to speak English nor to engage in speaking activities. For successful communication to manifest in the classroom, the tutor should play a secondary role and facilitate interaction between all participants within the learning-teaching group (Patel, 2008; Richards and Rodgers, 2014). Unsurprisingly, the English language teachers at Zawia University are not adequately trained to meet the English learners' acquisition needs, which will likely lead to failure in terms of teaching EFL effectively. This result is in line with many studies such as Aloreibi and Carey (2017), who claimed that the quality of English language lecturers in Libya is underdeveloped because the training programmes and courses are not well developed. In addition, Fareh (2010) found that the lack of professional training is one of the challenges facing English language teachers in the majority of Arab countries. Likewise, Pathan et al. (2016) advocated targeted training for foreign language lecturers in colleges and institutes, and particularly training on the practice of real-life teaching, which is virtually non-existent in the Libyan context. Furthermore, Alkhalidy (2012) highlighted that in order to sustain Libyan English teachers' motivation, continuous in-service training must be provided two to four times per year.

The findings revealed that the lecturers at Zawia University have not previously been involved in the evaluation of the English language programme, which underscores that the decision makers of Libyan higher education have

overlooked the merits of validating the English language programme, leading to the current low standards. This finding is in line with Abusrewel (2017), who reported that EFL teachers in the Libyan context do not play any role in decision-making, particularly in the design, preparation and evaluation procedures in the English language programmes.

The findings do indicate that the English language programme at Zawia University has some strengths, such as a healthy focus on reading and writing skills, which is in agreement with Alttuwaybi (2017), who echoed that students receive appropriate tuition in the domains of writing and reading skills.

Despite the many obstacles in the classroom, the lecturers do attempt to utilise certain activities to facilitate the students' practice of the English language, although Lecturer 5 cautioned by stating that "*since all classes have big numbers, using activities is limited*". This is supported by Bergig (2017:41), who reported that the activities "*are rarely used in the classes*".

Surprisingly, the findings reveal the presence of a number of well-qualified lecturers, in contrast to many studies in this context which state that English language Libyan lecturers tend to be unqualified (Harathi, 2012; Suwaed and Rahouma, 2015; Aloreibi and Carey, 2017).

Although the dominant teaching method is grammar translation, lecturers attempt to utilise a variety of teaching methods, and even though these cannot be applied effectively due to the many aforementioned challenges, this is still considered to represent a strength of the English language programme at this institution.

The English syllabus analysed in this study was designed in 2009, and the students' needs were defined during the development of this; therefore, this represents another strong point for the programme, which demonstrates that the syllabus design followed an appropriate process in this respect, albeit that the programme is now somewhat dated.

Teaching resources

Teaching resources refer to any materials that assist the teachers in delivering their lessons, such as written and visual materials, or activities employed in the classroom. The findings of the study show that the existing

English teaching materials are inadequate in terms of meeting the students' learning needs and that their design is not based on specified criteria or standardisation, which is consistent with findings from prior studies that reported higher education in Libya to suffer from the inconsistency and instability of curricula (e.g. Sawani, 2009; Vandewalle, 2012; Suwaed and Rahouma, 2015). According to Howard and Major (2004), materials designed without the inclusion of clear criteria are considered to be of low quality. Lecturers 2 and 3 reported that "*the designing of the materials is based on the availability of textbooks and the Internet*", which may thus impact on the quality and effectiveness of these materials. This finding confirms the Tempus UNIGOV (2016) report, which found that the lack of basic technology is considered to be the greatest challenge that affects the quality of teaching and learning EFL, because the absence of the Internet and limited library resources will likely lead to the availability and use of poor and outdated teaching materials, thus preventing the teaching materials from meeting the students' needs in today's rapidly changing world.

The findings of this study also reveal that the focus of the syllabus is on the reading and writing skills to a greater extent than the oral communication skills (see Table 5.26, Chapter Five). Additionally, the questionnaire correlation test result highlighted that the lecturers' opinions regarding the teaching materials have a significant positive relationship with their perceptions on those skills that are challenging for the students ($r = .467$), with a relationship score of .000 (see Table 5.20, Chapter Five). The lecturers gave possible reasons for this such as their practice of the same traditional style of teaching, the lack of teaching facilities such as projectors, the large numbers of students compared to optimum class sizes, and the limitations on classroom contact time, "*which makes it impossible to do any oral practice*" (Lecturer 1).

One unanticipated finding was the effect of the local culture on the lecturers' choice of teaching materials that support communicative activities, with Lecturer 5 citing the embarrassing nature of certain topics that are inappropriate for the local culture and mixed-gender classes. This is in agreement with Elabbar (2014), who argued that foreign language lecturers in Libya are strongly moderated by the barrier of culture. Despite the fact that

culture is considered to be the fifth language skills, together with LSRW, the results of this study find that 72% of the participant lecturers believe that the culture of English-speaking countries has not been effectively integrated into the courses provided by the English department. Again, this is likely to be related to the impact of the local culture, and is consistent with Zhang (2006), who argued that foreign language learners inevitably encounter cultural confrontations on their learning journey because there are no two identical cultures. Another reason why the culture of English-speaking countries is overlooked is that the various textbooks employed for the development of language skills have cultural bias (Ahmed, 2017). In addition, the English culture may not be integrated because of the environment that the teachers were taught through in their learning journey during the Gaddafi era, with Alkhalidy (2012) stating that the regime systematically prevented Libyans from gaining a glimpse of the outside world and the myriad cultures it offered.

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, no analysis has been previously conducted into the English language syllabus of the faculties of education at Zawia University. The analysis of this syllabus followed a number of steps. First, the English syllabus was condensed into one page by focusing on the four language-skills-related subjects, including oral communication, writing, reading and grammar, for all years, and then considering those subjects as categories, where each contains two codes that comprise the learning outcomes, and the proficiency level of the textbook. Then, the learning outcomes were summarised for each subject to determine the level of the recommended book and evaluate its appropriacy for the university students in each year. After that, the assessment instructions for the subjects were considered and included as a third code for the oral communication skill subject, as it is the only subject where its assessment has been briefly stated in the syllabus. The next step was to review the examination papers' content against the syllabus content, while the final stage was to include a professional skills' category and extract those skills that should be achieved after each level, although this was only clear for years 3 and 4.

This novel finding highlights that the English syllabus features both strengths and weaknesses. One of the advantages of the English language syllabus is

the availability of learning outcomes and content for all courses (see Table 5.2.5, Chapter Five), while another is that there is clear and gradual progression evident in the writing, reading and grammar courses that builds from year 1 to year 4. In addition, the syllabus offers a brief explanation for the assessment of oral communication skills for all years, with a number of assessment criteria stated such as fluency and pronunciation. Furthermore, the grade weighting is stated as 50% for the written examination and 50% for the oral examination. The final strength found through the analysis of the syllabus is the availability of an indicative publications' list that can be used for designing the lectures.

On the other hand, a number of weaknesses were identified. Firstly, the syllabus focuses on grammar, writing and reading courses to a greater extent than other courses. Another limitation is the lack of progression shown in the learning outcomes of the oral communication skills' subject, which remains the same from year 1 to year 4. Next, there are no assessment details mentioned for the writing, reading and grammar courses in terms of the criteria and method. A final weakness is that the recommended textbooks for developing oral communication, writing and reading skills do not extend beyond the intermediate level, although the recommended grammar course books are all at the advanced level. Table 6.1 below summarises the strengths and weaknesses of the English language syllabus at Zawia University.

Table 6.1 Strengths and weaknesses of the English language syllabus

Strengths	Weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All courses have learning outcomes and content lists. • There is an indicative publications' list. • Gradual progress is shown in the writing, reading and grammar courses. • There is a brief explanation for the assessment of oral communication skills for all years. • Recommended books for the grammar courses are all extended to the advanced level. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The primary focus is placed on the grammar, writing and reading courses. • No gradual progress is shown in the learning outcomes of the oral communication skills. • There is discrepancy in the level of textbooks. • No assessment details are mentioned for the writing, reading and grammar courses in terms of criteria and method.

Delivery

Despite many studies highlighting that the grammar translation method is dominant in teaching the English language in Libya (see for example Mohamed, 2014; Abukhattala, 2016), the findings of this study highlight that the lecturers also employ a few alternative teaching methods such as the direct method and the communicative approach, despite these proving difficult to implement effectively due to the overcrowded classes. One factor “*which has an impact on the choice of method, is class size*” (Lecturer 1), with this finding echoing Marais’s (2016:2) study, which found that due to overcrowded classrooms teachers cannot implement diverse teaching methods, and thus they are restricted to the “*chalk and talk*” instructional method of teaching. In addition, overcrowded classrooms may be hindering the learning and teaching atmosphere (Sahinkarakas and Inozu, 2017).

The study results highlight that the lecturers have utilised certain activities such as vocabulary games, spelling and pronunciation exercises in order to help the students practise their language skills, although these activities are still limited to some extent. This finding is in line with Ulum (2015), who reported that activities need to be included in the teaching materials to ensure learners achieve a higher proficiency of speaking skills. It is also similar to the result of Soruc (2012), which revealed that the programme needs to enrich the language curriculum with activities such as role-play. According to Al-Subahi (2001), the main difference between the language curriculum and other curricula is that the former must involve a range of activities in order to enable the learners to activate the language inside the classroom (Al-Subahi, 2001). Therefore, the activities in language classrooms should not be limited. However, there are certain factors that may force the teachers to restrict the use of activities in the classroom, such as a large number of students and the limited time available to carry out lectures mentioned by the teachers in this study.

6.3.2 Research objective 2

The second objective of the study aimed to assess the perceptions and perspectives of the key stakeholders, namely the lecturers and graduates, regarding the provision of the English language at Zawia University.

Language skills

The study findings reveal that the alumni feel that the reading and writing skills are enhanced to a greater extent than the oral skills on the language programme they participated in, with Alumnus 4 reporting that “*many students become good at reading and writing in English by the time they graduate*”. This is supported by the findings of the document analysis, since the students receive 128 hours of taught contact hours for writing, reading and grammar each year, while they only have 64 hours allocated for communication skills. Orafi and Brog (2009) found that since many lecturers believe that listening and speaking skills will be achieved automatically through the learning of other skills, they ignore these aural and oral skills, particularly in overcrowded classrooms. This finding partially agrees with Tunc (2010), who reported that students felt the four skills were given emphasis in the programme, whereas the teachers deemed that greater time should be allocated to promoting the speaking and listening skills. The lack of focus on oral communication skills in the institution may be due to the excessive teacher talk time, in addition to the lack of teaching equipment such as projectors as well as the paucity of visual teaching materials employed in the classroom. According to Sadeghi et al. (2014), learners have a preference for acquiring language through different materials, allowing the application of different types of learning strategies. Another possible reason given by Alumnus 4 is the extreme use of the grammar translation method, whereby “*the use of Arabic is almost equal to English in the majority of the lecture*”. The dominant use of this method only allows marginal attention to be placed on oral skills in the classroom (Brown, 2000; Abdullah, 2015), and this imbalanced focus on the teaching of the four language skills can have a negative impact on the learner’s language ability. As emphasised by Hinkel (2010), the teaching of language skills cannot be carried out in isolation. Consequently, the acquisition and accuracy of LSRW

will be a gradual process that supports the notion of raising learners' proficiency levels and advancing language learning (Donoghue, 2009; Ediger, 2010; Palmer, 2014; Harmer, 2015).

The findings also highlighted that grammar and vocabulary competencies are strongly enhanced due to the focus of the aforementioned teaching method, which is primarily employed *“to check students’ understanding, help students clarify the meanings of linguistic units, increase students’ vocabulary, develop students’ ability of contrastive analysis, and assess students’ overall language learning”* (Mohamed, 2014:39). In addition, the document analysis of the English department syllabus revealed that the students receive 128 hours of taught grammar each year, which is twice the provision allocated for communication skills. Therefore, grammar receives a strong focus in the English language programme at Zawia University. As Alumnus 1 reported, *“we had to have a grammar lecture twice a week, which they were concentrating mainly on the English grammar”*. Acquiring a broad range of grammar rules and vocabulary is often considered to be one of the first steps in the process of learning a foreign language, as grammar is considered to be a *“lifeline to literacy”* (Pollock and Waller, 2012:1). The findings of the present study revealed that while the programme does offer pre-service teacher training, it is limited. The microteaching practice is only for four hours per week, which is not practically suitable for the huge number of students who must undertake the teaching training. Therefore, each student may only teach once or twice during their learning journey because they undertake the teaching practice for short period during the academic year that does not offer sufficient opportunity for training (Abusrewel, 2017). Therefore, the language programme does not adequately prepare the graduates to meet the demands in the world of work either in terms of teaching or research.

6.3.3 Research Objective 3

The third objective of the study was to form recommendations based on the findings of this study and to design a framework that will enhance the quality of the English language provision at Zawia University by indicating the

strengths and weaknesses of the current English language programme. The framework is presented as follows in Figure 6.1.

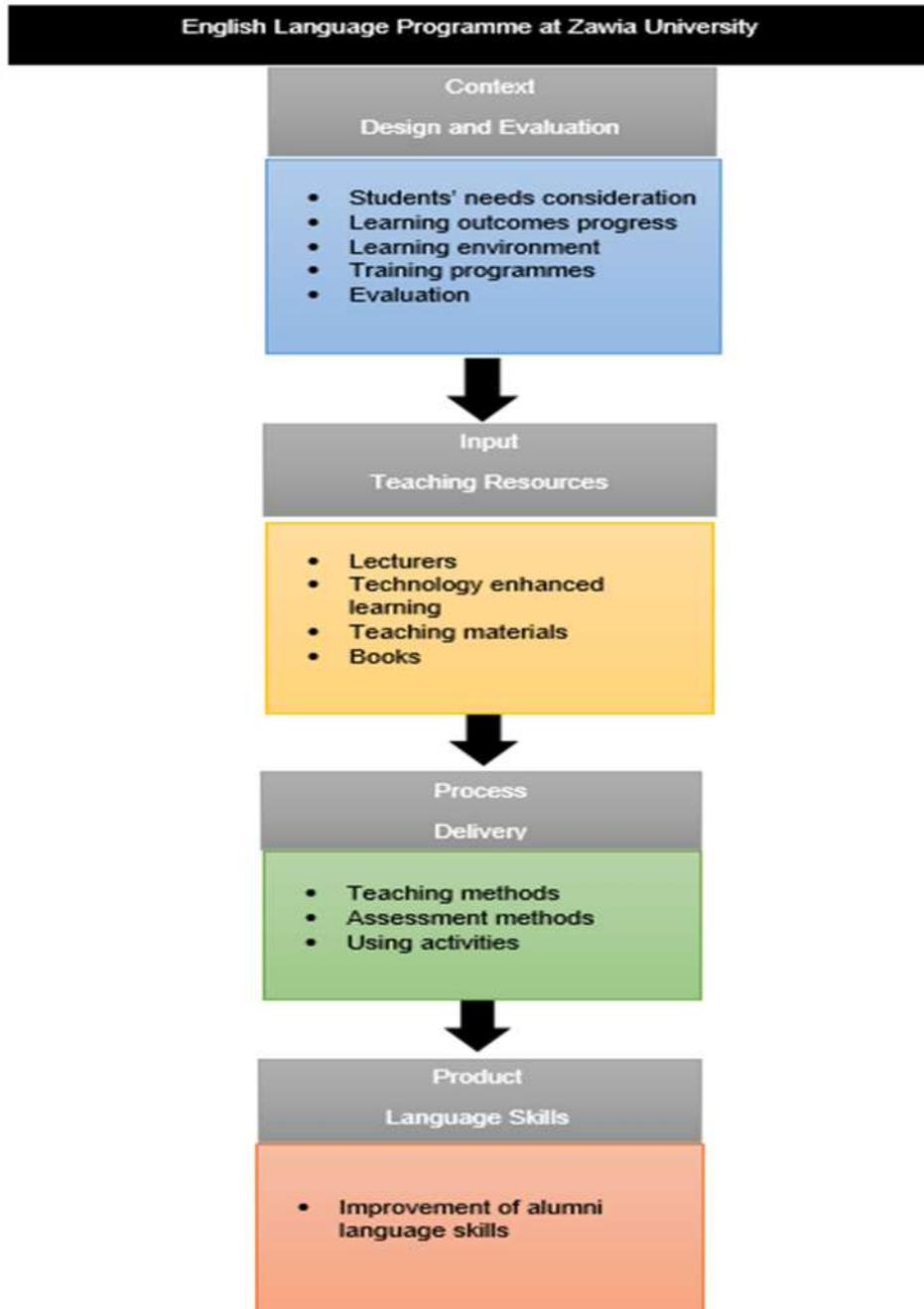


Figure 6.1 Framework to enhance the provision of the English language

6.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented a discussion of the triangulated findings collected through the questionnaire, interviews and document analysis, reflecting the key findings related to each research objective in relation to the literature in an attempt to demonstrate how the research objectives have been achieved. The next and final chapter presents the study's conclusions, as well as the contribution to knowledge, limitations, recommendation and opportunities for future research.

7 Chapter Seven: Conclusion and Recommendations

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents those elements involved in this study and summarises the key research findings, while also focusing on the contribution to knowledge, the limitations of the study, the recommendations resulting from the research and suggestions for further research.

7.2 Summary of the research

This study aimed to evaluate the current ELT provision provided by the English department in the faculties of education at Zawia University in Libya. It sought to discover whether the current English language programme has ever been validated or revised, and to what extent it is fit for purpose in preparing the graduates for the world of work. The study employed three sources of data. The first were generated from the questionnaire featuring closed-ended questions used to identify the lecturers' perceptions regarding the provision of the current English language programme of the faculties of education at Zawia University, while also supporting the researcher in terms of determining whether the lecturers believe the current English programme prepares Libyan graduates for the world of work through assessing their perspectives on the success and the sufficiency of their courses and materials. The second data source was gathered through semi-structured interviews targeting the university's lecturers and alumni in order to support the findings emerging from the questionnaire and to delve deeply in order to gather information about the courses' content, delivery and student assessment. The final data collection source was document analysis, where the documents from the English department syllabus and a sample of writing and grammar examination papers for years 1, 2, 3 and 4 in the 2016 and 2017 academic years were analysed.

7.3 Summary of the key findings

The findings are now summarised in relation to the research objectives as follows:

Objective one

The first objective was to evaluate the current English language provision at Zawia University in Libya. The results from the study revealed that the programme has a number of inadequacies in terms of the design and evaluation, teaching resources, delivery and language skills. Furthermore, the findings highlighted that the English language programme does not meet the students' needs for a range of reasons, including the traditional teaching and assessment approaches, and an inadequate learning environment that lacks technology-enhanced learning and features overcrowded classes that lead to insufficient communicative opportunities within the classroom.

As far as the materials are concerned, the findings indicated that they are unable to fulfil the students' needs due to the significant focus placed on the grammar, reading and writing skills at the expense of the oral skills, in addition to the challenges imposed due to discrepancy in the textbooks' level. Moreover, it was found that the students' needs and perceptions are being overlooked when designing the teaching materials, while the sources employed are outdated.

The data from the present study also revealed that while different teaching methods are utilised to teach English language students, they are still applied in a traditional manner. In particular, there are challenges to implementing the communicative approach effectively due to the significant student numbers in the classrooms and the barrier imposed by the local culture that discourages direct communication between genders.

The findings showed that oral communication skills are being neglected, as there is no gradual progress in terms of the learning outcomes of oral communication skills and the books employed remain at the same level from year one to the final graduation year. On the other hand, grammar, reading and writing skills are well-focused upon.

The data indicated towards a shortage of staff training programmes, although the lecturers are eager to improve the English language programme and very keen on the notion of participating in training workshops. Moreover, the study

found that no validation of the English language programme occurs at the university.

The findings also revealed a number of positive elements in the context of the English language programme at Zawia University, such as the presence of some well-qualified lecturers and the positive focus on the grammar, reading and writing skills. Meanwhile, notwithstanding the challenges of using communicative activities due the current class sizes and the cultural barriers, the lecturers do attempt to introduce certain activities such as spelling games.

Objective two

This objective sought to assess the perceptions and perspectives of the key stakeholders, namely the lecturers and graduates, regarding the provision of the English language programme at Zawia University. The findings revealed a level of dissatisfaction expressed by both the lecturers and alumni with certain aspects of the programme including the teaching resources, the assessment method, the absence of evaluation and the neglect of students' needs in the context of designing the teaching materials. Additionally, the findings revealed that the stakeholders are dissatisfied with the content of the courses, which does not apply equal attention to the language skills as the emphasis is placed on the reading and writing skills to a greater degree than the aural and oral skills, that is, listening and speaking.

7.4 Recommendations

As evidenced by the literature review and the findings emerging from the current research, the English language programme at Zawia University has a number of inadequacies that need to be resolved to result in improvements to the programme. The recommendations made by this study target the decision makers and key stakeholders (i.e. the lecturers, students and alumni) of Zawia University. The decision makers in this study refers to the dean of the university, the senior university management, the presidents of Libyan higher education institutions and the central governing body. Prior to commencing a process of taking decisions regarding any educational programme, collecting

information related to the operation of the programme is essential. After the collection of required information through reports, they have to be reviewed carefully to identify the deficiencies and the aspects that need to be improved. Following is taking decision by the central governing body and distribute it to the responsible individuals i.e. (the dean of the university, the senior university management, the presidents of Libyan higher education institutions) to establish taking actions each according to his job. The last step is evaluation of the decision outcomes, in case there is any aspect needs to be addressed more in future. All of these steps are outcomes of continual meetings between decision makers.

