

**DEVELOPMENT OF TRAINING PROGRAMMES
PROVIDED FOR ACADEMIC
STAFF OF LIBYAN UNIVERSITIES**

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STAFF OF LIBYAN UNIVERSITIES**

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DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis has been composed by myself, that it has not been accepted in any previous application for a higher degree, that the work of which it is a record has been performed by myself, and that all sources of information have been specifically acknowledge.

Majda Elferjani

GLOSSARY OF TERMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AS	Academic Staff
CQAA	Centre for Quality Assurance and Accreditation
CETLs	Centres for Excellence in Teaching and Learning
CSO	Case Study Organisation
DfES	Department for Education and Skills
GCR	Global Competitiveness Report
GNC	General National Congress
GPC	General People's Committee
GPCE	Committee of Education
HE	Higher Education
HEA	Higher Education Academy: government-
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
HESDA	Higher Education Staff Development Agency
ILT	Institute of Learning and Teaching: precursor of the HEA
ILTHE	Institute for Learning and Teaching in Higher Education
ISD	Institutional Staff Development Centre
LES	Libyan Education System
LHES	Libyan Higher Education System
LTSN	Learning and Teaching Support Network
LUS	Libyan universities
MHEE	Ministry of Higher Education in Egypt
NASR	National Authority for Scientific Research
PGCHE	Postgraduate Certificate in Higher Education
PGCert	Postgraduate Certificate
PSF	Professional Standards Framework published by the HEA
SEDA	Staff and Educational Development Association
TC	Teaching Certificate
TPL	Training programmes in Libya
TPs	Training Programmes
UoT	University of Tripoli

ABSTRACT

This study examines the implementation of Training Programmes (TPs) for the academic staff (AS) in Libyan Universities (LUs), where AS are key members of this community and supporting their continuing professional development to underpin excellence in learning and teaching is a high priority. A comprehensive analysis of the problems linked to the implantation of TPs in Libyan institutions is performed. It is obvious the pronounced TPs gap between Libya and the developed world due to social, political and economic conditions in an Arab countries where the primary delivery educational model is essentially traditional. Then possible ways of implementing successfully TPs in Libyan educational institutions by considering successful UK examples.

This study identify the necessary factors for the affective implementation of training programmes in order to improve the performance of academic staff of Libyan universities.. A single case study approach is adopted within one institution which is Tripoli University (UoT). The methodology used in the research had quantitative and qualitative. This study analyses data collected through a questionnaire with the holders of the Postgraduate Certificate in Higher Education (PGCHE) in select fourteen UK universities in order to investigate their opinion and perception about this Certificate, followed by four semi-structured interviews with the PGCHE holder in order to clarify their ideas and with three academic providers of such TPs to obtain more information from different viewpoints. In addition, semi-structured interviews undertaken with 31 AS from UoT in Libya.

This study makes contributions to knowledge in: a) attempted to bridge the gap in knowledge within the HE sector by providing an empirical understanding of the phenomenon within this sector; b) the identification of barriers to the implementation of TPs which led to; narrowing the gap in the knowledge in the field of academic training about implementation-barriers in HE in general that has never been explored before ; c) identifies issues around the improvement of existing universities in Libya and the development of future Libyan universities; d) it also leads to the potential identification

of ways that could improve HE in Libya and lead to education quality improvements for Libyan society; e) The recommendations of this research could aid the Libyan government to identify changes necessary in the Libyan HEIs in general so that they achieve the level of their counterparts in the developed countries; f) identification of the key factors affecting the implementation of TPs in LUs has helped in preparing the framework provided by the researcher at the end of this thesis, which could be used towards remedying the problems affecting TPs in LUs.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH

1.1 Introduction

The purpose of this introductory chapter is to establish the background of the research area, the aim, objectives, research questions, the rationale and justification for the research, the expected contributions to knowledge that could emerge from the completion of the research, a brief indication of the research methodology and the overall layout and structure of the thesis. This research will identify the necessary factors for the affective implementation of training programmes in order to improve the performance of academic staff of Libyan universities.

1.2 Overview of Higher Education with a Special Focus on considerably high level Libya

Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) have a responsibility to ensure that AS have the knowledge, skills and confidence to enhance their performance in delivering teaching. A lack of competence and confidence in this area affects students and puts the institution at risk of not meeting its legal responsibilities, increases the stress on AS and may affect job progression Ref).

The main Higher education activities are teaching and learning, research, and interaction with industry sectors and society (Lambert, 2003). However, developed countries have reached an improving such activities towards better quality in teaching. In these countries the teacher plays a supervisor's role and guides the process. However, in the Libyan Higher Education Institutions (LHEIs), teaching and learning processes still rely on traditional methods, and the teacher is considered to be at the core of the educational process. There are numerous reasons behind using such traditional methods, which include; shortage of laboratories and libraries; lack of training for AS in teaching and learning methods, despite their high qualifications and specialised skills. These reasons lead lecturers to use traditional methods of teaching, resulting in students

finding it difficult to apply theory to practical work and to strike a compromise between theory and practice (Alfnish *et al.*, 1998).

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) argues that the progress of Arab countries in the areas of scientific research and information technology is relatively weak (UNDP, 2003).

There are also limitations in education, knowledge, technology, research and development initiatives. Despite the differences among the Arab states in some issues, they still have similarities in some issues. Libya, as one of the Arabic States, needs to develop and improve the skills of the academic staff in Libyan universities, including through the training of teachers in the use of advanced technology in teaching; LUs should also incorporate regional and international expertise in HE Hollings (Centre for International Dialogue, 2014).

UNDP, (2003) also mentions that accreditation remains a problem in some Arab states; therefore the Libyan Government should give greater importance to the accreditation of the HEIs, laboratories, inspection bodies, and certification bodies. Collaborating with international accreditation bodies is key to improving the quality of these institutions. LHEIs were faced with a lot of challenges. Knowing these challenges and barriers and finding possible solutions may possibly enable stakeholders to become successful in implementing the TPs for AS in LUs in the future.

Hence, the focus and analysis of this study are directed only to the challenges relating to TPs for AS in LUs. It will be suggested in this study that the most important factors that impact on the implementation of these programmes.

1.3 Research Motivations

The motivations for this research developed from the following:

- There is no previous research investigating TPs for AS in LUs implementation. Hence, this research makes the first contribution towards these issues in LUs.

- There is a general agreement among Libyan experts on the importance of TPs for the AS in LUs; examples for this are OECD, (2009); Abudher, (2013); and Akkari, (2014).
- There are many challenges facing HE worldwide in general and the developing countries including Libya in particular.
- Based on the experience of the researcher (as a staff member in an LU for six years and as head of department in a Kindergarten for four years), the various problems that Libyan AS face could be minimised by identifying the factors that affecting the implementation of TPs for AS in LUs.

1.4 Justification for the Research

Higher education in Libya is facing some major challenges which could have an impact in the near future on the quality of the Higher Education System (HES) in Libya; these could manifest as problems in the development of TPs of faculty members. This research was done to meet the increased demands for quality improvement in HE, necessitated by the rapidly evolving world of technology, modern means of communication, and the globalisation of the labour market. These changes have brought about major shifts in the patterns and methods of education and training in universities, and thus have had great impact in determining the level of human development. On the other hand, the state of Libyan universities has now deteriorated because of the accumulation of problems and mistakes made by the previous regime, the poorly organised management of HE in Libya, and the expansion in quantity by compromising quality (Akkari, 2014). Thus there are a number of factors which a valuable area to investigate, and thus validate this study.

1.4.1 The Weak Libyan Higher Education System (LHES)

According to the Global Competitiveness Report (GCR, 2013-2014), Libya ranks 108th out of 148 countries providing HE (Table 1), falling in the bottom third of countries surveyed. Therefore, the Libyan Education System has failed to achieve its goals.

In HES there is no appropriate body setting standards and planning training for the future skills required in the job market (Porter and Yergin, 2006; UNESCO, 2003). Patterson, (2007) mentions that there is an urgent need for investment and good

management in Libya's HES. Furthermore, most of the members of the AS in the Libyan HEIs do not receive adequate and effective TPs in teaching and learning methods, despite being highly qualified in terms of scientific skills. To raise the standard of education in Libya, the quality of teaching staff needs to be improved.

Table 1. Ranking of Education and Skill Base, Libya. Source: Global Competitiveness Report 2003-2014 (World Forum, 2014)

	Country Ranking
Quality of the educational system	148
Higher education and training	104
Availability of research and training services	148
University/Industry research collaboration in R & D	148
Quality of scientific research institutions	148
Quality of primary education	132
Quality of management schools	145
Extent of staff training	143
Tertiary education enrolment, gross %	47

1.4.2 The Absence of Research in Libyan University TPs

TPs in universities are an important part of the public education system in Libya. The literature review has shown that there is very little research and literature available covering the problems and issues related to TPs in Libya, particularly at HE level. (Elzalatani, 2008). Also, UNDP, (2002), points out that Arab countries' progress includes Libya in the areas of scientific research and technological development and information communication technology is weak.

1.4.3 Government Policy

LES has become the focus of the Libyan government's strategy after the success of the 17th February revolution. The government believes that the universities can play a crucial role in empowering individuals and communities by providing the advanced capabilities required for societies to assume actual ownership of the recovery process

(Barakat, 2011). During the 1990s, a network of public higher vocational education and training colleges was set up to meet the need for rebuilding campus infrastructure and facilities. This is illustrative of the Libyan authorities' acute awareness of the need to raise the quality and standards in universities. Deputy to the Ministry of Higher Education in Libya (MHEL) spoke at the "Future Libya Development Forum 2012: Infrastructure & Rebuild" conference that ended in Dubai in 28 Jun 2012, held under the patronage of the Dubai Chamber of Commerce & Industry, it was announced by the deputy minister that the main aim of Libya's higher education strategy is to set up a knowledge-based Libyan society and to promote science-based industrial development. It was also noted that, recognising the deteriorating quality of education at various levels, "more effort is needed to prioritise effective teacher training".

1.5 The scope of the research.

This research study was aimed to identify the necessary factors for the affective implementation of training programmes in order to improve the performance of academic staff of Libyan universities using University of Tripoli in Libya as a case study. The researcher adopted a qualitative approach for the main part of the research, while a quantitative approach was also used to validate and confirm the collected data.

In order to achieve the research aim, four objectives have been accomplished. By reviewing the relevant literature the theoretical framework was enhanced, and then the empirical work was carried out through two stages:

In the first stage this research started by distributing a survey questionnaire to answer research question regarding what are the appropriate TPs for AS that implemented in the UK universities. This questionnaire was distributed to the holders of the PGCHE in fourteen pre-selected UK universities, followed by semi-structured interviews with PGCHE holders and with four academic providers of this Certificate.

Then the second stage was carried out by collecting the data required in the case study. The interviewees mainly The deputy of the minister of the HE; vice president of university of Tripoli, dean of the faculty of economics and political science; heads of departments; academic staff from the faculties: engineering; science; arts; economics and political science; agriculture. The researcher decided to include all these levels

in order to gain in-depth information and a full picture of the responsibilities of all people within the organisation. After collecting the data it was analysed according to suitable methods which are discussed in Chapter 4 of this thesis.

The findings of the research have been discussed, using many tools for triangulation, to understand the affective implementation of training programmes in order to improve the performance of academic staff of Libyan universities. The initial theoretical framework is revised accordingly to reflect the case studies' findings.

1.6 Research Outline

1.6.1 Aim of the Research

The aim of this study is to identify the necessary factors for the affective implementation of training programmes in order to improve the performance of academic staff of Libyan universities.

1.6.2 Research Questions

From the researcher's previous experience as a staff member in one of LUs, the following questions emerge as being essential to answer the research aim:

- What are the appropriate training programmes for AS that have been implemented in the universities in the developed countries such as the UK?
- Why are there no appropriate training programmes for the academic staff in LUs?
- What are the factors that affect the implementation of the training programmes for the AS in LUs?
- What are the barriers that affect the implementation of training programmes?

1.6.3 Research Objectives

To meet the central aim of this research and to answer the research questions about TPs for the AS in LUs, the specific objectives of the research were:

- To review the relevant literature related to the Training Programmes for university academics around the world.

- To identify the existing Training Programmes for AS in LUs; and to investigate the factors affecting their applicability.
- To identify and explore the barriers affecting the implementation of the training programmes for AS in LUs.
- To establish a theoretical framework based on the Training Programmes issues that enable the introduction of TPs to the Libyan universities.

1.7 Research Methodology

There is no definite rule as to which methodological paradigm should be selected when doing research, as the most suitable one will be determined by the nature and scope of the research (Collis and Hussey, 2009). Easterby-Smith *et al.*, (2008); Yin, (2009); and Hussey and Hussey, (1997) all indicate that selecting the research philosophy depends on the nature and scope of the thesis, the research questions and the overall research aim.

In order to address the objectives and answer the research questions the researcher adopted a qualitative approach for the main part of this research, while a quantitative approach was also used to validate and confirm the collected data, as well as to enhance the research quality.

In the first phase this research commenced by distributing a survey questionnaire in order to explore the first research question: What are the appropriate TPs for AS that implemented in the developed countries' Universities such as UK universities? This questionnaire was distributed to the holders of the Postgraduate Certificate in Higher Education (PGCHE) in fourteen pre-selected UK universities in order to investigate their opinions and perceptions about this Certificate. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with PGCHE holders (in order to clarify their ideas) and with four academic providers of this Certificate in order to obtain more information from different angles.

In the second phase Semi-structured, face-to-face interviews and documentation review as the other source of evidence to satisfy the requirements for research validity in Libya.

An interpretivism approach has been selected as the main research philosophy for the following reasons:

1. This research falls within the remit of social sciences, as it deals with the beliefs, perceptions of reality, attitudes and experience of people regarding the implementation of TPs for the AS in a particular context. This orientation is supported by researchers such as Hussey and Hussey, (1997); and Collis and Hussey, (2009).

2. The subject under investigation is not supported by an extensive theoretical background, because of the originality of this research and the lack of previous research on this subject. This idea has been suggested by Creswell, (2003).

Further, this research follows both deductive and inductive approaches; this approach was adopted by researchers such as Sekaran, (2003) and Saunders *et al.*, (2009). A list of factors necessary to investigate the implementation of TPs were derived from a review of existing literature and then investigated deductively in the case study institutions. Following this, the findings from the fieldwork were incorporated inductively into the existing theory.

Among the different strategies adopted in social science research, the case study strategy was selected to gain the depth of understanding of the information which was necessary to identify and investigate the implementation of TPs for the AS in LUs.

According to Yin, (2009) the single case study research design is appropriate in several circumstances, including representative or typical cases such as explored in this research. This concept will be discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

In a case study the researcher has to identify the sources of evidence. As no one method fits all studies, many specific requirements related to the nature and objectives of the research determine the appropriate method to use. In this research semi-structured, face-to-face interviews were selected as the main source of data collection, and supporting documentation was sought for research validity. This approach will be justified in detail later in the study.

It is believed by many experts in the area of research methodology that the questions given by the researcher in interviews and/or questionnaires have to be subjected to a pilot study to clarify the wording of the questions and to design and filter these questions (Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Sekaran, 2003; Yin, 2009). Accordingly the researcher conducted two pilot studies. The first piloting (for the questionnaire) was conducted in the UK with six PhD students in Salford University, two of whom are doing the PGCEH programme in this University. The second piloting (for the interviews) was conducted with five PhD students who work as AS members in different Libyan HEIs, and have experience in university teaching. The feedback from the both pilot studies were used in redrafting the interview and questionnaire questions.

The data collected from the case study organisation was analysed according to suitable methods which are discussed in Chapter 4 of this thesis.

1.8 Development and Application of the Interview Protocol

Saunders *et al.*, (2009) argue that the internal validity and reliability of data depends on the design and structure of questions, and on the strictness of the pilot testing. In this research the following techniques were undertaken to satisfy this requirement:

An initial draft of the questions was created from a conceptual framework about TPs in LUs derived from the literature review. These questions were modified following a discussion with the supervisor and the Learning Development Unit (LDU) team at the University of Salford who are knowledgeable in the area of TPs provided to AS in UK HEIs (first pilot study). A second pilot study was conducted with five PhD students who work as academic staff members in different Libyan HEIs in Libya. Questions were then redrafted based on the feedback from the two pilot studies;

These the interview questions were translated from English to Arabic (transcripts were later translated back into English). Ethical approval, in keeping with the rules of the University of Salford, was applied for and granted before the field study was conducted. Survey questionnaire responses were then obtained from the holders of the (PGCHE) in

fourteen selected UK universities. This was followed by interviews with these holders of PGCHE, and with four academic providers of the PGCHE Certificate. After this, a total of 31 interviews with the respondents from the case study organisation were conducted. The interviewees included the two deputy ministers of the MHE, the heads of TPs, deans, departmental heads, and lecturers.

1.8.1 Validity and Reliability of Data

Validity and reliability were strengthened by the use of the multiple sources of evidence listed above. A draft transcript of each interview was validated by asking interviewees to confirm that it reproduced accurately what they said during the interview. In addition, the researcher attended a number of training courses held by the Research Institutes at the University of Salford.

1.8.2 Data Analysis

There is no standard approach to analyse qualitative data. For instance, resist categorising or coding their data, preferring to work from the transcripts of interviews (Saunders, *et al.*, 2009). Saunders, *et al.*, (2009) also indicate that thoroughly reading and re-reading the transcripts or notes of qualitative interviews or observations is one approach to analyse this type of data.

Collis and Hussey, (2009) state that the main methods of analysing qualitative data can be classified into quantifying methods and non-quantifying methods that include general analytical procedures. This method is suitable for all types of qualitative research. Accordingly, in this research the classifying of the mass of qualitative data collected into categories (topics) was originally based on the conceptual framework created from the literature review. This allowed the researcher to rearrange and analyse the data systematically and strictly. The responses were analysed and then categorised into distinctive groupings. Then the researcher converted the interviewees' responses into a written record, grouped and placed according to indicated topics.

1.9 Expected Contribution to Knowledge

This is the first empirical study in Libya or other Arab countries that identifies and addresses the TPs for the AS in the context of the country. Thus, this study has attempted to narrow the gap in knowledge within the HE sector by providing an empirical understanding of the phenomenon within this environment.

One main contribution to knowledge by this study is the identification of barriers to the implementation of TPs for the AS in LUs, thus narrowing the gap in the knowledge in the field of academic training about implementation-barriers in HE in general. These barriers have not been mentioned before in existing literature.

The critical analysis of the LUs identifies issues around the improvement of existing universities in Libya and the development of future Libyan universities; it also leads to the potential identification of ways that could improve HE in Libya and lead to education quality improvements for Libyan society. The recommendations of this research could aid the Libyan government to identify changes necessary in the Libyan HEIs in general so that they achieve the level of their counterparts in the developed countries.

1.10 STRUCTURE OF THESIS

The structure of the thesis is shown in Figure 1.1 and it is organised as follows:

Chapter One has presented the introduction to this study, including the justification for the research and the research aim and objectives. In addition, it has presented a short description of the research methodology, the expected contributions to knowledge by the study and the structure of this thesis.

Chapter Two comprises a review of the literature related to higher education and training worldwide and issues related to the implementation the TPs for AS in LUs. The chapter also analyses global patterns of AS training, with particular reference to Arab and British TPs, in order to gain a deeper understanding of implementation issues in LUs.

Chapter Three provides information about the Libyan context. It gives an overview of the country in terms of geographical location and historical background, and an overview of its education system; the greatest emphasis is on the LHE sector and on Libyan HE policies which challenge this sector.

Chapter Four presents the philosophies, strategies, and approaches applied in the study, and justify the choices in these respects. It also discusses: issues related to research design; the reasons for choosing the case study approach and a particular organisation (Tripoli University); and the triangulation methods employed for data validation.

Chapter Five introduces the findings of the quantitative data obtained from the questionnaire completed by the PGCHE holders from fourteen UK universities. This data has been triangulated against the interviews with PGCHE holders as well as against those with four academic providers of these certificates.

Chapter Six presents the findings of the empirical investigation for the case study using interviews, observation and documentation.

Chapter Seven provides an in-depth discussion of the findings of the quantitative data and draws together the results of the research, considering evidence from the literature review, questionnaire and the semi-structured interviews.

Chapter Eight provides an in-depth discussion of the findings of the case study and draws together the results of the research, considering evidence from the literature review, semi-structured interviews and documentation.

Chapter Nine contains the conclusions of this research, the recommendations for future work and the limitations of the thesis.

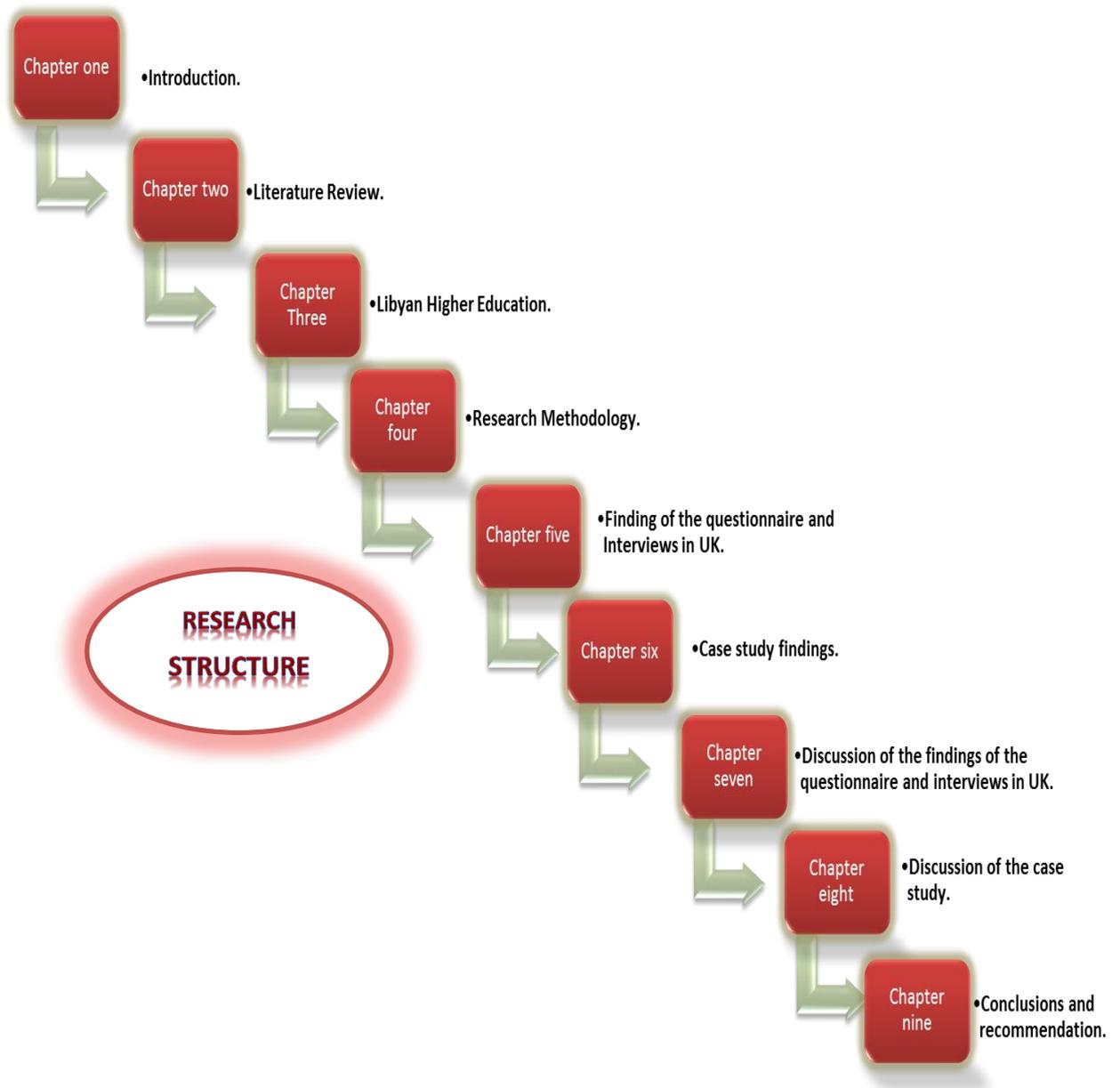


Figure 1.1: The Research Structure

1.11 Exclusions, Constraints, Reservations and Limitation

This research was conducted to identify the key factors affecting the implementation of TPs for AS in LUs. So this research is focused on only the AS in LUs, while excluding their students; there is potential for a whole PhD study focussing on these LU students.

The inability to record interviews of the case study on tape due to cultural constraints can be regarded as a limitation since this may have led to important information being missed and the analysis of the interviews being less detailed. In order to overcome this limitation, the researcher, as recommended by Yin, (2009), wrote down as much information as possible during the interviews, and on the very day of every interview, transcribed all pieces of information and ideas and converted them into a form of written record while they were still easy to recall. These records were then verified by the interviewee.

This research is restricted to a single case study as the selected research strategy, hence the findings can only be generalised to theory with any certainty (analytical generalisation as Yin, 2003). Consequently, this study is less concerned about generalisation towards other cases as discussed by Saunders *et al.*, (2003). However, further research could use multiple case studies and possibly improve the research process and the generalisability of its findings.

The Arab Spring is a revolutionary wave of political demonstration and protests occurring in the Arab world that demands the replacement of dictatorial governments, which have been in authority for more than twenty years, with elected governments through fair not fake elections. This movement started in Libya on 17 February 2011. Therefore, Libya is now governed by the General National Conference, and its priority is to set a constitution for Libya. Recently many Libyan people have been looking for a definition of legitimate government. This definition is still awaited at the time of writing. All interviews and fieldwork took place during the Arab spring.

1.12 Chapter Summary

This introductory chapter has offered an insight into the research, highlighted the reason why it is valuable for Libyan HE, thereby providing a rationale for conducting it. The chapter has also considered the scope of the research, aim, objectives and the research questions which helped achieve the achieve them. The expected contributions to knowledge have been identified, and an indication of the methodology adopted has been provided. Finally an outline of the structure of the thesis has been provided

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the review of existing literature related to the implementation of academic staff training in universities worldwide, with specific reference to Arab countries and the UK, in order to gain a deeper understanding of implementation issues in LUs. The literature presented in this study helped in achieving the first three objectives of this research. Moreover, it helped in developing the theoretical framework which is the main aim of this study.

2.2 Training Programmes: Definitions and the Main Features

According to Osseo-Asare and Longbottom (2002), training is a key factor that in the continuous acquisition of new knowledge and skills by all people, leading them towards better performance. This section aims to give an overview of the literature on the relationships between training and education, training and development and teaching and learning.

Patrick (1992) defined training as the systematic development of the attitudes, knowledge, skills and behaviour patterns required by an individual in order to perform adequately a given task or job. Furthermore, Thomes, (1992) indicated that “training is the bridge between an individual’s present performance levels, required for the organisation to be more effective in meeting the challenge of change and increasing competition”. Likewise, Armstrong, (1996) clarifies training as a process undertaken by people to enable them to perform better, and to make the best use of natural behaviour. Whereas, Kitching and Blackburn, (2002) define training as attempt within or outside the organisation which increases the job-related knowledge and skills of either managers or employees.

However, the Glossary of Training Terms of the Manpower Services Commission, U.K., (1981) has defined training as a "planned process to modify attitude, knowledge or skill behaviour through a learning experience to achieve effective performance in an

activity or range of activities. Its purpose in the work situation is to develop the abilities of the individual and to satisfy current and future manpower needs of the organisation".

According to Jain (1999), management training can be categorised into two groups. The first group is formal training, which is mainly theoretical, undertaken to obtain academic diplomas and degrees, where people prove their abilities academically and not practically. The second group is informal training, which is mainly practical and prepares a person to use the acquired academic knowledge efficiently and confidently. Thus, formal education is not enough for the continuous development of a country's human resources and intellectual capital, lifelong learning has become a necessity.

Cotterill, (2004), points out that if a deficit has been identified and a training need established, a training objective has to be defined, training methods have to be chosen, and the target level of proficiency has to be set.

Thus, training during work addresses the most important element in the educational process of the teacher; this is the main factor which depends upon the success of education in achieving their goals and their role in social and economic progress, so teachers need to adapt to current developments, and benefit from all new knowledge and technology, whether through self-growth, or through a training service.

However, training and education in addition to teaching are different factors of learning, so it is important to give a brief introduction about these concepts and to identify in the following sections how they are related.

2.3 Education, Training and Development

Hackett (2004) discusses the need to make a distinction between training and education, as Hackett, added that since education and training can and do provide both sorts of outcomes these days, the distinction between them is unrelated. Correspondingly, development is to equip people with the knowledge and skills they might need later in their careers, at a higher level in the organisation; in other words, it is to enable them to fulfil their potential.

According to Asare-Bediako (2002), employees must be trained, and where possible developed to meet their own career needs and the need of the organization. Besides, it must incorporate newly recruited staff into orientation programmes.

Hence, training is undertaken with the purpose of gaining a specific skill whereas education is undertaken basically for furthering an individual's knowledge and/or developing the individual's intellect.

2.4 Teaching and Learning

The distinction between teaching and learning is more important than between education and training. Whilst Nicholls (2001) argues that teaching and learning have not always been made explicit and explained, Hackett (2004) claims that teaching is something we do to others, and learning is something we do for ourselves. Thus learning describes personal growth, whereas training merely describes, and commonly represents, the transfer of a knowledge or a skill for organisational gain, which generally has nothing to do with the trainee. Furthermore, Cotterill (2004), adds that training is not the same as teaching: it covers both teaching and learning.

2.5 Training Programmes Worldwide

According to the Business Dictionary, TPs provide a significant long-term training activity which (as opposed to a training project) comprises of a series of courses, and usually has a flexible time and cost budget.

Traditionally, the expertise in one's own discipline has been the most respected feature of a university lecturer. In recent years, however, there have been argumentation about the need to improve university lecturers' pedagogical thinking and skills as well. As a consequence, training of university AS has recently become a widespread trend.

The dearth of research in this field is noticeable, leading to a lack of adequate evidence of the effect of training on teaching. As **Gilbert and Gibbs** (1999) have stressed, there is a need to establish the effectiveness of higher education teachers' training in

improving university teaching. Evidence of impact is needed to guide educational development units to design their courses since existing research in this field is rather descriptive than evaluative.

Many western developed countries often have well-established and resourced central units for academic staff development, generally called educational development units or academic development centres.

According to Gosling & D'Andrea, (2002), many western developed countries have established centres whose main aim is to work with academics and departments for the enhancement of teaching and learning. Educational Development Units (EDUs) in many developed countries play an important role in providing award bearing programmes for university teaching; in the case of the UK this is the Post Graduate Certificate in Higher Education (PGCHE). Many countries, such as the UK and Sri Lanka, have made decisions about making the pedagogical training of university teachers compulsory (Gibbs & Coffey, 2004). In countries such as Norway and Sweden, initial training of HE teachers is already compulsory (Rust, 2000).

University training in each country varies (Trowler, 2005). In Finland, many universities organise pedagogical training for their lecturers, but this training is not obligatory. For instance, the strategy of the University of Helsinki (Strategic plan for the years 2004–2006, University of Helsinki, 2003) states that every new lecturer should have the possibility to participate in an introductory seminar on university teaching in order to improve lecturers' pedagogical thinking and skills. Whereas, the training is voluntary in Finland as well as in some countries such as Netherlands, Australia, and New Zealand.

However, Trowler & Bamber (2005) used the Norway experience of compulsory HE teacher training to illustrate some difficulties in implementing such a policy. They clarify that due to the complex nature of HEIs, compulsory teacher training may not achieve all of its goals of enhancing teaching and learning, and that any policy of

compulsory teacher training needs to be prioritised and associated with other existing policies and structures.

Bamber's (2002) empirical research on the issue of compulsory training in UK in HEI shows similar trends. These included: a lack of management culture and practice to consistently implement this proposal; the merely rhetorical support from educational leadership; failure to prioritise the initiative amongst universities policy makers; the divided opinion about the value of the training in an environment with competing issues; the power of departmental heads to support or ignore the policy; and the way new academic staff approved of such initiatives in principle but lacked the time and sometimes enthusiasm to wholly commit to the process.

Trowler & Bamber (2005) mention that the Norwegian implementation of compulsory training revealed a number of lessons. They found that there was initial resistance to imposed rules and that institutional inertia across ten universities resulted in slow implementation. There was also controversy about whether the training justified the time invested in terms of the value it produced. Stakeholders did not come to an agreement on many issues and there was no clear evidence to suggest that compulsory training resulted in cultural change.

2.6 Training Programmes in the Arab World

There is a lack of literature on academic development initiatives in the Arab world, and few existing HEI staff development centres, even in countries like Jordan that have a long history of higher education (Berendt, 2005). In Egypt, which has the best known HEIs in the Arabic world, poor training has caused a deficiency of highly qualified AS, and this is one of the main reasons for the qualitative deterioration of education in Egyptian universities (Baalawi, 2008 and Belal & Springuel, 2010).

UNDP (2002) points out that the progress of Arab countries should include that of Libya, whose achievements in the areas of scientific research and technological development and information communication technology (ICT) are relatively weak. Also, Arab countries have some of the lowest levels of research funding in the world.

However, in 1991, an Arab Network for Staff Development was launched in agreement with UNESCO; its main aim was to set up programmes for the pedagogical training of university faculties in Arab universities (Hares, 1994). AS have disciplinary knowledge, but they need assistance in applying this knowledge to enable effective student learning. Furthermore, there is a lack of teaching and learning centres to provide guidance on teaching strategies or on the latest innovations in the research literature. There is also a shortage of resources available to assist development as a teacher in most Arabic countries. As Weimer, (1997) explains, one of the most common assumptions in academia that devalues teaching is the idea that teaching requires no initial training or CPD. AS development is still in its early stages in the Arabic world.

Issues regarding teacher training, recruitment, and reimbursement are at the core of the quality dilemma. Many countries face a shortage of teachers due partly to poor pay and a lack of prestige associated with the profession. Enhancements in quality must be built on the backs of strong faculty and greater attention is needed to address this problem. A new emphasis on schools of education and teacher training should focus on building partnerships to advance reform (Masri and Wilkens, 2011).

In addition, an apparent lack of teaching proficiency could potentially risk poor information coming forward in future appraisal decisions. In the HE sector in recent years, there has been extensive research about effective learning and teaching in HE (Biggs, 2001; Biggs, 2003; Ramsden, 2003). The literature related to this research is not widely known by the majority of academic (Prosser and Trigwell, 2001) This situation is surprising, given that higher academics receive little or no pedagogical training, even though they spend more than 80% of their time teaching.

Training for university teachers is almost absent in Arab Universities. Moreover, faced with the challenges of providing flexible enrolment and lifelong learning availability, Arab HEIs have not been able to meet the new demands and requirements of their societies. Thus the urgent need for in-depth reform of university structures is evident (Mohamed, 2005).

2.7 Training Programmes in UK Universities

TPs for university teachers was a recurring theme in reports and national university conferences from 1929-1956, gaining official recognition as a need in 1961 by the University Grants Committee (Hale, 1964).

In recent years the training of university teachers has risen up the HE agenda, prompted by the requirements of both the Dearing report (1997) and the governmental White Paper, (2003). This concern is clearly demonstrated by an increased interest in the quality of teaching in higher education, in which the role of professional development has not only changed but has been given new dimensions and direction. These include the need for new lecturers to enrol on induction courses and programmes that are assessed in some way.

In this regard the Dearing Report, (1979) mentions that *“We recommend that institutions of higher education begin immediately to develop or seek access to programmes for teacher training of their staff, if they do not have them and that all institutions seek national accreditation of such programmes from the Institute for Learning and Teaching in Higher Education”*.

Following this up, a later report states that, “all students are entitled to be taught well and to be given the support they need to learn effectively” (DfES, 2006).

Since 2006, with the introduction of the UK Professional Standards Framework published by the HEA (PSF) for teaching and supporting learning in HE, there is now a requirement for all new teaching staff to receive accredited training that meets the requirements of the UK PSF. The TPs are nationally designed, offering employees the opportunity to enhance their career through a combination of training and assessment. These programmes are similar for all UK universities. These programmes are for staff with some previous experience.

Continuing Professional Development CPD of teaching and/or the support of learning in HEIs in UK are funded to become members of the HEA. The programmes are designed specifically for AS in HE and are compulsory (Brown, 2000).

2.8 Professional Qualifications in Teaching & Learning

Some reviewers have characterised university teachers as the last of the ‘non-professions’ (Baume, 2006), because elsewhere in education including non-HE areas of post-compulsory education, all teaching staff are required to be qualified. In many developed countries EDUs play a key role in providing award bearing programmes for university teaching. There are many different awards with different titles in different countries; in the UK this is the PGCHE.

In US universities teaching portfolios have formalised the basis for the CPD of AS or faculties. However, the situation in the UK is different. For instance, the major focus has been on the postgraduate level qualifications in teaching and learning. It is now mandatory in most UK institutions for new AS to complete a Teaching Certificate. The UK is not unusual in reflecting this picture, but the situation is changing and there has been rising activity in promoting and delivering teaching development strategies, especially since the 2003 English HE White Paper (DfES, 2003).

In Australia, Dearn *et al.*, (2002) reported 11 different names for 21 programmes. The key model of a PGCHE includes the 60 credits accredited by the HEA in the UK; this model is committed to improving the student learning experience by raising the status of teaching, adding to the body of knowledge relating to pedagogy, enhancing professional teaching practice, and facilitating networks and communities of practice in HEIs (HEA, 2014). This programme tends to be provided by some form of centralised educational development unit, and to show similar learning outcomes, structures, content and assessment methods (Baalawi, 2008).

Opportunities also exist in several cases to pursue such studies to postgraduate diploma or master’s levels. Nevertheless, certificate level programmes are the most popular. The timescale over which such programmes have moved from piloting to mandatory probationary requirements has been remarkably short, driven strongly by a government focus on quality issues in HE, and generated by the report of the National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (NCIHE, 1997).

In most cases the courses are provided ‘generically’ by a central team. The people who have participated in Staff and Educational Development Association (SEDA) project value the largely generic approach of furthermost HE courses. Most of the teaching and learning issues that confront new teaching staff are generic in nature; staff on such courses gain from working with colleagues through a wide range of disciplines. Nevertheless, there has been a tendency to assume that participants can make the links to their own disciplinary practice and can find meaning in the generic references that are provided on these courses. They emphasise the scholarship of teaching and learning in higher education (Fraser, 2005). From the Staff and SEDA accreditation philosophy shown in Table 3, it is evident that the accreditation is based on values (similar values underpin HEA accreditation) associated with the particular skills and competencies.

So participants requiring accreditation must demonstrate achievement of specific tasks. Most significantly these must be underpinned by values in the Table. However, table 2.1 shows the values that must be demonstrated for accreditation.

Table 2.1: SEDA values that must be demonstrated for accreditation

A) An understanding of how people learn
B) Scholarship, professionalism and ethical practice
C) Working in and developing learning communities
D) Working effectively with diversity and promoting inclusivity
E) Continuing reflection on professional practice
F) Developing people and processes

2.8.1 Postgraduate Certificate in Higher Education (PGCHE)

Resulting from the recommendation of the Dearing Report (Dearing, 1997), each institution in the UK has been required to have in place some form of professional development for all new academic staff relating to teaching and learning, and take responsibility for initial professional development of teaching staff (e.g. through a Postgraduate Certificate in Higher Education, and taking responsibility for training for postgraduates who have teaching responsibilities). The PGCHE is accredited by the

HEA and incorporates the UK PSF for teaching and supporting learning in HE, published in February 2006. Those who successfully complete the PGCHE can progress on to an MA in Learning and Teaching in HE, typically taken during the first two years of a new lecturer's appointment; in many universities in the UK it forms part of the contractual requirement for new and inexperienced appointees (Fraser, 2005).

The PG Cert in Academic Practice meets the requirements of the UK (PSF) and is accredited by the HEA. Those who successfully complete the program are eligible to apply to become Fellows of the HEA. PGCAP is primarily designed for staff engaged in professional and academic practices including: teaching, learning, assessment, research and professional development within the Higher Education context. The programme provides an exploration of the underpinning pedagogy of teaching and learning, and support for the practical aspects of developing academic practice (HAE).

PGCert generically covers all sorts of subject areas and has done so for at least thirty years. In broad terms it is described a qualification which is after graduate, i.e. intended for people who already have a first degree. There are three ways in which this general PGCert level can be applied: PGCert in a subject can be a qualification itself for teaching (for instance a PGCert in Education as a qualification for school teaching); it can be a step towards a PG Diploma or a Master's; it can be a 'fall back award' when given to a candidate who has done much work towards a Master's degree but not satisfactorily enough to be awarded that degree.

PGCert and PGCAPs are more recent and came into being in the mid-1990s. They are intended specifically for people who are embarking on a career as Higher Education teachers and researchers, often referred to as Early Career Academics. Thus, while being a postgraduate certificate in education, they are often taken by people who already have PhDs in their own subject area. Most PGCert/PGCAPS are similar in level, being worth 60 credits at Master's level and nationally recognised. However the content of PGCert is to some extent decided by individual institutions (Beaton, 2012). Additionally, PGCert – standing as it does for Post Graduate Certificate – signifies only

the level of qualification and not the subject area or the focus/content of the learning undertaken.

A PGCAP stands for Post Graduate Certificate in Academic Practice. Institutions have a variety of titles for the PG Certificate courses that they offer to train their staff in teaching in HE. Some use the term ‘Academic Practice’, some ‘Teaching and Learning’ in HE – these are common titles but not the only ones.

2.9 Training programmes in LUs

There are various types of teacher education in Libya including courses for pre-primary and primary school teachers, secondary school teachers, and higher education teachers. Primary school teachers are trained for three to four years in State Higher Teacher Training Institutes at intermediate school level; a number of centres for in-service training were opened in 1995-96. A training centre was as well opened to train teachers for vocational and technical skills at basic and intermediate levels. Secondary school teachers are trained in four years at HE level . Teachers at intermediate training centres are graduates of the higher technical institutes (Rhema and Miliszewska, 2010).

The Resolution of the GPC No. 285 for the year 2006, on the staff members in universities and institutions of higher education, gave priority to the recruitment of lecturers who hold teaching qualifications, and to the recruitment of new lecturers based on educational experience; undergoing a training period of one year for new staff members also became a priority. In this period there are no specific TPs; rather this period is a testing phase until the lecturer is fully recruited in the MHE. Master’s degree holders can become assistant lecturers. They can be promoted to lecturer status after three years of teaching. They can then be promoted to assistant professor status after having taught for four years and publishing at least four papers in peer reviewed journals or conferences. Teachers are promoted to the status of Professor after being a joint Professor and having taught for five years (Regulations for National Staff Members, 2006). There are also TPs for AS after four years’ experience in university teaching in the form of a sabbatical leave, during which they are dispatched for a period

of one year inside or outside the country to train in their area of specialisation. Unfortunately this programme is not implemented on the ground.

There are also TPs issued by the MHE under the auspices of quality training to prepare the leaders of the members of staff, and these programmes are in cooperation with National Centre for the development of the capacity of training and leaderships in the Arab Republic of Egypt, where these programmes are not obligatory and often attendance is very poor.

However, the challenges of poor and undeveloped existing infrastructure and a dearth of skilled qualified and ICT-savvy teachers present a great challenge to the current reform process (Hamdy, 2007). The national policy for ICT in education was launched in 2005 and is mainly managed by the ME and the Ministry of Vocational Training. The policy in general aims to enable access to ICT through the provision of computers and the Internet, as well as to improve the quality of education through ICT. This is expected to be achieved by adopting modern educational techniques and methods, encouraging scientific research within the community and private sector investment in higher/specialist education, and developing open and distance learning alongside continued education (Abodher, 2013)

According to Farley, (1971), Libyan education programmes were responsible for preparing a large number of people to work in administrative posts in public enterprises, and a large amount of financial support was allocated for this purpose. Another problem mentioned by Farley is that the education system paid more attention to the theoretical aspects of education rather than to the practical aspects. In addition, there is a lack of facilities as well as trained and well-qualified teachers in the education sector in Libya, without which a generation of technically qualified students cannot become a reality. However, far too little attention has been paid to the teaching, development and training for AS in the Libyan higher education sector.

Most of the AS in Libyan HEIs do not receive adequate and effective TPs in teaching and learning methods, despite being highly qualified in terms of specialised scientific

skills. Accordingly, the Libyan Delegation Report of 2008 included observations concerning the quality in HE including the need for developing the skills of academic employees.

2.10 Training Process

This section identifies the most important steps which should be considered before implementing any TP. It defines the training Process (training pillars) which present TPs as an implementation framework. It will be used as a guide in collecting the relevant data for this study.

The pillars are constructed according to the information and issues revealed through a detailed review of the literature, as discussed in the previous sections and sub-sections.

The training pillars direct the researcher to particular aspects of TPs based on past experience. They are comprised of inputs from various theories, views, perceptions and perspectives espoused in the published literature, which then form the basis of a framework to guide data collection and analysis. Figure 2.1 illustrates the theoretical framework developed for the purpose of this research.

The successful implementation, management and maintenance of TPs in HE depend on these basic pillars. These pillars include issuance of legislation and regulations for: training; commitment of leadership, availability of funding; training elements; training need; planning and recording of training programmes; evaluations; and unit for Continuing Professional Development (CPD).

However, proper planning and the belief in the TPs by all personnel in the HE add a successful factor to any effective implementation (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2006).

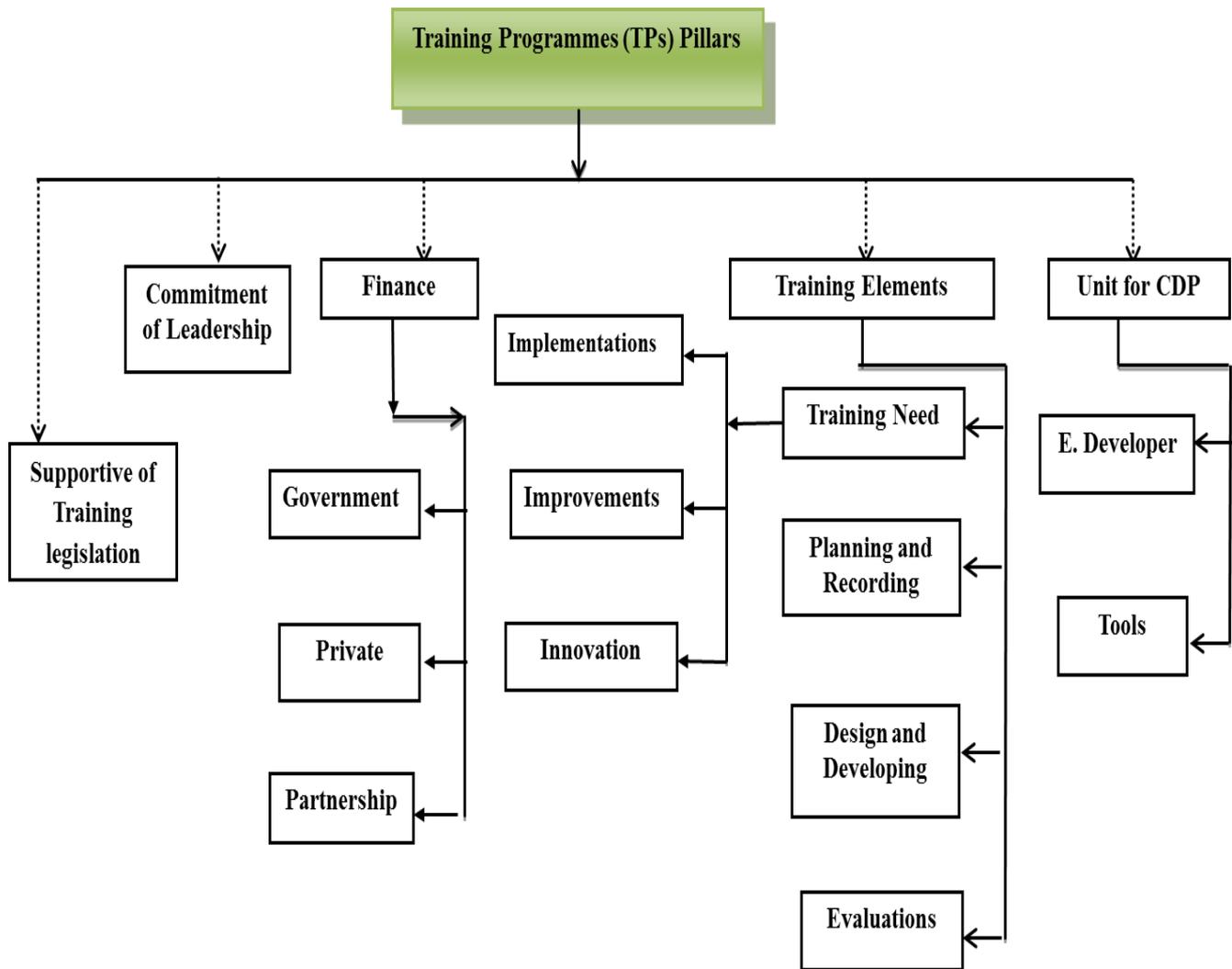


Figure 2.1: the analytical framework for TP Implementation.

2.11 Training Elements (Cycle)

The key elements of the training process are known as the training cycle (Hackett, 2004) (Figure 2.2). This approach identifies that several important steps must occur before the start of training and demonstrates that trainees enter the process late in its progression. Torrington and Hall, (1991) state that the process usually starts with the identification of training needs and concludes with an evaluation.

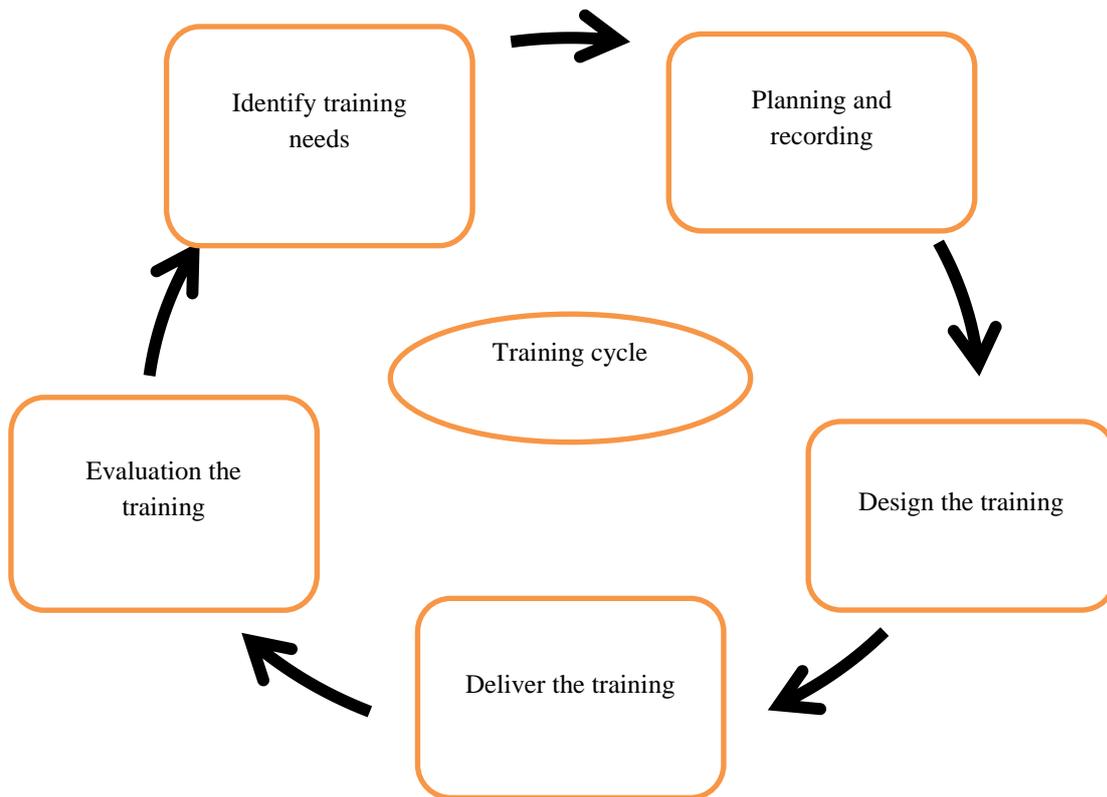


Figure 2.2: Training Cycle

According to Hackett, (2002), training elements enable organisations to create the perfect training for their staff, and these elements are:

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

Simply experiencing a training event can result in learning. Nevertheless, chances are more appropriate when learners are consulted and supported, particularly through the stages of identifying training needs, preparing for training and applying learning post-training.

2.11.1 Training Needs

Training needs are the set of changes and developments to be created in the information, experience and knowledge teachers have, in order to raise their competences and skills, attitudes and behaviour, based on the needs of the required work. Lack of information, skills and attitudes impede the progress of this work. Basically, identify of training needs is fundamental for achievement for training and good performance. The gap between the required and the actual competencies has to be identified in order to determine the kind of training that would help bridge this gap (Asare-Bediako, 2002).

In view of this identification, training needs alone should design the TP. Knowledge of training needs, and priorities is necessary before the planned design, and lack of knowledge leads to the loss of effort and loss of money. However, Boydell & Leary, (1997) introduced a basic framework for understanding training needs; this differentiates three levels of performance that can each be applied to organisations, groups or individuals. These levels of performance are:

1. Implementing –bridging the gap between present and desired performance, measured against existing standards.
2. Improving – to achieve continually rising standards
3. Innovating- achieving something new and better-to produce change.

Table 2.2 displays the organizational, group and individual needs at the three levels of performance.

Table 2.2: Organizational, group and individual needs at the three levels of performance (Adopted from Hackett, 2004).

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

Training equipment, as part of the training process inputs, plays a critical role (Cooper, 1994). The training facility must have flexible and technologically-advanced learning environments that are safe, healthy, comfortable, aesthetically-pleasing, and accessible. It must be able to accommodate the specific space and equipment needs of the TP. In addition, Storr and Hurst, (2001) mention that appropriate library facilities are considered necessary for successful training.

Bimbitsos and Petridou, (2012), De Cenzo and Robins, (1996) and Yaghi, (2008) stress that the media aids used in presenting the training material are basic in designing any TPs. In addition to this, refreshment and breaks should be considered (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2006; Bimptos and Petridou, 2012).

Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, (2006) confirm that a lack of appropriate facilities might cause negative attitudes on the part of trainees which could affect their motivation to learn. Park and Jacobs, (2008) suggest that training providers must offer a training atmosphere that supports and assists the training practice.

2.11.2 Programme Planning and Recording

It is necessary to identify training needs, and to formulate a set of training objectives which take into account specific knowledge, skills, or attitudes that the trainees are to gain as a result of the training activity. According to Armstrong, (2003), if clear objectives are established for a TP, then the programme is likely to succeed.

Similarly, Odiorn, (1970) points out that clarity of objectives avoids misunderstanding and also helps reduce the possibility of gaps in the training programme. According to Smith (1984), Holton and Badwain, (2003) and Alkurdy, (2010), some major objectives of training can be outlined as follows:

- Gaining knowledge of modern educational methods, and enhancing the experiences of an individual to understand their current jobs more effectively, as well as assisting trainers in the area of specialisation, and understanding the issues in education and means to deal with them;
- Developing the potential of the trainees, raising their level of performance in the material, developing their teaching skills and knowledge and increasing the likelihood of creativity and innovation;
- Changing the attitudes of trainees and their behaviour for the better, and introducing them to their roles and responsibilities in the educational process;
- Treating the deficiencies of those who have not been well prepared for their involvement in the profession, and giving training on research and practical growth;
- Providing an opportunity for trainees to know the directions, and modern methods of advanced education, and improving human relations within the work;
- Helping newly graduated teachers to look at the laws and regulations which allow them to face new situations in the field of work.

2.11.3 Programme Design and Developing

According to Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, (2006), after the identification of the TPs has been effectively completed, the next step is to decide how training will be achieved.