7.4.1 Recommendations for the decision makers at Zawia University

It is recommended that the initial step in redesigning the English language courses is to conduct a needs' assessment in order to fill the gap between the current students' level and the desired proficiency, as it is crucial to consider the students' needs when setting the course goals and objectives, as well as the teaching and assessment methods. Furthermore, the study highlighted that student assessment is based on examination, with the lecturers unable to employ other methods of assessment due to the university policy. Therefore, the assessment approach cannot be described as fair and the decision makers ought to amend the policy in order to allow lecturers to employ a broader range of assessment methods.

It was also found that the learning environment in the English department at Zawia University is unsatisfactory, with the study findings demonstrating a lack of the Internet and technology-enhanced learning resources and equipment such as laboratories and computers. Therefore, the decision makers at the university should overhaul the current digital infrastructure to improve the teaching processes. As the class size has a direct impact on language learning in general, and the acquisition of different language skills in particular, decision makers should develop plans to ensure acceptable class sizes that promote beneficial learning and a conducive teaching environment. An ideal class size should include between twenty and twenty-five students to enable them to encounter sufficient opportunities for communication in the classroom and

thus acquire the English language more effectively and attain higher proficiency in terms of their language skills (Yi, 2008).

The evidence from this study also suggests a lack of training programmes at Zawia University. Therefore, lecturers should be supported by pre- and in-service training programmes to enable them to develop and consolidate the vital skills necessary for the teaching of the English language and to remain current with new teaching techniques. Since technologies are ubiquitous for foreign language, learning within the training programmes should include the use of technology in order to broaden foreign language lecturers' knowledge and facilitate language teaching that is more stimulating and motivating for both the learners and the lecturers.

The results of the present research indicated that the current materials are inadequate to fulfil the students' needs, essentially due to the outdated books and the absence of technological innovation at Zawia University. Decision makers should as a minimum plan to provide university libraries stocked with up-to-date resources and well-established technologies such as computers and high-speed Internet in order to support the lecturers and learners in terms of increasing the English language input by accessing a broad and diverse range of resources.

According to the findings, no evaluation of the current English language programme takes place at Zawia University, despite the myriad advantages of the evaluation process for education programmes. Consequently, an evaluation model should be established to enable and promote regular evaluation at Zawia University.

With the findings of this study revealing dissatisfaction in terms of the alumni's language skills, it would be pertinent to conduct two examinations for those students who attend the programme, the first at the admission stage and the other after completion of all courses, which would enable the determination of the extent to which the programme has enhanced language learning.

Following other countries, Zawia University should set language requirements for new applicants who wish to study in the English department, such as achieving a certain IELTS score or any similarly credible local language test.

Moreover, the university could run pre-sessional summer courses to help the students achieve the required level of English language competency to allow them to join the programme.

7.4.2 Recommendations for the English language lecturers at Zawia University

The study showed that while the lecturers employ different teaching methods, the most dominant in practice is the grammar translation method, which is not conducive to practising communication. Lecturers thus need to shift primarily towards the communicative approach and utilise a learner-centred technique. Moreover, the lecturers should engage with teaching technologies such as visual aids, computers and overhead projectors that can deepen the students' motivation and learning of English subjects.

One of the more significant findings to emerge from this study is that the lecturers use certain assessment criteria to assess the students' work including accurate spelling, appropriate use of word meaning and correct grammar. However, these are not satisfactory for the university level unless they represent additional as opposed to the main criteria. Twenty-first century assessment skills should be assessed by the lecturers such as creativity, critical thinking, oral and written communication, collaboration, teamwork and problem solving.

With the present research revealing that the students' opinions are typically ignored when designing teaching materials, it is suggested that the students' interests and perspectives should be included in the selection of the course materials and the books they are going to study in order to motivate their drive towards achievement and learning.

Recommendations for the English language alumni of Zawia University

After graduation, the alumni should continue self-learning to further extend their language skills and become more competitive. In addition, they should periodically attend language courses to refresh their knowledge or pursue postgraduate study in Libya, or abroad if applicable. The following table indicates a summary of the recommendations list base on the their importance:

Targeted individuals	No	Recommendation	Short-term	medium	Long-term
The decision makers	1	Reduce students' number in each classroom	*		
The decision makers	2	Provide suitable learning environment		*	
The decision makers	3	Provide up to date books	*		
The decision makers	4	Provide the Internet, computers for lecturers and students	*		
English language lecturers	5	Update assessment methods		*	
English language lecturers	6	Use teaching methods that enhance communication		*	
The decision makers	7	Set up training programmes for lecturers	*		
The decision makers & alumni	8	Provide alumni with refreshment language courses before recruitment.			*
The decision makers	9	Continuous evaluation policy	*		

Table 7.1: Summary of the recommendations list base on the their importance

As the above table indicated, No 1,3,4,7&9 have to be done in a short time, 2,5&6 maybe completed in meduim time long and 8 could take longer peiod of time to be completed, However, priority classification and taking actions is in desicon makers' hand and the situation in the country. To sum up, the recommendations mentioned earlier could be beneficial to all Libyan universities and educational institutions because they are powered by the ministry of education and possibly suffer from similar situation.

7.5 Contribution to knowledge

The present study makes a number of noteworthy contributions to knowledge. Firstly, it fills a gap in the literature regarding language programme evaluation in the Libyan context. In addition, it extends the existing literature on English

language programme evaluation, to the benefit of future researchers. Furthermore, this research benefits Zawia University's authorities in terms of understanding the origins of the deficiencies of the current English programme by identifying the weaknesses that need to be addressed.

Moreover, the study facilitates the decision makers of Zawia University through formulating the changes necessary to the English language programme in order for it to become a competitive and efficient programme that meets international standards, through the framework presented in Figure 6.1.

Then, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, the course description of the English department at Zawia University has not previously been analysed. Therefore, this process will raise the stakeholders' awareness about the deficiencies to be addressed in the course content, in addition to facilitating the lecturers in designing improved teaching materials.

This study also contributes to knowledge by suggesting an evaluation model based on the CIPP model to enhance the quality of the language programme, while this model can be applied to different learning programmes and modified according to the respective context.

Finally, the research has developed an initial benchmarking framework in an attempt to determine the undergraduate Libyan students' level of English. This also represents a contribution to knowledge as the framework has been harnessed by a number of colleagues from the English department at Zawia University who have previously completed the IELTS test and are fully aware of the evaluation criteria and description.

7.6 Limitations of the research

All research has limitations and this study is no different, with a number of limitations that need to be highlighted. One of the limitations encountered by the researcher was the ongoing security situation and turmoil in Libya, which led to challenges in terms of the data collection as the Research Ethics Committee of Liverpool John Moores University refused to provide the author with permission to travel to Libya as a researcher. Consequently, the interviews were conducted via email, which made the collection data stage

lengthy, as the researcher had to follow up with the participants, again by email, in order to acquire full responses to the interview questions. In addition, some of the participants disengaged, which reduced the number of completed interviews. Therefore, the sample size might have been greater and the data more rich if the researcher had been able to travel to Libya in person.

This study did not include current students, because they lack online access (e.g. student portals and email applications). However, the study did include a number of alumni because they were chosen as distinguished students and were regularly available in the department. Although including all the alumni would not have been practical, it might have been more beneficial to include the current students' viewpoints about the English language programme.

Another limitation is that this study was limited to Zawia University, because the researcher is one of the lecturers at the institution and thus could more easily gain access. Furthermore, there is a general paucity of literature regarding Libyan higher education and programme evaluation.

7.7 Directions for future research

The present study suggests several areas that require further research. For instance, this study evaluated the English language programme at Zawia University through the lecturers' and alumni's perspectives. Therefore, future studies might include the institution's students and decision makers.

This study could be also be extended to include other universities in Libya and the Arab world, with the findings then compared to those from Zawia University. Furthermore, although this study used the CIPP model of evaluation, other studies could engage with different techniques of evaluation, as models present both advantages and weaknesses to allow decision-making judgments to take place.

Moreover, as the study interviews were conducted via email, future research could conduct face-to-face interviews to communicate directly with the respondents and gain more detailed information about the topic of research, provided that the security situation permitted this. In addition, using other research methods such as observation and focus groups could be beneficial

in terms of understanding the research problem and collecting more diverse data.

Within the literature, there is the suggestion that there is a lack of programme evaluation research in Libya specifically, and in the Arab world in general. Further research would thus help the Libyan Ministry of Education to construct a solid foundation from which to modify and improve its education programmes, while supplementing the limited available literature.

7.8 Chapter summary

In this chapter, a summary of the key findings was delineated, while the contributions made by the study were presented. The recommendations based on the findings were stated, and the limitations of the study presented. Meanwhile, a number of directions for future research were also suggested.

8 References

- Abbas, T. and Charles, T. (2003). *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Abdullah, S. S. (2015). *A Contrastive Study of the Grammar Translation and the Direct Methods of Teaching*. 3rd International Conference on Business, Economics, Management and Behavioral Sciences (ICBEMBS 2013). January 26-27. Hong Kong (China).
- Abukhattala, I. (2014). Literature in Foreign Language Education Programs: A New Perspective. *Advances in Language and Literacy Studies*, 5(6), pp. 216–226.
- Abukhattala, I. (2016). The Use of Technology in Language Classrooms in Libya. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, 6(4), pp. 262–267.
- Abusrewel, F. (2017). What constitutes EFL teacher education: a case study. *Languages College Journal, Tripoli University* 15, pp. 79–128.
- Acharya, A. S., Prakash, A., Saxena, P., and Nigam, A. (2013). Sampling: Why and how of it. *Indian Journal of Medical Specialties*, 4(2), pp. 330–333.
- Adams, K. A. and Lawrence, E. K. (2014). *Research methods, statistics, and applications*. Sage Publications.
- Aftab, A., Qureshi, S., and William, S. (2014). Investigating the washback effect of the Pakistani Intermediate English Examination. *International Journal of English and Literature*, 5(7), pp. 149–154.
- Ahmed, K. M. (2015). Perceptions of Libyan English Language Teachers towards Teaching the Target Culture. *Arab World English Journal*, 6(2).
- Ahmed, S. (2017). Authentic ELT Materials in the Language Classroom: An Overview. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*, 4(2), pp. 181–202.

- Alakkam, A and Ryahan, M. (2013). Classroom Interaction Versus Audio-lingual Method in Teaching English Grammar for Iraqi EFL University Learners. *Basic Education College Article, University of Babel*, 11, pp. 567–612.
- Albukbak, O. (2008). *Issues on the Development of English Language Teaching*. 1st edition. Arab Group. Seventh of October University Publication.
- Alderson, J. C. (2005). *Diagnosing foreign language proficiency: The interface between learning and assessment*. AandC Black.
- Alderson, J. C. and Banerjee, J. (2001). Language testing and assessment (Part I). *Language Teaching*, 34(4), pp. 213–236.
- Alfehaid, A. F. and Alamri, S. S. (2016). Evaluation of the University of Dammam Preparatory Year English Language Programme (PYELP). *Journal Of Arabic And Human Sciences*, 8(4), pp. 23–46.
- Al-Hamlan, S. (2015). A Needs Analysis Approach to EFL Syllabus Development for Second Grade Students in Secondary Education in Saudi Arabia: A Descriptive Analytical Approach to Students' Needs. *American International Journal of Contemporary Research*, 5(1), pp. 118–145.
- Alhmali, R. (2007). *Student attitudes in the context of the curriculum in Libyan education in middle and high schools*. PhD thesis. University of Glasgow.
- Al-Hussein, M. (2014). Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Libya. *Scientific Research Journal*, 2(11), pp. 58–64.
- Aliakbari, M. and Ghoreyshi, M. (2013). On the evaluation of master of arts program in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) at Ilam University. *European Online Journal of Natural and Social Sciences*, 2(2), pp. 546–558.

- Al-Jardani, K. S. S. (2012). English language curriculum evaluation in Oman. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 2(5), pp. 40–44.
- Alkhalidi, A. A. (2010). Developing a Principled Framework for Materials Evaluation: Some Considerations. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 1(2), pp. 281–298.
- Alkhalidy, M. (2012). English in Libya: A Vision for the Future. *Indian Literature*, 56(3), pp. 215–226.
- Al-Mahrooqi, R. and Troudi, S. (Eds) (2014). *Using technology in foreign language teaching*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Aloreibi, A. and Carey, M. D. (2017). English Language Teaching in Libya After Gaddafi. In: R. Kirkpatrick (Ed.). *English Language Education Policy in the Middle East and North Africa* (pp. 93–114). Springer International Publishing.
- Alqunayeer, H. S. and Zamir, S. (2016). Needs analysis of Saudi EFL female students: A case study of Qassim University. *Journal of Curriculum and Teaching*, 5(1), pp. 87–104.
- Alsaawi, A. (2014). A critical review of qualitative interviews. *European Journal of Business and Social Sciences*, 3(4), pp. 149–156.
- Alsagoff, L., McKay, S. L., Hu, G., and Renandya, W. A. (2012). *Principles and practices for teaching English as an international language*. Routledge.
- Al-Seghayer, K., 2014. The four most common constraints affecting English teaching in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 4(5), p.17.
- Alshenqeeti, H. (2014). Interviewing as a data collection method: A critical review. *English Linguistics Research*, 3(1), pp. 39–45.
- Alsied, S. M. and Ibrahim, N. W. (2017). Exploring Challenges Encountered by EFL Libyan Learners in Research Teaching and Writing. *IAFOR Journal of Language Learning*, 3(2), pp. 143–158.

- Al-Subahi, A. (2001). Evaluation of the English programme (ESA) at Saudi intermediate school. *Journal of King Abdulaziz University, Educational and Sciences*, 14, pp. 3–86.
- Altabit, S. and Omar, Y. (2015). Obstacles Libyan Teachers of English Encounter While Implementing English Language Curriculum in Libyan High Schools. *Journal of Modern Education Review, Academic Star Publishing Company*, 5(9), pp. 840–853.
- Altowaim, M. A. (2015). Effectiveness of Washback in Language Testing: Analyzing the Validity and Reliability. *Modern Journal of Language Teaching Methods*, 5(2), p. 33.
- Alvarez-Sandoval, E. (2005). *The importance of learning a foreign language in a changing society*. London; Lincoln; Shanghai: iUniverse, Inc.
- Alzain, A., Clark, S., and Ireson, G. (2014). Libyan Higher Education system, challenges and achievements. In: *Engineering Education (ICEED)*. IEEE 6th Conference. (pp. 67–72). doi:10.1109/ICEED.2014.7194690
- American Association for the Advancement of Science. (2001). *Designs for science literacy*. Oxford University Press.
- Andrade, H. and Cizek, G. J. (Eds) (2010). *Handbook of formative assessment*. Routledge.
- Antara, B. (2014). English Language Teaching and Learning in Bangladesh: CLT Perspective. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 19(12), pp. 9–13.
- Ariani, Y. W. (2014). Using Suggestopedia Method to Develop the Students' Writing Skill. Yogyakarta: Universitas Ahmad Dahlan.
- Ariza, E. N. (2002). Resurrecting “old” language learning methods to reduce anxiety for new language learners: Community language learning to the rescue. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 26(3), pp. 717–728.

- Arkoudis, S., Richardson, S., and Baik, C. (2012). *English language standards in higher education: From entry to exit*. Camberwell, Victoria: ACER Press.
- Armstrong, M., Brown, S., and Smith, H. (Eds) (2014). *Benchmarking and threshold standards in higher education*. London: Routledge.
- Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., Irvine, C. K. S., and Walker, D. (2013). *Introduction to research in education*. Cengage Learning.
- Astin, A. W. (2012). *Assessment for excellence: The philosophy and practice of assessment and evaluation in higher education*. Rowman and Littlefield Publishers.
- Attuwaybi, H. (2017). Students' and Instructors' Evaluation of The English Language Teacher Preparation Programme of Zawia College of Education. *Zawia University Bulletin*, 19(3), pp. 179–200.
- Aydođan, H. and Akbarov, A. A. (2014). The Four Basic Language Skills, Whole Language and Integrated Skill Approach in Mainstream University Classrooms in Turkey. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(9), pp. 672–680.
- Babatunde, S. (2012). A Framework for the Evaluation of the English as a Second Language Programme in Nigeria. *The Institute for the Study of European Laws*, 10(1), pp. 54–68.
- Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*. Oxford University Press.
- Bachman, L. F. and Palmer, A. S. (2005). *Language testing in practice: Designing and developing useful language tests*. Oxford University Press.
- Badger, R. (2018). *Teaching and Learning the English Language: A Problem-Solving Approach*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Baehr, M. (2005). Distinctions between assessment and evaluation. *Program Assessment Handbook*, 7.

- Bahumaid, S. A. (2012). The communicative approach in EFL contexts revisited. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, 2(6), pp. 446–448.
- Bailey, K. M. (1998). *Learning about language assessment: Dilemmas, decisions, and directions*. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.
- Baleghizadeh, S. (2015). The procedural syllabus and the task syllabus: How similar, how different? *HOW*, 22(2), pp. 104–113.
- Baleghizadeh, S. and Masoun, A. (2014). The Effect of Self-Assessment on EFL Learners' Self-Efficacy. *TESL Canada Journal*, 31(1), pp. 42–58.
- Bareen, M. P. (2001). *Learner contributions to language learning*. New York, NY: Pearson Education.
- Barrow, R. (2015). *Giving teaching back to teachers: A critical introduction to curriculum theory*. Routledge.
- Beikmahdavi, N. (2016). Washback in Language Testing: Review of Related Literature First. *International Journal of Modern Languages Teaching and Learning*, 1(4), pp. 130–136.
- Bell, C. and Harris, D. (2013). *Evaluating and Assessing for Learning*. Routledge.
- Bennett, J. (2003). *Evaluation methods in research*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Benson, S. D. (2016). Task-based language teaching: An empirical study of task transfer. *Language Teaching Research*, 20(3), pp. 341–365.
- Bergig, M. (2017). The importance of classroom activities on teaching English. *Languages College Journal, Tripoli University*, 15, pp. 27–40.
- Bernard, H. R. and Bernard, H. R. (2012). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Sage Publications, Inc.
- Blaikie, N. (2010). *Designing Social Research: A Logic of Anticipation*. Cambridge; Malden, MA.

- Blaxter, L., Hughes, C., and Tight, M. (2006). *How to Research*. 3rd edition. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Biggs, J. B. (2011). *Teaching for quality learning at university: What the student does*. McGraw-Hill Education.
- Bonner, A. and Tolhurst, G., 2002. Insider-outsider perspectives of participant observation. *Nurse Researcher*, 9(4).
- Boroujeni, S. A. and Fard, F. M. (2013). A Needs Analysis of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) Course For Adoption Of Communicative Language Teaching: (A Case of Iranian First-Year Students of Educational Administration). *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Invention*, 2(6), pp. 35–44.
- Boud, D., Cohen, R., and Sampson, J. (Eds) (2014). *Peer learning in higher education: Learning from and with each other*. Routledge.
- Boyle, B. and Charles, M. (2014). *Formative assessment for teaching and learning*. Sage.
- Bowen, G. (2009). Document Analysis as a Qualitative Research Method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 9(2), pp. 27–40.
- Bowie, L. and Bronte-Tinkew, J. (2008). *Process evaluations: A guide for out-of-school time practitioners*. Washington DC: Child Trends.
- Brown, H. (2000). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. 4th edition. White Plains. NY: Pearson Education.
- Brown, H. D. (2004). *Language assessment: Principles and classroom practices*. Allyn and Bacon.
- Brown, J. D. (2016). *Introducing needs analysis and English for specific purposes*. Routledge.
- Bryman, A. (2015). *Social research methods*. Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, A. and Bell, E. (2015). *Business research methods*. Oxford University Press.

- Burke, K. (2010). *Balanced assessment: From formative to summative*. Solution Tree Press.
- Burns, A. (2003). *Collaborative action research for English language teachers*. Ernst Klett Sprachen.
- Burns, A. and Siegel, J. (2017). *International Perspectives on Teaching the Four Skills in ELT: Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing*. Springer.
- Buyukduman, F. I. (2014). Alternative Assessment Tools in ELT. In: A. Akbarov (Ed.) *Multicultural Language Education: From Research into Practice* (pp. 41–51). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Campbell, M. K., Resnicow, K., Carr, C., Wang, T., and Williams, A. (2007). Process evaluation of an effective church-based diet intervention: Body and Soul. *Health Education and Behavior*, 34(6), pp. 864–880.
- Carola, S. and Viebrock, B. (2018). *Teaching English as a Foreign Language: An Introduction*. Springer.
- Carter, B. (2018). Girls' Education needs in Libya. Available at: <https://opendocs.ids.ac.uk/opendocs/bitstream/handle/123456789/14056/413%20Girls%20education%20Libya.pdf?sequence=1> (Accessed: 24th of April 2019).
- Carter, R. and McCarthy, M. (2014). *Vocabulary and language teaching*. Routledge.
- Cassell, C. and Symon, G. (Eds) (2004). *Essential guide to qualitative methods in organizational research*. Sage.
- Chen, H.-T. (2005). *Practical programme evaluation: Assessing and improving planning, implementation, and effectiveness*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Chen, I.-J., Chang, Y.-H., and Chang, W.-H. (2016). I Learn What I Need: Needs Analysis of English Learning in Taiwan. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 4(1), pp. 1–5.