Further, Martin, (2010) argues that appropriate implementation of the TP depends on good design. Any programme design should have a component to enhance the instructional skills of the participants and another to impart knowledge and enhance skills in the subject matter.

Yiu and Saner, (2005), Linghame *et al.*, (2006); and Bhatti *et al.*, (2012) suggest that TPs should be designed depending on the nature of the training, and the available resources; trainers are among the key stakeholders who should be involved in the design stage.

Hackett, (2003), discusses the main steps involved in designing a TP and states that “*designing a programme involves identifying relevant competencies, clustering and sequencing them, defining specific learning objectives, determining resources, choosing learning methods and providers, deciding how to monitor, evaluate and setting up an administrative system*”. Franceschini and Terzago, (1998) and El-Hasan, (2006) indicate that training programmes should be well organised, and that this is one of the most important responsibilities of the training provider; the number of participants in TPs is determined by a number of criteria, such as the nature and level of the programme and the training methods used.

Kauffeld and Willenbrock, (2010) agree that the differences in the trainees’ education, experience, levels of skills and capabilities, and other qualifications are factors that affect the programmes and the success of training, and should be considered in the design and implementation of training. Chen *et al.*, (2006) argue that a useful TP needs to use methods of training that can support trainees’ contributions. The factors that shape the choice of TPs depends on an organisation’s training policy, finance, resources available, learning objective to be met, and time.

There is a variety of training methods to choose from. A judicious mix of one or more methods should be implemented to suit each training programme. The important training methods consist of: lecture; discussion; case study; role play; sensitivity training; syndicate; brain storming; computer assisted learning; exercise; business games; in-Basket; on the job training; project work; programmed learning.

The training objectives and the outcome an event seeks to achieve determine the

choice of training method (International Labour Office, 1981). However, Hackett, (2004), Armstrong, (2003), Dessler, (2005) and Gomez-Mejia *et al.*, (2000) consider the types of training that can take place within, or outside an organisation.

The training methods can be generally categorised as either on the job or off the job. On-the-job training is delivered to employees while they perform their regular jobs. Cole, (1997) described an off-the-job location as a training centre which may be on or away from the organisation location. Yaghi, (2008) and Bimbitsos and Petridou, (2012) stress that when designing any training programme, the media aids and equipment used in presenting the training material are crucial and should be taken into consideration. For a comprehensive TP, McNamara, (2008) suggested some topical issues, which are discussed below.

Good communication among the members of a workforce is essential in today's heterogeneous workplaces with diverse languages and customs. Different perspectives and views of different people need to be valued. Harmonious human relations are key in stressful situations in work environments where ideas, opinions and cultures may come into conflict, and training can help in managing this conflict. Issues like sexual harassment, bullying and other inappropriate behaviour have to be eradicated from work environments with training which clarifies the organisation's policies regarding these matters. In the service industry, especially in today's global marketplace with increased competition, a sensitivity to the needs of stakeholders is important. Safety training is also critical in work environments which deal with heavy equipment, hazardous chemicals and repetitive activities that may cause strain or injury, and useful practical advice for avoiding assaults and other aggressive behaviour should also be part of the training provided. Initiatives for quality like Total Quality Management, Quality Circles, benchmarking etc. require basic training about quality concepts, guidelines and standards for quality. Also, as today's diverse workforce brings a wide variety of values and morals to the workplace, training should also include methods to cultivate action and behaviour among members of staff in a way that meets society's increasing expectations, and organisations' resultant policies, about corporate social responsibility. Administrative and clerical tasks require IT skills and these should also have their place in a training agenda. (McNamara, 2008).

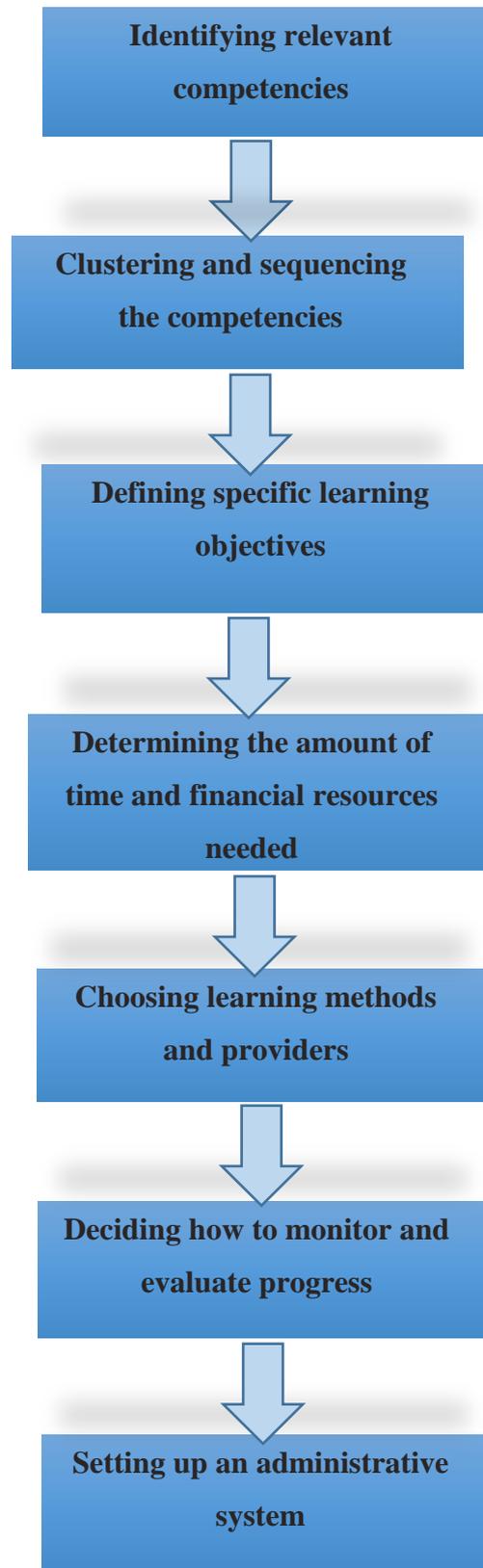


Figure 2.3: Designing a Training Programme

In this regard, Tannenbaum and Yuki, (1992) and, De Cenzo and Robbins, (1996) point out that TPs has to take into consideration the participants' characteristics, training objectives, the existing resources, and the current levels of knowledge regarding the training process.

In addition, Herschbach, (1997) suggests that training organisations need to outline and implement new strategies that will allow them to develop training. Chen *et al.*, (2004), Armstrong, (2003) Yiu and Saner, (2005), Lingham *et al.*, (2006) and Kauffeld and Willenbrock, (2010) agree that trainees' skills levels and educational experience are factors that affect the TPs and its success. Consequently, these should be consider when designing and implementing TPs.

Hornik *et al.*, (2007) and Schraeder, (2009) confirmed that in a training setting, learning may be enriched by flexible design, especially of content, where the definite subjects covered are directed straight to the requirements and interests of participants.

Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, (2008) state that *“that participants' skills and knowledge levels will be improved if the participants comprehend that the content encounters their work requirements”*.

Likewise, Schraeder, (2009) indicates that the training content, hand-outs, and any learning materials should be made available to participants either prior to or during the programme. However, giving the suitable material to participants does not assure the training's success. These materials need to be used properly by participants (Charney and Conway, 2005). Chen *et al.*, (2006) argued that the trainers should select the training methods and determine the training schedule which should be established to meet the needs and desires of the trainees and their organisations and to create the best environment for trainers and their organisations. Bennett and Leduchowicz, (2007), Tennant *et al.*, (2002) and Hackett, (2003) emphasise that training providers are the best judge of how to meet the objectives. When selecting providers, the choice

should be between internal and external sources and the criteria for the choice should be:

- **External providers:**

Reputation/competence: Fit with values; Exclusivity; Cost; Location; Availability.

- **Internal providers:**

Subject expertise; Credibility; coaching skills; Availability; Commitment; Competence in using learning methods.

When working with an external provider you should consider who is going to do what, when and to what standard (Hackett, 2003).

2.11.4 Evaluation of Training Programmes

Evaluation is the process of establishing the value of the training that has been carried out (Hackett, 2003). Training evaluation is a system for measuring changes resulting from training interventions, identifying whether trainees have achieved learning outcomes (Tan *et al.*, 2003). Bimpitsos and Petridou, (2012) confirmed the necessity and the importance of training evaluation, considering it as an integral part of training. There are several main reasons for evaluating TPs. The first one is that evaluation can help to improve future programs by justifying or challenging the training department of any organisation so that this department learns or continues to demonstrably contribute to the organisation's goals. The second reason is to determine whether a program should be continued or discontinued. In addition, evaluation of TPs is used to justify the existence of the training department and its budget. Kirkpatrick, (2006) considers ten factors that should be part of planning and implementing effective TP: first of all training needs have to be determined and objectives set; then the subject content of the training should be determined. Participants have to be chosen according to their training needs and the best schedule that suits their convenience while not compromising the organisation's productivity should be worked out. Appropriate training facilities have to be chosen and appropriate instructors briefed. At this stage, it is also important to think of the audio visual aids required and how the programme

should be co-ordinated. Ways for the participants to evaluate the programme meaningfully should also be worked into the design of the training.

The last factor, the evaluation is the assessing training effectiveness, deals with four levels developed by D. Donald L. Kirkpatrick in 1954. Each level provides valuable information that together creates the effectiveness of a programme:

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

Since Kirkpatrick established his original model, other theorists (for example Jack Phillips), and Kirkpatrick himself have referred to a possible fifth level, namely ROI (Return On Investment). ROI can easily be included in Kirkpatrick's original fourth level, 'Results'. The inclusion of a fifth level is therefore arguably only relevant if the assessment of ROI might otherwise be ignored or forgotten when referring simply to the 'Results' level.

Despite its importance, there is evidence that evaluation of TPs are often inconsistent or missing (McMahon & Carter, 1990; Rossi *et al.*, 1979). Possible explanations for inadequate evaluations include insufficient budget and/or time allocated; lack of expertise; blind trust in training solutions; or lack of methods and tools (McEvoy and Buller, 1990).

2.12 Supportive of Training legislation

TP implementation may be compelled by different sources of pressure. These sources are mostly legislation and regulation. Legislation and Regulation is any rule recognised by government or law designed to control or govern conduct, it generally includes written material containing rules having the force of statute law.

Within the MHE and scientific research, three bodies are in charge for the supervision of and the coordination among HEIs: administration for universities, the National Foundation for Technical & Vocational Education and administration for private education. Additionally, the National Centre for Quality Assurance and Accreditation of Educational and Training Institutes is responsible for the recognition and equivalence of diplomas, accreditation and quality assurance of the public and private HEIs.

Furthermore, and according to Elferjani and Ruddock, (2011), the Libyan government is greatly concerned about education standards and is pursuing measures to raise the quality of HE. Indeed, in the past few years, many arrangements have been made between the Libyan government and universities from different western countries to improve the educational processes in Libyan HEIs.

Furthermore, Alhawat, (2005) and Al-Turbagya, (2005) mention that Libyan HEIs should take into account quality development in their provided activities. This could be realised through training their staff on quality methods and by creating committees for this purpose.

2.13 Leadership Commitment

Leadership has been defined as a process of social influence in which one person can enlist the aid of others in the accomplishment of a common task. Zairi, (1994b) describes leadership as visions, enthusiasm, trust, passion, consistency, the use of symbols, paying attention as illustrated by one's calendar, out-and-out drama creating heroes at all levels, coaching effectively, and many other things.

The quality of the any organisation requires a special type of leadership, which basically encourages empowerment of organisational staff, provides recognition for their efforts, engages in appropriate training, and is committed to developing others (Zairi, 1994b).

The most important factor in the successful implementation of changes in assessment practices is committed leadership. It is essential that the change is led by someone at the top of the organisation with appropriate authority and vision. The commitment of the

leadership helps, guides and coaches the employees, but not to work with elements such as undue pressure and distrust (Kruger, 2001). Davies *et al.*, (2001) state that the role of leadership in HE is to create vision, communicate policy, and deploy strategy throughout HEIs.

Liaw *et al.*, (2007) go further by stating that instructors' leadership is a key factor that affects learners' attitudes to the implementation of TPs. Farnham, (1994) concluded that the lack of leadership in training can cause barriers to training. Implementing TPs requires leadership commitment to developing other people, providing recognition for their efforts, and engaging in appropriate coaching (Zairi, 1994).

It is widely accepted that leadership is important to the success of any organisational change efforts (Darling, 1992). When developing a new training initiative or suggesting a training solution for an individual or a group, it is vital to gain management commitment. Therefore, if leadership fails to understand the need of TPs for AS in HE and their potential to develop a vision and strategy to support and enhance learning, acceptance of TPs would be impossible (Minton, 2000).

Leadership involvement and total participation are essential to lead and facilitate the implementation of TPs. Lack of leadership commitment would result in poor planning, workforce resistance, and failure to change organisational culture (Soltani *et al.*, 2008a). For this, leaders need to be trained and educated for effective leadership.

- **The Role of Leadership**

Davies *et al.* (2001) stated that the role of leadership in HEIs is to build vision, deploy strategy throughout HEIs and communicate policy, while leading others in academic style (Ali and Shastri, 2010). People in top management positions must understand why their HEI should implement TPs for AS and decide where the organisation intends to start the TPs process at the administration level or in a particular discipline.

According to Claver *et al.* (2003), leaders should communicate a quality commitment, encourage employees to implement changes, and trust them to make their own decisions.

Beb Jaber (2010) stated that the recommended practices that should be embraced by top management in order to encourage excellent commitment to total quality management in HEIs are:

1. Setting a strategic vision and communicating this to all employees;
2. Preserving high standards of measurable quality;
3. lead by example in practice' instead of 'modelling the way to improve customer focus;
4. Promoting a culture of continuous improvement;
5. Empowering the employee base by encouraging teamwork, initiatives and individual accomplishments;
6. Recognition of people as the most important asset for achieving high standards of competitive performance. This recognition has to be supported by investment in training and employee development, involvement and participation in decision-making.

2.14 Finance

As stated by Hackett, (2004), the financial aspects of training are a vital factor for implementing any kind of training. These are based on different levels of provision such as: the volume of training, the number of training providers used, the internal training cost and the training department operating as a separate profit unit and charging other departments for its services.

In Libya, HE is completely financed by the Libyan government, except in the case of private universities. As stated by Alfnish *et al.*, (1998), universities prepare their own budget. But, in most cases such budget and decisions are influenced by the general public committee of HE.

Alfnish *et al.* add that this impacts many strategic educational programmes and affects the requirements in universities' infrastructure. Universities' regulations are continuously changed (Al-Teer, 2006). This leads to the disregarding of such regulations among different university sectors. Additionally, Al-Turbagya, (2005) and Alhawati, (2005) declared that Libyan HEIs should take into account quality development in their provided activities.

2.15 Continuing Professional Development (CPD)

Throughout the last decade, there has been an increasing tendency for CPD to be used as an umbrella term for professional learning and development activities, and for this to be linked to either the licence to practise or to professional accreditation. The term CPD is usually used to mean a physical folder or portfolio documenting development as a professional. Some organisations use it to mean a training or development plan (Melanie, 2009). According to Kelly, (2012), CPD means sustaining, improving and broadening relevant knowledge and skills in a subject or vocational specialism, and in teaching and training methods, so that there is a positive effect on practice and learner experience.

CPD also refers to learning activities that develop and maintain capabilities to enable professional accountants to perform competently within their professional environments and support people in the workplace to understand more about the environment in which they work, the job they do, and how to do it better.

CPD can be part of an individual's personal desire to be a better practitioner, to enhance their career prospects or to simply feel more confident about their work and make it more personally fulfilling. It can be a step on the ladder to higher qualifications or enhanced job prospects or be required by professional bodies to sustain professional status. It can be part of meeting targets set by workforce performance management schemes or an opportunity for individuals to change their career paths. It is considered as a career-long process of developing and updating the skills, abilities and competencies of staff by regular in-service training and education, supported by external courses (Prytherch, 2005).

In a more general professional context, it is the systematic maintenance, improvement and increase of knowledge and skills and the development of individual qualities essential for the execution of professional and technical duties throughout the practitioner's working life.

In most developed countries, and widely in Europe, teachers in HE are not required to hold accredited teaching qualifications either by statute, standard or convention. Academics are taught with insufficient professional development in the area of teaching and learning in higher education and without formal teaching qualifications (Parsons *et al.*, 2010). However, according to the requirement established in the White Paper 'The Future of HE' (2003), from 2006, all new teaching staff should achieve a teaching qualification that incorporates professional teaching standards (DfES, 2003, Gibbs and Coffy, 2004).

Weimer, (2001) notes that most faculties are unfortunately still not adequately prepared to teach, although many national policies encourage better training for the teaching role. Traditionally, university teaching was deferred in favour of research, and HE institutions were judged based on their research endeavours. Promotion and reward structures were clearly similar to this. Developing teaching expertise usually takes second place, due not only to the institutional structures and reward systems, but also to individual choice (Bucklow and Clark, 2000).

Staff development must be viewed as a comprehensive and continuous process of personal growth and self-actualisation within the context of organisational growth and improvement (Shroyer, 1990). So the activities designed to enhance the knowledge, skills and understanding of teachers that lead to change in their thinking and classroom behaviour are called staff development. Teachers have an essential role in improving the quality and efficiency of the educational system, for which in-service training programmes of high quality are vital. Teachers cannot do justice to their job unless they continue to grow, update their knowledge of content, as well as the techniques of teaching (Kakkar, 1996). Besides, these programmes will emphasise the achievement of

practical skills that can be applied in actual classroom situations. One of the major thrust areas identified in the education sector reforms was to improve the quality of teacher education and training at a higher level (Libyan MHE, 2012).

However, CPDs suffer from a disadvantage that does not affect most other central units. Many staff, and indeed most students, does not understand what educational development is, because it is a rather new field (Bath and Smith, 2004) and to some extent its purposes and boundaries are still being debated within the educational development community (Martensson and Roxa, 2005).

2.15.1 Characteristics of successful unit of CPD

Gosling, (2008) summarises ten important features of a successful educational development unit (CPD) as follows:

- Sensitivity to institutional and disciplinary cultures.
- Responsiveness to changing circumstances, shifting needs of students and staff.
- Capacity to work with all categories of staff who impact on learning as students and management.
- Ability to work collaboratively with individuals and groups within teaching departments.
- A variety of strategies on funding, schedule, promotion criteria, publications and networks.
- Principles to communicate to the institution to decide on competing demands and establish priorities.
- Good communication systems with all the sections of the university, using different types of publications, a website and e-mail lists.
- Use of language that is understood by all.
- Resources to achieve the task, the most important being the team of staff employed in the unit with effective leadership.
- Effective in its complex and political role
- Continual critical self-evaluation, involving staff and students in giving feedback on its policies and activities?

2.16 Training Benefits

McNamara, (2008) lists the following as general benefits from employee training:

- Increased capacity to adopt new technologies and methods;
- Increased job satisfaction and morale;
- Increased motivation;
- Increased efficiencies in processes, resulting in financial gain;
- Increased innovation in strategies and products;
- Reduced employee turnover.

Smith and Hayton, (1999) adds that there should be more benefits from employee training such as improving the adaptability and flexibility of the work done, satisfying the need for new skills or knowledge that arises from investment in new technology, and encouraging professionalism and effective practice that recognises the specific needs of different disciplines and specialities.

To be effective, TPs also need to be proactive and strategic in context with appropriate evaluation mechanisms (Tennant *et al.*, 2002). Cassell *et al.*, (2002) agree with this view, and Patton and Marlow, (2002) propose that training support should be targeted at the perceived needs of managers so as to be able to address specific problems. Managers and employees are no longer interested in TPs that are completely disconnected from their jobs (Terrion, 2006). One survey by Farris *et al.*, (2003), mentions that managers expressed a desire to attend more training.

Hence the provision of training can also help develop employee confidence, increase motivation and enhance job satisfaction. This is only a partial listing of the several benefits that result from training. Training that is appropriate to the needs of an organisation can add great value.

2.17 Training Barriers

According to Harrison, (2000) and Byrne *et al.*, (2002) there are a number of barriers to carrying out effective training that emerge from within the organisation, and from

outside the organisation. Training may be insufficiently supported due to lack of organisational structure and due to management failures in training the trainers within the organisation. There could be problems related to resistance to change within the organisation and in managing the gaps in skills of the trainee cohort. Cultural and social influences and government training interventions can often compromise the aims of the TP.

2.18 Chapter Summary

The literature review in this chapter discussed the perspectives on TPs and related issues. These include: the definitions; development of TPs; distinction between teachings and learning; and TPs worldwide and in the Arab world, as well as in UK Universities. The chapter has also provided a review of the professional qualifications in teaching and learning, like PGCHE. TPs in LUs were also discussed. In addition to this, the discussion included the general conceptual detail for the training process (training pillars), training elements (cycle), training needs, evaluation of TPs, training legislation, leadership commitment, finance and CPD. The chapter has also provided a review of the training benefits and training barriers. This literature review addresses the first two objectives of this research in addition to providing a framework for enhancing the research findings by re-analysing them. The next chapter introduces the Libyan context in which this research mainly takes place.

CHAPTER THREE

THE LIBYAN CONTEXT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce foundational and contextual issues of this research, including a background of Libya, the country in which the study is conducted, as this has bearing on the implementation of the TPs for AS in LUs.

The first section is a brief review of Libya, covering the geography, religion and politics, while the second section provides a general background of the Libyan education system (LES) with particular reference to Libyan higher education (LHE) and HE policies. The challenges facing LHE and an overview of the University of Tripoli (UoT) are also included. The third section is a brief review of the impact of ICT in LHEs and E-learning as a training tool for AS in developing their knowledge and skills. These are aspects which have a bearing on the interpretation of the findings of the study.

3.2 The State of Libya: General Overview

With effect from September 2011, the United Nations recognised the country's change of name from "Libyan Arab Jamahiriya" to "Libya" in November 2011, the international Organization for Standardization (ISO) altered the name officially to "Libya" (ISO, 3166-1, 2011).

Located in North Africa, Libya's borders are: the Mediterranean Sea to the north; Egypt to the east; Tunisia and Algeria to the west; and Chad, Niger and Sudan to the south. Libya is the fourth largest country in the African continent, and is about seven times the size of the UK, with a total land mass of 1,760 thousand square kilometres (see Figure 3.1), making it the 17th largest nation in the world in terms of land mass. Nearly half of Libya's population is under the age of 25 (UKTI, 2011). There are 1.7 million students, over 270,000 of whom study at higher education level (Hamdy, 2007). Being geographically closest to Europe (in comparison with most other countries of Africa), Libya is considered have a strategic location politically.

The majority of the population lives in the North, and a vast portion of the country is covered by the Sahara Desert. The official language of Libya is Arabic, and in the major cities, both Italian and English can be understood. A vast majority of Libyan Muslims adhere to Sunni Islam, which provides both a spiritual guide for individuals and a keystone for government policy. The population is 5.6 million (General Census of People, 2012), which is considered a small number in proportion to the country's area. This number also includes tens of thousands of non-citizens who have migrated to the country in search of work opportunities, particularly after the discovery of oil and due to the attractive offers provided to foreign professionals, especially at the universities and higher education institutions (Hanley & Mayfield, 2001). However, the density of population in Libya is one of the world's lowest, with only 3.6 people on average living in every square kilometre of Libyan territory (9.4 people on average per square mile) thus most of the population must live in the coastal areas, in particular, on the north-eastern and north-western coasts.

Libya is the 8th least densely populated country among 192 countries". Some Libyan people speak English, Italian and French. According to the CIA World Fact Book, (2012), about 5% of the population speaks both Arabic and the Berber language. The Libyan economy is dominated by the petroleum industry and Libya's total GDP was US\$ 93, 16701,863 billion (World Bank, 2005).

3.3 Libyan Revolution 17th of February

During Gaddafi's regime (when he ruled the country for 42 years) there was no constitution in the country and the freedom of the press was not protected. As a result, the country had one of the worst records in the Arab world as regards the freedom of the press.

As a result of the widespread movements that overturned the regimes of Tunisia and Egypt, Libya's immediate neighbours to the west and the east, Libya experienced a full-fledged revolt which began on 17th February, 2011. Currently Libya is undergoing political reconstruction, and is governed under an interim constitution drawn up by the National Transitional Council (NTC) (Gritten, 2011).

NTC declared the country to be officially liberated from Gadhafi's regime and pledged to turn Libya into democratic state. One of the major challenges facing the new authorities is the Militia of armed groups - some of whom originated during the anti-Gaddafi rebellion, others newly arisen - who have defied attempts to disarm them, and have caused concerns about the prospects for stabilisation.

The most important goals of diverse Arab Spring protests are improved material conditions and basic rights and freedoms (Moore, 2013). These protests have been described by (Brahimi, 2011) as 'post-ideological protest'. In this context during the Arab Spring, Libyan students demanded educational rights, better quality in education, a greater voice in HE governance, less crowded campuses and reduced political interference in university affairs (Altbach, 2011; Anderson, 2012).

After 17th of February, 2011, there has been an increased awareness of HE in Libya and in prescriptions (of the decision maker in MHE, Vice Chancellor and AS in the UoT) for how the sector can assist in the transition of Libyan society. Moreover, the objectives of the LHES stress the importance of developing new ways to supporting the HE sector and the individual capacities. There has been more focus on the improving academic quality and producing market-relevant skills and knowledge (Hamdan, 2011). Furthermore, HE has been held to be a productive sector for long term strategic investment to produce knowledge and innovation driven economies necessary for stimulating jobs and diversifying away from the dependence on oil (Milton, 2013).



Figure 3.1: Map of Libya, source: (<http://www.mapsofworld.com/libya>, 2014)

3.4 Overview on Education and Higher Education system in Libya

3.4.1 Education System in Libya

Education is an effective tool for human development leading to social and economic development (Al-Badree, 2011). When investigating an HEL, it is appropriate to describe briefly all of the educational levels prior this level. The LE includes five stages as indicated in Figure 4. All levels of education have two semesters per year.

- **Primary School**

Libya is among those countries in the Arab region that can boast of a track record of almost 100 per cent school enrolment and basic school completion for boys and girls, and is thus pursuing the international goal of education for All (Braun and Jones, 2013).

The first nine years of education (the first 6 of which are called primary school) are compulsory, and free to every child in Libya. These nine years are known as basic education, and children enrol at the age of 6.

- **Middle School**

The final 3 years of basic education take place in middle school. Upon completion, a basic education certificate may be awarded.

- **Secondary School**

Three years of secondary school, following middle school, complete the Libyan general schooling cycle; where students may choose between science and arts to prepare to go on to university. Successful students can obtain the secondary school certificate.

After secondary school, students may choose between science and arts to study at university level. They can enrol at one of the universities in Libya. Secondary education options have always existed for a vast majority of young people, usually followed by a university degree.

- **Vocational Education**

Vocational education programmes are available to students who do not complete their 9 years of basic education, although they may also receive some coaching in vocation skills during the basic education period. Over 44 programmes are available in fields as diverse as electrical & mechanical work, building & carpentry, architecture, agriculture and fishing, and even in what are referred to locally as female vocations.

From primary to university level, Libya's national curriculum is now being cleansed of Gaddafi's far-reaching influence. But elsewhere that, early childhood development and pre-primary education need attention: the 2011 Global Monitoring Report of the (UNESCO) illustrated that the gross enrolment ratio in pre-primary education in 2006 was just 9 per cent for both girls and boys. Routine data from the Ministry of Education suggest good progress in access to basic education but with problems related to quality.

During the 2011 conflict, around 33 per cent of schools were destroyed and 24 per cent were used for military or humanitarian aid purposes.

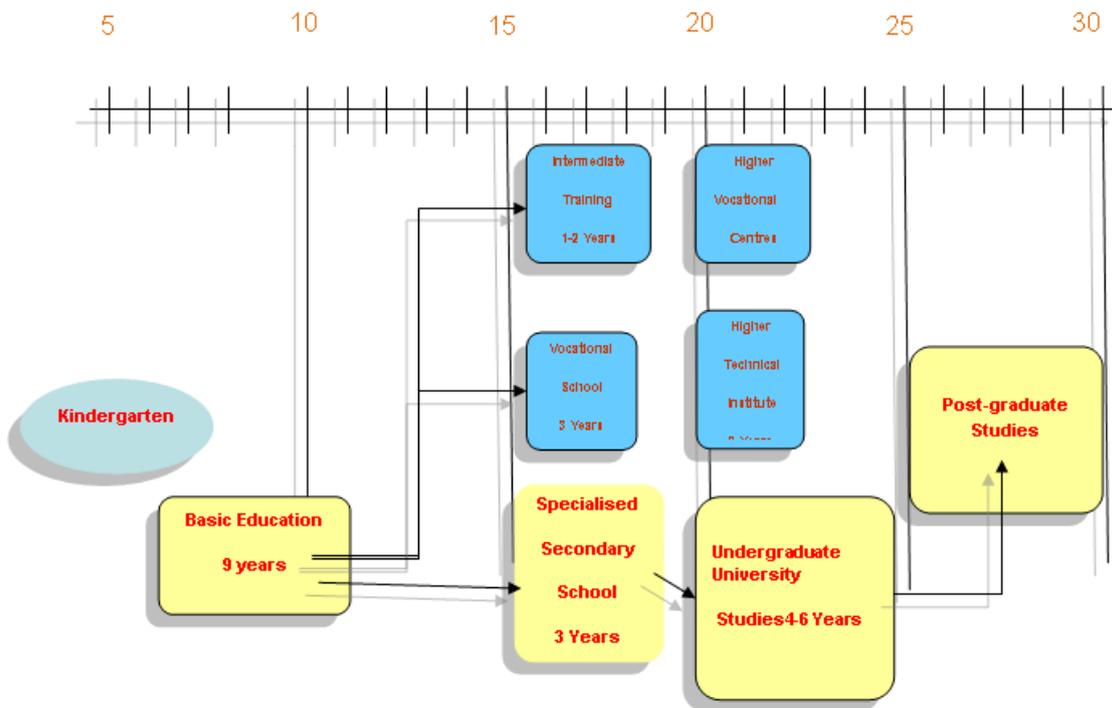


Figure 3.2: The Libyan Educational System. Adapted from Porter & Yergin (2006)

3.4.2 Higher Education System (LHES)

The term HE is usually used to indicate the studies undertaken beyond secondary education. However, UNESCO, (1998) has this definition:

“Higher education includes all types of studies, training or training for research at the post-secondary level, provided by universities or other educational establishments that are approved as institutions of higher education by the competent state authorities.”

Higher education in Libya is provided by both general and specialised universities, polytechnics, higher education institutes and teacher training colleges. After finishing specialised secondary education, a student enrolls in one of the university faculties which suits the specialisation they got a certificate in or they enrolls in a teachers'

training college that qualifies him/her to teach in secondary education in his/her field of specialisation. HE plays an important role in society since it creates new knowledge through research, transfers it to students, and promotes creativity and innovation. As the concern of this research are the universities and other HEIs, it is necessary to explain that the term university as used in this thesis refers to all post-secondary education institutions offering academic or vocational qualifications. The insight that teaching is essential to impart knowledge and skills to students, is consistent with the definition of university as a collection of colleges at which students study for degrees and do academic research. Teaching and research can be considered the most fundamental features of a university (Milton, 2013). Several universities worldwide are not geared towards research; most universities are primarily teaching institutions. In many developing countries the model of a combined teaching and research university is even less common (Altbach, 2009).

In recent years, there has been an increased interest in the HE sector in Libya. LHE falls consists of two sectors; public and private. The public sector started in 1951, but private sector involvement in HE is more recent; this sector was invited by the Libyan authority to join the education system in the late 1990s.

During the colonial era which straddled two centuries (1551- 1951), HE in Libya was not almost non-existent (Alshaikh, 1972). There was also a severe lack of educational institutions to supply human resources. Alhawat *et al.*, (2004) indicate that one of the legacies of the Turkish and Italian colonisation of Libya is this educational backwardness from which Libyan society still suffers.

After Libyan country achieved its political autonomy in 1951, there was no infrastructure and policy for building a HE system in the country. However, over the past few decades this unfortunate situation has changed significantly. Following independence in 1951, the country felt an extensive need for qualified people to run government and social institutions. In 1951 fewer than 10 Libyans had university degrees, and there were only four secondary schools with a total of 25 teachers all over the country. Only male students attended these secondary schools.

The first College of Arts and Education was founded in 1955, to form in the city of Benghazi, with only 33 male students. There was another branch of the University in Tripoli. The two universities were renamed Benghazi University and Tripoli University respectively, in 1962. Libyan HE underwent rapid expansion, in particular during the late 1960s and 1970s. After Qaddafi's 1969 coup, enrolment increased from 3,000 to 8,200 in 1972. During 1970-80 the system expanded from one to eleven universities and from four to fifteen technical colleges (Elzalatni, 2008).

The early 1970s saw the establishment of the faculties of medicine, Islamic and Arabic studies, petroleum engineering and mineralogy in Benghazi and Tripoli. New universities were established in different parts of the country in order to meet the increasing economic and social demands and changes which the country was undergoing, and to adapt to the rise in the number of students at university level. The expansion process described above continued from the 1970s until the 2000s leading to considerable enrolment growth.

In 1999, there were 14 universities with a total of 90 faculties. Additionally, by 1998, 51 vocational and higher technical institutes were established. Higher education in 2004 contained of seven main universities, three universities of a specialised nature and 15 "departmental universities". They were disseminated among the country's administrative districts in addition to 65 higher technical and vocational centres. The National Report of the Great Libyan Jamahiriya, (2008) outlined the development of Higher Education in Libya which includes the establishment of 24 university compounds over a four-year period from 2008-2012 to meet the demand of increasing student enrolments.

In 2012, HEIs comprised of 12 universities with a total of 160 faculties, 81 higher technical and vocational centres and 16 technical faculties and five private universities. The number of universities changed frequently due to mergers and separations. Furthermore, universities were affected by changing sub-national governance as shifts in administrative units subjected universities to different regional authorities. One

explanation for Libya's unstable university governance is weak strategic planning with ministerial changes (Milton, 2013)

The overall responsibility for education in Libya lies with the MHE, which was called the General People's Committee of Higher Education (GPCHE) during the last regime. The HEIs also come under the control of the state authority. MHE shares responsibility with local education committees that control the education programmes within their geographical area. The MHE controls all the committees in the country and its HE departments (Rhema & Miliszewska, 2010).

After the Libyan revolution 2011, which saw the removal of the Gaddafi system, the task of renovation and improving higher education has been proceeding. Both the initial interim transitional leadership and the recently elected parliament called the General National Congress (GNC) have indicated their desire to move the country's education system forward (Clark, 2013).

In 2009, the massive new scholarship programmes that have been announced by Deputy Minister of Higher Education stated that 5,692 students and 2,004 AS members would be sent abroad, while a 3,616 students would go to foreign universities to complete their higher studies and to gain the competence train faculty and develop language learning and technical training in the country. Libya is also developing information technology infrastructures to better connect universities, build distance-learning capabilities, and provide access to academic research databases (Clark, 2013).

3.4.3 Objectives of LHE

From the time of the establishment of the HE sector in Libya, each institution has been determining its goals, which vary from one educational institution to another. The LUs witnessed fundamental changes after the revolution of 17th February, 2011, and public universities are now autonomous to some extent.

The aims of HE, as stated in the draft law of universities (Clark, 2013; Al-Akkari, 2014), is that universities should become a scientific body specialising in all matters

relating to HE and provide the country with specialists in all disciplines to contribute to progress and to develop the nation and its future. Their duties are to be as follows:

- Linking education with the requirements of the governmental plans for economic and social development.
- Expanding graduate studies and of educational scholarships to specialist graduates in order to strengthen the academic staff and provide specialists needed by the country's labour market.
- Giving more attention to conducting scientific research.
- Working on strengthening relationships and links with cultural and scientific bodies and with corresponding scientific institutions in the country and abroad.

Another potential goal of higher education is to provide educational opportunities for the rehabilitation of scientific competence and professionalism in various disciplines, as well as to contribute to solving scientific and technical problems through research studies for the development of the community and the achievement of HE targets.

3.4.4 The growth of student number in LHEIs

Libyan HE started with 33 male students. Its student number increased from 19,315 in the academic year 1980-1981 to 165,447 in the academic year 1998-1999, reaching 279,150 in 2006-2007 and 324,506 in 2009-2010, including foreign students (The National Committee for Libyan Universities, 2010).

In the late 1990s, the Libyan authorities invited the private sector to play a role in the nation's education system. As a result of the growing number of university students, and the pressure on the public budget, Libya's higher education policy changed to allow the local administration and the private sector to collaborate in different parts of country for establishing university colleges and higher education institutes. Thus more than 1,000 privately funded primary and secondary schools and other institutions have been established. Furthermore, the private sector has created more than 30 private universities that provide education in all disciplines (Rhema and Miliszewsk, 2010). The local administration manages financial resources for its higher education

institutions from local community sources; in the case of the private sector, the state assumes no financial duties at all. Private higher education institutes must be entirely financed by individual or group investors (El-Hawat, 2003).

3.4.5 Higher Education Policies in Libya

The LHEIs have become the attention of the government's strategy in further recent years (El-Hawat, 1996 and 2003; Gannous, 1999). Consequently, during the 1990s, a network of Public Higher Vocational Education and Training Colleges was set up. The Libyan authorities are acutely aware of the need to increase the quality and standards in universities (Al-Akkari, 2014). At the first Ordinary Meeting of the National Universities' Committee of the National Authority for Scientific Research (NASR) held on 15th April 2010, the General Secretary announced that the forthcoming university academic year should be the year of quality in Libyan universities. This was also to include 'opening the door' to allow Libyans to integrate with the global community, in ways such as providing Libyan students with the opportunity to continue their studies abroad.

However, LUs are currently facing problems such as student overcrowding, continually changing laws, and leadership and organisational issues (like re-merging of the universities). The Libya has expressed its intention to improve the HE sector particularly regarding the technology available.

The National Planning Council (NPC), which is the executive arm of the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research (MoHESR), reported in 2007 that the focal aim of Libya's higher education policies is to strengthen the role of ICT in society in general and in LUs in particular.

Due to the influence of international demands and standards, this inspired the Libyan government to establish the New Higher Education Policy Reform (NHEPR) between 2008-2012 in an attempt to increase the quality of HE and its treatment of economic, social, scientific and technological challenges. One of the NHEPR aims is to increase people's knowledge by using ICT to support continuous learning. One of the strategies to provide new knowledge to people is via research (Abodher, 2013).

Recently, after Libya's parliamentary elections in 2012 and the establishment of a new government, the new representatives announced a vision for the future of LHE. The aim is to create world class universities that would help diversify Libya's economy and change Libya into a hub of academic achievement. Supported by significant oil resources to help it achieve their aim, these new reforms show a candid understanding of the long-term effort required to make change. Improvements in Libya's higher education system would usher in job growth, decrease reliance on foreign expertise in technical sectors and increase Libya's chances to become a HE hub for the region (Hollings Center Higher Education Development Libya Dialogue Snapshot, 2014).

According to Hamdy (2007), the NHEPR 2008-2012 objectives for Libyan education are: to increase the quality at each level or stage of education over ICT by adopting modern teaching techniques; developing open and distance learning as well as continuing education; encouraging and supporting the scientific and academic community to involve in research activities that have an actual impact on, and benefit to, the country; and encouraging and enhancing the profile of Libyan HEIs.

The organisation of the Libyan public university sector was teaching-oriented and attention was essentially on teaching. The UoT currently has strategies to become a research-oriented university, since it realised that by being a research-oriented university it will be able to contribute more significantly to the country a teaching-oriented university can (Abodher, 2013).

3.4.6 Challenges in LHE

Libya faces substantial challenges as it makes the transition to democracy and begins the process of building a new, post-Gaddafi nation. Libya has had phenomenal growth in the last few years. The education sector has witnessed huge changes. This growth has not been without its challenges. One of the most important building blocks will be higher education, and while there currently exist more opportunities for the advancement of the tertiary system than have been seen in over a generation, there also exist significant hurdles (El-Hawat, 2009). These challenges include a lack of empirical

research, reliance on expatriate academics and under-preparedness of students entering the HE sector.

El-Hawat, (2009) points out some major challenges and needs, which could have an impact on HE in the near future.

These challenges include:

1. Meeting the increased demands for quality improvement in higher education.
2. Raising the quality of graduates and their ability to take personal career initiatives.
3. Lack of TPs of AS which impact the quality of the HE system.
3. Accreditation and quality assurance of higher education institutions and programmes.
4. Finance and governance of higher education institutions.
5. Increasing the use of IT in higher education institutions.
6. Strengthening scientific research in HEIs.

In an empirical study relating to an evaluation of the AS in LUs, it was found that there is a necessity for knowledge and skills and development of the personal qualities in LUs (Lowjely *et al.*, 2010). Furthermore, the Deputy of Ministry of Libyan Higher Education argue that the challenges Libya faces are very big as the country has inherited 40 years of destruction. The destruction has affected not only buildings and facilities but also the minds and the educational standard of the country (Al-Akkari, 2014).

3.4.7 Academic Staff

Faculty or academic staff in a university consists of senior lecturers, lecturers, and researchers. The term is most used in this context in the US and Canada, and generally includes Professors of various ranks: assistant professors, associate professors, and (full) professors, usually tenured in terms of their contract of employment. AS are required to hold a Masters or Ph.D. degree from recognised institutions. In Libyan Universities, faculty members are required to hold a Masters or Ph.D. degree from institutions recognised by Ministry of the Higher Education

The following ranks are used for faculty members in LUs (El- Hawat, 2004) :

- Instructor: The highest rank for faculty members holding a Master's degree, but who have less than four years' experience in teaching HE and no published work to their credit.
- Lecturer: The highest rank for faculty members holding a Ph.D. degree and the second highest for Master's degree holders with four years' experience as an instructor and at least one published work to their credit.
- Assistant Professor: EITHER faculty members with a Ph.D. degree, three years of experience as lecturer and at least three pieces of published work to their credit, OR faculty members with a Master's degree, four years of experience as lecturer and at least three pieces of published work.
- Associate Professor: EITHER faculty members with a Ph.D. degree, four years of experience as assistant professor and at least four pieces of published work OR faculty members with a Master's degree, six years of experience as assistant professor and at least five pieces of published work.
- Professor: Faculty members with a PhD degree, four years of experience as associate professor and at least five pieces of published work.

At university level, academic staff are appointed by the university chancellor based on the recommendations by the concerned department and faculty. Appointments in technical colleges, higher institutions and scientific research centres are made by the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research (MHE and SR) based on recommendations of the National Authority for Scientific Research. In private higher institutions, academic staff are appointed on a contract basis for one semester, one year or longer (European Commission, 2012).

In 1956 the total number of academic staff was six (Alshakshoki, 2006). Nonetheless, since then the number has increased significantly over the past few decades. It rose from 1,629 in 1982 to 2,409 in 1988 (Bubtana & Sarakbi, 1992) and in 1999 this number rose to 10,362 of which 5,077 (45%) were non-Libyan (Gannous, 1999). The MHE in Libya expect that the number of academic staff will increase to 20,000 during the year 2011-2012 due to the higher education sector plan for the period 2008-2012 (PANA, 2007).

Although almost 50 years have passed since the initiation of the HEIs in the country, there are still too few graduate students with the competence to satisfy the urgent human resource needs of the country, mean they are all not properly equipped with knowledge or practical experience in spite of having a degree certificate (Albadri, 2011).

It appears that dearth of teaching staff members (in addition to the fact that the Libyan HEIs are incapable of producing enough qualified lecturers) may also be attributed to the loss of qualified and capable professionals to other countries. As in lots of other developing countries, this problem has become more of a critical issue in Libya. This recent situation may be attributed to a number of different reasons: for instance poor working conditions, low job satisfaction etc. Such conditions have possibly persuaded a significant number of qualified staff members in different fields to move to other countries.

According to El-Kikhiya's, (2003) evaluation, about 5% of the total of Libyan academics left the country looking for better opportunities outside the country. This is obviously an important issue but there has been little discussion about it and there is a lack of data in this area. It is obvious that the increase in student enrolment without an equal increase in staff number has contributed to an increase in the number of students in proportion to staff. The number of students per a faculty member in HE in Libya is higher than anywhere else in the world.

This increase in the number of HEIs can be attributed to the increase in oil revenues which gave Libya the opportunity to accelerate the process of education development, as well as to the restructuring and reform of the educational system in 1980 under what has been known as the New Educational Structure Plan. However, it can be observed that this number of universities is excessive for a population as small as Libya's (a population of 6,461,454 million according to The World Fact Book, July 2010). Educational planners have suggested one million inhabitants as the lower threshold for establishing a university (Alfaidy and Ibrahim, 1997).

The lack of training results in teachers using traditional “chalk and talk” methods which do not help students learn how to think; this also leads to difficulties in accepting and adopting e-learning (Mapuva, 2009).

In spite of the increase in expenditure by the Libyan National Education Department there are limitations to what can be achieved. AS face challenges such as lack of motivation, lack of leadership skills, poor management skills, old fashioned teaching methods, lack or scarcity of training in teamwork and limited language and IT capabilities (Akkari, 2014).

Teachers, for instance, have little experience of modern educational methods for implementing strategies to build skills and to engage students in thinking, analysis and technology use. Jamil and Som, (2007) claim that to fill such gaps, appropriate training must be identified through research, delivered in stages and the outcomes evaluated to ensure that training needs have been met.

Teachers should be helped to understand how educational technology can inform and improve pedagogy and, as a result, contribute to improved student performance (UNESCO, 2005a). Academic staff and students in Libya are generally not conscious of the potential of the resources and the support that can they obtain via an e-learning or web environment. Rhema and Miliszewska (2010) have expressed the view that the lack of adequate awareness of instructive technology is common among educators and students in Libyan higher education institutions.

To adopt and implement TPs for AS, it is necessary to continuously provide lecturers with confidence and skills through training (Mapuva, 2009; Akkari, 2014). Teachers should be encouraged to continuously build up their experience and innovate in developing technological capabilities (Danwa and Wenbin, 2010).

According to Linvill, (2014), academic faculty development centres should be founded to improve the quality of the LUs in general and the AS in particular. Such centres would help as a resource for AS who wish to improve pedagogical practices and teaching skills. Through these centres, Libyan institutions could engage with their own faculty as well as with the international community. There is currently a great deal of

global goodwill for Libyan educators, but there are limited means of translating that goodwill into practical support. Centres for faculty development at Libyan institutions could serve as points of contact and a means of facilitating international engagement at the local level.

3.4.8 The Impact of ICT in LHES (training tool)

The impacts of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the higher education sector have increased the awareness of many staff members about the need to improve teaching and learning. This has led to the development of new teaching strategies to accompany new technology. (Rhema and Miliszewska, 2011).

Online learning is one outcome of the rapid improvements in ICT. At its most basic, it provides students with better access to traditional learning materials. But online learning offers much more, as it can enhance learning processes and teaching experiences by offering new learning strategies. One of the most significant of these technological improvements is e-learning, which has expanded opportunities for when and where learning takes place (Benson and Samarawickrema, 2007; Yucel, 2006). There are a variety of definitions of e-learning. For Sun, et al. (2008), e-learning is simply “the use of telecommunication technology to deliver information for education and training”.

Yucel, (2006) defines e-learning slightly more restrictively as “a web-based educational system on a platform with Internet, Intranet or computer access”. Luckin, *et al.* (2006) emphasise the role of internet technology in allowing interactive and collaborative learning. This style of learning provides students with the resources to become more independent (Khine, 2003). The advantages of enhanced communication between students and lectures are mentioned by Mapuva (2009).

In developed countries also, a technological revolution is reshaping the way that education is organised and delivered, and transforming the ways university services are delivered to students. However, the impact of technologies differs in developed and developing countries. Teachers in developing countries are often unable to access new technologies. Indeed “there are a number of challenges that face universities in

developing countries as they seek to implement the e-learning systems” (Sife et al., 2007).

The adaptation of technology on its own cannot improve the learning experience of students. Agostinho, (2006) argues that even in developed countries teachers are faced with the challenge of reviewing their teaching practices and improving and implement learning design for teaching with technology. One of the difficulties for HEIs is to develop an understanding of how to balance the demands of technology against the need for strong pedagogy (Harper *et al.*, 2001).

Libya has begun to address the issue of national development and has developed an information technology infrastructure plan which seeks to support the rapidly developing information technology market and enhance education. There is a need to design new curricula specifically for an e-learning setting (Andersson and Grönlund, 2009) which combines interesting learning interactions with attractive designs to improve learning and motivation. Libyan educational developers lack the experience necessary to develop curricula and pedagogies for e-learning. These developments require the contribution of academic expertise and support from educational developers experienced in e-learning (Rhema & Miliszewska, 2010). So the growing demand among learners for improved accessibility and convenience, lower costs, and direct application of content to work settings is radically changing the environment for higher education in the Libya and globally.

Organisational changes and new developments are being fuelled by accelerating advances in digital communications and learning technologies that are sweeping the world. Rising demand for learning, combined with these technical advances, is in fact a critical pressure point for challenging the dominant assumptions and characteristics of existing traditionally organised universities in the 21st century. Universities are experimenting with improving accessibility to existing programs, designing new programs to take advantage of these emerging technologies, and marketing their programs to new audiences and in new ways.

The national policy for ICT in education was announced in 2005 and is mainly managed by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Vocational Training, with the participation and support of other entities such as the General Postal and Telecommunication Company and Libya Telecom and Technology. The policy in general aims at enabling access to ICT through the provision of computers and the internet. This is planned for the short term and there are some signs that the policy is being followed up and implemented.

The door has been opened in Libya for public-private partnerships. There is huge scope for collaboration between the government and the private sector, as Libya is still new to technology in terms of its ability to run large-scale ICT programmes.

The government is determined to provide tools and ICT skills on a large scale to all sectors of the country. The UNDP is playing a vital role in laying the groundwork for the ICT policy implementation.

The policy in its early stages aims to improve the quality of education through ICT by adopting modern educational techniques and methods, urging the scientific community to engage in more research, encouraging the private sector to invest in higher and specialist education, and developing open and distance learning as well as continued education.

Each sector of education (i.e., general education, higher education, and vocational education with training) is designated to a ministry. The ministries also co-operate with each other in matters that are linked to one another (Libya Country Report, 2007).

3.4.9 E-learning

E-learning is the use of electronic media, educational technology and information and communication technologies (ICT) in education. It is an important tool for TPs. However, teaching staff play a significant role in the effective delivery of e-learning as a training tool (Sherry, 2001). With the increasing interest in e-learning as a beneficial

educational method for students and teacher at different educational levels, the opportunity to take online classes is becoming increasingly important.

Many staff members of higher level institutions are incapable of changing how they teach, due to their inability to use technology or the lack of institutional support to organize technology enabled learning (Sausner; 2004). The significant use of technology (e-learning) is to increase the knowledge of learners, and to improve learning and performance outcomes (Kenan *et al.*, 2014). Staff involved in arranging e-learning programmes must have the skills to support the collaborative process between learners and encourage them to work as a team (McFadzean and McKenzie, 2001).

Luckin, et al. (2006) emphasise the role of internet technology in allowing interactive and collaborative learning. This style of learning provides students with the resources to become more independent (Khine, 2003). Sife et al. (2007, p. 57) recommend the educational possibilities of e-learning to complement to the traditional way of teaching (i.e. face-to-face).

In developed countries a technological revolution is reshaping the way that education is organised and delivered, and transforming the ways university services are delivered to students. However, the impact of technologies differs in developed and developing countries. In developed economies e-learning and the web have become a significant medium for providing distance learning and support for student learning, with students attracted to the use of diverse media, such as audio, graphics, text, and video (Ali, 2003; Khine, 2003). These technological developments add pressure on educators to integrate ICT, such as e-learning and Web-based instruction, into the education system (Ali, 2003). University teachers in developing countries are often incapable to access new technologies. Certainly, there are a number of challenges that face universities in developing countries as they seek to implement the e-learning systems (Sife *et al.*, 2007).

The LHE sector currently faces the challenge of significant reform (Alakkari, 2014). Furthermore, Libyan universities have not appointed AS with formal qualifications in either distance learning or E-learning (Kenan *et al.*, 2014). Under a five-year national

strategic plan costing US\$9 billion, universities are engaging in structural reforms to become more efficient and effective in providing learning and support for students. The strategy includes the establishment of a National Authority for Scientific Research (NASR) to help build scientific capacity and a Centre for Quality Assurance and Accreditation (CQAA) to evaluate the performance of the education system according to international performance standards (Sawahel, 2009).

Libyan universities face challenges in improving the quality of education services and the efficiency of education expenditure and in introducing new teaching and learning methods. These challenges include the provision of better teacher training and qualifications, finding mechanisms for adopting e-technologies, providing professional development and technological infrastructure and overcoming adverse cultural influences.

International cooperation can positively impact on the adoption of e-learning and on educational reform. Through the support of UNESCO and the curricula provided by developed countries, Libya is currently moving to integrate ICT educational systems (Khashkhush, 2011).

The Libyan HEIs must make decisions about technology issues prior to the implementation of the e-learning strategies. Changing the education offered through technology requires utilizing effective implementation plans and strategies.

3.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the Libyan context in order to create an understanding of the environment where the research took place. Information has been provided about Libya's background in terms of geography, population, and politics and how these aspects reflect on HEIs. It has examined structure of the Libyan education and higher education system, the objectives and the challenges in LHE and on academic staff. It has also highlighted e-learning and ICT as tools for implementation of TPs for AS in LUs. The next chapter will describe the research methodology adopted to answer the research questions, and how this meets the aim and objectives of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY OF STUDY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology and procedures applied to this research, including the research philosophies, approaches, and strategies. It also concentrates on the main data collection methods used in the fieldwork process, including the pilot study, semi-structured interview and the questionnaire. This chapter also discusses the research population (target interviewees) and data analysis.

4.2 Definition of Research Methodology

Many different definitions of research methodology have been given. Gardner and Lehmann (2002) define it as “a logical approach to undertaking the research, and a set of activities or methods that will facilitate the collection and analysis of data relevant to the issue under investigation”. Likewise, Saunders et al. (2007) define research methodology as: “Something that people undertake in order to find out things in a systematic way, thereby increasing their knowledge”. However, there are no specific rules as to which tools to select when doing research. The choice depends on the nature and scope of the research, the source of the data, the research questions and hypotheses or proposal, the constraints and scope of the research, and the overall research aim (Yin, 2009).

Saunders et al. (2009) describe the research method as an ‘onion’ with six layers. The external layer is research philosophy, the second layer is the research approach, the third is the research strategy, the fourth the choices made, the fifth the time horizons and the sixth data collection and analysis. (Figure 4.1). The next section describes these ‘layers’ and their relevance to this research.

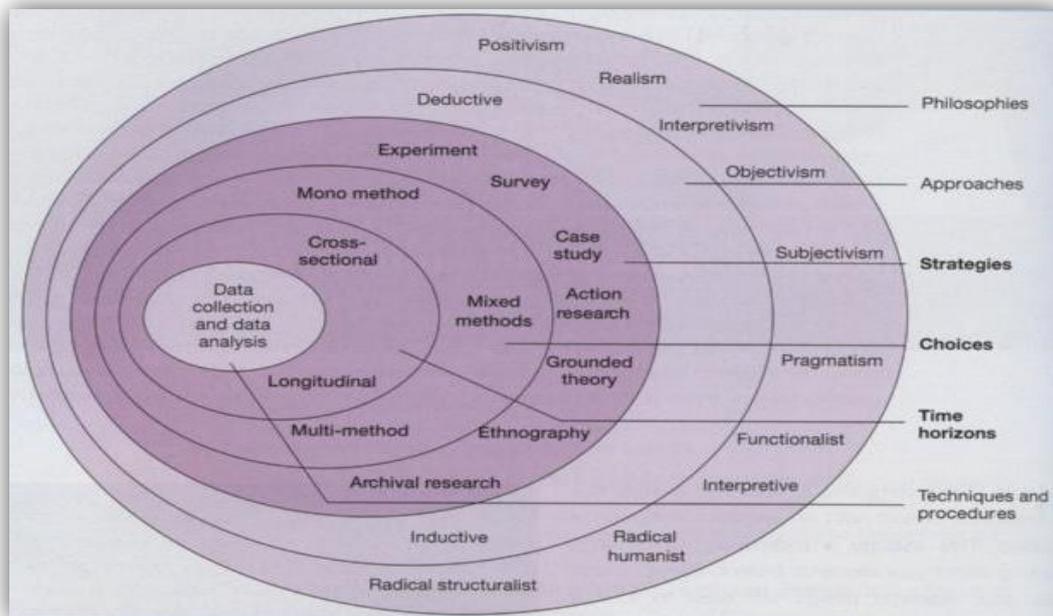


Figure 4.1: Research Process 'Onion'. Saunders *et al.*, 2009.