- Cheng, L. and Watanabe, Y. (Eds) (2004). *Washback in language testing: Research contexts and methods*. Routledge.
- Cheng, X. (2011). The 'English curriculum standards' in China: Rationales and issues. In: A. Feng (Ed.) *English language education across greater China* (pp. 133–150). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Chiedu, R. E. and Omenogur, H. D. (2014). The Concept of Reliability in Language Testing: Issues and Solutions. *Journal of Resourcefulness and Distinction*, 8(1), pp. 1–9.
- Choudhury, R. U. (2014). The role of culture in teaching and learning of English as a foreign language. *International Journal of Multi-Disciplinary Research*, 1(4).
- Choy, L. T. (2014). The strengths and weaknesses of research methodology: Comparison and complimentary between qualitative and quantitative approaches. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 19(4), pp. 99–104.
- Christison, M., Christian, D., Duff, P. A., and Spada, N. (2015). *Teaching and learning English grammar: Research findings and future directions*. Routledge.
- Christison, M. and Murray, D. E. (2014). *What English language teachers need to know Volume III: Designing curriculum*. Routledge.
- Coe, R., Aloisi, C., Higgins, S., and Major, L. E. (2014). *What makes great teaching? Review of the underpinning research*. Centre for Evaluation and Monitoring.
- Coghlan, D., 2019. *Doing action research in your own organization*. SAGE Publications Limited.
- Cohen, L., Marion, L., and Morrison, K. (2013). *Research methods in education*. 7th edition. Routledge.
- Coleman, M., Graham-Jolly, M., and Middlewood, D. (2003). *Managing the curriculum in South African schools*. Commonwealth Secretariat.

- Collis, J. and Hussey, R. (2013). *Business research: A practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Cook, V. (2013). *Second language learning and language teaching*. Routledge.
- Coombe, C. (2012). *The Cambridge guide to second language assessment*. Cambridge University Press.
- Corson, D. (1990). *Language policy across the curriculum*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Coskun, A. and Daloglu, A. (2010). Evaluating an English Language Teacher Education Program through Peacock's Model. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(6), pp. 24–42.
- Crabb, A. and Leroy, P. (2012). *The handbook of environmental policy evaluation*. Routledge.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative*. 4th edition. Prentice Hall.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W., Gutmann, M. L., Piano Clark, V. L., and Hanson, W. E. (2003). Advanced mixed methods research designs. In: A. Tashakkori and C. Teddlie (Eds) *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (pp. 209–240). Sage Publications.
- Crystal, D. (2012). *English as a global language*. Cambridge University Press.
- Cummins, J. and Davison, C. (2007). *International handbook of English language teaching*. Springer Science and Business Media.
- Curtis, A. (2017). *Methods and methodologies for language teaching*. Macmillan International Higher Education.
- Dainton, S. (2010). It's the Journey that Really Matters. *Adults Learning*, 21(6), pp. 28–29.

- Darussalam, G. (2010). Program Evaluation in Higher Education. *International Journal of Research and Review*, 5(2), pp. 56–65.
- David, D. (2007). Case study methodology: Fundamentals and critical analysis. *Cognitie, Creier, Comportament*, 11(2), p. 299.
- David, M. and Sutton, C. D. (2011). *Social research: An introduction*. Sage.
- Davison, J., Daly, C., and Moss, J. (2011). *Debates in English teaching*. London: Routledge.
- Dawson, C. (2002). *Practical research methods: A user-friendly guide to mastering research*. Oxford: How to Books Ltd.
- Dawson, C. (2009). *Introduction to Research Methods: A Practical Guide for Anyone Undertaking a Research Project*. 4th edition. Oxford: How to Book Ltd.
- Denscombe, M. (2014). *The good research guide: for small-scale social research projects*. Maidenhead: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Derderian-Aghajanian, A. and Wang, C. C. (2012). How culture affects on English language learners' (ELL's) outcomes, with Chinese and Middle Eastern Immigrant Students. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 3(5), pp. 172–180.
- D'Este, C. (2012). New views of validity in language testing. *EL.LE*, 1(1), pp. 61–76.
- Diaab, S. (2016). Role of Faulty Instructional Methods in Libyan EFL Learners Speaking Difficulties. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 232, pp. 338–345.
- Dollar, Y. K., Tolu, A. T., and Doyran, F. (2014). Evaluating a Graduate Program of English Language Teacher Education. *Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry*, 5(2), pp. 1–10.
- Donoghue, M. R. (2009). *Language arts: Integrating skills for classroom teaching*. Sage Publications.

- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Drbseh, M. (2013). The spread of English language in Jordan. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, 3(9), pp. 1–5.
- Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R., and Jackson, P. R. (2012). *Management Research*. 4th edition. London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Ediger, M. (2010). *Teaching English Successfully*. Discovery Publishing House.
- Elabbar, A. (2014). Libyan English as Foreign Language School Teachers' (LEFLSTs) Knowledge of Teaching: Action Research as Continuing Professional Development Model for Libya School Teachers. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 19(4), pp. 74–81.
- Elabbar, A. A. (2011). *An investigation of influences affecting Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs), teaching approaches in the language classrooms*. PhD thesis. University of Glasgow.
- Eldokali, E. (2014). A Linguistic and Textual Analysis of Classroom English Interaction at Sirte University in Libya. In: *Proceedings of International Academic Conferences (No. 0100898)*. International Institute of Social and Economic Sciences, pp. 368–380.
- El Hassan, K. and Al-Hroub, A. (2013). *Strengths and weaknesses of the evaluation system of education in Libya*. Report Presented to UNESCO Regional Office, Beirut. May 2013.
- Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2003). Designing a Task-Based Syllabus. *RELC Journal*, 34(1), pp. 64–81.

- Ellis, R. (2009). Task-based language teaching: Sorting out the misunderstandings. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 19(3), pp. 221–246.
- Elmadwi, H. and Shepherd, R. (2014). A critical study of the problems faced by the Libyan students in reading and comprehension of English as a foreign language. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 19(1), pp. 29–33.
- Elyas, T. and Picard, M. (2010). Saudi Arabian educational history: Impacts on English language teaching. *Education, Business and Society: Contemporary Middle Eastern Issues*, 3(2), pp. 136–145.
- Elzawi, A., Kenan, T., Wade, S., and Pislaru, C. (2013). Internet and emerging Information technologies in Libyan Universities into reduce Digital Divide. In: *2nd International Conference on Internet*.
- English First. (2015). English Proficiency Index. [Online] Available at: <http://www.ef.co.uk/epi/> [Accessed: 20 June 2018].
- Epri, M. (2016). A case study on the impact of large classes on student learning. *Contemporary PNG Studies: DWU Research Journal*, 24, pp. 95–109.
- Erfani, S. S. and Torkamani, A. (2015). The impact of consciousness-raising vs. structure-based production tasks on reading comprehension of Iranian mid-intermediate EFL learners. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(5), pp. 1078–1089.
- Eriksson, P. and Kovalainen, A. (2015). *Qualitative Methods in Business Research: A Practical Guide to Social Research*. Sage.
- Esgaiar, E. (2018). A critical review of the English syllabus of the English language department at Zawia University, Libya. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Development*, 5(12).
- Esmaeil, A. (2015). Comparative Study of Grammar Translation Method (GTM) and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in Language

- Teaching Methodology. *International Journal of Science and Research Methodology*, 1(3), pp. 16–25.
- Etikan, I., Musa, S. A., and Alkassim, R. S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics*, 5(1), pp. 1–4.
- European Commission. (2012). *Higher Education in Libya*. 1–9.
- European Commission TEMPUS. (2013). *Benchmarking of Quality Assurance in Higher Education: Experiences from the Focus Project*. [Online] Available at: http://www.focusquality.eu/sites/focusquality.eu/files/FOCUS_Benchmarking%20%28web%29.pdf [Accessed: 02 June 2018].
- Fareh, S. (2010). Challenges of teaching English in the Arab world: Why cannot EFL programmes deliver as expected? *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2(2), pp. 3600–3604.
- Fazlur, M. (2011). Assessment and Feedback Practices in the English Language Classroom. *Journal of NELTA*, 16(12). doi:10.3126/nelta.v16i1-2.6133
- Flagg, B. N. (2013). *Formative evaluation for educational technologies*. Routledge.
- Fink, S. B. (2012). The Many Purposes of Course Syllabi: Which are Essential and Useful?. *Syllabus*, 1(1), pp. 1–12.
- Flick, U. (2014). *An introduction to qualitative research*. Sage.
- Fraenkel, J., Wallen, N., and Hyun, H. (2012). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. 8th edition. McGraw-Hill Higher Education.
- Frechtling, J., 2002. The 2002 User-Friendly Handbook for Project Evaluation.
- Fulcher, G. (2013). *Practical language testing*. Routledge.
- Fulcher, G. and Davidson, F. (2007). *Language testing and assessment*. London; New York: Routledge.

- Gajjar, D. N. B. (2013). Ethical consideration in research. *Education*, 2(7), pp. 8–15.
- Galante, A. (2014). English language teaching in the post-method era. *Contact*, 40(3), pp. 57–62.
- Ganta, T. (2015). The Strengths and Weaknesses of Task Based Learning (TBL) Approach. *Scholarly Research Journal for Interdisciplinary Studies*, 3(16), pp. 2760–2771.
- Garrison, J. et al., (2012). *John Dewey's philosophy of education: An introduction and re-contextualisation for our times*. Springer.
- Gilbert, N. (Ed.) (2008). *Researching social life*. Sage.
- Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 8(4), pp. 597–606.
- Graves, K. (2000). *Designing language courses: A guide for teachers*. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle, Thomson Learning.
- Graves, K. (2016). Language curriculum design. *The Routledge Handbook of English Language Teaching*. (pp. 79–94).
- Gray, D. E. (2013). *Doing research in the real world*. Sage.
- Greene, J. C. (2007). *Mixed methods in social inquiry*. Vol. 9. John Wiley and Sons.
- Griffin, P. and Care, E. (2014). *Assessment and teaching of 21st century skills: Methods and approach*. Springer.
- Grinnell, Jr R. M., Unrau, Y., and Gabr, P. (2012). *Programme evaluation for social workers: foundations of evidence-based programme*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Guçlu, B. and Ayhan, M. S. (2015). Suggestopedia in Turkish Language Classroom for Foreigners: A Case Study in Georgia. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Educational Studies*, p. 89.

- Guillemin, M. and Gillam, L. (2004). Ethics, reflexivity, and “ethically important moments” in research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 10(2), pp. 261–280.
- Gursoy, E., Korkmaz, S. C., and Damar, E. A. (2017). English Language Teaching within the New Educational Policy of Turkey: Views of Stakeholders. *International Education Studies*, 10(4), pp. 18–80.
- Guskey, T. R. (2003). How classroom assessments improve learning. *Educational Leadership*, 60(5), pp. 6–11.
- Hair, J. F. (2015). *Essentials of business research methods*. ME Sharpe.
- Hall, G. (Ed.) (2016). *The Routledge Handbook of English Language Teaching*. Routledge.
- Hall, G. (2017). *Exploring English language teaching: Language in action*. Routledge.
- Hall, D. and Hewings, A. (Eds) (2013). *Innovation in English Language Teaching: A Reader*. Routledge.
- Hall, J.N., 2013. Pragmatism, evidence, and mixed methods evaluation. *New Directions for Evaluation*, 2013(138), pp.15-26.
- Hall, R. (2013) Mixed Methods: in search of a paradigm. In: *Conducting Research in a Changing and Challenging World*, Edts Le, T. and Le, O., pp 71 - 78, Nova Science Publishers Inc.
- Hall, R. (2008). *Applied social research: Planning, designing and conducting real-world research*. Macmillan Education AU.
- Hallebone, E. and Priest, J. (2009). *Business and management research: paradigms and practices*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Hamdallah, R. (1999). To Use or Not To Use Arabic in English Language Teaching. *An-Najah University Journal for Research*, 13(1), pp. 285–296.
- Hammond, M. and Wellington, J. (2012). *Research methods: The key concepts*. Routledge.

- Han, Z. (2004). To be a native speaker means not to be a nonnative speaker. *Second Language Research*, 20(2), pp. 166–187.
- Hanrahan, S. J. and Isaacs, G. (2001). Assessing self-and peer-assessment: The students' views. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 20(1), pp. 53–70.
- Haque, N. (2014). A brief study on needs analysis. *Express: An International Journal of Multi-disciplinary Research*, 1(1).
- Harathi, M. E. (2012). Quality Assurance Concepts of Institutionalization: Some Indicators towards Higher Educational Development Policy in Libya. *Journal of Education and Vocational Research*, 3(10), pp. 327–331.
- Harfitt, G. J. (2015). *Class size reduction: Key insights from secondary school classrooms*. Springer.
- Harmer, J. (2015). *The practice of English language teaching*. 5th edition. London: Pearson.
- Harris, L. R. and Brown, G. T. (2010). Mixing interview and questionnaire methods: Practical problems in aligning data. *Practical Assessment, Research and Evaluation*, 15(1), pp. 1–19.
- Hayes, M. and Burkette, A. (Eds) (2017). *Approaches to Teaching the History of the English Language: Pedagogy in Practice*. Oxford University Press.
- Hays, P. A. (2004). Case study research. In: K. DeMarrias and S. D. Lapan. (Eds) *Foundations for research: Methods of inquiry in education and the social sciences* (pp. 217–234). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and learning in the language classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Henn, M., Weinstein, M., and Foard, N. (2008). *A short introduction to social research*. Sage.

- Hennink, M., Hutter, I., and Bailey, A. (2010). *Qualitative research methods*. Sage.
- Herman, J. L. and Baker, E. L. (2005). Making benchmark testing work. *Educational Leadership*, 63(3), pp. 48–54.
- Heywood, J. (2000). *Assessment in higher education: Student learning, teaching, programmes and institutions*. Vol. 56. Jessica Kingsley Publishers.
- Hinkel, E. (2010). Integrating the four skills: Current and historical perspectives. In: R. B. Kaplan (Ed.) *Oxford Handbook in Applied Linguistics* (pp. 110–126). 2nd edition. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Huhta, M., Vogt, K., Johnson, E., and Tulkki, H. (2013). *Needs analysis for language course design: A holistic approach to ESP*. Cambridge University Press.
- Hogan, R. L. (2007). The historical development of program evaluation: Exploring past and present. *Online Journal for Workforce Education and Development*, 2(4), pp. 1–14.
- Houser, R. A. (2014). *Counseling and educational research: Evaluation and application*. Sage Publications.
- Howard, J. and Major, J. (2004). Guidelines for designing effective English language teaching materials. *The TESOLANZ Journal*, 12, pp. 50–58.
- Howatt, A. P. R. and Richard, S. (2014). The History of Teaching English as a Foreign Language, from a British and European Perspective. *Language and History*, 57(1), pp. 75–95.
- Howatt, A. P. R. and Widdowson, H. G. (2004). *A history of ELT*. Oxford University Press.
- Huba, M. E. and Freed, J. E. (2000). Learner-centered assessment on college campuses: Shifting the focus from teaching to learning. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, 24(9), pp. 759–766.

- Hughes, A. (2003). *Testing for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hughes, A. S. (2016). Mixed Methods Research. *APS Observer*, 29(5).
- Ibrahim, M. K. and Ibrahim, Y. A. (2017). Communicative English language teaching in Egypt: Classroom practice and challenges. *Issues in Educational Research*, 27(2), pp. 285–313.
- Imani, S. S. A. (2013). Evaluation of Modular EFL Educational Program (Audio-Visual Materials Translation and Translation of Deeds and Documents). *English Language Teaching*, 6(4), pp. 8–18.
- Inglis, A. (2005). Quality improvement, quality assurance, and benchmarking: Comparing two frameworks for managing quality processes in open and distance learning. *The International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning*, 6(1), pp. 1–13.
- Intarapanich, C. (2013). Teaching Methods, Approaches and Strategies Found in EFL Classrooms: A Case Study in Lao PDR. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 88, pp. 306–311.
- Irambona, A. and Kumaidi, K. (2015). The effectiveness of English teaching program in senior high school: A case study. *Research and Evaluation in Education*, 1(2), pp. 114–128.
- Jalilzadeh, K. and Tahmasebi, A. (2014). Content-based Syllabus. *European Scientific Journal*, 1, pp. 1957–7431.
- Jesa, M. (2010). *Efficient English teaching*. APH Publishing.
- Jha, S. K. (2014). Shall we teach English as a subject or as a language? *Education Practice and Innovation*, 1(1), pp. 10–17.
- Jha, S. K. (2015). Exploring desirable characteristics for Libyan ELT practitioners. *Journal of English Language and Literature*, 2(1), pp. 78–87.

- Johnson, R. B. and Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, 33(7), pp. 14–26.
- Johnson, R. B., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., and Turner, L. A. (2007). Toward a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(2), pp. 112–133.
- Johnson, S. M. (2015). *Adult learning in the language classroom*. Multilingual Matters.
- Joughin, G. (2009). Assessment, learning and judgement in higher education: A critical review. In: G. Joughin (Ed.) *Assessment, learning and judgement in higher education* (pp. 1–15). Dordrecht: Springer. doi:10.1007/978-1-4020-8905-3
- Kachru, B. B. (2006). The English language in the outer circle. *World Englishes*, 3, pp. 241–255.
- Karakas, A. (2012). Evaluation of the English language teacher education program in Turkey. *ELT Weekly*, 4(15), pp. 1–16.
- Karimnia, A. and Kay, E. (2015). An evaluation of the undergraduate TEFL program in Iran: A multi-case study. *International Journal of Instruction*, 8(2), pp. 83–98.
- Kell, P. and Vogl, G. (Eds) (2009). *Higher education in the Asia Pacific: challenges for the future*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Kennedy, C. (2010). *Learning English in a global context* in S. Hunston and D. Oakey (eds.), *Introducing Applied Linguistics*, 84-93. London: Routledge.
- Khan, J. A. (2011). *Research methodology*. APH Publishing Corporation.
- Kielmann, K., Cataldo, F., and Seeley, J. (2012). *Introduction to qualitative research methodology: a training manual*. UK: Department for International Development.

- Kifer, E. (2000). *Large-scale assessment: Dimensions, dilemmas, and policy*. Corwin Press.
- King, J. A. and Stevahn, L. (2012). *Interactive evaluation practice: Mastering the interpersonal dynamics of program evaluation*. Sage Publications.
- Kirkpatrick, R. (2018). English Language Education Policy in the Middle East and North Africa. *English Language Education*, 21(4), vii–300.
- Klippel, F. et al. (2012). *Keep talking: Communicative fluency activities for language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.
- Knapp, K., Seidlhofer, B., and Widdowson, H. (Eds) (2009). *Handbook of foreign language communication and learning*. Walter de Gruyter.
- Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research methodology: Methods and techniques*. New Age International.
- Kumar, R. (2008). *Research methodology*. New Delhi: APH Publishing Corporation.
- Kumar, R. (2014). *Research Methodology: A step-by-step guide for beginners*. Sage Publications.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003). *Beyond methods: Macrostrategies for language teaching*. Yale University Press.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). *Understanding language teaching: From method to postmethod*. Routledge.
- Lai, Y. M., Ahmad, A. R., and Wan, C. D. (Eds) (2016). *Higher Education in the Middle East and North Africa: Exploring Regional and Country Specific Potentials*. Springer.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and principles in language teaching*. 2nd edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. and Anderson, M. (2013). *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*. 3rd edition. Oxford University Press.

- Lessow-Hurley, J. (2003). *Meeting the needs of second language learners: An educator's guide*. ASCD.
- Leung, L. (2015). Validity, reliability, and generalizability in qualitative research. *Journal of Family Medicine and Primary Care*, 4(3), pp. 324–327.
- Li, F. (2016). College English Reform in the Context of Globalization: A Case in Wuhan University. *International Journal for Innovation Education and Research*, 2(10), pp. 48–53.
- Long, M. H. (2005). *Second language needs analysis*. Cambridge University Press.
- Low, E. L. (2014). *Pronunciation for English as an international language: From research to practice*. Routledge.
- Luke, A., Woods, A., and Weir, K. (2013). *Curriculum, syllabus design, and equity: A primer and model*. Routledge.
- Lynch, B. K. (2001). Rethinking assessment from a critical perspective. *Language Testing*, 18(4), pp. 351–372.
- Lynch, D. N. (2010). *Student-Centered Learning: The Approach That Better Benefits Students*. Virginia Wesleyaan College.
- Mackey, A. and Gass, S. M. (2015). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Routledge.
- Mahboob, A. and Elyas, T. (2014). English in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. *World Englishes*, 33(1), pp. 128–142.
- Mahboudi, H. R. and Javdani, F. (2012). The teaching of English in Iran: The place of culture. *Journal of Languages and Culture*, 3(5), pp. 87–95.
- Mahrous, A. A. and Ahmed, A. A. (2010). A Cross-Cultural Investigation of Students' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Pedagogical Tools: The Middle East, the United Kingdom, and the United States. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 14(3), pp. 289–306.