4.3 Research Philosophy

The term 'research philosophy' reflects the way a researcher reasons about the development of knowledge and how this influences the way she/he decides to conduct the research (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). Oppenheim, (1992) suggests that choosing the best paradigm is a matter of deciding which is most appropriate as there is no single approach that is necessarily superior. Easterby-Smith *et al.*, (2004), Yin, (2009) and Hussey and Hussey, (1997) all indicate that selecting one's research philosophy depends on the nature and scope of the thesis, the research questions and the overall research aim. Many authors, such as Esterby-Smith *et al.*, (2004), Maylor and Blackmon, (2005), Collins and Hussey, (2009), and Saunders *et al.*, (2007), note that there are two main research philosophies or paradigms in social sciences research: interpretivism and positivism.

According to the positivist philosophy, knowledge in science can only be achieved through direct experience and observation. Collis and Hussey, (2009) state that the

positivist paradigm can be termed quantitative, objectivist, scientific, experimentalist and traditionalist. Likewise, Lincoln, (1994) and Myers, (1997), state that the positivist paradigm is to test theory in order to understand measured phenomena. Easterby-Smith *et al.*, (2004) define positivism in the following terms: “The social world exists externally, and its properties should be measured through objective methods, rather than being inferred subjectively through sensation, reflection or intuition”.

The interpretive philosophy is a recent paradigm and stems from the view that ‘reality’ is not objective and exterior but is socially constructed and given meaning by people (Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Collis and Hussey, 2009). It focuses on the ways that people make sense of the world, especially through sharing their experiences with others via the medium of language (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2004). Collis and Hussy, (2009) observe that the interpretive paradigm is concerned with understanding human behaviour from the participant’s own perception of the situation. Moreover, Creswell, (2003) notes a strong connection between the designs of a study, namely the overall approach followed in order to solve the particular research questions, and the paradigm of inquiry which defines the philosophical basis for the research. From these observations, it can be understood that interpretivists believe the objective of sociological analysis is to explore how members of society understand their own actions. Neuman, (2003) indicates that individuals and researchers may or may not experience reality in the same manner, and hence that multiple interpretations of reality are possible by individuals and organisations.

In table 4.1 Easterby-Smith *et al.*, (2004) summarise the distinction between positivist and phenomenological philosophies.

This research uses both philosophies but primarily the interpretive approach, since the researcher wants to gather rich information and aims to increase the general understanding of human perceptions in order to investigate issues enabling and affecting the implementation of TPs for AS in Libyan public universities. The interpretivists philosophy best enables exploration of stakeholder perspectives and their experiences of TPs in LUs, and the deeper understanding of the phenomenon of those issues in the Libyan HEI context which the researcher aims at.

Table 4.1: Contracting implications of positivism and Interpretivism.

	Positivism	Interpretivism
The observer	must be independent	is part of what is being observed
Human interests	should be irrelevant	are the main drivers of science
Explanation	must demonstrate causality	aims to increase general understanding of the situation
Research progresses through	hypotheses and deductions	gathering rich data from which ideas are induced
Concepts	need to be operationalised so that they can be measured	should incorporate stakeholder perspectives
Units of analysis	should be reduced to simplest terms	may include the complexity of whole situations
Generalisation through	statistical probability	theoretical abstraction
Sampling requires	large numbers selected randomly	small numbers of cases chosen for specific reasons

Source: Easterby-Smith *et al.*, (2009).

However, the positivist approach is also used in this research to further validate the collected data and enhance the research quality. For example, since the aim of this study is to identify the necessary factors for the affective implementation of training programmes in order to improve the performance of academic staff of Libyan universities, a survey questionnaire was designed following the view of the literature and development of the research questions. The questionnaire was designed to answer the following research question:

What are the appropriate TPs for AS that have been implemented in universities in the developed countries such as the UK? The respondents were holders of the Postgraduate

Certificate in Higher Education (PGCHE) selected from fourteen UK universities in order to investigate their opinions and perceptions about this Certificate.

The mixed method approach helps in cross-relating the findings of this study, and helps in obtaining in-depth information and clear perceptions about different aspects of TPs for AS in universities.

4.4 Research Approach

According to Maylor and Blackmon, (2005) and Jankowicz, (2000), there are two main research approaches, deductive and inductive. Quantitative research is deductive in nature (deductive testing where the theory depends on the literature review; from this one's gets the general hypothesis and moves to specific details). It allows the researcher to first collect the data and then to generate hypotheses or propositions that can be tested quantitatively (Hussey and Hussey, 1997).

The inductive approach, on the other hand, is associated with qualitative research, in which the researcher collects data and develops the theory as a result of data analysis (Saunders *et al.*, 2007), starting with the specific rather than generalities. Collis and Hussey, (2003) and Saunders *et al.*, (2009) encourage the combination of deductive and inductive approaches within the same piece of research. This composite approach can be considered a mixed-methods approach in that it combines quantitative and qualitative data sources and employs multiple data-collection techniques (Creswell. 2012).

Accordingly, the researcher has chosen to combine the deductive and inductive approaches: a list of factors necessary to investigate the implementation of TPs for AS in LUs will be derived from the literature and then investigated in the case study institutions (deductive). After that, the findings from the fieldwork will be incorporated into the existing theory (inductive).

Table 4.2: Differences between Deductive and Inductive Approaches. Source: Sutrisna, (2010).

Deductive	Inductive
Scientific Principles	Understanding the meaning of human activity
Moving from theory to data	Moving from data to theory
The need to explain casual relationships between variables	A close understanding of research context
The collection of quantitative data	The collection of qualitative data
A highly structured approach	A less structured approach
Researcher independence of what is being researched	A realisation that researcher is part of the research process
The necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generalise conclusions	Less concern with the need to generalize

4.5 Research Strategy

Keraminiyage, (2014) states that it is important to ensure that any study is robust with respect to academic rigour, which can be achieved by developing a clear and unambiguous research strategy. Meanwhile, Saunders *et al.*, (2009) note that having a research strategy is important in helping the researcher to answer the research questions and meet the study's aim and objectives.

According to Yin, (2009) the five main research strategies are experiment, survey, archival analysis, history and case study (Table 4.3).

Yin, (2009) indicates that case study is the appropriate strategy when ‘how’ or ‘why’ questions are being posed, allowing the researcher to determine not only what happened but also why it happened. He also recommends a case study strategy when the researcher has little control over the events and when the focus is on contemporary events.

As a research strategy, case study could be used: in organisational and management studies; in conducting research for dissertations and theses in the social sciences; in the academic disciplines; as well as in professional fields such as business administration, management science, and social work (Yin, 2009). Yin (2009) points out three conditions which can be used to select the appropriate strategy for the research:

- The type of research question posed;
- The extent of control an investigator has over actual behavioural events;
- The degree of focus on contemporary as opposed to historical events

One of the strengths of the case study strategy is that it lets the researcher use a variety of sources and a variety of sorts of data as part of the exploration (Denscombe, 2007), and is suitable if the researcher needs to gain a rich understanding of the context of the research and of the process being enacted (Saunders et al., 2009; Velde et al., 2004).

Table 4.3: Characteristics of different research strategies. Yin, (2009)

Method	Form of Research Question	Requires Control of Behavioral Events?	Focus on Contemporary Events
Experiment	How, Why?	Yes	Yes
Survey	Who, What, Where, How many, How much?	No	Yes
Archival analysis	Who, What, Where, How many, How much?	No	Yes/No
History	How, Why?	No	No
Case study	How, Why	No	Yes

Based on the above discussion, the case study strategy has been selected as the most appropriate to answer the following research questions:

- What are the appropriate TPs for AS that have been, implemented in the universities of developed countries (i.e. UK universities);
- Why are there no appropriate TPs introduced to the AS in LUs;
- What are the factors that affect the implementation of the training programmes for the AS in LUs?
- What are the barriers that affect the implementation of TPs? How do these barriers affect the implementation of TPs in LUs.

The case study approach ensures that the researcher can gain the depth of understanding of the information which is needed to identify the factors which can enable the implementation of TPs for AS in the Libyan universities. This is especially so since the event is contemporary and the researcher has no control over the phenomenon.

4.5.1 Single Case or Multiple Cases

The main distinction to make when implementing a case study design is between single case and multiple case designs (Yin, 2009). This research will adopt a single case study design for the reasons presented in the next section.

4.5.2 Justifications for the Choice of a Single Case Study

Yin (2009) provides five scenarios which justify a single case study:

- The first is when the study represents the critical case in testing a well-formulated theory. The theory has specified a clear set of propositions as well as the circumstances within which the propositions are believed to be true. To confirm, or extend the theory, a single case may meet all of the conditions for testing the theory.
- The second, is when the case represents an extreme or a rare or unique situation. For example, in clinical psychology, a specific injury or disorder may be so rare that any single case is worth documenting and analysing.

- The third scenario is called the representative or typical case. Here, the objective is to capture the circumstances and conditions of an everyday or commonplace situation. For example, a manufacturing firm supposed to be typical of many other manufacturing firms in the same industry, or a representative school, could be studied as a case. The lessons learned from such a case is assumed to be informative about the experiences of the average person or institution.
- The fourth scenario is that of revelatory case. This exists when an investigator has an opportunity to observe and analyse a phenomenon previously inaccessible to scientific investigation.
- Finally, the longitudinal purpose scenario, when the same single case has to be studied at two or more different points in time.

As discussed above, Yin (2009) states that the single case study approaches can be used when the case is representative or typical. University of Tripoli (UoT) has been contributing effectively to the establishment of many universities in Libya by providing consultants and educators, so these collaborations contribute to similarities between all Libyan universities. Therefore a single case study is the best choice and will give answers to the research questions, and provide a rich picture regarding the impact of barriers that affect the implementation of TPs for AS in Libyan Universities. It will also guarantee the best sources of data relevant to the current research.. However, Yin, (2009) adds that the great advantage of an exploratory case study approach is that by focusing on a single case, an intensive examination of the case is possible even when the research resources are relatively limited.

Based on the discussion provided above the researcher adopted the single case study design, where the context is the University of Tripoli. The rationale for choosing UoT as a single case for study is illustrated below.

4.5.3 Justification of Choice for Case Study Organisations

The justifications for choosing Tripoli University as the case are summarised below: University of Tripoli is an established and deep-rooted public university in Libya which may have influenced the situations, policies and procedures in other universities in the

country which it has helped establish; thus there may be many common aspects in TPs which may be revealed by using UoT as the case for study.

University of Tripoli offers certificates in PGD, MSc. and PhD in different fields and thus meets the criteria in terms of the TPs it offers

Located in Tripoli (Capital of Libya), the university has a great opportunity to provide its services to different institutions including public and private organizations. as regards the logistics of the research, it was also possible for the researcher to contact the department easily, obtain permission and considerably reduce travelling time and cost.

Accessibility to the selected University will be easy for the author and permission was granted by the Case Study University for conducting this study.

Based on the above discussion a single case study is highly justifiable under certain conditions (the five rationales given above), and was considered to be the most suitable research strategy for this study as the event is contemporary and the researcher has no control over this phenomenon.

It is expected that this approach will provide an opportunity to explore TPs implementation in the LUs in depth, through organising detailed evidence in context (Yin, 2009). Therefore, a currently representative and typical single case study the University of Tripoli has been adopted in this research.

Although the qualitative research is recognised for its value in providing contextual depth, results are often criticised in terms of reliability, validity and the ability to generalise. These concerns are increased in the single case circumstances (Yin, 2009). These reservations are addressed later in this chapter.

4.6 Data Collection Methods

According to Easterby-Smith et al., (2004) there are several possible methods to draw out information from people, such as questionnaires, interviews, documentation, observations or archival material. Methods are what researchers use in order to explore, define, understand and describe phenomena, and to analyse the relations between their

elements, they are the ways of collecting evidence during data gathering (El-Khatab, 1992). Yin (2009) suggests six major sources of evidence to be used in the case study approach; these are listed in Table 4.4 and compared in terms of their strengths and weaknesses.

In view of the fact that no one method fits all studies, the specific necessities, the research philosophy, the research approach, the research strategy, and the aim of research usually determine the appropriate method or methods to use (Yin, 2009), as they have done in this research. Collis and Hussey, (2009) believe that there are two major types of data collection; primary data and secondary data.

Primary data is the data collected specially for the purpose of this study and Secondary data is the data collected for another purpose but related to the issues of the study in question, and is therefore used to build its theoretical base. In the current study, the sources of such data were mainly: articles, reference books, papers, research, theses, magazines and the internet.

Yin, (2009) listed five sources of evidence for data collection in the case study as mentioned above: interviews; observation; documentation; archival records; and physical artefacts. All these sources may be complementary and may be used in cycles. Consequently, a case study should use multiple sources, provided they are all relevant to the study (Yin, 2009).

However, studies on the subject of TPs in general and those for AS in a higher education institution in particular in Libya are very limited. Related published data/information is also rarely available. In general, the process of assembling data on TPs for AS in Libya has proved a difficult challenge (Libyan Delegation Report, (1998); Hamdy, (2007); Mapuva, (2009)).

Both primary and secondary data were used in this research. In general, the most common methods used to collect data were interviews, questionnaire and study of documentation. This research uses interviews and document review as the main methods to gather in-depth information for the case study.

The aim and objectives of this research were achieved by the collection of both primary and secondary data. This involved three separate activities, which are follows:

Firstly, conducting a review of the literature;

The second activity was a survey using a questionnaire, which was distributed in fourteen UK universities. These were: University of Salford, The University of Manchester, The University of Sheffield, Manchester Metropolitan University, The University of Liverpool, The University of Bolton, Lancaster University, University of Leeds, The University of Sunderland, University of Greenwich, University of Cambria, The University of Nottingham, University of Cambridge, and University of Birmingham. This was followed by four semi-structured interviews with the PGCHE holders and with three providers of such academic TPs, in order to obtain their different perspectives and further information on the topic.

The research questions were presented to different participants of PGCHE to help the researcher understand the issues around TPs the students' perceptions and their understandings about the TPs provided for AS in UK. The understanding thus obtained was used to evaluate the benefit of this programme, which will help the researcher to reach the main aim of the study, which is to develop a framework for the implementation of TPs for AS in LUs.

The data collected through a questionnaire were supported the main part of the study to enhance the validity of the research.

The third activity was the use of semi-structured, face-to-face interviews as the main method of data collection and documentation review; this satisfied the need for another source of evidence to validate the findings. There were 31 interviewees in total, which included the two deputy ministers of the Higher Education (HE), the Vice President of UoT, the head of TPs, Deans, Departmental Heads, Lecturers and a senior researcher in the University.

These are the main stakeholders as identified from the literature. The different levels of participants involved and the mixed method approach helped in cross-relating the findings of this study. These participants at different levels in the hierarchy of the institution were included in order to gain in-depth information and clear perceptions about different aspects of TPs for AS in LUs. This made it possible for the TPs to be

evaluated at all these levels, thus enhancing the validity of the study with different points of view.

Table 4.4: Strengths and weaknesses of six sources of evidence Source: Yin (2009, p102).

Source of evidence	Strengths	Weakness
Documentation	-Stable: Can be reviewed repeatedly -Unobtrusive : not created as a result of the case study -Exact: contains exact names, references and details	-Retrievability: can be low -Biased selectivity, if collection is incomplete -Reporting bias : reflects bias of the author -Access : may be deliberately blocked
Archival Records	-Same as above -Precise and quantitative	-Same as above -accessibility may be limited for privacy reasons
Interviews	-Targeted : focuses directly on case studies -Insightful: provides perceived causal inferences	-Bias due to poorly constructed questions -Response bias -Inaccuracies: interviewees say what they think interviewer wants to hear
Direct observation	-Reality : covers events in real time -Contextual : covers context of event	-Time consuming -Selectivity: poor, unless broad coverage -Reflexivity: events may be processed differently
Participation / direct observation	-Same as for direct observation -Insightful into interpersonal behaviour and motives	-Same as for direct observation -Bias due to investigator's manipulation of events
Physical Artefacts	-Insightful into cultural features -Insightful into technical operations	-Selectivity -Availability

4.6.1 Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a good way to gathering information from individuals. It can be administered by mail, telephone, using face-to-face interviews, as hand-outs, or electronically (i.e., by email or through web-based questionnaires). Saunders et al., (2009) discuss the questionnaire survey as the only way which is often available for developing a representative picture of the attitudes and characteristics of a large population. Bell (1993) indicates that when using a large sample, it is important that data can be gathered and reliably processed. Measures of statistical significance are also easy to calculate with questionnaire data. It is also argued that the main aim of using a questionnaire is the analysis of patterns and possible comparisons. According to Oppenheim (2000) and Saunders *et al.*, (2009), there are several advantages of adopting questionnaires, the most important being the straightforwardness, speed, economy and efficiency with which data can be collected from a large sample. Although, there are many disadvantages, such as the difficulty of designing questions that provide accurate data to answer research questions. In addition to this, there is the problem of low response rates and there is also the issue that the person who completes the questionnaire may not be the intended recipient and hence, may not have the required expertise.

The aim of this study is to identify the necessary factors for the affective implementation of training programmes in order to improve the performance of academic staff of Libyan universities. To achieve this aim the researcher reviewed existing literature on the topic and developed the research questions, one of which was: What are the appropriate TPs for AS that are implemented in successful universities such as UK universities? To answer this question, a survey was undertaken. Its purpose was to identify the current PGCHE for AS in UK, and programmes that are perceived as important by the academics or the newly appointed AS themselves. The questionnaire survey was selected in this research to obtain data on attitudes and perceptions towards PGCHE, the teaching and learning issues, environmental factors and tensions in TPs. It was issued to AS in order to obtain a descriptive and general picture.

4.6.1.1 Questionnaire design

To collect the required data that covers the key issues of the research, the questions and strategy (Figure 4.3) were carefully prepared using the research aim, objectives and the relevant literature as guidance. Moser and Kalton (1979) state that it is important to ask people about things that they understand and are appropriate for research. Accordingly, the pilot study of this research, which assessed that this requirement was satisfied, was a very useful tool for this researcher.

The questionnaire was divided into four sections, each using close-ended, open-ended, leading and linker questions. The first part of the questionnaire was designed to gather some basic demographic details about the participants. The second part was divided into eight questions about the TP: its duration, its trainees' expectations, satisfaction, evaluation and employment opportunities.

The third part of the questionnaire concerned with the evaluation of the experience after attending the TP. It included questions about the importance of training in that particular area, trainees' confidence, understanding, the different skills they obtained, assessment methods and research techniques. Besides these, aspects like TP schedules, availability of resources, use of technology, IT skills and the programme structure were also discussed in the questions. Other questions solicited respondents' suggestions and comments about the further development of the programme.

4.6.2 The Interviews

Interviews are a valuable method to collect suitable and reliable data related to the research question(s) or objectives, and can be conducted either face-to-face or over the telephone (Yin, 2009). According to Saunders et al (2009), interviews can be classified into three types: structured interviews, semi-structured interviews and unstructured interviews

In structured interviews a researcher should prepare a set of questions specified in what is called an 'interview schedule', where the same wording and order of questions are used (Kumar, 1999). In addition, researchers using this type of interviews could obtain uniform information which assures the comparability of data.

However, in unstructured interviews the interviewer formulates questions unexpectedly during an interview (Kumar, 1999). The interviewer in this situation needs to have a clear idea about the aspects requiring exploration, since there are no pre-determined questions to work through (Saunders et al, 2007). In addition, the interviewer in this type of interview feels free to talk about his beliefs related to the topic of the research; sometimes this kind of interaction is called non-directive. Nevertheless, since there are no pre-determined questions used by the interviewer in this type of interview, the comparability of questions asked and responses obtained may become a problem (Kumar, 1999).

Despite the potential valuable insights that can both structured and unstructured interviews provide, a semi-structured interview encompasses many of advantages of both methods (Flick, 1998). For example, there are advantages in this method that are normally associated with unstructured interviews, such as their flexibility in providing rich information due to the freedom enjoyed by the interviewer, and their scope for obtaining in-depth information. Semi-structured interviews can also avoid many disadvantages encountered in unstructured interviews. For example, “as the researcher gains experience during the interviews, the questions asked of respondents change, hence the type of information obtained from those who are interviewed at the beginning may be markedly different from that obtained from those interviewed towards the end” (Kumar, 1999). However, the interviewer’s freedom can lead to unavoidable interviewer bias. By using a pre-determined set of questions prepared by the interviewer, semi-structured interviews can provide uniform information similar to that provided by structured interviews without compromising the flexibility and freedom of unstructured interviews. In general, the semi-structured interview has more advantages and disadvantages than any other method.

4.6.2.1 The Advantages of the Semi-Structured Interview

The main advantage of the semi-structured interview is that it is a good way of exploring participants’ subjective meanings. It provides the researcher with the opportunity to modify questions according to the ongoing concerns or the questions from the participants who are allowed to talk about aspects the interviewer has missed; this sometimes helps the study (Yates, 2004).

It allows the researcher to further explore difficulty, uncertainty, or incomplete answers and concepts/ideas/facts challenged by the interviewees. Yates, (2004) notes that when a respondent gives an ambiguous or incomplete answer, it is necessary to look for further information; the structured interview or questionnaire does not allow this.

Because of the direct contact between the interviewer and interviewee, an interview (including semi-structured ones) allows the researcher to explain the purpose of the study and clarify any doubt or misunderstanding (Oppenheim, 2005). Hussey and Hussey, (1997) note that though that the usual response rate for a personal interview is about 95% percent, the same for a questionnaire is between 20-40%.

4.6.2.2 The Disadvantages of the Semi-Structured Interview

The disadvantages of this type of interview are generally related to its time-consuming nature, which is of particular significance if there is a great number of a respondent to be interviewed; in addition, the problem of the accessibility may arise (Hussey and Hussey, 1997).

The interviewer's actions may affect the validity and reliability of the questions; the mood of the respondents may influence their interaction with the interviewer and thus affect the interview process.

4.6.2.3 Justification of Choosing the Semi-structured Interview for Data Collection

A semi-structured face-to-face interview technique was chosen as it is recognised as a powerful data collection method that would allow the researcher to utilise previous knowledge of the subject to be investigated whilst creating rich qualitative data regarding the phenomenon under investigation (Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Sekaran, 2003). This technique is described by Easterby-Smith *et al.*, (2004) as being the most principled of all qualitative methods. In accordance with Easterby-Smith *et al.*, (2004) the primary purpose of the interviews was to attach the understandings of the meanings of interviewees to the issues and situations under analysis within contexts that were not highly structured in advance by the researcher. Easterby-Smith *et al.*, (2004) also advise the avoidance of a completely unstructured approach, since an unstructured technique would certainly result in the interviewees having no picture in mind of what questions or matters the researcher was interested in, and the researcher would have no clear

understanding of what questions the interviewee was answering. Therefore, some structure for the interviews was needed. The purpose of the interviews was to avoid the disadvantages of self-completion questionnaires, to improve the validity and reliability of the primary data collected through the written questionnaires, and to obtain more accurate and precise information regarding the topic under investigation. According to Hussey and Hussey (1997), the main advantage of interviews is that they allow for more clarifications and permit the asking of further complex and follow up questions, which is not possible in a written questionnaire. This helps the researcher obtain clearer data. Additionally, it is important to note that some Arab researchers, for example Al-Faleh, (1987) and Al-Bahussein, (2000), used semi-structured interviews to conduct empirical work. These researchers found that such interviews were a popular approach in Arab organisations where people prefer to talk rather than complete a questionnaire. Furthermore, the response rate of questionnaires is very low when compared with that of direct interviews. Therefore, the interview tool was designed to give interviewees every opportunity to fully explain their own experiences from their own perspective, thus supporting the inductive nature of the study.

4.6.2.4 Designing the Interview Questions

As the main aim of this study is to identify the necessary factors for the affective implementation of training programmes in order to improve the performance of academic staff of Libyan universities, it was necessary to look first for components (pillars) and elements which are supposed to exist before the establishment of the TPs. These elements are considered to constitute a support programme that provides the foundations for TPs and include:

- Supportive training legislation;
- Training elements for TPs such as: training need planning; recording design and developing; and evaluations for the TPS;
- A unit for Continuing Professional Development (CPD);
- Funding for facilities and equipment for TPs;
- Commitment from leadership to apply TPs in LUs.

4.6.2.5 The Development of the Interview Protocol

Saunders *et al.*, (2009) argue that the validity and reliability of the data depend, on the design and structure of questions, and the strictness of the pilot study. Having in mind all these aspects, questions were developed and established in accordance with the following procedure:

- Creating the initial draft of the questions for the questionnaire and the interviews for the holders and providers of the PGCHE in the UK universities identified in the literature review. The interview questions for the Case Study (UoT in Libya) were initially created from the literature review and according to the theoretical framework for TPs implementation (Figure 2.1);
- Modifying the questions following a meeting with six PhD students in University of Salford, among whom were two students doing the PGCEH programme in University of Salford (first pilot study);
- Conducting a second pilot study with five PhD students who work as AS members in different Libyan HEIs, and have an experience in university teaching;
- Redrafting questions and restructuring the content to reflect the feedback from the two pilot studies;
- Administering the final revised questions.

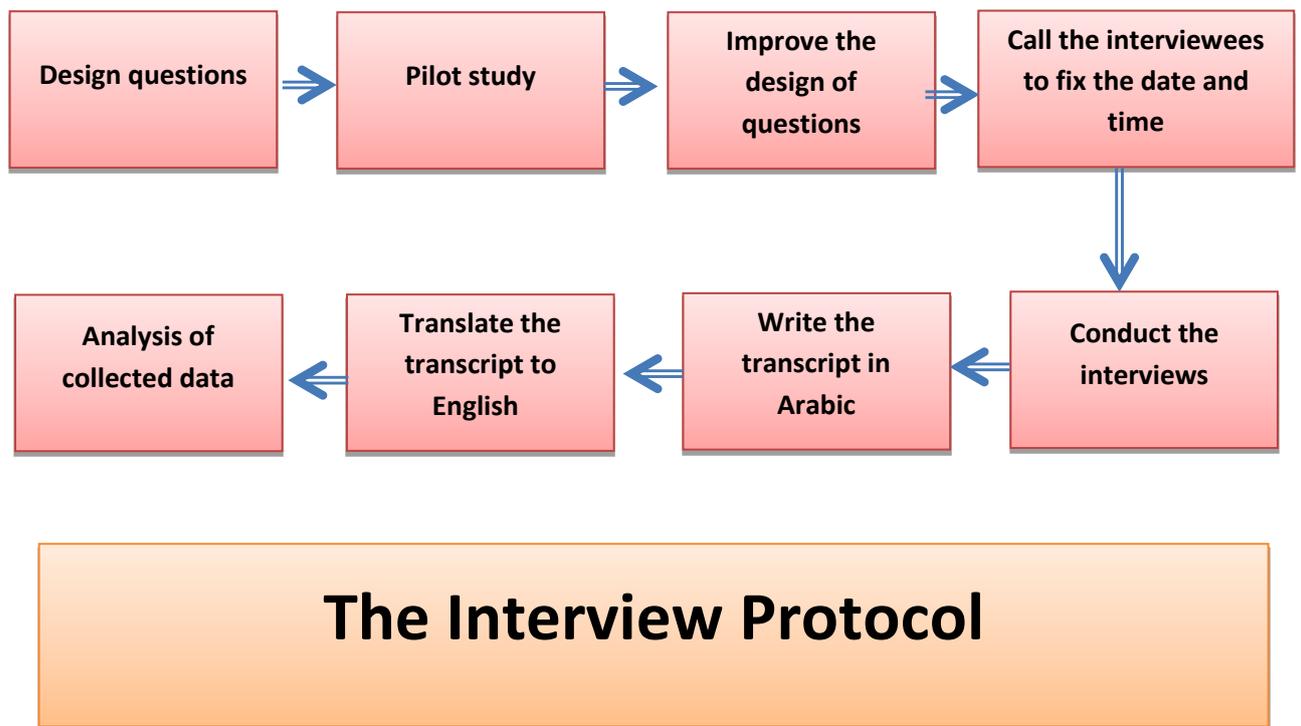


Figure 4.2: The Interview Protocol

4.6.2.6 The Interviewees (Research Sample)

Interviews are methods of collecting data in which selected participants are asked questions in order to find out what they do, think or feel (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). In this research, the most reliable data came from interviews with people concerned about TPs for AS in universities; the interview protocol was based on the TPs implementation framework.

Interviewees included members of the Learning Development Unit (LDU) team at the University of Salford and participants of TPs provided to AS in UKHEIs. However, for the case study investigation the interviewees included senior leaders in the Libyan MHE and in UoT and the head of departments and academic staff of that university.

Participants from all of these levels were included in order to gain in-depth information and clear perceptions about different aspects of TPs for AS. At these various levels in the HE, the issues around TPs were examined.

Covering these levels enhanced the validity of the study by getting different points of view. The majority of the interviewees in the case study had sufficient knowledge about the current and future plans for TPs.

Kvale, (1996) opines that there need be no fixed number of interview subjects, since the success of interviews depends on when you find out what you need to know.

In the same context, Taylor and Bogdan (1984) define qualitative interviewing as flexible and not requiring a specific number or the type of participants before starting the research.

Based on this premise the researcher conducted the interviews without planning in advance the number of participants would be interviewed; the interviews continued until most answers had become repetitive, and sufficient information was gathered in order to achieve the research aim and objectives.

Following Yin's (2009) suggestions for reducing the bias that is associated with the interview protocol, remembrance, and inaccurate expression, the researcher triangulated the information from interviews with the information from other sources (for example, documents).

A total of 31 people were interviewed. Table (4.5) presents the details of those interviewees.

Table 4.5: Interviewee groups

Participants of Level 1	Position and number	Total Nr
S L (Senior Leaders)	The deputy of the minister of the HE 2011 (1) The deputy of the minister of the HE 2012 (1) Vice President of University of Tripoli, who is also Vice President for Academic Affairs (1) Dean of the Faculty of Economics and Political Science (1) Assistant Dean of the Faculty of Economics and Political Science (1)	5
Participants of Level 2	Position	Total Nr
HoD (Heads Of Departments)	Head of training, Libyan Doctors Fellowship of the Council of Medical Specialties, who is also the head of training office of the Libyan board in a children's hospital in Tripoli (1) Head of the Quality Assurance Centre in Tripoli University (1) Head of the Department of Planning and Human Resources Development (1) Head of Histopathology department in a medical school (1) Head of crop department in Faculty of Agriculture (1)	5
Participants of Level 3	Position	Total Nr
AS (Academic Staff)	From the following faculties: Engineering; Science; Arts; Economics and Political Science; Agriculture	21

4.6.3 Documentation

The study of documents is a research method that many qualitative researchers consider useful in the context of their research strategy (Mason, 2004). Documentation was studied in this research in order to overcome the potential low reliability of the data produced from the interviews. Yin, (2009) pointed out that documentation review is one of the most important ways of supporting evidence gathered from other sources, and that it is often relevant in case study research. This view is shared by others authors such as Mason, (2004), Denzin and Lincoln, (2000) and Silverman, (1997). Documents have a number of advantages such as: reducing the researcher's bias; allowing the research of past events; being more economical than any other method of data

generation and collection. However, document review as a method may have some disadvantages: the documents studied may not be representative of their kind, and thus may not allow generalisations to be made; some documents are not easily accessible, for example, personal diaries and private letters (Silverman, 1997; Mason, 2004 and Yin, 2009).

Relevant documents used in this research include: reports from the MHE and the Research Centre of HE; regulations and training files, census statistics and statistical year-books from HE in Libya; the National Development Plans in Libya; and magazines, brochures, newspapers, leaflets and posters about TPs in UK and Libya. All these documents were reviewed in detail in the case study.

4.6.4 Triangulation

According to Collis and Hussey, (2009) the combination of methodologies in the research is known as triangulation. Qualitative research findings can be strengthened in this way by combining participant interviews with documentary sources in a single case. Therefore, the findings of this research were strengthened by triangulating interviews' findings with those from documentation. The validity and reliability of these data collection tools are discussed later.

In a single case, data triangulation is particularly significant to strengthen validation in the absence of a comparison case. Remenyi *et al.* (1998) recommend using multiple data sources (as this research does) in order to establish an identifiable series of evidence.

In addition, several validity enhancing methods were applied during the personal interviews in this research. Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2004) explain that semi-structured interview validity refers to the extent to which the researcher has gained access to the knowledge and meanings of informants. Thus, it is important to note that the interview questions were revised many times before the data collection and were piloted prior to the actual interviews taking place. Additionally, collection of supporting documentation was used for research validity and reliability. Data obtained through these techniques

was challenged within the interviews, and was also used to challenge interviewees' responses.

Generalisability refers to the degree to which the findings of the investigation are more generally applicable outside the particulars of the situation studied (Robson, 2002). In qualitative terms, the research aim is to offer a case description (including data collection procedures) that would allow a reader to repeat the research process in another case (Kidder and Judd, 1986). Although a single case, such as studied in this research, may not provide sufficient evidence to make strong generalisations, it can establish the existence of a phenomenon (Kelliher, 2005; Van Maanen, 1988), which is adequate for the purposes of exploratory research (Remenyi *et al.*, 1998). Thus, a case can be generalisable to theoretical propositions (Yin, 2009; Saunders *et al.*, 2009).

4.6.5 Justifications for Choice of Data Collection Methods

The use of several data collection methods (such as interviews and document review) within one case study is likely to increase the validity of the findings and the researchers' confidence in the reliability of the information obtained. This is supported by Yin, (2009), Denscombe, (2007), Crinson and Leontowitsch, (2006), Denzin and Lincoln, (2003), and Remenyi *et al.*, (1998). In this study, face to face interview allowed respondents to talk at length in their own words and at their own level of understanding to allow the researcher to gain an in-depth understanding of TPs for academic staff in UoT.

4.6.6 Ethical Approval

According to Saunders *et al.*, (2007), ethics are moral principles with standards of behaviour that guide moral choices about people's behaviour and their relationships with others. The University of Salford's ethical policy obliges researchers to apply for ethical approval before conducting field studies (Appendix 1). To ensure the complete satisfaction of the interviewees, the interviews were conducted according to the following conditions:

- They were held at convenient times;
- The approval of interviewees was obtained before interviews took place;
- Interviewees had the right to halt interviews at any time;

- Interviewees were informed of the purpose of the research before the interviews;
- The confidentiality of personal data was guaranteed in advance.

After ethical approval from the University of Salford was obtained, the Ministry of HE in Libya was approached by the researcher with a letter outlining the researcher's background, the nature of the investigation and the areas which would be covered in the interviews. After gaining permission from the University of Salford and MHE, the researcher arranged for the implementation of the pilot study and real study using the interviews and the questionnaire.

4.6.7 Pilot Study

It was believed by many authorities such as Hussey and Hussey, (1997), Sekaran, (2003) and Yin, (2009) that the questions provided by the researcher through interviews and/or questionnaires should be subjected to a preliminary test called pilot Study. Yin, (2009) suggests that such a pilot study is very advantageous in clarifying the wording and design of questions and in filtering them. Furthermore, Brenner *et al.*, (1985) assume that the pilot study is carried out to achieve the validity of the interview questions. Thus, a pilot study is very essential to make sure that the questions in the interviews are unambiguous and clear and make sense to the respondents, while being suitable for the expected duration of the interview in terms of the discussion likely to arise from them. Besides, the researcher recognises that a pilot study can help in the design of more accurate and exact questions related to the research problem in formal questionnaires or during interviews. Collis and Hussey, (2008) advise that a pilot study be conducted using respondents who are similar to those intended for the actual case study.

The researcher conducted the first pilot study using the questionnaire with six PhD students in Salford University, among whom were two students doing the PGCEH programme in Salford University. Piloting the questionnaire allowed the researcher to ensure that the questionnaire was clearly designed and could easily be understood by participants. This was achieved by having the pilot study respondents complete a questionnaire feedback form about the clarity of questions, their layout etc. In this

context, the researcher followed Oppenheim's advice that "questionnaires do not emerge fully fledged: they have to be created or adopted, fashioned and developed to maturity". The piloting of the questionnaire was also used to address an inherent weakness of questionnaires, that of 'internal validity' (Oppenheim, 1992).

Two pilot studies were conducted in relation to the interview questions, to ensure that questions were clear and unambiguous, and suitable for the interview duration. In each pilot study a draft of the interview questions was given to the interviewees. The first piloting was conducted by interviewing three members of the Learning Development Unit (LDU) (team at the University of Salford who are knowledgeable in the area of TPs provided to AS in UKHEIs. The second piloting was conducted with five PhD students who work as AS members in different Libyan HEIs and have experience in university teaching. Afterwards the feedbacks from the interviewees of both pilot studies were used in redrafting the interview questions. It is important to mention that the feedback from interviewees from both pilot studies was very useful and their comments were acted on. Accordingly, some language adjustments were made, and questions were re-phrased, rearranged and classified under certain themes.

4.6.8 Reliability, Validity and the Generalisability

Yin, (2009) believed that reliability for qualitative studies procedures means that data collection can be repeated, resulting in the same findings. To achieve reliability in this study, the researcher tried to be consistent at all times so that if another researcher followed the same processes similar results would be produced. The researcher built a clear research approach and adopted an appropriate methodology that ensured high internal reliability with regard to the collected data. In collecting the data, consideration was given to the most appropriate strategy for the specific investigation. According to Yin, (2009) the general way of ensuring as much reliability as possible is to make as many steps as operational as possible and then conduct the research. This means that the case study research procedures and techniques should be properly documented.

In this research the researcher tried to avoid bias through improving the perceptions of participants by building a good relationship with them, providing a good introduction to

the research, emphasising that confidentiality would be ensured, and finally leaving participants to talk in the way they desired.

Denzin, (1970) mentions that multiple and independent methods should, if achieving the same conclusions, have greater reliability than a single methodological approach to a problem.

4.6.9 Data Analysis

There is no standard approach in the analysis of qualitative data. Phenomenologists, for example, code their data, preferring to work from the transcripts of interviews (Saunders et al., 2009). Thoroughly reading and reading transcripts or notes of qualitative interviews is one approach for analysing this type of data (ibid.).

In this regard, Yin, (2009) believes that the main goal of data analysis is to produce convincing analytic conclusions and exclude any alternative interpretations.

Collis and Hussy (2009) point out that the analysis of qualitative data can be done using quantifying methods and non-quantifying methods that include general analytical procedure. Following this advice, this study classified the mass of qualitative data collected into topics (themes). (Figure 2.1). The interview protocol was designed using an analytical framework which was created from the literature review. This allowed the researcher to reorganise and analyse the data systematically and closely. The findings were then categorised into distinctive groupings. Keeping in mind the aim and objectives of this research at all times, the researcher converted the interviewees' answers into a written record, grouped and placed according to indicated themes. It was not essential to produce verbatim transcriptions of the interviews as the data analysis methods selected did not necessitate this Collis and Hussy (2009).

The researcher was satisfied that the generalisations arising from the data collected were rigorous enough to withstand critical analysis during triangulation with existing literature. Other sources of data collection, for instance documents from the HE and the UoT, were used in the same manner.

However, there is a dearth of documents within the HE and UoT and clarification not always available while triangulating evidence. This is discussed later as a limitation of the research.

4.6.10 Conducting the Case Study

The researcher started the formal data collection in December 2011 and completed it by the end of September 2012.

The interview times were arranged according to the convenience of the interviewees. However, the time allocated for each interview varied from one participant to another. Generally, the average time was between an hour to an hour and a half. All interviews were conducted in the respondents' place of work, which allowed the researcher to access suitable documents. Only one interview a day was conducted with SLs and HoDs, as the meetings with them took a long time. However the actual interview period never exceeded 90 minutes. AS were easier to arrange appointments with and a maximum of two interviews were conducted in a day, with the maximum of length of an interview being one and a half hours.

To reduce the risk of misinterpretation to an absolute minimum, all interviews in the CSO were conducted in the participants' and researcher's mother tongue, which is Arabic, enabling the researcher to precisely understand each word and expression during the interview.

Limited interviews were tape-recorded; voice recording was problematic, because some participants did not feel comfortable with this. This may be because of cultural and political considerations. The researcher usually just noted down their answers. This was the only possible way to record the responses to ensure accuracy during the interviews.

The researcher took notes through each interview so that the crucial aspects were not missed, and obtained copies of any documentary evidence which appeared relevant at the time.

The researcher followed the guidance of Easterby-Smith et al. (2004) in leaving sufficient time between the interviews to write notes and to reflect on the data, and often to explore some concerns that arose. Every interview was converted into a written

record after the interview, usually on the same day. This approach is supported by Yin (2009). Moreover, interviewees were very supportive, friendly and understanding as they gave the researcher sufficient time for each interview. Furthermore, they offered the researcher a chance to revisit at any time to ask about any other information or clarifications. Consequently, this gave the researcher confidence in the accuracy of the interview process and increased the reliability of the findings.

Even though, it is not easy to assess the frankness, honesty and accuracy of the responses of interviewees, the overall feeling was that the respondents were sociable, open, and helpful; a large majority of them gave the impression that they were deeply interested in the topics discussed.

4.6.11 Chapter Summary

Justifications were given for the selection of the research philosophies, approaches strategies and data collection methods of this research, in terms of how they achieved the aim and objectives of this research. The research paradigm of interpretivism was discussed.

The chapter has discussed the fact that deductive and inductive methods were selected and the decision behind this choice has been justified. A single case study is adopted as a research strategy for the collection of data. The single case adopted is considered as a representative or typical case. A critique of single case studies in terms of validity, reliability and generalisability was provided.

The decision to use a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews as the main sources of evidence has been fully rationalised by reference to expert perspectives, and mention has been made of the triangulation of the data secured by document review.

Piloting the interview protocol was discussed along with the importance of piloting. Finally, the chapter has outlined how the data was collected and analysed. The following chapter discusses the findings that emerged from the collected data.

CHAPTER FIVE

FINDINGS: UK QUESTIONNAIRES AND INTERVIEWS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the empirical data obtained from the questionnaires and interviews in the UK. The use of quantitative and qualitative approaches has become commonplace in social research. The combination of both approaches is therefore not only endorsed, but is often favoured (Amaratunga *et al*, 2002; Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Cohen and Manion, 2000).

This chapter consists of the following:

- Findings relating to the questionnaire responses by the holders of the PGCHE/PGCAP or PGCert in selected UK universities in order to investigate their opinion and perception about the certificates;
- Findings of the interviews conducted with holders of PGCHE in order to clarify their ideas.
- Finding of the interviews conducted with four academic providers of this programme in order to obtain more information from different angles.

5.2 Findings of the questionnaire

This part is concerned with the quantitative data (from questionnaire responses) that was obtained to measure the perceptions of the PGCHE and PGCAP holders. The questionnaire responses were gathered between February and October 2011.

105 participants aged from 21 to 59 were invited to participate. They were from fourteen English universities in the UK, and from different subject areas and different practices. The response rate was 62% as follows: University of Salford (23) The University of Manchester (10); Manchester Metropolitan University, The University of Sheffield and The University of Liverpool (5); The University of Bolton (3); Lancaster

University (2); University of Leeds, The University of Sunderland, University of Greenwich, University of Cambria, The University of Nottingham, University of Cambridge, and The University of Birmingham (1).

5.2.1 The characteristics of the participants

The main aim of this part of the study was to determine the perception of the certificate holders in fourteen UK Universities. The majority of the participants already had teaching experience, which may indicate the importance of the programme for those in teaching. Nevertheless, they were part time lecturers in the HEIs. Most of them held a Master's degree, and some a PhD but a few had only a Bachelor's degree. This indicates that most are well educated. Figure 5.1 shows the qualification of respondents.

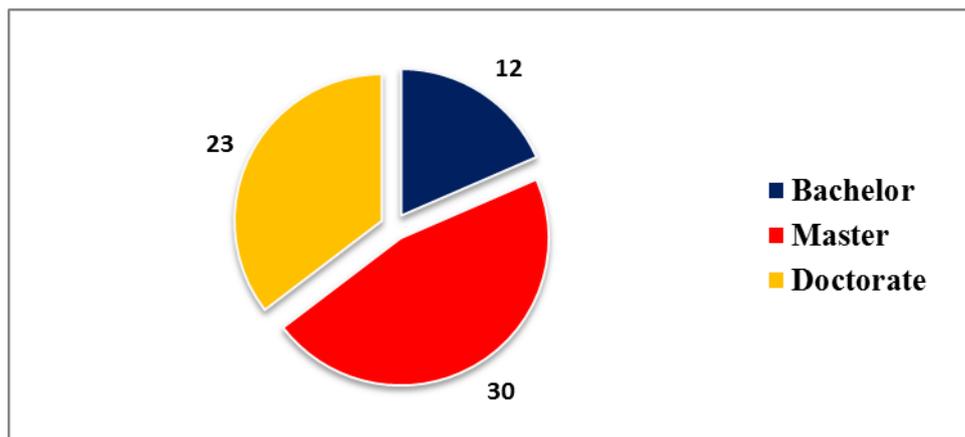


Figure 5.1: Qualifications of respondents

Participants enrolled on this programme were either seeking a teaching qualification or wanted to improve their teaching skills and performance. In addition, the participants studied the PGCAP and PGCert over one, two or three years. Also the majority had started the programme in 2007, though a few had started before this date; the questionnaire only covered the last five years.

It appears that the post-graduation plan of most of the respondents is or was to concentrate on becoming a university employee, whereas a few alluded to promotion

and teaching improvements. The main findings from the characteristics of the participants are illustrated in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Main findings from characteristics of the participants

Theme	Questionnaire findings
Experience in teaching	99.9% had teaching experience.
Mode of study for the respondents	74% part time; 21% full time; 5% distance learning.
Qualification of respondents	47% Master degree; 36% Doctorate; 17% Bachelor degree.
Reasons for enrolling on the programme	55% because they were required to, due to the policies of most UK universities; 26% to improve teaching performance; 11% to improve skills; 5% due to a desire for more study for its own sake; 3% wanted improve their job prospects, as they were unemployed.
Commencement date on the programme	13% started the programme earlier than 2007; 29% started the programme in 2007; 11% started the programme in 2008; 14% started the programme in 2009, 14% started the programme in 2010; 19% started the programme in 2011.
Post-graduation plan	73% to become a university employee; 27% career promotion and develop teaching skills

5.2.2 About the certificate (PGCHE)

This part of questionnaire was designed to explore the views, perceptions and attitudes of the certificate holders in fourteen UK Universities, with regard to the specific training programmes being undertaken.

It was revealed from this part of the questionnaire that most of the respondents joined the PGCAP programme because this programme is more specialised and therefore more relevant for participants in certain disciplines. The majority of the respondents undertook the programme in one year (full-time).

Most of the participants felt that the programme met their expectations. Furthermore, the programme satisfaction levels varied between ‘very satisfied’ and ‘satisfied’. In contrast, few respondents were dissatisfied. The reasons given for their dissatisfaction with the programme were varied, but the most common were: the programme does not reflect professional practice; the relevance of the programme is not appropriate to modern teaching; the programme was out of date; and the timetable was over demanding. Figure 5.2 shows the differences between the respondents’ satisfaction with the programme.

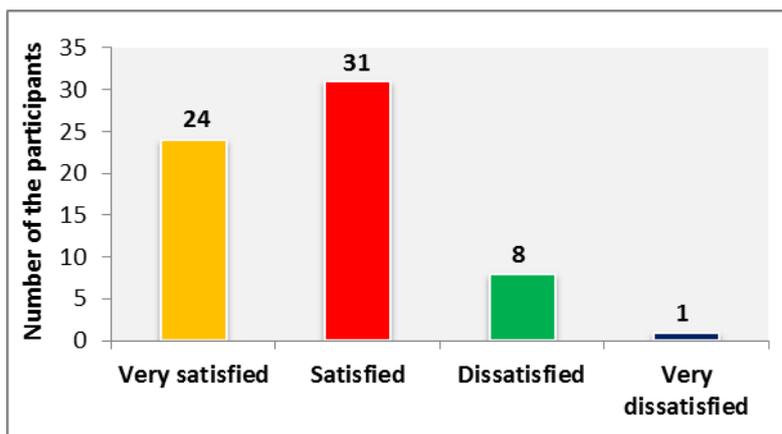


Figure 5.2: Satisfaction with the programme

The participants, after attending the programme, were unanimous in their agreement that the programme prepared them to be more confident and to make great progress in

the area of supporting students in their learning in higher education and that it gave them confidence to carry out different research techniques. A few of the respondents felt that they had made poor progress, even though this result meant that they became more confident and saw improvements in teaching practices and student learning. However, the fact that the participants were from different subject areas with different practices makes it difficult for this course to meet all trainees' expectations.

With regard to employment opportunities after graduation, the findings show that high expectations for employment opportunities were held by the majority of the participants, though a small percentage of the sample expressed their expectation as fair, and a few thought they had a poor chance. Figure 5.3 shows this result.

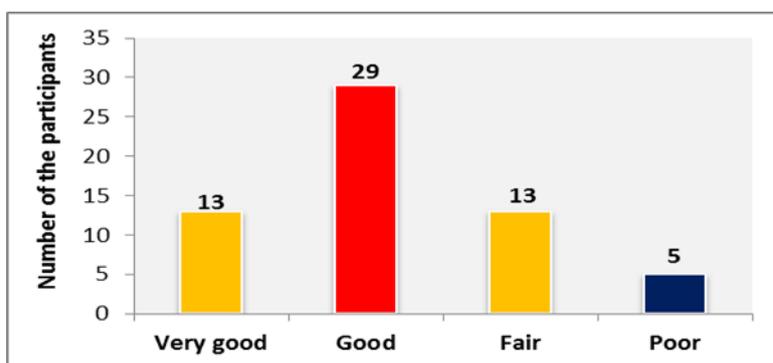


Figure 5.3: Expectations for employment opportunities after graduation

With regard to the effectiveness of the programme, the majority of the respondents answered 'yes' and very few answered 'no'. This result gives an important indicator that this programme is valuable and effective in improving knowledge, skills and attitudes as well as teaching quality for the academic staff.

As for the question regarding the understanding of curriculum content of the programme by the participants, it was apparent that the systematic understanding was relatively high. Figure 5.4 illustrates this result.

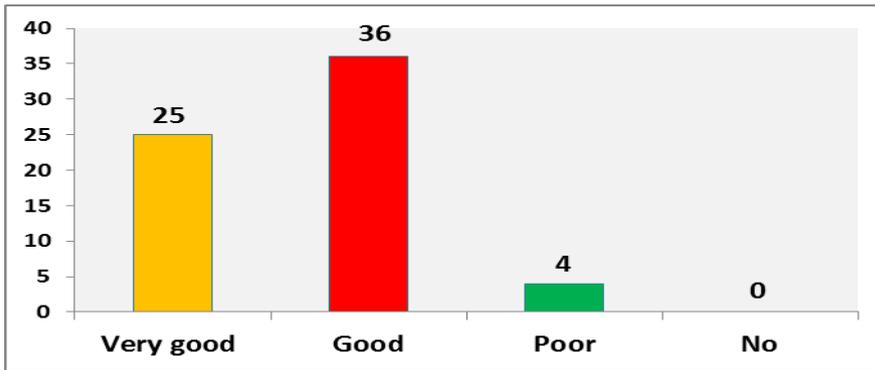


Figure 5.4: Systematic understanding of curriculum content by the participants

Regarding the providing of assessment and feedback by the participants to their students, the majority of the participants stated that they felt that the programme had improved their skills in this area, while only a few stated ‘poor’ and ‘none’.

Regarding the development of personal skills for effective critical analysis, it was found that the majority of participants agreed that their skills in effective critical analysis had improved.

However, a few of them specified that they had made ‘poor’ or ‘no’ progress. Figure 5.5 shows these results.

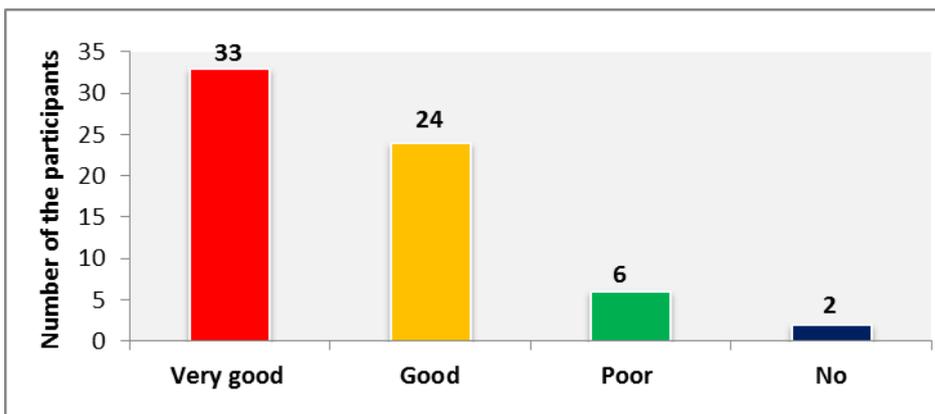


Figure 5.5: Development of personal skills for effective critical analysis by the participants

Referring to the integration of research with teaching, it was found that the majority of participants were successfully integrating research with improving their academic career.

Furthermore, in relation to the theme concerning improving technology skills, the results show that the majority of participants felt that they were improving their technology skills. Only a few of them had negative attitudes towards the improvement of integrated technology skills.

With regard to using e-learning, there was general agreement among the participants that they acquired skills in using e-learning technology for their subject area.

In relation to teaching improvements, all of the respondents agreed that there was a big improvement in teaching. Figure 5.6 clarifies these results.

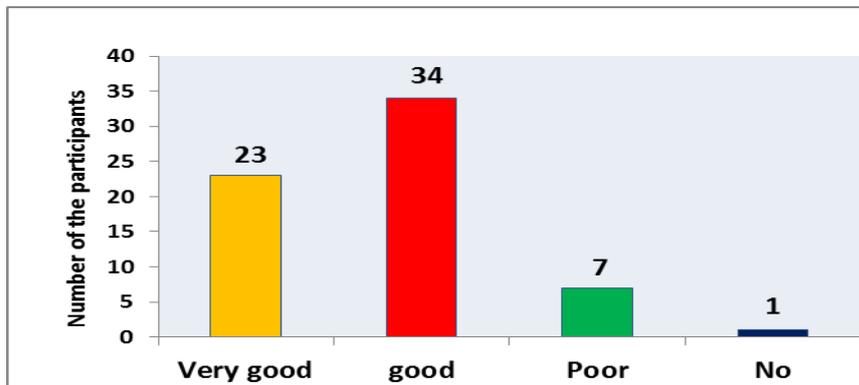


Figure 5.6: Improvement in teaching by the participants

Referring to the ability to research and analytically report, the mainstream of the participants agreed that they had improved their teaching skills and their ability to research and analytically report. Also, with regard to the use of assessment methods in order to improve teaching capabilities, there was general agreement among the respondents that they achieved this improvement.

In relation to confidence whilst carrying out different research techniques that can be used to improve teaching skills, the results revealed that all of respondents were in

agreement that their confidence was improved. With regard to the time and availability of resources, the majority of participants agree that the time and availability of resources for the programme are appropriate. However, some of the respondents were neutral about this outcome, whereas some did not agree at all.