- Mappiasse, S. S. and Sihes, A. J. B. (2014). Evaluation of English as a foreign language and its curriculum in Indonesia: A review. *English Language Teaching*, 7(10), pp. 113–122.
- Marais, P. (2016). “We can’t believe what we see”: Overcrowded classrooms through the eyes of student teachers. *South African Journal of Education*, 36(2), pp. 1–10.
- Mart, C. T. (2013). The Audio-Lingual Method: An Easy Way of Achieving Speech. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 3(12), pp. 63–65.
- Mart, C. T. (2013). The Direct-Method: A Good Start to Teach Oral Language. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 3(11), pp. 182–184.
- Mart, C. T. (2013). The Grammar-Translation Method and the Use of Translation to Facilitate Learning in ESL Classes. *Journal of Advances in English Language Teaching*, 1(4), pp. 103–105.
- Martín-Monje, E., Elorza, I., and Riaza, B. C. (2016). *Technology-Enhanced Language Learning for Specialized Domains: Practical Applications and Mobility*. Routledge.
- Matthews, B. and Ross, L. (2014). *Research methods*. Pearson Higher Education.
- Maxwell, J.A., 2011. Paradigms or toolkits? Philosophical and methodological positions as heuristics for mixed methods research. *Mid-Western Educational Researcher*, 24(2), pp.27-30.
- McDonough, J. and Shaw, C. (2012). *Materials and Methods in ELT*. John Wiley and Sons.
- McGrath, I. (2013). *Teaching materials and the roles of EFL/ESL teachers: Practice and theory*. AandC Black.

- McGregor, S. L. and Murnane, J. A. (2010). Paradigm, methodology and method: Intellectual integrity in consumer scholarship. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 34(4), pp. 419–427.
- McKim, C. A. (2017). The value of mixed methods research: A mixed methods study. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 11(2), pp. 202–222.
- McNamara, G., Joyce, P., and O'Hara, J. (2010). Evaluation of adult education and training programs. *International Encyclopedia of Education*, 3, pp. 548–554.
- Mertens, D. M., Bazeley, P., Bowleg, L., Fielding, N., Maxwell, J., Molina-Azorin, J. F., and Niglas, K. (2016). Expanding thinking through a kaleidoscopic look into the future: Implications of the Mixed Methods International Research Association's Task Force Report on the future of mixed methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 10(3), pp. 221–227.
- Mickan, P. (2012). *Language curriculum design and socialisation*. Multilingual Matters.
- Miller, T., Birch, M., and Jessop, J. (Eds) (2012). *Ethics in qualitative research*. Sage Publications.
- Mills, A. J., Durepos, G., and Wiebe, E. (Eds) (2010). *Encyclopaedia of case study research: L-Z; Index*. (Vol. 1). Sage.
- Milton, S. and Barakat, S., (2016). Higher education as the catalyst of recovery in conflict-affected societies. *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, 14(3), pp.403-421.
- Mishan, F. (2015). *Materials development for TESOL*. Edinburgh University Press.
- Modiano, M. and Sharifian, F. (2009). *English as an international language: Perspectives and pedagogical issues*.
- Morgan, D.L., (2013). *Integrating qualitative and quantitative methods: A pragmatic approach*. Sage publications.

- Mohamed, J. M. G. (2014). Use of Translation in the Classroom by EFL Teachers in Libya (A descriptive study). *Arab World English Journal*, (3), pp. 27–40.
- Mohsen, A. H. S. (2014). Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Libya. *Scientific Research Journal*, 2(11), pp. 58–64.
- Moore, N. (2006). *How to do research; the complete guide to design and managing research projects*. Facet Publishing.
- Morris, A. (2015). *A practical introduction to in-depth interviewing*. Sage.
- Moser, C. A. and Kalton, G. (2017). *Survey methods in social investigation*. Routledge.
- Mukalel, J. C. (2005). *Approaches to English language teaching*. Discovery Publishing House.
- Najeeb, S. S. (2013). The business of teaching English as a second language: A Libyan case study. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 70, pp. 1243–1253.
- Nation, I. S. P. and Macalister, J. (2009). *Language curriculum design*. Routledge.
- Nation, I. S. P. and Macalister, J. (2010). *Language course design*. London: Routledge.
- Natsir, M. and Sanjaya, D. (2014). Grammar Translation Method (GTM) Versus Communicative Language Teaching (CLT); A Review of Literature. *International Journal of Education and Literacy Studies*, 2(1), pp. 58–62.
- Neuman, L. W. (2014). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. 7th edition. Pearson Education Limited
- Noble, H. and Smith, J. (2015). Issues of validity and reliability in qualitative research. *Evidence-Based Nursing*, 18(2), pp. 34–35.

- Noor, H. H. and Al-Qadi, N. S. (2016). *A Course in Applied Linguistics for Arab EFL/ESL Students*. Bern: Peter Lang AG, Internationaler Verlag der Wissenschaften.
- Norris, J. M. (2006). The why (and how) of assessing student foreign language programs. *Modern Language Journal*, 90, pp. 590–597.
- Nouraldeem, A. S. and Elyas, T. (2014). Learning English in Saudi Arabia: a socio-cultural perspective. *International Journal of English Language and Linguistics Research*, 2(3), pp. 56–78.
- Nunan, D. (1995). *Language teaching methodology: a textbook for teachers*. London; New York: Prentice Hall.
- Nunan, D. (2003). The impact of English as a global language on educational policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific Region. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(4), pp. 589–613.
- Nunan, D. (2004). *Task-based Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Numan, D. (2005). *The learner-centred curriculum*. Shanghai, CH: Shanghai Foreign Educational Press.
- Nunez, A. and Tellez, M. (2009). ELT materials: The key to fostering effective teaching and learning settings. *Profile Issues in Teachers Professional Development*, 11(2), pp. 171–186.
- .O'Brien, JandNur, H . (2014). Teaching English to young learners- A look at Sudan. *IOSR Journal of Research and Methods in Education*, 4(4), pp. 69–77.
- O'Leary, Z. (2017). *The essential guide to doing your research project*. Sage.
- O'Loughlin, K. (2014). English language standards in higher education: from entry to exit. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 33(2) pp. 402–407.

- Omar, S. (2013). The relevance of Libyan secondary school materials to the learners and their needs. *Scientific Research Journal*, 1(5), pp. 27–40.
- Orafi, S. M. S. and Borg, S. (2009). Intentions and realities in implementing communicative curriculum reform. *System*, 37(2), pp. 243–253.
- Orcher, L. T. (2016). *Conducting research: Social and behavioural science methods*. Routledge.
- Otman, W. and Karlberg, E. (2007). *The Libyan economy: economic diversification and international repositioning*. Springer Science and Business Media.
- Pachler, N., Evans, M., Redondo, A., and Fisher, L. (2013). *Learning to Teach Foreign Languages in the Secondary School: A Companion to School Experience*. Routledge.
- Padgett, D. K. (2016). *Qualitative methods in social work research*. Vol. 36. Sage Publications.
- Palmer, E. (2014). *Teaching the core skills of listening and speaking*. ASCD.
- Panadero, E. and Romero, M. (2014). To rubric or not to rubric? The effects of self-assessment on self-regulation, performance and self-efficacy. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy and Practice*, 21(2), pp. 133–148.
- Panneerselvam, R. (2014). *Research methodology*. PHI Learning Pvt. Ltd.
- Parkes, J. and Harris, M. B. (2002). The purposes of a syllabus. *College Teaching*, 50(2), pp. 55–61.
- Parvaiz, G.S et al., 2016. Pragmatism for mixed method research at higher education level. *Business and Economic Review*, 8(2), pp.67-79.
- Patel, M. F. (2008). *English Language Teaching: Methods, Tools and Techniques*. 1st edition. New Delhi: Sunrise Publishers and Distributors.

- Pathirage, C. P., Amaratunga, R. D. G., and Haigh, R. P. (2008). The role of philosophical context in the development of research methodology and theory. *The Built and Human Environment Review*, 1(1), pp. 1–10.
- Pathan, M., Al-Khaiyali, A. T., and Marayi, Z. (2016). Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Libyan Schools: Issues and Challenges. *International Journal of English and Education*, 5(2), pp. 19–30.
- Patil, Y. and Kalekar, S. (2015). CIPP model for school evaluation. *Scholarly Research Journal for Humanity Science and English Language*, 2(10), pp. 2615–2619.
- Peacock, M. (2009). The evaluation of foreign-language-teacher education programmes. *Language Teaching Research*, 13(3), 259-78.
- Pennycook, A. (2017). *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. Taylor and Francis.
- Pitt, K. (2005). *Debates in ESOL teaching and learning: Culture, communities and classrooms*. Psychology Press.
- Pollock, J. and Waller, E. (2012). *English Grammar and Teaching Strategies: Lifeline to Literacy*. Routledge.
- Posavac, E. (2015). *Program evaluation: Methods and case studies*. Routledge.
- Rababah, G. (2003). Communication Problems Facing Arab Learners of English. *Language Learning Journal*, 3(1).
- Rahimpour, M. (2008). Implementation of task-based approaches to language teaching. *Pazhuhesh-e-Zabanha-ye Khareji Journal*, 41, pp. 45–61.
- Rahimpour, M. (2010). Current trends on syllabus design in foreign language instruction. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2(2), pp. 1660–1664.
- Rajaei Nia, M., Abbaspour, E., and Zare, J. (2012). A critical review of recent trends in second language syllabus design and curriculum

- development. *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning*, 2(2). doi:10.5861/ijrsl.2012.152
- Ramani, N. and Pushpanathan, T. (2015). Importance of needs analysis in ELT curriculum. *International Research of Multidisciplinary Research*, 2(10), pp. 98–100.
- Ramlan, N. and Maarof, N. (2014). Multicultural Education: The Influence of Cultural Diversity on Second Language Acquisition. *International Journal of English and Education*, 3(4), pp. 284–294.
- Reddy, M. (2016). Importance of English Language in Today's World. *International Journal of Academic Research*. 3(4-2), pp. 179–184.
- Reinholz, D. (2016). The assessment cycle: a model for learning through peer assessment. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 41(2), pp. 301–315.
- Renandya, W. A. and Widodo, H. P. (2016). *English language teaching today: Linking theory and practice*. Springer.
- Riazi, A. M. (2016). *The Routledge Encyclopedia of Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*. Routledge.
- Richards, J. C. (2001). *Curriculum development in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. (2013). Curriculum approaches in language teaching: Forward, central, and backward design. *RELC Journal*, 44(1), pp. 5–33.
- Richards, J. C. (2018). *Key issues in language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. and Renandya, W. A. (2002). *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*. Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. 2nd edition. Cambridge University Press.

- Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. 3rd edition. Cambridge University Press.
- Richardson, T. R. and Johanningmeier, E. V. (Eds) (2008). *Educational research, the national agenda, and educational reform: A history*. Information Age Publishing, Inc.
- Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., Nicholls, C. M., and Ormston, R. (Eds) (2013). *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. Sage.
- Robson, C. and McCartan, K. (2016). *Real world research*. John Wiley and Sons.
- Ross, J. A. (2006). The Reliability, Validity, and Utility of Self-Assessment. *Practical Assessment Research and Evaluation*, 11(10), pp. 1–13. [Online] Available at: <http://pareonline.net/getvn.asp?v=11andn=10> [Accessed: 12 July 2017].
- Rossi, P. H., Lipsey, M. W., and Freeman, H. E. (2003). *Evaluation: A systematic approach*. Sage Publications.
- Rowley, J. (2014). Designing and using research questionnaires, *Management Research Review*, 37(3), pp. 308–330.
- Rubin, A. and Babbie, E. R. (2016). *Empowerment series: Research methods for social work*. Cengage Learning.
- Rupp, R. (2009). Higher education in the Middle East: Opportunities and challenges for US universities and Middle East partners. *Global Media Journal*, 8(14).
- Sadeghi, B., Hassani, M. T., and Hessari, A. D. (2014). On the relationship between learners' needs and their use of language learning strategies. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 136, pp. 255–259.
- Sadeghi, K. and Richards, J. C. (2015). Teaching spoken English in Iran's private language schools: issues and options. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, 14(2), pp. 210–234.

- Sadiku, L. M. (2015). The Importance of Four Skills Reading, Speaking, Writing, Listening in a Lesson Hour. *European Journal of Language and Literature*, 1(1), pp. 29–31.
- Sahinkarakas, S. and Inozu, J. (2017). *The role of the self in language learning*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Saidin, K., 2017. Insider Researchers: Challenges & Opportunities. Proceedings of the ICECRS, 1(1).
- Saito, H. (2008). EFL classroom peer assessment: Training effects on rating and commenting. *Language Testing*, 25(4), pp. 553–581.
- Saito, H. and Fujita, T. (2004). Characteristics and user acceptance of peer rating in EFL writing classrooms. *Language Teaching Research*, 8(1), pp. 31–54.
- Salem, N. and Mohammadzadeh, B. (2018). A Study on the Integration of ICT by EFL Teachers in Libya. *EURASIA Journal of Mathematics, Science and Technology Education*, 14(7), pp. 2787–2781.
- Salimi, A., Dadashpopur, S., Shafaei, A., and Asadollahfam, H. (2012). Critical Review of Approaches to Foreign Language Syllabus Design: Task-Based Syllabus (A Shortcut). *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 46, pp. 828–832.
- Salimi, E. A. and Farsi, M. (2016). Program Evaluation of the English Language Proficiency Program for Foreign Students. A Case Study: University of the East, Manila Campus. *English Language Teaching*, 9(1), pp. 12–21.
- Sani Cln, L. (2013). Data collection techniques: a guide for researchers in humanities and education. *International Research Journal of Computer Science and Information Systems*, 2(3), pp. 40–44.
- Sarantakos, S. (2012). *Social research*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Satya, R. K. (2008). *Modern methods of teaching English*. APH Publishing Corporation.

- Saunders, M., Thornhill, A., and Lewis, P. (2007). *Research Methods for Business Students*. 4th edition. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., and Thornhill, A. (2009). *Research Methods for Business Students*. 5th edition. Harlow: Prentice Hall.
- Sawani, F. (2009). *Factors affecting English teaching and its materials preparation in Libya*. PhD thesis. University of Essex.
- Schalock, R. L. (2001). *Outcome-based evaluation*. Springer Science and Business Media.
- Schuh, J. H., Biddix, J. P., Dean, L. A., and Kinzie, J. (2016). *Assessment in Student Affairs*. John Wiley and Sons.
- Schutt, R. K. (2011). *Investigating the social world: The process and practice of research*. Pine Forge Press.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2013). *Understanding English as a Lingua Franca*. Oxford Applied Linguistics. Oxford University Press.
- Sekaran, U. and Bougie, R. (2016). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. John Wiley and Sons.
- Shah, S. R., Hussain, M. A., and Nasseef, O. A. (2013). Factors Impacting EFL Teaching: An Exploratory Study in the Saudi Arabian Context. *Arab World English Journal*, 4(3), pp. 104–123.
- Shaikh, F. (2013). Effective Methods of Teaching English as a Second Language in the Classroom. *International Journal of Science and Research*, 4(2), pp. 979–984.
- Shao, M. (2009). A Study of Peer Assessment in EFL Writing Instruction. *Foreign Language Learning Theory and Practice*, 2.
- Shebani, A. M. (2016). The Practices of Tripoli University TEFL Teachers Regarding Teacher Talking Time and Students Talking Time as Perceived by Them. *Language Faculty Journal, Tripoli University*, 14.

- Shihiba, S. (2011). *An Investigation of Libyan EFL Teachers' Conceptions of the Communicative Learner-Centred Approach in Relation to their Implementation of an English Language Curriculum Innovation in Secondary Schools*. PhD thesis. Durham University. [Online] Available at: <http://etheses.dur.ac.uk/878/>
- Shintani, N. (2016). *Input-based Tasks in Foreign Language Instruction for Young Learners: Task-Based Language Teaching*. John Benjamins.
- Shyamlee, S. D. and Phil, M. (2012). Use of technology in English language teaching and learning: An analysis. In: *International Conference on Language, Medias and Culture IPEDR*. Vol. 33. (pp. 150–156).
- Si-Hong, L. I. (2007). Examining Evaluation System of an English Language Program in China. *Online Submission*, 4(5), pp. 26–31.
- Skager, R. and Dave, R. H. (Eds) (2014). *Curriculum evaluation for lifelong education: developing criteria and procedures for the evaluation of school curricula in the perspective of lifelong education: a multinational study* (Vol. 2). Elsevier.
- Smith, J. A. (Ed.) (2015). *Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods*. Sage.
- Smith, M. (2017). *Research methods in accounting*. Sage.
- Smriti, K. and Jha, S. K. (2015). An Overview of ELT Syllabi. *International Journal of Innovation in TESOL and Applied Linguistics, AMITY University*, 1(1), pp. 1–6.
- Songhori, M. H. (2008). Introduction to needs analysis. *English for Specific Purposes World*, 4, pp. 1–25.
- Soruc, A. (2012). The role of needs analysis in language programme renewal process. *Mevlana International Journal of Education*, 2(1), pp. 36–47.
- Sothan, S. (2015). Exploring English Language Needs According to Undergraduate Students and Employers in Cambodia. *International Journal of Linguistics and Communication*, 3(1), pp. 87–96.

- Souriyavongsa, T., Rany, S., Abidin, M. J. Z., and Mei, L. L. (2013). Factors causes students low English language learning: A case study in the National University of Laos. *International Journal of English Language Education*, 1(1), pp. 179–192.
- Spaulding, D. T. (2014). *Program evaluation in practice: Core concepts and examples for discussion and analysis*. John Wiley and Sons.
- Spratt, M. (2005). Washback and the classroom: The implications for teaching and learning of studies of washback from exams. *Language Teaching Research*, 9(1), pp. 5–29.
- Stufflebeam, D. L. (2001). Evaluation models. *New Directions for Evaluation*, 2001(89), pp. 7–98.
- Stufflebeam, D. L. (2005). The CIPP Model. In: S. Mathison (Ed.) *Encyclopedia of Evaluation* (pp. 60–65). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Stufflebeam, D. L. and Shinkfield, A. J. (2007). *Evaluation theory, models and applications*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Stufflebeam, D. L. and Zhang, G. (2017). *The CIPP evaluation model: How to evaluate for improvement and accountability*. Guilford Publications.
- Stufflebeam, D. L., Madaus, G. F., and Kellaghan, T. (2000). *Evaluation models: viewpoints on educational and human resources evaluation*. Springer Science and Business Media.
- Stufflebeam, D. L., McCormick, C. H., Brinkerhoff, R. O., and Nelson, C. O. (2012). *Conducting educational needs assessments* (Vol. 10). Springer Science and Business Media.
- Subedi, D. (2016). Explanatory sequential mixed method design as the third research community of knowledge claim. *American Journal of Educational Research*, 4(7), pp. 570–577.
- Suwaed, H. and Rahouma, W. (2015). A New Vision of Professional Development for University Teachers in Libya: "It's Not an Event, It Is a

- Process". *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 3(10), pp. 691–696.
- Tamkin, P., Yarnall, J., and Kerrin, M. (2002). *Kirkpatrick and Beyond: A review of models of training evaluation*. Brighton, England: Institute for Employment Studies.
- Tamtam, A., Gallagher, F., Olabi, A. G., and Naher, S. (2011). Higher education in Libya, system under stress. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 29, pp. 742–751.
- Taqi, H. A. and Shuqair, K. M. (2014). Evaluating the students' language proficiency in the English Department, College of Basic Education in Kuwait. *British Journal of Education*, 2(6), pp. 1–18.
- Tashakkori, A. and Teddlie, C. (2003) *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research*, Sage Publications, Inc, 2455 Teller Road, Thousand Oaklands, California 91320.
- Tayal, A. (2018). Girls' Education in Libya. Accessed on 24/04/2019 from: <https://borgenproject.org/girls-education-in-libya/>.
- Taylor, L. (2005). Washback and impact. *ELT Journal*, 59(2), pp. 154–155.
- Tempus Focus. (2013). *Benchmarking of Quality Assurance in Higher Education: Experiences from the FOCUS Project*. University of Alicante (Ed.). [Online] Available at: [http://www.focusquality.eu/sites/focusquality.eu/files/FOCUS_Benchmarking%20\(web\).pdf](http://www.focusquality.eu/sites/focusquality.eu/files/FOCUS_Benchmarking%20(web).pdf) [Accessed: 04 March 2017].
- Thakur, K. R. (2013). Delineation of English Language Teaching Syllabi and Its Implications. *The Criterion: An International Journal in English*, 4(6), pp. 205–214.
- Thamarana, S. (2015). A Critical Overview of Communicative Language Teaching. *International Journal of English Language, Literature and Humanities*, 5, pp. 90–100.

- Teddlie, C. and Tashakkori, A., (2009). *Foundations of mixed methods research: Integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in the social and behavioural sciences*. Sage.
- Thomas, R. M. (2003). *Blending qualitative and quantitative research methods in theses and dissertations*. Corwin Press.
- Thompson, S. (2012). *Sampling size*. 3rd edition. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- Thyer, B. (2010). *The handbook of social work research methods*. Sage.
- Tomlinson, B. (2011). *Materials development in language teaching*. 2nd edition. Cambridge, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Tomlinson, B. (Ed.) (2014). *Developing Materials for Language Teaching*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Trudgill, P. and Hannah, J. (2008). *International English: A guide to varieties of Standard English*. Routledge.
- Tunc, F. (2010). *Evaluation of an English Language Teaching Program at a Public University Using CIPP Model*. Master's thesis. Middle East Technical University.
- Ulum, O. (2015). A needs analysis study for preparatory class ELT students. *European Journal of English Language Teaching*, 1(1), pp. 14–29.
- University of Zawia. (n.d.). [Online] Available at: <http://www.zu.edu.ly> [Accessed: 24 October 2018].
- Unluer, S., 2012. Being an insider researcher while conducting case study research. *Qualitative Report*, 17, p.58.
- Uysal, H. H. (2010). Developments in validity research in second language performance testing. *The Buckingham Journal of Language and Linguistics*, 2, pp. 61–68.

- Uysal, H. H. (2012). Evaluation of an In-Service Training Program for Primary-school Language Teachers in Turkey. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(7), pp. 14–29.
- Uzun, L. (2016). Evaluation of the latest English language teacher training programme in Turkey: Teacher trainees' perspective. *Cogent Education*, 3(1), pp.114–115. doi:10.1080/2331186X.2016.1147115
- Norris, J. M. et al. (2016). *Task-based language teaching*. The Routledge Handbook of English Language Teaching. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Vandewalle, D. (2012). *A history of modern Libya*. Cambridge University Press.
- Vedung, E. (2017). *Public policy and program evaluation*. Routledge.
- Veena, P. (2016). Importance of needs analysis in curriculum development for vocational purposes. *International Journal of English Language, Literature and Humanity*, 4(5), pp. 440–449.
- Vught, F., Balanskat, A., Benneworth, P., Botas, P., Brandenburg, U., Burquel, N., ... de Boer, H. (2010). A University Benchmarking Handbook: Benchmarking in European Higher Education. ESMU. [Online] Available at: https://www.che.de/downloads/Handbook_Benchmarking_EBI_II.pdf [Accessed: 12 June 2017].
- Walker, A. and White, G. (2013). *Technology Enhanced Language Learning: connecting theory and practice*. Oxford Handbooks for Language Teachers. Oxford University Press.
- Walliman, N. (2011). *Research methods: The basics*. Routledge.
- Wang, Y. (2008). Influence of Planning on Students' Language Performance in Task-Based Language Teaching. *English Language Teaching*, 1(1), pp. 83–86.

- Watkins, R., West Meiers, M., and Visser, Y. L. (2012). *A guide to assessing needs: Essential tools for collecting information, making decisions, and achieving development results*. World Bank Publications.
- Weigle, S. C. (2002). *Assessing Writing*. Cambridge Language Assessment Series. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wellington, J. (2015). *Educational research: Contemporary issues and practical approaches*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Westwood, P. S. (2008). *What teachers need to know about teaching methods*. Australian Council for Education Research.
- Wolf, M. K. and Butler, Y. G. (2017). *English Language Proficiency Assessments for Young Learners*. Taylor and Francis.
- Worthen, B. R. (2001). Whither evaluation? That all depends. *American Journal of Evaluation*, 22(3), pp. 409–418.
- Yassi, A. H. (2018). *Syllabus Design Of English Language Teaching*. Prenada Media.
- Yavuz, A. and Zehir Topkaya, E. (2013). Teacher educators' evaluation of the English language teaching programme: a Turkish case. *Novitas-Royal: Research on Youth and Language*, 7(1), pp. 64–83.
- Yi, H. (2008). The Effect of Class Size Reduction on Foreign Language Learning: A Case Study 1. *Language and Linguistics Compass*, 2(6), pp. 1089–1108.
- Yilmaz, F. (2011). Evaluating the Turkish Language Curriculum at Jagiellonian University in Poland: a case study: *Zivot i Skola*, (25).
- Yin, R. K. (2002). *Case study research: design and methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case study research: design and methods: Applied social research methods series*. 3rd edition. Sage Publications.

- Yin, R. K. (2013). *Case study research: Design and methods*. 5th edition. Sage Publications.
- Ylimaki, R. M. (2013). *Create a comprehensive, rigorous, and coherent curricular program*. The new instructional leadership: ISLLC standard two. New York, NY: Routledge. (pp. 27–44).
- Youssef, A. M. S. (2012). Role of motivation and attitude in introduction and learning of English as a foreign language in Libyan high schools. *International Journal of Linguistics*, 4(2), pp. 366–375.
- Zagood, M. (Ed.) (2015). A shift in assessing university students in Libya. In: A. Akbarov (Ed.) *The practice of foreign language teaching: theories and applications* (pp. 204–207). Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Zainal, Z. (2007). Case study as a research method. *Journal Kemanusiaan*, 5(1).
- Zeppos, D. (2014). A Case Study On Student Satisfaction For Graduates Of The German Language Teachers' Blended MA Program Of The Hellenic Open University, Classes Of 2012 And 2013. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education*, 15(4), pp. 48–74.
- Zhang, G., Zeller, N., Griffith, N., Metcalf, D., Williams, J., Shea, C., and Misulis, K. (2011). Using the context, input, process, and product evaluation model (CIPP) as a comprehensive framework to guide the planning, implementation, and assessment of service-learning programs. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, 15(4), pp. 57-84.
- Zhang, J. (2006). Sociocultural factors in second language acquisition. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 3(5), pp. 42–46.
- Zheng, C. (2013). A Syllabus Design of College Integrated English Class in China---On the Integration of Task-based Teaching and Classroom-based Assessment. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 2(6), pp. 36–41.

- Zohrabi, M. (2011). An Introduction to Course and/or Program Evaluation. *Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 15(2), pp. 59–70.
- Zohrabi, M. (2013). Mixed method research: Instruments, validity, reliability and reporting findings. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3(2), pp. 254–262.
- Zohrabi, M., Torabi, M. A., and Baybourdiani, P. (2012). Teacher-centered and/or student-centered learning: English language in Iran. *English Language and Literature Studies*, 2(3), pp. 18–30.

9 Appendices

Appendix 1: Teachers' questionnaire



Teachers' questionnaire

Liverpool Business School

Name of the Researcher: Ebtesam Esgaiar

Title of Research: Evaluation of the English provision at a Libyan University

Dear Lecturer

I am currently undertaking research as part of a PhD at Liverpool John Moores University.

The following questionnaire is to gauge your perceptions about the provision of the current English language programme at the University.

Your cooperation and your support are crucial in order to achieve the aims of this study.

General information

Please tick the appropriate box:

Gender: Male Female

Years of experience: less than 5 years more than 5 years 10 years
 15 years more than 15 years

For each statement below, tick one of the boxes, which describe your perceptions.

1) Strongly disagree, 2) disagree, 3) neutral, 4) agree, 5) strongly agree

Construct one: Programme Delivery

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1. The programme is successful in teaching English.					
2. The English courses of the programme are sufficient to meet students' future needs.					
3. Students' feedback should be taken into consideration for the curriculum.					
4. The main objective of the programme is to teach English language.					
5. The main objective of the programme is to teach English culture.					
6. The content of the courses should be available to students in advance.					
7. I am familiar with the goals and objectives of the programme.					
8. English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing reading skills.					
9. English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing listening skills.					
10. English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing speaking skills.					
11. English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing writing skills.					

Construct two: Skills

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
12. Developing reading skills is important for my students in learning English.					
13. Developing listening skills is important for my students in learning English.					

14. Developing speaking skills is important for my students in learning English.					
15. Developing writing skills is important for my students in learning English.					
16. Developing grammar knowledge is important for my students in learning English.					
17. Developing translation skills is important for my students in learning English.					
18. Enriching vocabulary is important.					
19. Acquiring correct pronunciation is important for my students in learning English.					
20. Students have difficulty listening in English.					
21. Students have difficulty understanding English texts.					
22. Students have difficulty speaking English.					
23. Students have difficulty writing in English.					
24. Students have difficulty pronouncing English words.					
25. Students have difficulty learning English grammar.					
26. Students have difficulty learning new words.					
27. The English language is difficult to learn for students at their current level.					

Construct three: methods of teaching

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
28. programme's courses satisfy students' needs.					
29. It is appropriate to have a native speaker to teach English.					

30. During English classes, students work in groups.					
31. During English classes, students perform role plays.					
32. I speak Arabic during English classes.					
33. The number of students in the class is appropriate for learning the language.					
34. It is important for students to practice the language.					
35. English courses are boring for students.					
36. The teacher gives homework for every class.					
37. English culture has been integrated into the courses.					
38. English language cannot be learned well without integrating English culture.					

Construct four: teaching materials

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
39. Teachers should use only books to design his/her lectures.					
40. The subjects of the lectures are interesting and relevant to students.					
41. The teacher should consider English books that are recommended in the course description as way to improve students' reading skills in English.					
42. The teacher should consider audio-material as a way to improve students' listening skills in English.					
43. Audio-materials help to improve students' speaking skills in English.					

44. English books that are recommended in the course description help to improve students' writing skills in English.					
45. English books that are recommended in the course description support students to improve students' English grammar knowledge.					
46. Using the Internet to prepare your lectures is crucial.					
47. The existing English material is sufficient for students' needs.					
48. The titles of lectures are interesting and motivating to the students.					
49. Teachers use Audio-visual materials in their lectures.					
50. Teachers use course books in the English classes.					
51. Additional materials from the internet should be used together with books.					
52. Students get a clear idea about English culture from the English lectures.					

Thank you for your valuable assistance and your co-operation are highly appreciated.

Appendix 2: Mean and standard deviation for all statements

statement	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. The programme is successful in teaching English.	150	3.2733	.99594
2. The English courses of the programme are not sufficient to meet students' future needs.	150	3.1533	1.00827
3. Students' feedback should be taken into consideration for the curriculum.	150	3.1267	.97826
4. The main objective of the programme is to teach English language.	150	3.1200	1.00949
5. The main objective of the programme is to teach English culture.	150	2.8600	1.02342
6. The content of the courses should be available to students in advance.	150	2.8400	1.21003
7. I am familiar with the goals and objectives of the programme.	150	2.8867	1.10846
8. English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing reading skills.	150	3.2800	1.00415
9. English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing listening skills.	150	2.7867	1.04648
10. English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing speaking skills.	150	2.8333	.99944
11. English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing writing skills.	150	3.2800	1.00415
12. Developing reading skills is important for my students in learning English.	150	3.1333	1.02103
13. Developing listening skills is important for my students in learning English.	150	3.0200	1.00649
14. Developing speaking skills is important for my students in learning English.	150	3.1067	.97724
15. Developing writing skills is important for my students in learning English.	150	3.0067	1.01331
16. Developing grammar knowledge is important for my students in learning English.	150	2.8333	1.00613
17. Developing translation skills is important for my students in learning English.	150	2.7933	1.14866
18. Enriching vocabulary is important.	150	3.0467	1.12528
19. Acquiring correct pronunciation is important for my students in learning English.	150	3.1533	1.02149
20. Students have no difficulty listening in English.	150	2.8000	1.09299
21. Students have difficulty understanding English texts.	150	2.8400	1.01055
22. Students have difficulty speaking English.	150	3.1600	1.01717
23. Students have difficulty writing in English.	150	2.9000	1.02158
24. Students have difficulty pronouncing English words.	150	2.9067	1.08279
25. Students have difficulty learning English grammar.	150	3.1533	1.00159
26. Students have difficulty learning new words.	150	3.1200	1.04220
27. The English language is difficult to learn for students at their current level.	150	2.8200	1.06229
28. programme's courses satisfy students' needs.	150	1.7933	.97138
29. It is appropriate to have a native speaker to teach English.	150	4.2200	.88173
30. During English classes, students work in groups.	150	3.0133	.92676
31. During English classes, students perform role plays.	150	2.9467	.91069
32. I speak Arabic during English classes.	150	2.9467	1.02837
33. The number of students in the class is appropriate for learning the language.	150	3.0600	1.01154
34. It is important for students to practice the language.	150	3.1400	.94144
35. English courses are boring for students.	150	2.9333	.95304
36. The teacher gives homework for every class.	150	2.8867	.87114
37. English culture has been integrated into the courses.	150	1.8467	.84929

38. English language cannot be learned well without integrating English culture.	150	4.1533	.97854
39. Teachers should use only books to design his/her lectures.	150	3.1600	1.37123
40. The subjects of the lectures are interesting and relevant to students.	150	2.8600	1.19299
41. The teacher should consider English books that are recommended in the course description as a way to improve students' reading skills in English.	150	2.7400	1.23392
42. The teacher should consider audio-material as a way to improve students' listening skills in English.	150	2.7533	1.18115
43. Audio-materials help to improve students' speaking skills in English.	150	2.7933	1.14866
44. English Books that are recommended in the course description help to improve students' writing skills in English.	150	3.3200	1.26555
45. English Books that are recommended in the course description support students to improve students' English grammar knowledge.	150	3.2200	1.17508
46. Using the Internet to prepare your lectures is crucial.	150	2.7333	1.26738
47. The existing English materials are sufficient for students' needs.	150	1.7733	.94227
48. The titles of lectures are interesting and motivating to the students.	150	3.1533	1.00827
49. Teachers use Audio-visual materials in their lectures.	150	2.8200	1.19321
50. Teachers use course books in the English classes.	150	3.1867	1.21172
51. Additional materials from the internet should be used together with books.	150	3.0333	.96528
52. Students get a clear idea about English culture from the English lectures.	150	3.0600	.95699

Appendix 3

The frequency and percentage of participants' responses according to their teaching experience