Regarding the participants' suggestions to improve the programme, the results revealed different views on how to improve the programme. These differences mostly related to individuals' requirements from the course, such as: the length of the programme; the timetable of the programme; providing better guidance to student/trainee prior to the programme. In addition, there were suggestions about increase in, and better scheduling of, the workshops outside the main teaching weeks of the semesters, about more face-to-face time, and about promoting practice observation and organising more induction and IT training.

There was a unanimous response in the affirmative when asked whether the respondents would recommend the programme to others. They declared that the programme was very good and satisfying. In addition, there was a feeling that it has helped students develop their learning and teaching skills. Furthermore, PGCAP was described by most as enjoyable, not requiring any changes, and very important to anyone who wants to be good teacher.

Some of the participants recommended that universities should deliver such a programme for all PG students in order to encourage them to take up teaching in HE if they so wished. Table 5.2 summarises the opinions of respondents about these programmes.

Table 5.2 Opinions of respondents about the programme

Theme	Participants' answers
The programme type	79% joined the PGCAP programme; 21% joined PGCert.
Duration of the programme	60% one year (full-time); 25% two years; 15% three years
The participant's expectations	90% felt expectations were met; 10% felt expectations were not.
Satisfaction with the programme	42% very satisfied;46% satisfied;11% dissatisfied; 1% very dissatisfied.
Reasons given for dissatisfaction with programme	30%: 'Doesn't reflect professional practice'; 10%: 'Too generalised' ; 40%: 'Not appropriate to modern teaching'; 10%: 'The programme is out of date' 10%: The timetable was over-demanding.
Experience evaluation after attending the programme	60% felt they become more confident and more progress in supporting students; 20% felt the programme was well-balanced; 10% felt the programme contained too much theory; 10% felt the programme was too generalised.
Employment opportunities after graduation	22%: 'Good'; 48%: 'Very good'; 22%: 'Fair'; 8%: 'Poor'.
Programme effectiveness	92% answered 'yes'; 8% answered 'no'
Understanding of curriculum content	relatively high
Providing assessment and feedback	30%: 'Very good'; 55%: 'Good'; 12%: 'Poor'; 3%: 'None'.
Development of personal skills for effective critical analysis	51%: 'Very good'; 37%: 'Good'; 9%: 'Poor'; 3%: 'None'.
Integration of research with teaching	50%: 'Very good'; 27%: 'Good'; 23%: 'Poor'.
Improving technology skills	23%: Very good'; 48%: 'Good'; 17%: 'Poor'; 12. % very poor.
Using e-learning	21%: 'Very good'; 64%: 'Good'; 8%: 'Poor'; 8%: 'None'.
Teaching improvement	35 %: 'Very good; 52%: 'Good'; 11%: 'Poor'; 2%: 'None'.
Ability to research	44%: 'Very good'; 45%: 'Good'; 8%: 'Poor'; 3%: 'None'.
Using assessment methods to improve teaching	52%: 'Very good'; 35%:'Good'; 10%: 'Poor'; 3%: 'None'.
Confidence to carry out research techniques	55%: 'Very good'; 25%: 'Good'; 15%: 'Poor'; 5%: 'None'.
Time and availability of resources	6% strongly agreed; 53% agreed, 30% were neutral, 9% disagreed and 2% strongly disagreed.
Suggestions to improve the programme	7%: increase the length of the programme; 7% reduce the length of the programme; 45% provide better guidance to student/trainee prior to the programme; 10% improve workshops 31% other comments
Recommending the programme to others	86% 'Yes'; 14% 'No'

5.3 Findings of the interviews with PGCHE holders in the UK

For this research, the most reliable data comes from people related to PGCHE issues, therefore the reason behind the choice of the interview as a method was to get more information about the PGCHE which could clarify and add to the information from the questionnaire. Another reason was to triangulate the data. Also, because the interview participants –who are working in different universities (more explanation in Chapter 4) –have earned enough experience in teaching after gaining the above mentioned certificate, their answers give information from another dimension.

Four PGCHE holders who were members of academic staff in universities were interviewed. It was decided to choose these people as they have sufficient knowledge (none of them were questionnaire respondents) to give in-depth information and clear perceptions about different aspects of the training programme certificate. This enabled further, complex, follow up questions, which would not have been possible in a written questionnaire.

Semi-structured interviews were used to determine personal beliefs. According to Oates (2006), semi-structured interviews are used to allow the interviewees to speak their minds easily. In addition, Kendall (2008) indicates that interview data can often gather more in-depth insights on participant attitudes, thoughts, and actions.

The main aim of these interviews was to establish the effectiveness of this programme for the PGCHE holders. These interviews were conducted between January and April 2012. The respondents were interviewed individually. The researcher began the interviews by describing the importance of their contribution to this study. Selected respondents were interviewed and their answers were delivered directly in the form of comments, opinions and suggestions; these were based on their observations and experiences and are highly relevant in the context of promoting this kind of programme in Libyan universities.

The interview questions were about the level of satisfaction the participants felt regarding the various areas that could enhance the development of teachers, about their feelings as to whether the training programme prepared them for a job in HE, and about

how the programme should be delivered to improve their teaching skills. In order to address the main research question (What are the appropriate TPs for academic staff that are implemented in universities such as those in the UK?), the following questions were asked to explore the participants' opinions about this issue from the different perspectives:

“What were your main reasons for enrolling on the programme?”

“What do you think of the view that academics should be trained teachers?”

“Did the programme meet your expectations?”

“Was the training programme useful in developing your teaching skills?”

“On the basis of your experience on this training programme, would you encourage others to get the same qualification?”

“What sort of training would you like to see made available? Why do you think this training might be important?”

“How do you think training should be delivered?”

The responses to the first question indicate that all of the interviewees undertook this training programme for the teaching qualification to work in a university.

In relation to the question regarding their views about whether academics should be trained as teachers there was a surprising level of agreement about the need to be qualified teachers. In addition, all respondents agreed that academics should be trained teachers. They believe that although academics have a very sound knowledge of the subject area and are experts in their discipline, they are not necessarily good teachers and should not automatically qualify as teachers.

In this regard one AS state:

“I think it is always a good idea because sometimes you are an expert in your area, then that does not mean that you are automatically qualified as a teacher”.

The majority of participants confirmed that the programme met their expectations.

In response to the question whether the training programme was useful in developing teaching skills, interviewees were unanimous in their belief that programme helped them to improve their teaching skills, confidence, knowledge and expertise. In this respect, one of the interviewees declared that the programme adequately prepared them for their job, in addition to helping them secure this job.

One of the academic staff (AS) asserted:

“..I think half of the teaching goes with the teacher himself and half happened by the training that he got.”

Another AS said:

“I agree that the programme prepared me for the job that I got.”

There was general agreement among the respondents that they would encourage others to do the same programme.

In this context one AS added:

“Yes I would encourage all the English language teachers to try to get it if they are interested in being an academic teacher although it is tough and expensive, I mean difficult financially, but I would still encourage others to do it.”

In relation to the inquiry of what sort of training would they like to see made available and why they think this training might be important.

Most of the interviewees agreed the training raises the standards and quality of teaching and use of technologies effectively if followed up by continuous training programmes for academics every two or three years. Besides, the programme should help the teacher to be more innovative and creative.

In this respect an AS with such views said:

“...If I were to recommend some alterations to such a teacher training course I would encourage further training in the use of IT; this would be useful as many teachers lack sufficient skills in computing.”

Another AS added:

“I think continuous developments would be useful so every two years [there] could be some kind of refresher course to attend”..

Furthermore, one AS stated:

“I think the teachers need to be more innovative, the programme should use more innovative technology. I think beyond use of the technology, creativity is missing at the moment for academics to develop in the discipline”.

In relation to how they think training should be delivered, the majority opined that it is very important to have academic developers who are caring and passionate about their job.

In this respect, one AS commented:

“It is very important to have academic developers who care about their job, who are really passionate about their job, who can emphasise that people can connect with people and create special relationships with their students who are lecturers. We need to inspire them, if not then we should do a different job”.

Furthermore, three AS mentioned that introducing technology into training in general is vital when combined with face to face contact on any teaching training course, as is contact with the supervisor as part of the course in order that they can comment on the programme. Table 5.3 summarises the findings of these points.

Table 5.3 Summary of the opinions of the respondents about the training programme

Theme	Findings
Main reasons for enrolling on the programme	For the teaching qualification to work in a university.
Necessity of training academics to become teachers	All agreed that academics should be trained to be teachers, as being a good academic doesn't always mean being a good teacher.
Usefulness of the training programme	Helps them improve their skills as teachers
To what extent participants would encourage others to get the same qualification	They would highly recommend all university teachers, especially experienced academics, to go on these kinds of programmes'
Suggestions regarding the programme	Encourage technology because some teachers do not have adequate computing skills prior to the programme; The course should be more innovative and be creative in the disciplines.

5.4 Findings of the interviews with Professionals (Providers)

To cover all perspectives and to obtain sufficient information about this training programme, the researcher conducted semi-structured, face-to-face interviews with three programme providers (PGCHE) from two universities from different disciplines.

The interviews took place over a one-month period, between May and June 2013. The interviews were recorded and lasted between one to two hours. Three people were interviewed. The interviewees were the programme providers (PP) in two universities, from different disciplines. The first interviewee was from the Archaeology department (which is part of the school of Arts, Languages and Culture) of Manchester University. The interview took place on 27/05/2013. The second interview was with the Academic Developer, PGCAP Programme Leader, and Academic Development Unit Leader from Salford University;. This interview took place on 27/05/2013. The third interviewee was from the Medical School of Manchester University, and was the faculty leader for the postgraduate training programme, the new academics programme, and the academic

staff programme. This person is also the coordinator of the North West hub of the Vitae programme. This interview took place on 07/06/2013.

The main aim of these interviews was to ascertain the effectiveness of these programmes from a different viewpoint, as the researcher had conducted questionnaires and interviews with the postgraduate certificate holders previously.

The researcher began the interviews by describing the importance of their contribution to this study, with regard to the fact that their experiences will be used for the purpose of promoting similar programmes in Libyan universities.

They were asked questions around seven themes in the interviews, regarding their perceptions of TPs for academic staff, the achievement of their goals and the assessment of the PGCHE in their institute. The other main issue that was discussed in the interviews was the requirement to transfer this programme across to other universities.

By asking these questions the following research objective was addressed:

“To review the relevant literature related to the Training Programmes for university academics around the world”

The following research question was also answered:

“What are the appropriate TPs for academic staff that are implemented in the successful Universities such as those in the UK?”

To investigate their perceptions about Training Programmes for academic staff, the interviewees were asked the following questions;

What are your university's aims regarding Training Programmes provided to the academic staff?

Did you achieve your university's aims?

What do you think about the current programme in your university?

How did you assess the value of the programme for staff who completed the programme?

What are the obstacles and the challenges facing the programme?

How could you improve this programme in the future?

What do you think about the possibilities and the requirement to transfer the programme to other countries?

With regard to the university's aims for the training provided to the academic staff, the majority of respondents pointed out that the main aim of the programme was to provide qualified academic teachers in HE. Also, this programme was aimed at developing them as researchers. However, a few of the respondents mentioned that the training programmes of different universities and faculties vary slightly, depending on their specific needs.

One respondent further commented that:

"Our goals help participants support their own career development to be self-reflective about how they teach, how they research and how they manage their career. We try to give them some tools to do that. We have some staff that comes from abroad so one of the key things is to teach them the general things like terminology etc. We think it makes our staff effective anyway."

Most participants believed that they achieved their university's aims. However, one of respondents thought that they did not measure their achievement objectively.

The same respondent added:

"I am confident that we have achieved our goals. However, we have never measured this objectively and this achievement was not without some difficulties."

Another respondent stated:

" I am confident that we have worked really hard as a team, often challenged with significant problems, to be role models and create a positive learning atmosphere, foster creativity and experimentation but also support our students on their journey to

become competent and confident teachers. Academics and other professionals who have joined the programme felt part of a community and this has been one of the big achievements of this programme."

In relation to their current programmes, two of the participants specified that their programme was strong enough to provide valuable support to the AS in developing their own career within the university and externally.

In this respect one participant commented:

"I am really proud of the programme that I and my team have created and its positive impact on our students who are teachers in HE. Enabling them to learn about learning and teaching, practice and theory, we pushed the boundaries, have been creative and innovative in all aspects of the programme."

However, one of the respondents argued that they have many staff coming from abroad and they teach them the general information regarding the university roles as well as with the main parts of the programme.

In this context, one participant added:

"We have many staff who come from abroad so they are taught how to plan for the short, medium or long term. It doesn't only cover teaching but also covers research and admin. It covers general career development, it has different strands. We try to give them tools to do that.."

Another respondent added that any new staff appointed in his university with a PGCert, must still take the (PGCAP) programme to cover the requirement of their university or their school. In contrast, one respondent stated that they have a similar programme in the same module for the PGCert.

In relation to the assessment of the value of the programme for staff who have completed the programme, the interviews with the respondents revealed that they did not assess their staff objectively; they assessed them through their written portfolio,

Kirkpatrick's model of evaluation, the exit survey and feedback they get from peer review or the students, which is useful and valuable, but not formal. This is confirmed by Butcher and Stoncel, (2012), that they had informal evidence of the earlier impact of the PGCert.

One of the respondents mentioned that they did not assess their staff officially. They only have evidence from the staff and the alumni who had previously achieved awards such as teaching awards.

In this respect one respondent stressed that:

"There is little research for PGCert or any equivalent programme so we haven't investigated that properly, we just have evidence from the alumni who stay in touch and who share their experience. It's not formal."

Another respondent had a similar point of view:

"We have teaching awards so we can assess the people on that. We have teacher of the year, we have teaching excellence, we have national teaching, we have student nomination from our course, we have world woman."

With regard to the obstacles and the challenges facing the programme, all interviewees agreed that administrative, cultural and technological aspects were obstacles. Academics are already busy and don't get time allowance to do the programme.

Other obstacles include the participants themselves. Resistance to attendance was mentioned. This reportedly came from those who have already been lecturers or those who come from other institutions and have been teaching for a number of years; they allegedly found it very distracting.

In this context one respondent said:

"Academics who resist changing to new ways of teaching and learning which involve more playful and creative approaches are characterised as inappropriate. They can

have a negative impact on peers also. Sometimes the less experienced seem to be less resistant to change".

Furthermore, other respondents pointed out that sometimes teachers practice does not reflect the right principles.

Similarly one respondent added:

" There seems to be a disconnect between theory and practice. Whilst many talk about student-centred approaches for example, their practice doesn't reflect their thinking."

Other respondents revealed a different point of view that there is a digital literacy gap. They felt that some academics do not fully understand how technology can support teaching and learning and that there is a lack of skill that creates negativity at times and can become a barrier to engagement and learning.

However, one participant commented that most of their health care professionals' roles are not academic and it is hard for the older among them because the younger generation is highly qualified in IT. Therefore, academic staff should meet the requirement of the generation highly qualified in using IT.

One participant added more on this theme:

"There seems to be a disconnect between theory and practice. Whilst many talk about student centred approaches for example, their practice doesn't reflect their thinking."

As regards how they could improve this programme in the future, the respondents mentioned some imperative issues to help improve their programme in the future. In this context, one participant declared that staff were trying improve all the modules and the assessment, as well as add new modules to design a curriculum that is more innovative. However, there is a new module called academic leadership for learning gains and this module could be developed to a master's course and create to a diploma.

On the other hand, two participants focused on improving the teaching skills by giving the staff some quick pointers such as how they should organise a lecture.

One respondent expressed that they are looking for international PhD students to develop their teaching elements as a part of their study.

In this regard, the participant added:

“They have the practice, receive the qualification and when they get back to their country they can start implementing it right away; we have started talking to the embassies now”

In relation to their views about what requirements should be in place in order to implement this training programme in other universities as well in other countries, the majority of the respondents agreed that the main pillars for implementation of any of these programmes were: the professional development unit; expert academic developer; access to the right resources and literature; national network; research to investigate the programme; inspiring teaching; and an accreditation body such as the HEA in the UK.

In this connection one respondent stated that because the principle is the same and as the theory cannot change, the background of the programme is totally transferable at the school, faculty and university level.

The same respondent further added:

"It could be transferred to Libya or Saudi Arabia, or anywhere. Its structure and the backbone of the programme actually is what are needed for academic development in any country and all you put in are specific examples to meet the goal and ambition of the university or country or the national policy."

In this context, two participants believed that the implementation of such a programme would depend on how it was perceived. In order to make it appealing to the international market, they felt, the content would need to be considered and adjusted according to the local context. Other participants mentioned that it is important to have

local expertise. This participant also mentioned that it is also important to have academic developers who have experience, are risk takers and are experienced in driving change. The reason given for this was that academic developers are “change engines” whose existence is unnecessary if no change is to happen, and therefore they need to support change.

The main issue discussed and explored in these interviews was the requirement to transfer this programme across universities and institutions and countries, whilst considering local needs. Table 5.4 summarises the findings of these points.

Table 5.4 Summary of the opinions of the training programme providers

Theme	Findings
Aims of the university in providing training programmes to the academic staff.	The aim was to: provide qualified academic teachers in HE, and develop them as a researchers; train new academic staff to work effectively within the University.
How the training programmes achieve the aims of the university.	The aims were achieved through: fostering creativity and experimentation; supporting students to become competent and confident teachers.
The thoughts of the respondents about the training programme.	It is strong enough to provide valuable support to the AS in developing their own career within the university and externally; it has been creative and innovative in all respects;; it has a positive impact on students (i.e. the trainees).
How the respondents assess the value of their programme for staff who have completed the programme.	The assessment is not objective and not formal; The Programme is assessed through the written portfolio of trainees or participants; Kirkpatrick's model of evaluation is used for assessment; surveys are also used; student feedback can be used for assessment; assessment can be done using peer review; evidence from the staff and the alumni who have achieved awards of excellence in their work can be used for assessment.
What are the obstacles and the challenges facing the programme?	Administrative obstacles (for example, academics are always busy); cultural obstacles (for example, resistance to change); technological obstacles (for example, lack of skills in IT).
How can the programme be improved in the future?	By improving all the modules and the assessment; by adding more innovative modules when designing a curriculum, such as a module on academic leadership for learning gains; By improving teaching skills such as the skill in organising a lecture and knowing how to organise it; by involving international PhD students to develop teaching elements as a part of their study.
Are there opportunities and requirements to transfer this programme to other universities and countries?	There is an opportunity, because the principle is the same, the theory cannot change, and thus the background of the programme is totally transferable.
What are the requirements to transfer this programme to other universities and countries.	The requirements include: Professional development unit; Expert academic developer; Access to the right resources and literature; National network; Research to investigate the programme; Inspiring teaching; Accreditation body such as the HEA in the UK.

5.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the findings that have emerged from: the questionnaire responses by the holders of the PGCHE/PGCAP or PGCert in fourteen UK universities; semi-structured interviews with PGCHE holders; and semi-structured interviews with the programme providers of PGCHE from two universities in the UK. These multiple sources of evidence provide valuable in-depth information on the implementation of training programmes for academic staff in UK Universities. The next chapter (Chapter 6) will present the findings of the case study of Tripoli University (TU). Chapter 8 will therefore, discuss the findings from Chapter 6 in the light of the aim and objectives of the research. The analysis in that chapter will compare and contrast these findings with those of previous studies that have been presented in the literature review chapter.

CHAPTER SIX

CASE STUDY FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction

The main aim of this chapter is to present the findings obtained from the data collection relating to the case study. This data was collected through in-depth semi-structured, face-to-face interviews supplemented by documentation and archival review, such as newsletters, minutes of meetings, official reports, memos and statistics. Direct observations were also made by the researcher; all of which have been used to triangulate data gathered from the interviews.

These sources of data collection were used in order to achieve the research aim and objectives. The rationale for choosing in-depth semi-structured interviews as the main method to collect the data is given in the methodology chapter.

As discussed in that chapter, there were a total of 31 interviewees, who include two deputy ministers of the HE, the Head of Training Programmes, Deans, Departmental Heads, Lecturers and a senior researcher at Tripoli University.

It was determined to include all of these levels in order to gain in-depth information and clear perceptions about different aspects of Training Programmes for Academic Staff in Libyan Universities. The Training Programmes were evaluated at these various levels. Covering these different levels enhanced the validity

ty of the study by getting different points of view.

The systematic analytical technique used in analysing the collected data was also discussed in the methodology chapter. The data was collected based on the topics (elements of Training Programmes) provided by the framework. This offered an easy yet rigorous process to collect and analyse the data under each related topic. The findings are presented in this chapter in relation to the aim and objectives of the research.

6.2 Results of Interviews

In order to present the data from the interviews, the following terminology and concepts are used in this research:

1. The Case Study Organisation (CSO): University of Tripoli (UoT)
2. Participants designated as Level 1 Senior Leaders (SL) refer to those with the main responsibility for managing the overall University. Senior Leaders (SL) might include the Deputy minister of the HE; Vice President of University; Vice President for Academic Affairs; Deans and the Assistant Deans of the university; Professors of various ranks: assistant professors, associate professors, and (full) professors.
3. Participants of Level 2 refer to the Heads of Academic Departments (HoD) from the Faculty of Engineering; the Faculty of Science; Faculty of Medicine and Faculty of Economics and Political Science;
4. Participants of Level 3 refer to the Academic Staff (AS) members from different disciplines and faculties of the University. This is senior teachers, lecturers, administrators and researchers.

The following sections provide the research findings under each related theme of the framework. It should be noted that in this discussion of findings, the data obtained by interviews are not presented as verbatim translations of the interview questions or answers.

6.2.1 Motivation for implementation of Training Programmes

The researcher believes that a clear understanding and knowledge of the issues is key to dealing with these issues successfully and to exploring the interviewees' understanding or intentions with regard to the implementation of Training Programmes for the Academic Staff in the Libyan Universities; since the main aim of this research is to identify the necessary factors for the affective implementation of training programmes in order to improve the performance of academic staff of Libyan universities. , the researcher used an open questions to explore interviewees' knowledge about Training Programmes for Academic Staff and to investigate what TPs (if any) are implemented in Libyan Universities (LUs). The interviewees' educational background and the length

of time they have been in their current position in the university's hierarchy were also issues the questions addressed.

The majority of respondents were from the three levels; SL, HoD and AS. They were mostly PhD holders with different specialisations. However, fewer than 10 respondents from the CSO had obtained an MSc. Most of them spent had more than twenty years as a staff member and lecturer in the UoT and some were part time lecturers in many of such institutions.

It was revealed from the interviews that there is a strong intent to implement training Programmes for the academic staff in Libyan Universities. In addition, the majority of respondents from the three levels believe that the implementation of Training Programmes for the Academic Staff is a very useful way to improve the teaching quality in the Libyan Universities. Moreover, there is agreement from all respondents that currently there are no Training Programmes for the academic staff.

In this regard one SL said:

“There were no Training Programmes for the lecturers; we had TP for employees, technicians and research assistants. I think training for academic staff is essential, so if we are not applying these programmes in our universities we will face big problems in the near future”.

Furthermore, 2 HoDs and 3Academic Staff members pointed out that there are some English courses and sessions to learn how to use computers. But these courses are only for selected staff, not for all. So in fact these programmes do not exist across the board.

In this context, another HoD added:

“The only training programme is a sabbatical leave which provides for each staff member after 5 years of teaching to participate in research, formal study, lectureships, and writing projects. Unfortunately, this programme has not been implemented most of the time.”

Furthermore, one Academic Staff member stated that:

“There are no regular programmes, but I have contributed to conferences, locally and internationally for a few categories and it is dependent on personal relationships [favouritism].”

One SL mentioned that there are some programmes with UNESCO, which started that year (2011) and include IT training. There was also a programme in Italy to train some lecturers. Lecturers could also attend some conferences. It has not been applicable to all the members of the Academic Staff, but only in some disciplines (for example, nuclear power).

6.2.2 Supportive of Training legislation

According to the majority view defined by the literature, establishing and updating training legislation is a necessary step in order to establish an effective training programme. In addition, compliance with legislation will provide the foundation for any training programme (Brown and Atkins, 1986).

In this regard the researcher used open question concerned with the existence of any legislation or regulations relating to training programmes for the academic staff in UoT.

The respondents were asked:

“Is there any legislation or were there regulations relating to training programmes for the academic staff in Libyan Universities?”

The answers to this question demonstrate their perception and awareness of training programmes. Moreover, this answer also highlight the extent of their knowledge of the importance of training programmes, the main basis of improving teachers' skills.

The majority of respondents believed that there is no legislation or regulation relating to training programmes for staff members in Libyan Higher Education. There are no clear criteria for evaluating and recognising excellent work in Libyan HE legislations.

However, 3 interviewees (all HoDs) mentioned that there are regulations called “Regulations of National Libyan Universities’ Academic Staff Members, No. 285 issued in 2006”.

In this regard, one SL stated:

“These regulations state that a staff member could be encouraged, but only by offering him one exceptional academic promotion through his work, based on recommendation from the associated department and faculty, and [this person] has to achieve two scientific research activities.”

The same SL added:

“This legislation addressed all issues related to the staff members, but did not provide or indicate any specific article for training academic Staff members at the university.”

In this respect one Academic Staff member said:

“There is legislation related to the training and development of academic staff but the technical regulations in this legislation do not clarify everything precisely. However such legislation is not applied effectively.”

Furthermore, 2 senior leaders pointed out that Libyan HE legislation indicates that excellent work should be rewarded; however such legislations are not implemented effectively. They further add that this is because there are no clear criteria provided by this legislation as to how excellent work or excellent effort could be identified and evaluated.

6.2.3 Commitment of Leadership

According to the prevailing view seen in the literature, training will not to be effectively implemented without the support of leadership, thus strong commitment from top level management is needed (Partington, 1999’ Bamber, 2002; and Fraser, 2005).

In this regard, the researcher asked the following questions:

- *Do you think that management commitment to training programmes leads to improvement in the teachers' skills?*
- *Is there effective leadership in University of Tripoli ?*

The majority of respondents believed that commitment to training and continuing professional development in teaching leads to increased educational and technical skills for academic staff. It also leads to further programmes enhancing teaching quality.

In this context a senior leader stated:

“As a senior leader of the university I am committed to any comprehensive programme of training for the AS issued by HE and their application under the supervision of the universities, and I am sure that my commitment will support these programmes in practical ways, as well as in helping to overcome any obstacles that may occur during application.”

Another SL added that:

“Commitment to development and training programmes from leadership in TU is essential to achieve quality of teaching and create a quality culture.”

Furthermore, an HoD added:

“From my position as a Director of the Department I will be committed to any training programme if one of these programmes is applied.”

In this respect another HoD asserts:

“We will be committed to these programmes for all the academic staff [members] in our department”.

An SL commented:

“Commitment will not be effective unless it is the combined efforts of all staff members in the university and when this commitment becomes practical, and has the means to activate these programmes and follow-up continuously.”

In this respect another SL with similar views said:

“Yes, the commitment of leadership is important for the success of any programme, in general.”

This was in connection with the question if there was an effective leadership in the UoT ;(effective leadership according to Oakland (2003) means that the managers have the ability to lead an organisation to achieve its objectives.

The majority of respondent who were from the Academic Staff or were HoDs, and a few who were senior leaders, point out that the leadership is not effective due to a lack of experience

The reason for that, according to three Academic Staff, was that the SL appointments were subject to social and cultural considerations rather than skills (favouritism).

In this regard, one SL states:

“Most of the staff members have same academic level and experience which are built up over a long time working in the university. There is no specific criterion for leadership and there are no training programmes offered by the university or by HE to the leadership in university. Subsequently, this impacts negatively on the efficiency of the guidance in the university.”

6.2.4 Training Elements

According to Torrington and Hall, (1991), training elements are the process that usually start through the identification of training needs and conclude with an evaluation. However, training elements in general are defined as the training cycle that enables the organisations to create perfect training for their staff (Hackett, 2004). It requires identifying training needs in view of the overall organisational objectives and requirements; it also requires planning and recording which depend on supportive factors that contribute to an effective plan that can ensure an effective Training Programme and a record keeping system that documents the training plan. These records provide evidence that training has been established according to required procedures, and they have to be maintained in an effective way. Designing and

delivering the Training Programme and evaluating the effectiveness of these programmes are necessary.