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1. The programme is successful in teaching English.	Strongly disagree	1	10%	2	10%	3	7.5%	2	3.3%	0	0%	8	5.3%
	disagree	2	20%	6	30%	7	17.5%	13	21.7%	2	10%	30	20%
	neutral	2	20%	2	10%	8	20%	12	20%	6	30%	30	20%
	agree	5	50%	9	45%	20	50%	32	53.3%	11	55%	77	51.3%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	1	5%	2	5%	1	1.7%	1	5%	5	3.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
2. The English courses of the programme are not sufficient to meet students' future needs.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	2	10%	3	7.5%	2	3.3%	0	0%	7	4.7%
	disagree	2	20%	5	25%	12	30%	19	31.7%	2	10%	40	26.7%
	neutral	3	30%	2	10%	8	20%	12	20%	6	30%	31	20.7%
	agree	5	50%	10	50%	15	37.5%	26	43.3%	11	55%	67	44.7%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	1	5%	2	5%	1	1.7%	1	5%	5	3.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
3. Students' feedback should be taken into consideration for the curriculum.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	0	0%	2	5%	3	5%	1	5%	6	4%
	disagree	2	20%	7	35%	10	25%	13	21.7%	4	20%	36	24%
	neutral	2	20%	6	30%	12	30%	22	36.7%	8	40%	50	33.3%
	agree	5	50%	7	35%	12	30%	18	30%	7	35%	49	32.7%
	Strongly agree	1	10%	0	0%	4	10%	4	6.7%	0	0%	9	6%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
4. The main objective of the programme is to teach English language.	Strongly disagree	2	20%	2	10%	1	2.5%	3	5%	0	0%	8	5.3%
	disagree	0	0%	6	30%	10	25%	13	21.7%	6	30%	35	23.3%
	neutral	2	20%	4	20%	12	30%	26	43.3%	3	15%	47	31.3%
	agree	4	40%	7	35%	14	35%	16	26.7%	10	50%	51	34%
	Strongly agree	2	20%	1	5%	3	7.5%	2	3.3%	1	5%	9	6%
Total		10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
5. The main objective of the programme is to teach English culture.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	1	5%	3	7.5%	8	13.3%	2	10%	14	9.3%
	disagree	4	40%	3	15%	12	30%	15	25%	8	40%	42	28%
	neutral	1	10%	12	60%	15	37.5%	18	30%	5	25%	51	34%
	agree	4	40%	2	10%	9	22.5%	17	28.3%	5	25%	37	24.7%
	Strongly agree	1	10%	2	10%	1	2.5%	2	3.3%	0	0%	6	4%
	Total		10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
6. The content of the courses should be available to students in advance.	Strongly disagree	1	10%	2	10%	10	25%	12	20%	3	15%	28	18.7%
	disagree	2	20%	2	10%	4	10%	11	18.3%	4	20%	23	15.3%
	neutral	2	20%	10	50%	21	52.5%	20	33.3%	7	35%	60	40%
	agree	2	20%	2	10%	2	5%	12	20%	5	25%	23	15.3%
	Strongly agree	3	30%	4	20%	3	7.5%	5	8.3%	1	5%	16	10.7%
	Total		10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
7. I am familiar with the goals and objectives of the programme.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	2	10%	4	10%	4	6.7%	2	10%	12	8%
	disagree	3	30%	3	15%	18	45%	20	33.3%	8	40%	52	34.7%
	neutral	3	30%	7	35%	8	20%	17	28.3%	5	25%	40	26.7%
	agree	3	30%	5	25%	9	22.5%	14	23.3%	2	10%	33	22%
	Strongly agree	1	10%	3	15%	1	2.5%	5	8.3%	3	15%	13	8.7%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
8. English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing reading skills.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	2	10%	4	10%	2	3.3%	1	5%	9	6%
	disagree	2	20%	6	30%	7	17.5%	12	20%	1	5%	28	18.7%
	neutral	3	30%	2	10%	7	17.5%	12	20%	6	30%	30	20%
	agree	5	50%	9	45%	20	50%	33	55%	11	55%	78	52%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	1	5%	2	5%	1	1.7%	1	5%	5	3.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
9. English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing listening skills.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	2	10%	4	10%	7	11.7%	2	10%	15	10%
	disagree	4	40%	4	20%	12	30%	19	31.7%	8	40%	47	31.3%
	neutral	3	30%	8	40%	16	40%	23	38.3%	2	10%	52	34.7%
	agree	2	20%	4	20%	6	15%	9	15%	6	30%	27	18%
	Strongly agree	1	10%	2	10%	2	5%	2	3.3%	2	10%	9	6%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
10. English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing speaking skills.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	1	5%	2	5%	6	10%	2	10%	11	7.3%
	disagree	3	30%	9	45%	15	37.5%	18	30%	4	20%	49	32.7%
	neutral	2	20%	3	15%	14	35%	23	38.3%	9	45%	51	34%
	agree	5	50%	5	25%	8	20%	9	15%	5	25%	32	21.3%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	2	10%	1	2.5%	4	6.7%	0	0%	7	4.7%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
11. English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing writing skills.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	2	10%	4	10%	3	5%	0	0%	9	6%
	disagree	3	30%	5	25%	7	17.5%	11	18.3%	2	10%	28	18.7%
	neutral	2	20%	3	15%	7	17.5%	12	20%	6	30%	30	20%
	agree	5	50%	9	45%	20	50%	33	55%	11	55%	78	52%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	1	5%	2	5%	1	1.7%	1	5%	5	3.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
12. Developing reading skills is important for my students in learning English.	Strongly disagree	1	10%	0	0%	5	12.5%	5	8.3%	0	0%	11	7.3%
	disagree	4	40%	7	35%	8	20%	12	20%	3	15%	34	22.7%
	neutral	1	10%	3	15%	8	20%	13	21.7%	6	30%	31	20.7%
	agree	4	40%	9	45%	18	45%	30	50%	11	55%	72	48%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	1	5%	1	2.5%	0	0%	0	0%	2	1.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	20	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
13. Developing listening skills is important for my students in learning English.	Strongly disagree	1	10%	0	0%	7	17.5%	1	1.7%	1	5%	10	6.7%
	disagree	4	40%	7	35%	12	30%	15	25%	4	20%	42	28%
	neutral	1	10%	6	30%	7	17.5%	16	26.7%	5	25%	35	23.3%
	agree	4	40%	7	35%	13	32.5%	27	45%	10	50%	61	40.7%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	0	0%	1	2.5%	1	1.7%	0	0%	2	1.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
14. Developing speaking skills is important for my students in learning English.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	1	5%	3	7.5%	1	1.7%	0	0%	5	3.3%
	disagree	2	20%	5	25%	10	25%	18	30%	4	20%	39	26%
	neutral	4	40%	7	35%	16	40%	19	31.7%	5	25%	51	34%
	agree	3	30%	6	30%	7	17.5%	21	35%	8	40%	45	30%
	Strongly agree	1	10%	1	5%	4	10%	1	1.7%	3	15%	10	6.7%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
15. Developing writing skills is important for my students in learning English.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	0	0%	3	7.5%	5	8.5%	1	5%	6	6%
	disagree	4	40%	6	30%	14	35%	12	20%	4	20%	40	26.7%
	neutral	4	40%	7	35%	10	25%	23	38.3%	7	35%	51	34%
	agree	2	20%	5	25%	11	27.5%	15	25%	8	40%	41	27.3%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	2	10%	2	5%	5	8.3%	0	0%	9	6%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
16. Developing grammar knowledge is important for my students in learning English.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	3	15%	10	25%	1	1.7%	1	5%	15	10%
	disagree	3	30%	7	35%	7	17.5%	18	30%	6	30%	41	27.3%
	neutral	4	40%	5	25%	12	30%	24	40%	7	35%	52	34.7%
	agree	3	30%	5	25%	10	25%	16	26.7%	4	20%	38	25.3%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	0	0%	1	2.5%	1	1.7%	2	10%	4	2.7%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
17. Developing translation skills is important for my students in learning English.	Strongly disagree	2	20%	3	15%	8	20%	12	20%	0	0%	25	16.7%
	disagree	4	40%	3	15%	9	22.5%	11	18.3%	7	35%	34	22.7%
	neutral	2	20%	4	20%	11	27.5%	20	33.3%	9	45%	46	30.7%
	agree	2	20%	8	40%	9	22.5%	14	23.3%	4	20%	37	24.7%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	2	10%	3	7.5%	3	5%	0	0%	8	5.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
18. Enriching vocabulary is important.	Strongly disagree	1	10%	2	10%	0	0%	7	11.7%	0	0%	10	6.7%
	disagree	2	20%	6	30%	13	32.5%	16	26.7%	7	35%	44	29.3%
	neutral	2	20%	7	35%	12	30%	14	23.3%	7	35%	42	28%
	agree	2	20%	4	20%	11	27.5%	14	23.3%	6	30%	37	24.7%
	Strongly agree	3	30%	1	5%	4	10%	9	15%	0	0%	17	11.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
19. Acquiring correct pronunciation is important for my students in learning English.	Strongly disagree	1	10%	0	0%	6	15%	3	5%	1	5%	11	7.3%
	disagree	4	40%	7	35%	7	17.5%	12	20%	3	15%	33	22%
	neutral	2	20%	2	10%	7	17.5%	13	21.7%	6	30%	30	20%
	agree	3	30%	10	50%	19	47.5%	32	53.3%	10	50%	74	49.3%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	1	5%	1	2.5%	0	0%	0	0%	2	1.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
20. Students have difficulty listening in English.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	3	15%	10	25%	2	3.3%	2	10%	17	11.3%
	disagree	3	30%	7	35%	8	20%	22	36.7%	7	35%	47	31.3%
	neutral	4	40%	4	20%	6	15%	22	36.7%	8	40%	44	29.3%
	agree	3	30%	6	30%	12	30%	11	18.3%	1	5%	33	22%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	0	0%	4	10%	3	5%	2	10%	9	6%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	20	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
21. Students have difficulty understanding English texts	Strongly disagree	0	0%	1	5%	2	5%	6	10%	2	10%	11	7.3%
	disagree	3	30%	6	30%	16	40%	20	33.3%	5	25%	50	33.3%
	neutral	3	30%	6	30%	13	%	18	30%	8	40%	48	32%
	agree	1	10%	7	35%	7	17.5%	12	20%	5	25%	34	22.7%
	Strongly agree	1	10%	0	0%	2	5%	4	6.7%	0	0%	7	4.7%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
22. Students have difficulty speaking English.	Strongly disagree	1	10%	0	0%	6	15%	3	5%	1	5%	11	7.3%
	disagree	4	40%	7	35%	7	17.5%	11	18.3%	3	15%	32	21.3%
	neutral	2	20%	2	10%	7	17.5%	14	23.3%	6	30%	31	20.7%
	agree	3	30%	10	50%	19	47.5%	32	53.3%	10	50%	74	49.3%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	1	5%	1	2.5%	0	0%	0	0%	2	1.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
23. Students have difficulty writing in English.	Strongly disagree	1	10%	4	20%	4	10%	4	6.7%	0	0%	13	8.7%
	disagree	4	40%	5	10%	9	22.5%	21	35%	6	30%	42	28%
	neutral	3	30%	3	15%	17	42.5%	18	30%	6	30%	47	31.3%
	agree	2	20%	11	55%	8	20%	15	25%	7	35%	43	28.7%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	0	0%	2	5%	2	3.3%	1	5%	5	3.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
24. Students have difficulty pronouncing English words.	Strongly disagree	1	10%	6	30%	5	12.5%	5	8%	1	5%	18	12%
	disagree	4	40%	2	10%	7	17.5%	15	25%	6	30%	34	22.7%
	neutral	3	30%	5	25%	15	37.5%	18	30%	8	40%	49	32.7%
	agree	2	20%	7	35%	11	27.5%	18	30%	4	20%	42	28%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	0	0%	2	5%	4	6.7%	1	5%	7	4.7%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
25. Students have difficulty learning English grammar.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	2	10%	2	5%	1	1.7%	1	5%	6	4%
	disagree	5	50%	8	40%	10	25%	9	15%	6	30%	38	25.3%
	neutral	1	10%	5	25%	11	27.5%	18	30%	7	35%	42	28%
	agree	3	30%	5	25%	15	37.5%	26	43.3%	6	30%	55	36.7%
	Strongly agree	1	10%	0	0%	2	5%	6	10%	0	0%	9	6%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
26. Students have difficulty learning new words.	Strongly disagree	1	10%	1	5%	2	5%	3	5%	0	0%	7	4.7%
	disagree	5	50%	4	20%	13	23.5%	15	25%	5	25%	42	28%
	neutral	1	10%	7	35%	10	25%	14	23.3%	5	25%	37	24.7%
	agree	3	30%	8	40%	14	35%	21	35%	8	40%	54	36%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	0	0%	1	2.5%	7	11.7%	2	10%	10	6.7%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
27. The English language is difficult to learn for students at their current level.	Strongly disagree	1	10%	2	10%	8	20%	4	6.7%	1	5%	16	10.7%
	disagree	3	30%	8	40%	9	22.5%	15	25%	9	45%	44	29.3%
	neutral	4	40%	5	25%	9	22.5%	24	40%	7	35%	49	32.7%
	agree	2	20%	4	20%	12	30%	12	20%	3	15%	33	22%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	1	5%	2	5%	5	8.3%	0	0%	8	5.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Group 1: <1 year		Group 2: 1–5 years		Group 3: 6–10 years		Group 4: 11–15 years		Group 5: >15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
28. Program me's courses satisfy students' needs	Strongly disagree	1	10%	9	45%	8	20%	21	35%	6	30%	45	30%
	disagree	5	50%	7	35%	12	30%	20	33.3%	5	25%	49	32.7%
	neutral	1	10%	4	20%	11	27.5	15	30%	8	40%	42	28%
	agree	3	30%	0	0%	8	20%	1	1.7%	1	5%	13	8.7%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	0	0%	1	2.5%	0	0%	0	0%	1	0.7%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Group 1: <1 year		Group 2: 1–5 years		Group 3: 6–10 years		Group 4: 11–15 years		Group 5: >15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
29. It is appropriate to have a native speaker to teach English	Strongly disagree	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	disagree	2	20%	4	20%	9	22.5%	22	39.7%	4	20%	41	27.3%
	neutral	0	0%	0	0%	6	15%	1	1.7%	2	10%	9	6%
	agree	3	30%	5	25%	7	17.5%	18	30%	8	40%	41	27.3%
	Strongly agree	5	50%	11	55%	18	45%	19	31.7%	6	30%	59	39.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
30. During English classes, students work in groups.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	0	0%	1	2.5%	3	5%	0	0%	4	2.7%
	disagree	5	50%	5	25%	16	40%	13	21.7%	3	15%	42	28%
	neutral	4	40%	9	45%	12	30%	26	43.3%	10	50%	61	40.7%
	agree	1	10%	4	20%	9	22.5%	13	21.7%	7	35%	34	22.7%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	2	10%	2	5%	5	8.3%	0	0%	9	6%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
31. During English classes, students perform role plays.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	1	5%	6	15%	0	0%	0	0%	7	4.7%
	disagree	3	30%	6	30%	8	20%	18	30%	5	25%	40	26.7%
	neutral	4	40%	5	25%	14	35%	29	48.3%	10	50%	62	41.3%
	agree	3	30%	7	35%	10	25%	12	20%	4	20%	36	24%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	1	5%	2	5%	1	1.7%	1	5%	5	3.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
32. I speak Arabic during English classes.	Strongly disagree	1	10%	2	10%	3	7.5%	8	13.3%	0	0%	14	9.3%
	disagree	4	40%	3	15%	9	22.5%	11	18.3%	6	30%	33	22%
	neutral	3	30%	7	35%	14	35%	24	40%	10	50%	58	38.7%
	agree	2	20%	7	35%	10	25%	14	23.3%	4	20%	37	24.7%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	1	5%	4	10%	3	5%	0	0%	8	5.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
33. The number of students in the class is appropriate for learning the language.	Strongly disagree	1	10%	1	5%	0	0%	3	5%	0	0%	5	3.3%
	disagree	2	20%	6	30%	13	32.5%	18	30%	6	30%	45	30%
	neutral	4	40%	6	30%	13	32.5%	15	25%	10	50%	48	32%
	agree	2	20%	6	30%	11	27.5%	17	28.3%	4	20%	40	26.7%
	Strongly agree	1	10%	1	5%	3	7.5%	7	11.7%	0	0%	12	8%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
34. It is important for students to practice the language.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	0	0%	4	10%	2	3.3%	1	5%	7	4.7%
	disagree	5	50%	7	35%	7	17.5%	13	21.7%	2	10%	34	22.7%
	neutral	3	30%	5	25%	9	22.5%	17	28.3%	8	40%	42	28%
	agree	2	20%	7	35%	19	47.5%	28	46.7%	9	45%	65	43.3%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	1	5%	1	2.5%	0	0%	0	0%	2	1.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
35. English courses are boring for students.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	2	10%	4	10%	0	0%	0	0%	6	4%
	disagree	3	30%	8	40%	9	22.5%	22	36.7%	6	30%	48	32%
	neutral	4	40%	4	20%	11	27.5%	23	38.3%	11	55%	53	35.3%
	agree	3	30%	6	30%	12	30%	12	20%	3	15%	36	24%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	0	0%	4	10%	3	5%	0	0%	7	4.7%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
36. The teacher gives homework for every class.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	2	3.3%	1	5%	3	20%
	disagree	3	30%	6	30%	17	42.5%	20	33.3%	5	25%	51	34%
	neutral	4	40%	8	40%	15	37.5%	24	40%	11	55%	62	41.3%
	agree	2	20%	6	30%	6	15%	11	18.3%	3	15%	28	18.7%
	Strongly agree	1	10%	0	0%	2	5%	3	5%	0	0%	6	4%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Group 1: <1 year		Group 2: 1–5 years		Group 3: 6–10 years		Group 4: 11–15 years		Group 5: >15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
37.English culture has been integrated into the courses	Strongly disagree	4	40%	8	40%	16	40%	21	35%	11	55%	60	40%
	disagree	3	30%	10	50%	10	25%	18	30%	7	35%	48	32%
	neutral	2	20%	1	5%	11	27.5%	20	33.3%	1	5%	35	23.3%
	agree	1	10%	0	0%	3	7.5%	1	1.7%	1	5%	6	4%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	1	5%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	1	0.7%
	Total		100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Group 1: <1 year		Group 2: 1–5 years		Group 3: 6–10 years		Group 4: 11–15 years		Group 5: >15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
38.English language cannot be learned well without integrating English culture	Strongly disagree	1	10%	4	20%	4	10%	1	1.7%	0	0%	10	6.7%
	disagree	0	0%	0	0%	2	5%	2	3.3%	1	5%	5	3.3%
	neutral	3	30%	2	10%	8	20%	21	35%	6	30%	40	26.7%
	agree	2	20%	10	50%	9	22.5%	16	26.7%	6	30%	43	28.7%
	Strongly agree	4	40%	4	20%	17	42.5%	20	33.3%	7	35%	52	34.7%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
39. Teachers should use only books to design his/her lectures.	Strongly disagree	2	20%	1	5%	3	7.5%	9	15%	0	0%	15	10%
	disagree	4	40%	4	20%	22	55%	14	23.3%	7	35%	51	34%
	neutral	0	0%	3	15%	2	5%	6	10%	2	10%	13	8.7%
	agree	4	40%	5	25%	10	25%	12	20%	6	30%	37	24.7%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	7	35%	3	7.5%	19	31.7%	5	25%	34	22.7%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
40. The subjects of the lectures are interesting and relevant to students.	Strongly disagree	1	10%	3	15%	10	25%	5	8.3%	2	10%	21	14%
	disagree	2	20%	3	15%	11	27.5%	24	40%	4	20%	44	29.3%
	neutral	3	30%	2	10%	9	22.5%	8	13.3%	9	45%	31	20.7%
	agree	3	30%	9	45%	9	22.5%	18	30%	4	20%	43	28.7%
	Strongly agree	1	10%	3	15%	1	2.5%	5	8.3%	1	5%	11	7.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
41. The teacher should consider English books that are recommended in the course description as a way to improve students' reading skills in English.	Strongly disagree	1	10%	4	20%	5	12.5%	11	18.3%	6	30%	27	18%
	disagree	2	20%	7	35%	13	32.5%	19	31.7%	3	15%	44	29.3%
	neutral	5	50%	1	5%	7	17.5%	14	23.3%	6	30%	33	22%
	agree	1	10%	4	20%	12	30%	11	18.3%	5	25%	33	22%
	Strongly agree	1	10%	4	20%	3	7.5%	5	8.3%	0	0%	13	8.7%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
42. The teacher should consider audio-material as a way to improve students' listening skills in English.	Strongly disagree	2	20%	2	10%	4	10%	5	8.3%	5	25%	18	12%
	disagree	3	30%	5	25%	21	52.5%	26	43.3%	7	35%	62	41.3%
	neutral	2	20%	2	10%	4	10%	10	16.7%	2	10%	20	13.3%
	agree	2	20%	8	40%	8	20%	15	25%	6	30%	39	26%
	Strongly agree	1	10%	3	15%	3	7.5%	4	6.7%	0	0%	11	7.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
43. Audio-materials help to improve students' speaking skills in English.	Strongly disagree	1	10%	0	0%	9	22.5%	7	11.7%	2	10%	19	12.7%
	disagree	1	10%	7	35%	17	42.5%	23	38.3%	4	20%	52	34.7%
	neutral	5	50%	2	10%	4	10%	8	13.3%	9	45%	28	18.7%
	agree	3	30%	9	45%	9	22.5%	18	30%	4	20%	43	28.7%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	2	10%	1	2.5%	4	6.7%	1	5%	8	5.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
44. English Books that are recommended in the course description help to improve students' writing skills in English.	Strongly disagree	1	10%	2	10%	5	12.5%	5	8.3%	1	5%	14	9.3%
	disagree	3	30%	3	15%	11	27.5%	13	31.7%	2	10%	32	21.3%
	neutral	0	0%	4	20%	4	10%	14	23.3%	3	15%	25	16.7%
	agree	5	50%	7	35%	11	27.5%	20	33.3%	7	35%	50	33.3%
	Strongly agree	1	10%	4	20%	9	22.5%	8	13.3%	7	35%	29	19.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
45. English Books that are recommended in the course description support students to improve students' English grammar knowledge.	Strongly disagree	1	10%	0	0%	1	2.5%	6	10%	4	20%	12	8%
	disagree	2	20%	4	20%	7	17.5%	12	20%	6	30%	31	20.7%
	neutral	3	30%	5	25%	11	27.5%	18	30%	5	25%	42	28%
	agree	4	40%	6	30%	14	35%	18	30%	0	0%	42	28%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	5	25%	7	17.5%	6	10%	5	25%	23	15.3%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
46. Using the Internet to prepare your lectures is crucial.	Strongly disagree	2	20%	1	5%	10	25%	10	16.7%	1	5%	24	16%
	disagree	6	60%	8	40%	17	42.5%	22	36.7%	5	25%	58	38.7%
	neutral	1	10%	0	0%	4	10%	10	16.7%	2	10%	17	11.3%
	agree	0	0%	4	20%	7	17.5%	14	23.3%	11	55%	36	24%
	Strongly agree	1	10%	7	35%	2	5%	4	6.7%	1	5%	15	10%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Group 1: <1 year		Group 2: 1–5 years		Group 3: 6–10 years		Group 4: 11–15 years		Group 5: >15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
47. The existing English materials are sufficient for students' needs	Strongly disagree	1	10%	10	50%	10	25%	24	40%	7	35%	52	34.7%
	disagree	6	60%	7	35%	12	30%	15	25%	5	25%	45	30%
	neutral	2	20%	0	0%	8	20%	3	5%	1	5%	14	9.3%
	agree	1	10%	3	15%	10	25%	18	30%	7	35%	39	26%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	Total	10	100%		100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
48. The titles of lectures are interesting and motivating to the students.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	1	5%	3	7.5%	2	3.3%	1	5%	7	7.4%
	disagree	2	20%	5	25%	12	30%	19	31.7%	1	5%	39	26%
	neutral	4	40%	3	15%	8	20%	12	20%	7	35%	34	22.7%
	agree	4	40%	10	50%	16	40%	24	40%	10	50%	64	42.7%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	1	5%	1	2.5%	3	5%	1	5%	6	4%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
49. Teachers use Audio-visual materials in their lectures	Strongly disagree	1	10%	0	0%	9	22.5%	8	13.3%	2	10%	20	13.3%
	disagree	2	20%	5	25%	19	47.5%	19	31.7%	7	35%	52	34.7%
	neutral	4	40%	2	10%	3	7.5%	10	16.7%	4	20%	23	15.3%
	agree	3	30%	11	55%	9	22.5%	17	28.3%	5	25%	45	30%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	2	10%	0	0%	6	10%	2	10%	10	6.7%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
50. Teachers use course books in the English classes.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	1	5%	0	0%	8	13.3%	2	10%	11	7.3%
	disagree	3	30%	6	30%	15	37.5%	13	21.7%	4	20%	41	27.3%
	neutral	6	60%	1	5%	9	22.5%	15	25%	0	0%	31	20.7%
	agree	1	10%	7	35%	11	27.5%	15	25%	9	45%	43	28.7%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	5	25%	5	12.5%	9	15%	5	25%	24	16%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
51. Additional materials from the internet should be used together with books.	Strongly disagree	1	10%	1	5%	1	2.5%	1	1.7%	0	0%	4	2.7%
	disagree	3	30%	5	25%	10	25%	22	36.7%	5	25%	45	30%
	neutral	5	50%	8	40%	16	40%	18	30%	6	30%	53	35.3%
	agree	1	10%	5	25%	8	20%	16	26.7%	8	40%	38	25.3%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	1	5%	5	12.5%	3	5%	1	5%	10	6.7%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

statement		Teaching experience										total	
		Less than 1 year		From 1 to 5 years		From 6 to 10 years		From 11 to 15 years		More than 15 years			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
52. Students get a clear idea about English culture from the English lectures.	Strongly disagree	0	0%	0	0%	2	5%	3	5%	0	0%	5	3.3%
	disagree	4	40%	5	25%	15	37.5%	10	16.7%	5	25%	39	26%
	neutral	4	40%	8	40%	12	30%	27	45%	7	35%	58	38.7%
	agree	2	20%	5	25%	9	22.5%	14	23.3%	8	40%	38	25.3%
	Strongly agree	0	0%	2	10%	2	5%	6	10%	0	0%	10	7.6%
	Total	10	100%	20	100%	40	100%	60	100%	20	100%	150	100%

Appendix 4: Skewness and kurtosis tests

Statistics		
Variables	Statistics	
	Skewness	Kurtosis
1. The programme is successful in teaching English.	-.697	-.515
2. The English courses are not sufficient to meet students' future needs.	-.393	-.939
3. Students' feedback should be taken into consideration for the curriculum.	-.127	-.619
4. The main objectives of the programme is to teach English language.	-.204	-.641
5. The main objectives of the programme is to teach English culture.	-.019	-.648
6. The content of the courses should be available to students.	.036	-.707
7. I am familiar with the goals and objectives of the programme.	.257	-.774
8. English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing reading skills in English.	-.749	-.427
9. English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing listening skills in English.	.225	-.466
10. English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing speaking skills in English.	.178	-.530
11. English language courses in the programme are helpful in developing writing skills in English.	-.749	-.427
12. Developing reading skills is important for my students in learning English.	-.617	-.819
13. Developing listening skills is important for my students in learning English.	-.361	-1.026
14. Developing speaking skills is important for my students in learning English.	.002	-.655
15. Developing writing skills is important for my students in learning English.	-.013	-.616
16. Developing grammar knowledge is important for my students in learning English.	-.099	-.690
17. Developing translation skills is important for my students in learning English.	-.044	-.893
18. Enriching vocabulary is important.	.108	-.855
19. Acquiring correct pronunciation is important for my students in learning English.	-.658	-.775
20. Students have difficulty in listening in English.	.156	-.726
21. Students have difficulty in understanding English texts.	.169	-.616
22. Students have difficulty in speaking English.	-.676	-.730
23. Students have difficulty in writing in English.	-.103	-.770
24. Students have difficulty in pronouncing English words.	-.166	-.747
25. Students have difficulty in learning English grammar.	-.192	-.776
26. Students have difficulty in learning new words.	-.135	-.901
27. The English language is difficult to learn for students at their current level.	.095	-.646
28. The courses satisfy students' needs.	-.108	-.968
29. It is appropriate to have a native speaker to teach English.	.298	-.732
30. During English classes, students work in groups.	.230	-.386

31. During English classes, students should perform role plays.	-0.002	-0.361
32. I speak Arabic during the English classes.	-0.117	-0.467
33. The number of the students in class is appropriate for learning the language.	.155	-0.739
34. It is important for students to practice the language.	-0.529	-0.715
35. English courses are boring for students.	.182	-0.567
36. The teacher should give homework for each class.	.408	-0.244
37. English culture has been integrated into the courses.	-0.034	-0.672
38. English language cannot be learned well without integrating English culture.	-0.123	-0.638
39. Teachers should use only books to design his/her lectures.	.008	-1.427
40. The subjects of the lectures are interesting and relevant to the students.	.034	-1.065
41. The teacher should consider English books (that mentioned in the course description) as way to improve students' reading skills in English.	.205	-1.002
42. The teacher should consider audio-material as way to improve students' listening skills in English.	.318	-1.035
43. Audio-materials help to improve students' speaking skills in English.	.118	-1.063
44. English Books (that mentioned in the course description) help to improve students' writing skills in English.	-0.322	-1.033
45. English Books (that mentioned in the course description) support students to improve students' English grammar knowledge.	-0.161	-0.838
46. Using Internet to prepare your lectures is crucial.	.335	-1.106
47. The exiting English material is sufficient for students' needs.	-0.214	-0.908
48. The titles of lectures are interesting and motivating to the students.	-0.353	-0.883
49. Teachers should use Audio-visual materials in their lectures.	.114	-1.145
50. Teachers should use course books in the English classes.	-0.067	-1.081
51. Additional materials from the internet should be used beside books.	.205	-0.627
52. Students should get a clear idea about English culture from the English lectures.	.112	-0.474

Appendix 5: teachers' interview



Teachers' interview

Section A: Background Information

1. How long have you been teaching English?
2. What types of English courses have you taught? (For example, English for specific purposes).
3. How long have you been teaching at university level?

Section B: Course Aims and Objectives

1. The survey suggested that many teachers think that the English language courses do not meet students' needs, why do you think that is. (Please explain in as much detail as possible. You might want to include what you think the needs of students are and how you try to meet them)?
2. What are your objectives on the course you teach?

Section C: Course Content

1. How did you go about deciding upon the textbooks and other materials you would use in the course?
2. To what extent do you think the content of the course is suitable and appropriate to the needs of the students?
3. Which course content and materials do you consider to be the most or the least effective? Why?
4. The survey suggested that the English language courses' materials do not reflect the culture of English speaking countries. To what extent do you agree or disagree? In your opinion, how important do you think it is to integrate culture into language learning and teaching?

Section D: Course delivery and assessment

1. The findings of the survey suggested that the programme helps in improving the reading and writing skills but it does not enhance the development of listening and speaking skills. What do you think are the reasons behind this?
2. The survey suggested that many teachers think that native English-speaking teachers should be employed at Zawia University. In what way do you think this would be beneficial to the students and the programme in general?
3. What teaching methods and classroom activities do you find are the most effective with your students and why?
4. In what ways would you change the content and delivery of the course you are currently teaching in the future? Why would you make these changes?
5. What assessment methods do you use on your course and why? How appropriate do you think the methods are?
6. What assessment criteria do you use to evaluate your students' work?
7. Do you think there are any improvements that could be made in relation to assessment, and if so, what are they and why?
8. Do the students make significant progress in language from their first year to the year of graduation?
9. How do you normally provide feedback and why?
10. Do the students and staff have the opportunity to provide feedback on the quality of the programme? How?
11. Does programme evaluation happen at the university level? For example, do the senior managers collect data about how well the programme is doing?
12. Are there any development opportunities offered to staff in the university? If so, what kind? Have you done any staff development?

E. Other comments

1. Are there any other comments you would like to make about the structure, content or delivery of the programme?

(Once you complete answering the interview questions please send to E.R.Esgaiar@2015.ljmu.ac.uk)

Appendix 6: alumni interview



Alumni Interview

1. What were the strengths and weaknesses of the English language programme at Zawia University?
2. How did the programme enhance your language skills (LSRW)?
3. To what extent did the programme enhance your grammar knowledge and vocabulary?
4. What is your opinion on the teaching materials and activities used by teaches in English department?
5. What do you think of the teaching methods that have been used by the teachers?
6. How can the English language programme at Zawia University be improved?

Appendix 7: the Arabic version of the alumni interview



السؤال الأول

. ما هي نقاط القوة والضعف في برنامج اللغة الإنجليزية في جامعة الزاوية؟

السؤال الثاني

كيف عزز البرنامج مهاراتك اللغوية؟

السؤال الثالث

إلى أي مدى قام البرنامج بتعزيز المعرفة اللغوية والمفردات؟

السؤال الرابع

ما رأيك في المواد التعليمية والأنشطة المستخدمة من قبل المعلمين في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية؟

السؤال الخامس

ما رأيك في أساليب التدريس التي تم استخدامها من قبل معلمي قسم اللغة الإنجليزية؟

السؤال السادس

كيف يمكن تحسين برنامج اللغة الإنجليزية في جامعة الزاوية؟

شكرا لتعاونك

Appendix 8: English language syllabus



Handwritten notes in the top left corner: "1. Vision", "2. Mission", "3. Students' Needs".

Handwritten note at the top right: "Dep. of English".

7th April University
Faculty of Education, Zawiya
Department of English

1. Vision

The Department of English seeks to respond to the requirements and needs of the society in terms of training and qualifying teachers of English for preparatory and secondary education.

2. Mission

The department provides opportunities to qualify teachers of English educationally, and equips them with the necessary knowledge through academic and educational programmes that cope with the ongoing changes, participate in solving problems of the society and environment, and offers consultancy to those who need it.

3. Students' Needs

- a. to provide students with the necessary training to become professional teachers
- b. to develop students' competence in English language and literature to prepare them for teaching careers
- c. to prepare students for careers involving analytical, critical and communicative competences
- d. to prepare specialists capable of conducting and leading research in the areas of ELT
- e. to provide expertise to different institutions and organization in the areas of ELT



7th April University
Faculty of Education, Zawaya
Department of English
1st year

Code No.	Course	Teaching Hours	Credit units	المقرر
E110	Grammar I	04	04	قواعد 1
E111	Writing I	04	04	كتابة 1
E112	Reading I	02	04	قراءة 1
E113	Oral Communication Skills I	02	02	مهارات الأستماع الشفوي 1
E114	Phonetics & Phonology I	04	02	الصوتيات 1
Psy104	General Psychology	02	03	علم النفس العام
Ed105	Introduction To Education	02	02	مقدمة إلى التربية
Ed106	Environment & Society	02	02	البيئة والمجتمع
A107	Arabic	02	02	اللغة العربية
IS108	Islamic studies	02	02	دراسات إسلامية
Pol109		02	00	فكر سياسي 1
Total		28	28	المجموع



7th April University
Faculty of Education, Zawya
Department of English

2nd year

Code No.	Course	Teaching Hours	Credit Units	التقري
E210	Grammar II	04	04	قواعد 2
E211	Writing II	04	04	كتابة 2
E212	Reading II	02	04	قراءة 2
E213	Oral Communication Skills II	02	04	مهارات الاتصال 2 التقري
E214	Phonetics & Phonology II	02	02	الصوتيات 2
E215	Introduction to Literature	02	02	مقدمة لدراسة الأدب
Psy216	Educational Psychology	02	02	علم نفس التعلم
Cur201	General Teaching Methods	02	02	طرق تدريس عامة
Cur202	Teaching Aids	02	02	وسائل تعليمية
Cur203	Research Methodology	02	02	مناهج بحث
Comp211	Principle of Computers	02	02	مبادئ الحاسوب
Math213	Statistics	02	02	احصاء
Pol209	"	02	00	فكر جماهيري 2
		32	32	المجموع



7th April University
Faculty of Education, Zawya
Department of English
3rd year

Code No.	Course	Teaching Hours	Credit Units	المقرر
E310	Grammar III	04	04	قواعد 3
E311	Writing III	04	04	كتابة 3
E312	Reading III	02	04	قراءة 3
E313	Oral Communication Skills	02	02	مهارات التحدث 3
E316	Applied Linguistics	04	04	علم اللغة التطبيقي
E317	Microteaching	02	02	تدريب مصغر
E318	Morphology & Word Formation	02	02	التركيب و صيغ
E319	English Novel I	02	02	الرواية الانجليزية 1
E320	English Drama I	02	02	المسرحية الانجليزية 1
Psy115	Growth Psychology	02	02	علم نفس النمو
Psy112	Guidance & Consultation	02	02	ارشاد و توجيه
Phi309	...	02	02	فكر صامتري 3
Total		30	30	المجموع



7th April University
Faculty of Education, Zewiya
Department of English
4th year

Code No.	Course	Teaching Hours	Credit Units	المقرر
E4110	Grammar IV	04	04	قواعد 4
E411	Writing IV	04	04	كتابة 4
E412	Reading IV	02	04	قراءة 4
E413	Oral communication Skills IV	02	02	مهارات الاتصال اللفوي 4
E416	Applied Linguistics II	02	04	لغة التطبيقية 2
E419	English Novel II	02	02	الرواية الإنجليزية 2
E420	English Drama II	02	02	الدراما الإنجليزية 2
E421	English Poetry	02	02	الشعر الإنجليزي
E422	Introduction to Linguistics	02	02	مقدمة في علم اللغة
Cur429	Assessment & Evaluation	02	02	قياس و تقييم
E431	Teaching Practice	04	04	تربية عملية
Pch09		02	00	فكر صحابي 4
Total		30	32	المجموع



7th April University
Faculty of Education, Zawiyah
Department of English

Course Name & Code	Level	No of Teaching Hours	No of Credit Units
E110 Grammar	1st Year	04	04

1. Aim: This course covers the main areas of English grammar & intended to present English grammar within a broader context, with special attention given to those points which are often a problem for learners.

2. Learning outcomes

- 2.1 to present grammatical structures in contexts
- 2.2 to help students use grammatical structures and understand how they work in practice
- 2.3 to demonstrate to students that explanations of grammar are descriptions of how English works;
- 2.3 to guide and help students to understand, not rules to be memorized.

1. First Year

1. Parts of Speech: Nouns and pronouns

- 1.1 word class: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs;
- 1.2 sentence structure: subject, verb, object;
- 1.3 nouns: functions of nouns; direct and indirect objects; noun derivation;
Countable and non-countable nouns; agreements with verbs; singular or plural? (nouns ending in 's'); pair nouns and group nouns; two nouns together; the possessive form and 'of'; nouns from adjectives; gender
- 1.4 pronouns: personal pronouns; possessive pronouns & possessive adjectives
Reflexive pronouns; emphatic pronouns and 'each other'; the pronoun 'ones'; everyone, something, etc.; demonstrative pronouns; THERE and IT; pronouns of general statement; pronouns with ever; agreement with indefinite pronouns

2. Parts of Speech: Verbs

- 2.1 adding inflectional endings
- 2.2 verb derivation
- 2.3 finite and non-finite verbs
- 2.4 tense, aspect and mood
- 2.6 tenses:
a. the present simple tense b. the present continuous c. the past simple d. the past continuous e. the present perfect f. the present perfect and the past simple
f. the present perfect continuous h. the past perfect i. the past perfect continuous j. the future tense
- 2.7 active and passive sentences
- 2.8 questions
- 2.9 modal verbs

Textbooks recommended:

1. Marcella Frank (1985) Modern English: A Practical Reference Guide.
2. John Eastwood (2006) Oxford Practice Grammar. Oxford: OUP.
3. ----- (1994) Oxford Guide to English Grammar. Oxford: OUP.
4. R. Quirk and S. Greenbaum (1973) A University Grammar of English. London: Longman.
5. ----- (1990) A Student's Grammar of English. London:

- Longman.
5. Newman C. Crago (1974) *An Introductory English Grammar* (2nd edition). New York: Holt Rinehart & Winston.
 7. Michael Swan (1996) *Practical English Usage: International Student's Edition*. Oxford: OUP.
 8. Peter Collins & Camilla Hollis (2000). *English Grammar: an Introduction*.

7th April University
Faculty of Education, Zawya
Department of English

Course Name & Code	Level	No of Teaching Hours	No of Credit Units
E111 Writing	1 st Year	04	04

1. Aim: This course is intended to introduce writing in a highly structured and controlled fashion.

2. Learning outcomes
- 2.1 to help students write correct English sentences and then organize them into simple compositions
 - 2.2 to enable them to progress from simple explanations of grammar, spelling and writing to practice exercises and sentence writing
 - 2.3 to help students produce a complete composition.

3. Course Content

3.1 Lesson One

Myself

3.2 Lesson Two

Interview

3.3 Lesson Three

3.4 A Person I like

3.5 Lesson Four

My Daily Activities

3.6 Lesson Five

3.6 My Home

3.7 Lesson Six

Yesterday

3.8 Lesson Seven

Right Now

3.9 Lesson Eight

Habitual Actions

3.10 Lesson Nine

A Good day/ A Bad Day

3.11 Lesson Ten

Two People

3.12 Lesson Eleven

Next Weekend

3.13 Lesson Twelve

A Letter to a friend

3.14 Lesson Thirteen

My City

3.15 Lesson Fourteen

Weekends

3.16 Lesson Fifteen

A Vacation

3.17 Lesson Sixteen

Another Letter

3.18 Lesson Seventeen

Usually/ Today

3.19 Lesson Eighteen

Since My Arrival

3.20 Lesson Nineteen

Biography

3.21 Lesson Twenty
A Childhood Experience
3.22 Lesson Twenty-One
Another Interview
3.23 Lesson Twenty-Two
Future Plans

Textbook recommended:
Patricia Ackert (1986) *Please Write: a Beginning Composition Text for Students of ESL*.
Prentice Hall Regents.

Course Name and Code	Level	No. of Teaching Hours	No of Credit Units
ES17 Reading	1 st Year	02	04

1. Aim: This course intends to develop reading comprehension/understanding ability through intensive and extensive reading of various texts/write-ups, with a clear emphasis on enhancing vocabulary building and syntax ability.

2. Learning outcomes

- 2.1 To develop among students both extensive and intensive reading habits and understanding
- 2.2 To inculcate decoding skills in students
- 2.3 To improve students' command over vocabulary
- 2.4 To improve students' competence and performance of students' English language in general

3. Content/Activity

- 3.1 Reading of select texts or passages for comprehension purpose
- 3.2 Working on the follow-up/suggested exercises with a view to improving comprehension ability and language skills

Textbook recommended:

Ackart, Patricia (1986) *Facts and Figures*, Boston: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.

Handwritten notes: "صوت" (Sound), "Spelling", and "Vocabulary".

Course Code	Name & Level	No. of Teaching Hours	No of Credit Units
E113	Oral 1 st Year	02	02

1. Aims: Oral Communication Skills aims to cater to the obvious functional need of teacher-education to make a teacher-trainee able communicative, and thereby lead a class, and if need be to be an able school administrator. In a similar fashion the course being a comprehensive one attempts to train teacher-trainees to be competent presenters-speakers and participants-listeners.

2. Learning outcomes:

- 2.1 To train teacher-trainees to be able communicators as the success of the classroom teaching depends on effective communication.
- 2.2 To help teacher-trainees to learn across curriculum.
- 2.3 To help recognize and consequently eliminate communication apprehensions which are understandably inherent in the developing world.
- 2.4 To appreciate the differences and connections between oral and written communications.
- 2.5 To develop leadership and role-modelling using classroom communication context-pattern.

3. Oral Skills: 1 Year

4. Course Component & Activity

- 4.1 Introduction to Conversation Skills and the appropriate use of (English) language.
- 4.2 Training students in:
 - 4.2.1 making appropriate responses
 - 4.2.2 reading aloud, text or part of dialogue
 - 4.2.3 answering comprehension questions on recorded text or dialogue
 - 4.2.4 sentence transformation and question formation
 - 4.2.5 giving short talk on a chosen topic
- 4.3 Listening Practice: Active listening, asking questions/clarifications, offering comments/suggestions and note-taking etc.

5. Examination Areas: Students can be examined in the areas of fluency, grammatical accuracy, pronunciation (sentences and individual sounds), inter-active communication and vocabulary resources.

Oral and written parts shall constitute 50:50. The oral part of the exam shall be graded by a panel of the examiners—teacher concerned and another teacher who is nominated by the HoD. The average of the total marks awarded by the panel shall be reckoned for the grading purpose. (This shall be the examination mode for all the exams of oral skills course of all the years.)

Textbooks Recommended:

Little, W. (1981) *Communicative Language Teaching*. Cambridge: CUP
 Hadfield, J. and Hadfield, C. (1991) *Simple Speaking Activities*. Oxford: OUP
 Porter Ladousse, G. (1987) *Role Play*. Oxford: OUP
 Okkenjen, Michael (1985) *Situational Dialogues*. Eastbourne: Longman.
 Carter, Roland and Nunan, David (2005) *The Cambridge Guide to 10 Speakers of Other Languages*. Cambridge: CUP
 Overden, C., Latham-Koenig, C. and Seitzon, Paul (1996) *New English File Pre-Intermediate*. Oxford: OUP
 Nica Underhill (1987) *Testing Spoken Language: A handbook of oral testing techniques*. Cambridge: CUP

7th April University
Faculty of Education, Zawiya
Department of English

Course Name & Code	Level	No of Teaching Hours	No of Credit Units
E210 Grammar	2nd Year	04	04

1. Aim: This course covers the main areas of English grammar & intended to present English grammar within a broader context, with special attention given to those points which are often a problem for learners.

2. Learning outcomes

- 2.1 to present grammatical structures in contexts
- 2.2 to help students use grammatical structures and understand how they work in practice
- 2.3 to demonstrate to students that explanations of grammar are descriptions of how English works
- 2.3 to guide and help students to understand, not rules to be memorized

II. Second Year

I. Parts of speech: adjectives

- 1.1 determiners and their sequences
- 1.2 some and any
- 1.3 a lot of, lots of, many, much, (a) few, and (a) little
- 1.4 all, half, most, some, no and none
- 1.5 every, each, whole, both, either, neither
- 1.6 adjectives and their order
- 1.7 derivation of adjectives
- 1.8 the old and the rich, etc.
- 1.10 interesting and interested
- 1.11 proper adjectives
- 1.12 comparison of adjectives
- 1.13 articles

II. Parts of speech: adverbs

- 2.1 Derivation of adverbs
- 2.2 adjuncts, disjuncts, conjuncts
- 2.3 adverbs and word order
- 2.4 reversal of word order and certain adverbials
- 2.5 adjective or adverb
- 2.6 prepositions
- 2.7 phrasal verbs

Textbooks recommended:

- 1. Marcella Frank (1985) Modern English: A Practical Reference Guide.
- 2. John Eastwood (2006) Oxford Practice Grammar. Oxford: OUP.
- 3. (1994) Oxford Guide to English Grammar. Oxford: OUP.
- 4. R. Quirk and S. Greenbaum (1973) A University Grammar of English. London: Longman.
- 5. (1990) A Student's Grammar of English. London: Longman.

6. Norman C. Stageberg (1974) *An Introductory English Grammar* (2nd edition). New York: Holt Rinehart & Winston.
7. Michael Swan (1996) *Practical English Usage*. International Student's Edition. Oxford: OUP.
8. Peter Collins & Carmelo Holo (2000). *English Grammar: an Introduction*. Macmillan Press

7th April University
Faculty of Education, Zawiya
Department of English

Course Name & Code	Level	No of Teaching Hours	No of Credit Units
E211 Writing	2 nd Year	04	04

1. Aim: This course is designed to help students communicate in English via the written mode, and is based on the four-part classification of discourse mode: narration, description, argumentation, and exposition.

2. Learning outcome/course aims at helping students to

- 2.1 be able to write an expository composition of one page or more
- 2.2 decide what to do with the content before writing the composition
- 2.3 organize the content in outline
- 2.4 use grammatically-sounded sentence patterns, both simple and complex
- 2.5 show unity and internal development of the composition through references, substitutions, conjunctions
- 2.6 make clear beginning for the composition.

3. Course Content

3.1 Unit 1: Describing an Object

Composition Focus: Physical Description

Organizational Focus: Enumeration

Grammatical Focus: Simple Present Tense /Adjectives

3.2 Unit 2: Dividing up a Topic

Compositional Focus: Partition

Organizational Focus: Space Order

Grammatical Focus: Simple Present Tense/Infinitives

3.3 Unit 3: Arguing a Point

Composition Focus: Argumentation

Organizational Focus: Induction

Grammatical Focus: Modals

3.4 Unit 4: Generalization

Composition Focus: Generalization and Exemplification

Organizational Focus: Deduction

Grammatical Focus: Simple Present Tense/Nominalization

3.5 Unit 5: Classifying

Composition Focus: Classification

Organizational Focus: Enumeration

Grammatical focus: Simple Present Tense/Relative Clauses

3.6 Unit 6: Comparing and Contracting

Compositional Focus: Generalization With Comparative Exemplification

Organizational Focus: Deduction

Grammatical Focus: Simple Present Tense/Comparatives and Superlatives

3.7 Unit 7: Informing

Composition Focus: Business Letter Form

Organizational Focus: Hierarchical Order

Grammatical Focus: Present Perfect Tense/Complex Sentences

3.8 Unit 8: Describing a Process

Compositional Focus: Process Description

Organizational Focus: Time Order

Grammatical Focus: Imperatives

3.9 Unit 9: Defining an Object

Composition Focus: Expanded Definition

Organizational Focus: Partition
Grammatical Focus: Passive Voice/Relative Clause
3.10 Unit 10: Analyzing
Composition Focus: Analysis
Organizational Focus: Partition
Grammatical Focus: Past, Present, and Present Perfect Tenses/Passive Voice/
Complex Sentences

Textbook recommended:
Linda Blanton (1981) *Intermediate Composition Practice, Book I*. Newbury House Publishers

7th Andil University
Faculty of Education, Zawlya
Department of English

Course Name and Code	Level	No. of Teaching hours	No of Credit Units
E212 Reading	2nd Year	02	04

1. **Aims:** This course aims to develop reading habits which will help students to learn new structures and subject vocabulary. The teacher helps the students to do the exercises in small groups. They will ultimately learn to comprehend ideas from a big passage and be able to explain it correctly. This will help boost their reading and writing skills.

2. **Learning outcomes**

- 2.1 To make the students understand the passage and develop the skill of understanding
- 2.2 To develop the reading habits and strategies
- 2.3 To improve the students' understanding of the subject matter so they can answer the comprehension questions and main idea
- 2.4 To develop their writing skills

3. **Content/Activity**

- 3.1 Reading of select texts or passages for comprehension purpose
- 3.2 Working on the follow-up/suggested exercises with a view to improving comprehension ability and language skills

Textbooks Recommended:

Ackert, Patrick. (1986) *Facts & Figures, Basic Reading Practice*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.

Yahya Aqil University
Faculty of Education, Adawiya
Department of English

Course Name & Code	Level	No. of Hours of Teaching	No. of Credit Units
E213 Oral Communication Skills	2nd Year	02	02

1. Aims: Oral Communication Skills aims to cater to the obvious functional need of teacher-education to make a teacher-trainee ably communicative, and thereby lead a class, and if need be to be an able school administrator. In a similar fashion the course being a comprehensive one attempts to train teacher-trainees to be competent presenters-speakers and participants-listeners.

2. Learning outcomes

- 2.1 To train teacher-trainees to be able communicators as the success of the classroom teaching depends on effective communication.
- 2.2 To help teacher-trainees to learn across curriculum.
- 2.3 To help recognize and consequently eliminate communication apprehensions which are understandably inherent in the developing world.
- 2.4 To appreciate the differences and connections between oral and written communications.
- 2.5 To develop leadership and role-modeling using classroom communication context.

3. Oral Skills: II year

4. Course Component and Classroom Activity:

- 4.1 Training students in making functions, like:
 - 4.2 complaining
 - 4.3 enquiring
 - 4.4 giving directions
5. Training students in particular structures, like:
 - 5.1 narration of an accident (past tense)
 - 5.2 report of theft/ break-in (passive voice)
 - 5.3 getting information (asking questions)

6. Role-play:

- 6.1 journalist and politician
- 6.2 lawyer and client
- 6.3 policeman and member of public person reporting missing person
- 6.4 shop manager and a customer
- 6.5 hotel receptionist and tourist
- 6.6 doctor and patient

7. Examination Areas: While examining students in the areas of fluency, grammatical accuracy, pronunciation (sentences and individual sounds), inter-active communication and vocabulary resources, they can be examined in the new areas, like, reading blank dialogue, précis or retell story or text from aural stimulus, translating/interpreting and sentence completion from aural or written stimulus.

Textbooks Recommended:

- Little, W. (1981) Communicative Language Teaching. Cambridge: CUP
 Hatfield, J. and Hatfield, C. (1991) Simple Speaking Activities. Oxford: OUP
 Porter Ledwisse, G. (1987) Role Play. Oxford: OUP
 Otkendery, Michael (1985) Situational Dialogues. Eastbourne: Longman

Carter, Roland and Nunan, David (2005) *The Cambridge Guide to to Speakers of Other Languages*. Cambridge: CUP.
Gardlan, C., Löffelm-Köring, C. and Seligson, Paul (1995) *New English File Pre-Intermediate*. Oxford: OUP.
New Underhill (1987) *Testing Spoken Language. A handbook of oral testing techniques*. Cambridge: CUP.

7th April University
Faculty of Education, Zawiyah
Department of English

Course Name & Code	Level	No. of Teaching Hours	No. of Credit Units
E310 Grammar	3 rd Year	04	04

1. Aim: This course covers the main areas of English grammar is intended to present English grammar within a broader context, with special attention given to those points which are often a problem for learners.

2. Learning outcomes

- 2.1 to present grammatical structures in contexts
- 2.2 to help students use grammatical structures and understand how they work in practice
- 2.3 to demonstrate to students that explanations of grammar are descriptions of how English works:
- 2.3 to guide and help students to understand, not rules to be memorized

III. Third Year

1. Simple and compound sentences

1.1 simple sentences

- a. requests and commands
- b. exclamatory sentences

1.2 joining sentences coordinately

(compound sentences)

- 1.2.1 joining sentences with conjunctive adverbs
- 1.2.2 parallel constructions
- 1.2.3 dangling constructions

2. English clauses

2.1 adverbial clauses

- 2.1.1 adverbial clauses of time
- 2.1.2 adverbial clauses of cause
- 2.1.3 adverbial clauses of condition
- 2.1.4 adverbial clauses of contrast
- 2.1.5 adverbial clauses of purpose
- 2.1.6 adverbial clauses of result
- 2.1.7 adverbial clauses of manner

2.2 relative clauses

2.3 noun clauses (reported speech)

2.4 conditionals

Textbooks recommended: -

1. Marcella Frank (1985) *Modern English: A Practical Reference Guide*.
2. John Eastwood (2006) *Oxford Practice Grammar*. Oxford: OUP.
3. ----- (1994) *Oxford Guide to English Grammar*. Oxford: OUP.
4. R. Quirk and S. Greenbaum (1973) *A University Grammar of English*. London: Longman.
5. ----- (1990) *A Student's Grammar of English*. London: Longman.
6. Norman C. Stageberg (1974) *An Introductory English Grammar* (2nd edition). New York: Holt Rinehart & Winston.
7. Michael Swan (1996) *Practical English Usage*. International Student's Edition. Oxford: OUP.
8. Peter Collins & Corneffe Helle (2000). *English Grammar: an Introduction*. Macmillan Press

7th April University
Faculty of Education, Zawya
Department of English

Course Name & Code	Level	No of Teaching Hours	No of Credit Units
E311 Writing	3 rd Year	04	04

1. Aim: This course is designed to present writing within a functional perspective.

2 Learning outcomes: students write a 2-page composition with clear introduction, a body and a conclusion. The introduction should include a controlling idea, which is then developed in the body. The conclusion, where appropriately included, should summarize or restate the main points of the essay. Grammatical errors should be minimal. The composition should show hierarchical complexity. The mode of discourse, as well as the organizational patterning chosen by the writer, should be appropriate to the topic treated.

3. Course Content

- 3.1 Unit 1: Describing Physical Details
Composition Focus: Physical Description
Organizational Focus: Spatial Order
Grammatical Focus: Present Tense/Prepositions
- 3.2 Unit 2: Framing Events in Time
Composition Focus: Narration
Organizational Focus: Chronological Order
Grammatical Focus: Past Tense
- 3.3 Unit 3: Analyzing Patterns
Composition Focus: Exposition Through Analysis
Organizational Focus: Partition
Grammatical Focus: Clauses
- 3.4 Unit 4: Making Meaning Clear
Composition Focus: Exposition Through Definition
Organizational Focus: Partition
Grammatical Focus: Nouns/Complex Sentences
- 3.5 Unit 5: Posing Hypothetical Situations
Composition Focus: Hypothetical Narration
Organizational Focus: Chronological Order
Grammatical Focus: Conditionals
- 3.6 Unit 6: Seeing Differences and Similarities
Composition Focus: Exposition Through Contrast & Comparison
Organizational Focus: Contrastive Balance
Grammatical Focus: Comparative Sentences
- 3.7 Unit 7: Arguing A Point
Composition Focus: Argumentation
Organizational Focus: Induction
Grammatical Focus: Complex Sentences
- 3.8 Unit 8: Describing An Operational Process
Composition Focus: Process Description
Organizational Focus: Chronological Order
Grammatical Focus: Passive Voice/ Complex Sentences
- 3.9 Unit 9: Observing Cause & Effect
Composition Focus: Exposition Through Cause & Effect
Organizational Focus: Partition
Grammatical Focus: Parallel Construction

Textbook Recommended:

Linda Blanton (1982) Intermediate Composition Practice 2, Newbury House Publishers.

7th April University
Faculty of Education, Zomba
Department of English

Course Name and Code	Level	No. of Teaching Hours	No of Credit Units
ES12 Reading	3rd Year	02	04

1. *Aims:* Reading is generally viewed as an interactive process because it is assumed that the interaction takes place between the information from the text and the readers' schemata.

2. Learning outcomes

- 2.1 To make the learners efficient readers by adopting the "bottom-up" and "top-down" approaches.
- 2.2 To make the students understand the passage and develop the skill of understanding.
- 2.3 To develop the reading habits and strategies.
- 2.4 To improve the students' understanding of the subject matter so they can answer the comprehension questions and main idea.
- 2.5 To develop their writing skills.

3. Content

- 3.1 The Moon
- 3.2 The History of Telling Time
- 3.3 The Penny Express
- 3.4 The Right to Die
- 3.5 Memory
- 3.6 The Brain
- 3.7 Building Houses Out of the Earth
- 3.8 The Tree Oil
- 3.9 The Danger of Air Conditioning
- 3.10 Keeping Cut Flowers
- 3.11 Should People Marry Young
- 3.12 Speed and Comfort
- 3.13 New Year Resolution
- 3.14 Automation

Textbooks recommended:

1. Connelly, Michael and Sims, Jean. *Time and Space* (2nd edition).
2. IELTS Practice Book
3. Alexander, L.G. *Developing Reading Skills*

7th April University
Faculty of Education, Azawiya
Department of English

Course Name & Code	Level	No. of Teaching Hours	No. of Credit Units
ES13 Oral Communication Skills	3rd Year	02	02

1. Aims: Oral Communication skills aims to cater to the obvious functional need of teacher-education to make a teacher-trainee ably communicative, and thereby lead a class, and if need be to be an able school administrator. In a similar fashion the course being a comprehensive one attempts to train teacher-trainees to be competent presenters-speakers and participants-listeners.

2. Learning outcomes

- 2.1 To train teacher-trainees to be able communicators as the success of the classroom teaching depends on effective communication.
- 2.2 To help teacher-trainees to learn across curriculum.
- 2.3 To help recognize and consequently eliminate communication apprehensions which are understandably inherent in the developing world.
- 2.4 To appreciate the differences and connections between oral and written communications.
- 2.5 To develop leadership and role-modeling using classroom communication context.

3. Oral Skills: III Year

Note: Like in the previous courses of Oral Skills, the third year Oral Skills will have implied focus on Listening aspect.

4. Course Component & Activity:

- 4.1 Introduction to communication theoretical aspects like, Structure, language and manner elements.
- 4.2 Speaking practice on the following areas observing the above-mentioned crucial elements of oral skills:
 - 4.2.3 narrating story from pictures
 - 4.2.4 describing a picture
 - 4.2.5 summarizing recorded passage
 - 4.2.6 interpreting stress and intonation pattern
- 4.3 Explaining the significance of appropriate use of English in a given context—vocabulary and syntax-wise.
- 4.4 Listening practice: Note-taking, Asking questions, clarifications and offering feedback.

5. Examination Areas: Along with structure (Proper beginning, body of the presentation and conclusion etc.) language (choice of vocabulary, syntax and use of specialized expressions) manner (body language, clarity of voice, pronunciation and accent), students can be examined in the areas of fluency, grammatical accuracy, pronunciation (sentences and individual sounds), interactive communication and vocabulary resources.

5.1 Similarly questions can be on the aspects like note-taking, methods of asking questions, commenting on a speech etc.

Textbooks Recommended:

- Little, W. (1981) Communicative Language Teaching. Cambridge: CUP
 Hadfield, J. and Hadfield, C. (1991) Simple Speaking Activities. Oxford: OUP
 Porter-Ladousse, G. (1987) Role Play. Oxford: CUP
 Otkenden, Michael (1985) Situational Dialogues. Eastbourne: Longman

Oxenden, C., Latham-Koenig, C. and Seligson, Paul (1996) *New English File Pre-Intermediate*. Oxford: OUP
McC Underhill (1987) *Testing Spoken Language. A handbook of oral testing techniques*. Cambridge: CUP

7th April University
Faculty of Education, Sawiya
Department of English

Course Name and Code	Level	No. of Teaching Hours	No of Credit Units
E318 Microteaching	3rd Year	02	02

1. Aim: Microteaching is a teacher training procedure aimed at reducing the teaching situation to simpler and more controlled encounter achieved by limiting the practice teaching to a specific skill and reducing teaching time and class size.

2. Learning outcomes

2.1 To learn and assimilate new teaching skills under controlled conditions.
2.2 To gain confidence in teaching and to master a number of skills by dealing with a small group of students.

2.3 Unit I

- 1.1 Micro teaching: an introduction
- 1.2 Definition of microteaching
- 1.3 Objectives of microteaching
- 1.4 Characteristics of microteaching
- 1.5 Steps of micro teaching

Unit II

- 2.1 Micro teaching procedure
- 2.2 Integration of skills
- 2.3 Advantages of microteaching
- 2.4 Limitations of microteaching

Unit III

Teaching skills

- 3.1 Skill of introducing a lesson
- 3.2 Skill of fluency in questioning
- 3.3 Skill of posing questions
- 3.4 Skill of stimulus variation

Unit IV

Teaching skills (contd.)

- 4.1 Skill of explaining and illustrating with examples
- 4.2 Skill of reinforcement
- 4.3 Skill of using blackboard
- 4.5 Skill of achieving closure

Unit V

5.1 Practical Microteaching

Textbooks recommended:

1. Swainen, K., Ramakrishnan, T. V. and Midula, K. English Language Education, Calicut University, India
2. The English Language Teacher's Handbook (2006), Continuity, UK

7th April University
Faculty of Education, Zawiyah
Department of English

Course Name & Code	Level	No of Teaching Hours	No of Credit Units
E410 Grammar	4 th Year	04	04

1. Aim: This course covers the main areas of English grammar is intended to present English grammar within a broader context, with special attention given to those points which are often a problem for learners.

2. Learning outcomes

- 2.1 to present grammatical structures in context
- 2.2 to help students use grammatical structures and understand how they work in practice
- 2.3 to demonstrate to students that explanations of grammar are descriptions of how English works
- 2.3 to guide and help students to understand, not rules to be memorized

IV. Fourth Year

1. English Phrases

- 1.1 participial phrases
- 1.2 gerund and gerund phrases
- 1.4 infinitive and infinitive phrases
- 1.5 absolute constructions
- 1.6 abstract noun phrases
- 1.7 appositive phrases

2. English syntax

- 2.1 noun and verb phrases
- 2.2 basic sentence patterns
- 2.3 parts of Speech; positional classes
 - 2.3.1 nominals
 - 2.3.2 verbals
 - 2.3.3 adjectivals
 - 2.3.4 adverbials
- 2.4 modification
 - 2.4.1 sentence modifiers
 - 2.4.2 the noun phrase: pronominal phrase
 - 2.4.3 the noun phrase: post-nominal modifiers
 - 2.4.4 the verb phrase: one-word adverbial
 - 2.4.5 the verb phrase: word group adverbials
- 2.5 levels of modification
 - 2.5.1 immediate constituents
 - 2.5.2 coordination
 - 2.5.3 multiple constituents
- 2.6 Some syntactic details
 - 2.6.1 compliments
 - 2.6.2 subjunctive forms of the verbs
 - 2.6.3 noun subgroups
 - 2.6.4 expletive THERE
 - 2.6.7 tag questions

Textbooks recommended:

1. Marcella Frank (1985) *Modern English: A Practical Reference Guide*.
2. John Eastwood (2005) *Oxford Practice Grammar*. Oxford: OUP.
3. ----- (1994) *Oxford Guide to English Grammar*. Oxford: OUP.
4. R. Quirk and S. Greenbaum (1973) *A University Grammar of English*. London: Longman.
5. ----- (1999) *A Student's Grammar of English*. London: Longman.
6. Norman C. Stageberg (1974) *An Introductory English Grammar* (2nd edition). New York: Holt Rinehart & Winston.
7. Michael Swan (1995) *Practical English Usage: International Student's Edition*. Oxford: OUP.
8. Peter Collins & Cornelia Holló (2000). *English Grammar: an Introduction*. Macmillan Press.

7th April University
Faculty of Education, Zawaya
Department of English

Course Name & Code	Level	No. of Teaching Hours	No. of Credit Units
E411 Writing	4th Year	04	04

1. Aim: This course is designed to present writing within a functional perspective.

2. Learning outcomes

- 2.1 help students have access to samples of academic writing
- 2.2 provide students with appropriate practice material for such students and also for those students who need to write essays or reports.

3. Course Content

- 3.1 Unit 1: Structure and Cohesion
- 3.2 Unit 2: Description: Process and Procedure
- 3.3 Unit 3: Description: Physical
- 3.4 Unit 4: Narrative
- 3.5 Unit 5: Definitions
- 3.6 Unit 6: Exemplification
- 3.7 Unit 7: Classification
- 3.8 Unit 8: Comparison and Contrast
- 3.9 Unit 9: cause and Effect
- 3.10 Unit 10: Generalization, Qualification, and Certainty
- 3.11 Unit 11: Interpretation of Data
- 3.12 Unit 12: Discussion
- 3.13 Unit 13: Drawing conclusion
- 3.14 Unit 14: Reports: Studies and Research
- 3.15 Unit 15: Surveys and Questionnaires

Textbook Recommended:

R. R. Jordan (1996) Academic Writing Course (new edition). Longman.

Course Name and Code	Level	No. of Teaching Hours	No of Credit Units
E412 Reading	4 th Year	02	04

1. Aim: Reading is generally viewed as an interactive process because it is assumed that the interaction takes place between the information from the text and the readers' schemata.

2. Learning outcomes

2.1 To make the learners efficient readers by adopting the "bottom-up" and "top-down" approaches.

2.2 To make the students understand the passage and develop the skill of understanding

2.3 To develop the reading habits and strategies.

2.4 To improve the students' understanding of the subject matter so they can answer the comprehension questions and main idea

2.5 To develop their writing skills

3. Content

3.1 Two Billion More People by Century End

3.2 Conversation with a Gorilla

3.3 Made in Japan: A day in the life of a typical Japanese worker

3.4 The Right to Die

3.5 Protein

3.6 How to Cope with Insomnia

3.7 Multilingualism on the Internet

3.8 Ritual and Style Across Culture

3.8 Body Language

Textbooks recommended:

1. Marckles, Linda and Hirosewa, Louise. *Developing Reading Skills*.
2. Krapp, Karlfried and Ansoz, Gerd. *Handbook of Language and Communication: Diversity and Change* (vol. 9).
3. Kolhoff, Helga. *Handbook of Applied Linguistics: Communicative Competence: Language and Problems and Practical Solutions* (vol. 7).

2nd April University
Faculty of Education, Azerbaijan
Department of English

Course Name & Code	Level	No. of Teaching Hours	No. of Credit Units
0413 Oral Communication Skills	4th Year	02	02

1. Aims: Oral (Communication) Skills aims to cater to the obvious functional need of teacher-education to make a teacher-trainee able communicative, and thereby lead a class, and if need be to be an able school administrator. In a similar fashion the course being a comprehensive one attempts to train teacher-trainees to be competent presenters-speakers and participants-listeners.

2. Learning Outcomes

- 2.1 To train teacher-trainees to be able communicators as the success of the classroom teaching depends on effective communication.
- 2.2 To help teacher-trainees to learn across curriculum.
- 2.3 To help recognize and consequently eliminate communication apprehensions which are understandably inherent in the developing world.
- 2.4 To appreciate the differences and connections between oral and written communications.
- 2.5 To develop leadership and role-modeling using classroom communication context factors.

3. Oral Skills: IV Year

Note: Like in the previous courses of Oral Skills, the third year Oral Skills will have implied focus on listening aspect

4.1 Course Component & Activity

- 4.1.1 Academic presentations along with written submissions: Lectures in necessary theoretical backdrop in structure, language and manner
- 4.1.2 Group Discussions: Features of Group Discussions and Practicing of Group Discussion: Lectures in necessary theoretical backdrop in structure, language and manner
- 4.1.3 Panel Discussions: Features of Panel Discussion and Practicing of Panel Discussion: Lectures in necessary theoretical backdrop in structure, language and manner

5. Mode of Examination:

Both the written component (write-up) and oral participation shall be examined by a panel of examiners focusing on structure (Proper beginning, body of the presentation and conclusion etc.) language (choice of vocabulary, syntax and use of specialized expressions) manner (body language, clarity of voice, pronunciation and accent), and also fluency, grammatical accuracy, pronunciation (sentences and individual sounds), inter-active communication and vocabulary resources

Textbooks Recommended:

- Little, W. (1981) Communicative Language Teaching. Cambridge: CUP
- Hedfield, J. and Hadfield, C. (1991) Simple Speaking Activities. Oxford: OUP
- Porter Ledoussie, G. (1987) Role Play. Oxford: OUP
- Okkenen, Michael (1985) Situational Dialogues. Eastbourne: Longman
- Carter, Roland and Nunan, David (2005) The Cambridge Guide to to Speakers of Other Languages. Cambridge: CUP
- Oxenden, C., Letham-Koenig, C. and Seligson, Paul (1996) New English File Pre-Intermediate. Oxford: OUP
- Nice Underhill (1987) Testing Spoken Language. A handbook of oral testing techniques. Cambridge: CUP