In this regard the researcher asked questions concerning the training need, planning and recording, design and developing, and evaluation. These questions are below:

‘Have you received any instruction/training programmes that support Academic Staff in Tripoli University?’

‘Are there are any barriers that affect the implementation of the Training Programmes for Academic Staff in Libyan Universities? If so, what are these barriers?’

‘Do you have a specific plan to train and develop the Academic Staff and do you have any documentation supporting that?’

‘What form should the Training Programmes take? Emphasising local needs or the more ‘Western’ models of HE teacher development/’

Regarding the question whether they were receiving any training programmes to support Academic Staff in UoT, the majority of the SL respondents stated that they did not give or attend any training programmes to improve their jobs.

Furthermore, they agreed that such programmes are essential and must be offered by HE on a regular basis. They also believe that providing such programmes will enhance the quality of teaching and staff improvement.

On the other hand, interviews with the SLs revealed that there are intermittent and limited courses offered by the UoT to their staff and employees.

In this respect one SL mentioned that:

“There is a series of training programmes in Italy [which] will start next year to train some lecturers, including IT training.”

The majority of the HoDs and the Academic Staff members interviewed agreed that none of them had received any training programmes related to teaching skills.

One HoD said:

“There are Training Programmes in my department (French department) in collaboration with the French Cultural Centre from the French embassy.”

However, discussion with interviewees about this theme revealed that there is a general agreement among the three levels (SL; HoD and Academic Staff) that there are no training programmes offered by the UoT to their staff. In addition, there is no evidence that Higher Education authorities have provided any plans for such training programmes. (This was inferred as a result of the triangulation of relevant documents as well as minutes of meetings with some employees in different departments within UoT).

Additionally, the interviews showed that there is awareness among SLs and HoDs that their staff need training to improve their skills and abilities.

In relation to the question about barriers that affect the implementation of the Training Programmes in Libyan Universities, a few of the interviewees expressed a belief that it is impossible to foresee any obstacles as these programmes have not been applied yet in the universities. Conversely, the majority of respondents affirmed numerous obstacles. One SL and 3 HoDs mentioned that mismanagement is the main barrier, because there is a training department in each faculty, but unfortunately there is also a lack of professionals experienced to manage these units.

However, 4 Academic Staff members agree that the main barriers are bureaucracy and the difficulty of communication and coordination between Academic Staff via the internet and lack of financial resources, as well as the dearth of technical tools as well periodicals and journals in the library to support these programmes. In this regard one Academic Staff member said:

“Every lecturer was given laptop to do their job. But the problem is the lack of the internet so we cannot access to the articles, books, and magazine etc.”

Another 2 Academic Staff members confirmed that there are a lot of difficulties that affect the implementation of training programmes such as the lack of centres or units with relevant experience in implementing these programmes, and the absence of highly qualified staff to teach these programmes.

Besides, one Academic Staff member claimed that the English language was considered a big barrier for the academic staff.

In this respect an SL with similar views explained:

“The academic staff who graduate from German, French and Eastern Europe universities, face difficulties in the delivering the information in English, for example to the medical students.”

Furthermore, 2 HoDs mentioned that the absence of any strategy for the implementation of these programmes, as well as lack of planning to train the Academic Staff in the universities, were great barriers.

One of the HoDs commented:

“The first barrier is our culture which resists the changes. Consequently the lecturer does not like to do any effort after the long experience in teaching.”

In contrast, three Academic Staff members and one SL declared that lack of awareness of the importance of these programmes by the Ministry of Higher Education, and the absence of regulation to support Training Programmes, combined with an absence of effective leadership at the University is an enormous barrier to Academic Staff training.

From another perspective one SL added:

“The main obstacle that affects the application of these valuable programmes is the weak oversight of the administrative institutions of the state. Besides, the environment for doing business in Libya does not encourage the researcher to continue such training programmes, where the academic staff suffer from difficulties of ordinary life and therefore take this opportunity to improve their standard of living.”

In relation to the question ‘Do you have a specific plan to train and develop the academic staff, and is there any documentation supporting that?’, there was a unanimous response in UoT from the two levels (SL and HoD); people from both these levels felt that in Libya a lack of advance planning is the real problem for any project, making implementation difficult, ultimately rendering the project a failure.

In this regard one HoD asserted:

“In general there is a lack of advanced planning in all Libyan institutions. In the university context there is a lack of coordination between departments within the institution as well as a lack of improvement, enthusiasm and non-comprehension of the context of this issue.”

Another HoD with similar views said:

“An important strategic plan like this needs more focus and feasibility analysis as to whether the budget allocated for this project is equal or greater than the return expected from this project. The goal of this project was primarily intended to enhance the Academic Staff skills and increase the quality of teaching in the Libyan universities.”

Furthermore, one SL added:

“Training programmes in Libya lack scientific study. Consequently, most of the programmes do not achieve their goal and are not suitable.”

He further added:

“In the university there is a complete lack of planning for the future.”

Therefore, it can be concluded that what Libya lacks is effective planning. Every project requires clear objectives and measures. It needs to plan a programme to accomplish the aim before implementing it.

With regard to the question of “What form should the training programmes take? Is it emphasizing local needs or the more ‘Western’ models of HE teacher development?” there was a unanimous response. Interviewees expected training programmes to be delivered at the level which would best increase the performance of the Academic Staff, especially the relatively new staff who do not already hold relevant teaching qualifications to increase their motivation for teaching different subjects and improving their academic career. Furthermore, training should consider the requirements of each department under the university’s umbrella, and can be designed as workshops, seminars or lectures confined to specialisations, limited in number and not exceeding 10 hours in total duration, including online attendance or a combination of online and face to face learning.

However, the majority of the respondents from UoT believe that the programmes should be suitable to the local need and need to be adapted from a western programme, like that of Britain.

In this respect one HoD pointed out:

“We prefer to take advantage of the experiences of the West in their progress in this area.”

Another Academic Staff member added:

“There are successful models in the world like the British model. They have many years’ experience in this field, so we should try to apply it whilst taking into account local requirements.”

An SL mentioned that:

“These programs should be periodic and systematic according to the specialisation and consider the local needs. They should take models from successful countries like Japan, Korea, or India, who were third world countries and are now developed countries, but should consider the local needs. There

must be specialised institutions and designated teachers with lots of experience to set up a structure to implement these programmes.”

An Academic Staff member noted:

“[TPs] should take the advantage of the experiences of Malaysia and the Gulf states with emphasis on the needs of the country. We should give the Academic Staff the ability to choose which programme is suitable for them, and it should be delivered by the training unit at the university.”

6.2.5 Finance

The availability of funds is one of the important factors in establishing any educational training project. Thus, limited funds have often make the educational system struggle for resources from government, partnership, or private investment. Thus, the university needs to address the issue of funding for development and training.

In this respect, the researcher had asked about the presence of financial resources in the university to cover the expenses required for developing and training academic staff in the university.

The majority of interviewees agreed that the university has enough financial resources to cover the costs for training and technical requirements.

In this regard two of the SLs mentioned that there is sufficient money in the university to fulfil any necessity for educational training and development.

However, one Academic Staff member opined:

“The University has other priorities than training and development at this time and is undertaking extensive refurbishment in some of the faculties’ buildings, some lecture halls and the libraries.”

6.2.6 Unit for CPD

Continuous Professional Development (CPD) is concerned with supporting people in the workplace to understand more about the environment in which they work, the job they do, and how to do it better. CPD goes under a variety of titles, such as Unit for Teaching and Learning, or Academic Practice, or Quality Enhancement. Prytherch, (2005) defines CPD as a career-long process of improving and updating the skills, abilities and competencies of staff by regular in-service training and education, supported by external courses. However, Corrall and Brewerton, (1999) describe CPD as “the systematic maintenance, improvement and increase of knowledge and skills and the development of individual qualities essential for the execution of professional and technical duties throughout the practitioner’s working life”. However, CPD is a commitment to being professional, keeping up to date and continuously seeking to develop. It is the key to optimising a person's career opportunities today and for the future (Husband, 2011).

In this regard, the researcher had asked:

What does the Ministry of MHE provide in the way of Enhancing Professional Practises for Academic Staff in UOT?

One SL mentioned that the MHE always makes every effort to enhance and improve the performance of new academic staff members at Libyan universities; for instance, all academic staff can attend two international conferences each year.

The same SL added:

“In addition to that, the university also financially supports any internal scientific activity including workshops, training lectures or conferences.”

Another SL had a different point of view:

“There is no financial support; however we try to make a plan for training programmes as induction day for training for three days”.

Furthermore, another HoD added:

“In terms of training the MHE does not provide what is useful to develop teaching and learning. What we need is a change of the whole Higher Education Sector.”

However, Training Programmes in general are believed by most participants to be a very useful way to improve all Academic Staff. In this regard the majority of the participants consider that the absence of any criteria for staff evaluation in the faculties as well as in the university itself, makes it difficult to establish any Training Programmes. This is because any training should be obligatory and a requirement of the appointment as well as of evaluations and promotions of Academic Staff members.

In this respect an Academic Staff member with similar views said:

“Yes, Training Programmes should be compulsory for all teaching staff, because an Academic Staff [member] may refuse these programmes because they think that they have a lot of experience in teaching. I in addition to that, most of the Academic Staff do not have [an] educational and pedagogical background. The other reason is that some of them have been appointed with qualifications below the quality standards. So for all these reasons we should require these programmes to be compulsory.”

However, the development of the academic skills of the University teachers is not only an investment in human resources, but also one of the most important investments in the world (Diamond, 2008).

6.3 Documentary analysis

The use of documentary analysis enhances these findings and provides some of the advantages of case study research. However, the role of documentary analysis in this research, although notably smaller than that of other methods used, is still of sufficient

significance to support the research objective and findings and so is included within this thesis.

Documents that have been examined were annual reports of the Ministry of Higher Education (MHE). These included: Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research (2012); different reports issued by higher education; TU correspondence; Libyan Regulations of National Libyan Universities' Academic Staff Members, No. 285 issued in 2006; the General People's Committee of Education, (2008); 'The development of the education', the national report of Libya represented to the international conference on education session (48) in Geneva during 25-28 November 2008.

6.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the findings of semi-structured interviews conducted in the case study organisation. Multiple sources of evidence such as semi-structured interviews and documentation were used to enhance the validity of the research, and that of the external generalisability of this research. UoT is the largest and most important and established Libyan university, and contributes effectively in establishing many universities in Libya. TU provides specialists and educators who are experts in the curriculum, pedagogy, academic administration, and teaching (GSUSM, 2005). Hence, these collaborations contribute to similarities within all Libyan universities. The findings of this chapter will be classified into categories (themes) in the subsequent chapter and will be discussed thoroughly in the next chapter in the light of the aim and objectives of the research. Discussions will link and contrast these findings with those of previous studies that have been presented in the literature review chapter.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE AND INTERVIEWS IN UK

7.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the main findings from the questionnaire and interviews that were conducted in the UK. It draws together the results of the research, bringing together evidence from the literature review of training in Western and Arab countries.

This discussion will focus on the main aim and the related objectives and questions of the research, in particular the research question: *What are the appropriate TPs for AS that are implemented in the developed countries' universities, such as UK universities.* It includes discussion of perceptions about the postgraduate certificate programmes in higher education (PGCAP, PGCert) and identifies issues that influence willingness to implement these TPs for AS in LUs.

7.2 Discussions of the Findings of the Questionnaire

7.2.1 The Characteristics of the Participants

Findings reveal that the majority of the participants have teaching experience of about three years. However, but according to the requirement of the UK Professional Standards for teaching and supporting learning in higher education, they have to obtain a teaching qualification. This is part of the contractual requirement for new and inexperienced appointees (Fraser, 2005). However, most of them were part-time for periods of over one, two or three years due to their duties as part-time lecturers in the HEIs. Their qualifications range include Master and PhD degrees, while a few of them have only a Bachelor's degree. This indicates that there are more opportunities for employment for those with a high level of education.

It was found that the main reason for enrolling on the programme was to obtain a teaching qualification as required by most UK universities, as this certificate is necessary to gain professional expertise in HEIs (Gibbs and Coffey, 2004). Other

reasons for enrolling were to improve teaching skills and performance to cope with the rapid development resulting from the investment made to improve the quality of HEI teaching. These results indicate that these programmes have a positive impact on the AS. Similar findings were made by Knight (2006) and Butcher and Stoncel (2012).

It was also noted that the PGCAP is mainly designed for staff engaged in teaching, learning, assessment, research and professional development within the HE context. However, in some universities this certificate is not a requirement for a teacher to have.

What is more, the PGCert and PGCAP are similar in level, being nationally recognised and worth 60 credits at Master's level. However the content of the PGCert is to some extent decided by individual institutions (Beaton, 2012). Teaching qualifications are now routinely on offer to new entrants to the profession and are validated nationally by the Higher Education Academy (Beer, 2014). Any institution in this domain can establish this programme (PGCAP) depending on the needs of their discipline. The terminology used and the length of programmes vary from university to university and from country to country.

Most of the respondents commenced the programmes in 2007, but a few started before this date, though the questionnaire covered only the last five years. This may indicate that the TPs for AS have continued to develop in Britain because of the mandatory requirement in most UK institutions for new academic staff to complete a teaching certificate, and due to a growing recognition of the importance of TPs for all staff. This is consistent with the study of Brown and Atkin, (1986) in which they surveyed 42 UK universities.

Regarding their post-graduation plan, most of the respondents concentrated on their chances of university employment, while a few of them mentioned career promotion and teaching improvement. This indicates that they are assigned part-time teacher roles until they are allowed to work full time after obtaining the PGCHE certificate. However, some of them take the course to improve their performance as university teachers, demonstrating the value of this certification to this end, and in enhancing

teacher ability. The researcher, believing that such programmes impact positively on HE teacher development, supports the findings of previous studies and agrees that by adopting such TPs, trained teachers will do a better job than untrained ones and that all teaching staff should be qualified. The PGCHE may be able to meet the greatest expectations and satisfy the greatest developmental needs.

7.2.2 About the PGCAP, PGCert Certificate

It is highly recommended these days to have teaching qualification for becoming a university teacher. Currently all new AS who have less than three years teaching experience in UK are required to undertake the PGCHE as a condition of their employment and as part of the commitment to maintain the highest academic standards in teaching and learning (Butcher and Stoncel, 2012).

As mentioned in Chapter 2, every education institution in the UK is required to have some form of professional development for new AS, who are required to undertake a postgraduate certificate in higher education (PGCHE), which aims in most cases to have a deep appreciation of the knowledge of the subject matter and of epistemological beliefs about the nature of teaching and learning (Gibbs and Coffey, 2004). The PGCHE, which is mentioned in this study as the general form of both PGCAP and PGCert, is designed to equip holders with the skills needed to provide high-quality teaching and learning (Gibbs and Coffey, 2004).

PGCAP provides an exploration of the underpinning pedagogy of teaching and learning, and support for the practical aspects of developing academic practice. Those who successfully complete the programmes are eligible to apply to become Fellows of the HEA. However, there are different names for PGCAP which offer dissimilar programmes but show comparable learning outcomes, the teaching and learning issues provided being generic in nature (Baalawi, 2008).

Satisfaction with Programme

It is widely recognised in the literature that participant satisfaction is an important factor in obtaining effective TPs (ILO, 2008). Odiorne and Rummler (1988) point out that the

quality of the training outcomes is based on the training-needs assessment data. And if the training needs have not been properly assessed, then the design of the programme will not meet the expectations of participants. Elangovan and Karakowsky (1999), Vermeulen (2002) and Holton and Baldwin (2003) pointed out the need for the training to match what is required by the trainees' work context.

The finding shows that this programme (PGCAP and PGCert) met the needs and expectations of the majority of respondents, which clearly demonstrates the positive attitude towards these programmes. This result is consistent with Knight's (2006) findings which confirm that the participants expect this programme to be professionally useful.

However, there are a few respondents who show dissatisfaction with the programme. Their comments include: the time table is too demanding; the programme does not reflect professional practice; the length of the programme; the programme being too general; and the complications with online programmes. Likewise, Bamber's (2002) empirical research about the issue of TPs for new Academic Staff in UK Higher Education Institutions revealed similar trends. This indicates that this programme was general in its nature and was prepared based on what was available. These findings align with the recommendation of Comber and Walsh's report, (2008) of the inclusion of pedagogies and programmes that allow participants to gain a cross-institutional perspective. Likewise, Hunt, (2007) considers the critical interdisciplinary discourse resulting from the different perspectives of those involved.

In this respect, the researcher sought the opinions of the respondents on TP effectiveness, and found the majority of the respondents satisfied.

Experience Evaluation after Attending the Programme

According to the literature (see Chapter 2) training evaluation is a system for determining changes resulting from training interventions, identifying whether trainees have achieved learning outcomes (Tan et al., 2003). Regarding this theme, the results were positive towards the programme in that it was understood to have prepared them to be more confident to carry out different research techniques and had made excellent

progress in supporting students in higher education. This finding is consistent with claims of other researchers (Gibbs and Coffey, 2000a and 2000b; Trigwell et al., 1999; Butcher and Stoncel, 2012) who noted significant improvements in teachers' approaches to teaching which may lead to improvements in teaching practices and student learning.

However, a few felt that they had made poor progress. It may be that the participants are from different subject areas and their practices are so different and as a result the programme may face problems in meeting all learners' expectations.

Effectiveness of the Programme

Regarding the effectiveness of the programme, the findings revealed evidence of positive impact as the vast majority of the respondents answered 'yes' and very few answered 'no'. This result is an important indicator that this programme is valuable and effective in improving the knowledge, skills and attitudes as well as the teaching quality of academic staff. The findings above match those of the study by Butcher and Stoncel (2012).

The researcher notes that the majority of the respondents affirmed the effectiveness of the training programmes in successfully equipping them with the intended skills; this may indicate that the methods used were successful in equipping trainees with the intended skills for work, and that therefore training can indeed impact on the productivity of the participants.

Understanding of the Curriculum

The systematic understanding of the curriculum content of the programme was clearly comparatively high. There are indications that the participants experiment with teaching improvements, inspired by what they have learned. This means that their learning experiences will tend to change them into better teachers, as a result of their understanding the method of teaching and using new teaching practices and curriculum design to become better teachers.

Assessment and Feedback

As revealed by the literature review in this study (Chapter 2), assessment is one of the important factors in the TPs (Cheatle, 2001). Assessment should provide some basis on which training actions can be considered in order to make clear what the employee is doing and why. Assessment is very important as it reflects the outcomes of the learning.

PGCHE and PGCAP are designed for staff engaged in professional and academic practices including assessment. Findings indicate that most of the participants believe that the programme improved their skills in assessing their students and providing them with feedback. Only a few of them stated that their skills in this area were poor.

This finding agrees with that of Moon (1997) who notes that the absence of assessment raises significant barriers to training. Likewise, Holton et al. (2003) argue that, from the training design viewpoint, training-needs assessment is basic to effective programmes.

Certainly, a systematic needs assessment can be used to specify a number of key aspects for the implementation and evaluation of training programmes. Therefore, conducting a systematic needs assessment is a vital first step in training design and can significantly affect the ultimate value of the programme.

Developing Personal Skills for Effective Critical Analysis

Developing personal skills for effective critical analysis is important for reflective thinking, critical analysis and more effective argument-construction skills as mentioned in the literature (Cottrell, 2011). The finding shows that the majority of respondents agreed that their skills in effective critical analysis had improved. However, a few of them felt they had made poor progress.

Improving Technology Skills

With regard to improving technology skills, training can be considered a main factor that can change and impact on the levels of the different uses of technology. Teachers' attitudes and opinions toward technology practice should have positive results. Hence, teacher selection should be based on candidates' ability to use technologies effectively, and they have to be empowered to use technologies to develop learners' knowledge and

skills. Also, ICT offers increasingly sophisticated mechanisms for raising and sustaining strong interdisciplinary, international and inter-sectorial research networks.

Accordingly, the findings of this research show that most of participants have improved their technology skills as a result of the training programme they attended. This result agrees with what was found by Vannatta and Beyerbach (2000), Hakes and Hines (2002) and Sherry (2001). In contrast, a few of the participants had negative attitudes towards the improvement of integrated technology skills.

It can be argued that the lack of IT skills among academic staff is due to the lack of IT and professional development training programmes. Therefore, professional development programmes should be proposed on a continuing basis for such professionals.

Using e-Learning

It is commonly recognised in the literature that a participant's satisfaction is an important influence in their acceptance of technology, and in their intention to use and their actual use of such technology (Roca, Chiu and Martinez, 2006). The emphasis in the survey sample on using e-learning technology for the subject area showed positive responses. The use of e-learning is considered as one of the main tools of the training programmes for academic staff in higher education and as a beneficial educational method for students and teachers at different educational levels. This result concurs with the recommendations of Collier and Rivera (2004), that programmes be designed to provide pre-service teachers with multiple, real-world opportunities to learn and apply technology skills systematically.

Teaching Improvement

University teachers' conceptions of teaching are important in the shift of academics from using 'teacher-focused' approaches to using 'student-focused' ones.

The finding indicates that there is an improvement in teaching among all the respondents, though there is a variation in the percentage of the improvement. These findings are represented other studies such as those of Trigwell et al. (1999), Knight and

Trowler (2000) and Butcher and Stoncel (2012). It is widely recognised in the literature that stakeholder satisfaction is an important factor in obtaining effective teaching (Massy, 2003).

The research reveals that teaching is effective when all necessary tools are available and put into practical utilisation, because quality teaching has become an issue of importance, with the landscape of higher education facing continuous changes. Recently, students have needed new teaching methods. Modern technologies have entered the classroom, thus modifying the nature of the interactions between students and teachers. Furthermore, most teachers will try to improve the quality of their teaching only if they believe that the university cares about teaching. Hence, thus universities and their training programmes must give concrete, tangible signs that teaching matters.

Integration of Research with Teaching

In modern Higher Education, no issue is more basic than the relation between research and teaching (Clark, 1994). Research is a highly valued activity for academic staff. The current HE policy in UK also seeks to promote integrative and applied research practices (Beer, 2014).

Therefore, the UK Government has begun to invest in improving teaching and learning across all forms of Higher Education through the organisation of the Higher Education Academy (HEA) and its constituent subject centres and centres of excellence in teaching and learning (CETLs). This emphasis has created a growth area for research underpinning teaching and learning within and across subjects and disciplines, sometimes referred to as the pedagogic research (HEA, 2012).

The finding of this theme revealed that the majority of the participants were successfully integrating research with improving their academic career, which is consistent with the study done by Senaratne and Amaratunga (2006), who stated that integrating new knowledge created through research with teaching has become an important topic that needs prompt attention with the growing emphasis on student

learning activities, quality assurance procedures and research funding mechanisms within the UK higher education system.

The Ability to Research and Analytically Report

It is widely recognised in the literature that the ability to research is an important factor in the impact of any training programme (Knight, 2006). Critical thinking is an important skill that encourages individuals to be objectively analytical and reflective; both analytical ability and reflectivity are essential for professional effectiveness (Argyris and Schön, 1995), but arguably not all learners have the capability to develop into critical thinkers. Many students attribute their poor performance to personal characteristics and consequently become unsuccessful in adequately engaging in deep learning, often due to the devaluation of the benefits of education (Hufton *et al.*, 2002).

When this study asked the participants to rate their ability to research and to report analytically, a crucial number indicated that they had improved their teaching skills and their ability to research and analytically report.

The Use of Assessment Methods to Improve Teaching

With regard to the use of assessment methods to improve teaching capabilities, it was found that there was a general agreement among the respondents that they have achieved this improvement, which can play an important role in facilitating their teaching in HE. This result matches the findings by Butcher and Stoncel (2012) in their study about the impact of a Postgraduate Certificate in Teaching in Higher Education (PGCert) on new lecturers; these lecturers were reported as developing reflective practices linked to teaching.

However, the researcher believes that assessing the quality of teaching has proven to be difficult, and this issue has received increasing attention in the literature.

The issue of the measurement of teaching quality should be addressed. For example, a well-rated programme and a rewarded teacher have less motivation for change and become therefore more likely to maintain their status.

The Confidence to Carry out Different Research Techniques

This confidence comes from those who have demonstrably incorporated advances in technology into their teaching to improve teaching skills. The outcomes from this part of the findings reveal that all of the respondents confirmed that their confidence to carry out different research techniques was enhanced.

Time and Availability of Resources

Regarding the time and the availability resources, the finding demonstrates that the majority of participants agreed that the time and availability of resources for the programme were appropriate. However, some of the respondents were neutrally about this outcome.

Suggestions to Improve the Programme

With regard to the suggestions made by questionnaire participants, results disclose some views on the ways forward for improving aspects of the programme such as its timetable, length, pre-programme guidance to trainees, schedule and frequency of workshops outside the semesters' main teaching hours, face-to-face time, practice observation, IT training and induction.

These requirements were suggested on the basis of the participants' experience of the programme, and should be considered by the programme's provider in order to improve it.

Recommending This Programme to Others

The findings related to the theme, 'recommending this programme to others' revealed agreement among the majority of the respondents that the programme was useful and satisfactory for the academic staff, who have recommended the programme to the others. Additionally, PGCHE was considered enjoyable and not requiring any changes by most participants.

However, some of the participants recommended that universities should deliver such a programme for all PG students in order to help them take up teaching in HE if they so wished.

As these findings reflect individuals' opinions about this kind of programme, the participants seem to confirm that PGCHE has a positive impact on individual practice in teaching, as concurred by some studies like those of Knight, (2006), Butcher and Stoncel, (2012), and Venkatraman, (2007); all these authors recommend that institutions in the higher education sector should offer training programmes to their staff, taking into consideration the aligning of such programmes with institutions' objectives.

7.3 Discussions of the Interviews with PGCHE Holders in the UK

In the following sections, the findings were obtained from four participants, all PGCHE holders and academic staff members of different universities in the UK. The finding was discussed in the light of the literature reviewed. The discussion was based on their satisfaction regarding the several ways that could improve the teaching skills of the academic staff, their feelings as to whether the training programme has prepared them for a job in HE, and their views about how the programme should be delivered to improve their teaching abilities.

Reasons for Enrolling in the Programme

It was clear from the qualitative analysis that all the interviewees undertook this training programme for the teaching qualifications required by most of the UK universities for their full-time academic staff. This reveals that they appointed were part-time at the university and encouraged to attend this programme. The literature review (see Chapter 2) confirms that such training is now compulsory in many universities and is completed alongside the lecturer's normal working duties. The certification is the same for all UK universities, but there are some differences between programmes. Furthermore, most have been accredited by the HEA (Brown, 2000).

Findings related to this theme also revealed that the reason for most of the participants undertaking this programme was to get a teaching qualification. It can be seen that there

are people with great skills (for example, lab bench skills) and experience, but there is a concern that they are not going to be able to translate these into teaching. So a marriage is considered necessary between the teaching and the skill/experience in a particular content area.

Should Academics be Trained Teachers?

In relation to the question whether academics should be trained teachers, the view of the majority of respondents is that academics should be trained teachers. They demonstrate a surprising level of recognition for the need for qualified teachers. One academic staff member stated:

"I think it is always a good idea because sometimes you are an expert in your area, then that does not mean that you are automatically qualified as a teacher."

This reflects the importance of recognising academics' understandings of teaching development and teaching practices. This view is supported by *Ho et. al.*, (2001) and Rust, (2000), whose findings conclude that such a programme, when personalised, has a positive effect. Rust argues that a conceptual change may be achieved by addressing individual variations resulting in the development of reflective practitioners, and that this change becomes more apparent to the participants later in their teaching career.

Expectations about the Programme

All the participants confirmed that the programme met their expectations. It appears that all of the respondents felt that the programme developed their teaching performance. They believe that the programme prepared them for the jobs they acquired. This result is consistent with what was found by Cheng and Ho, (1998), Elangovan and Karakowsky, (1999), and Holton and Baldwin, (2003), who all found a clear link between expectations and training results.

In addition to this, the feedback from the questionnaire shows the same opinion where the majority agreed that the programme met their expectation.

Developing Teaching Skills

The interviews reveal an agreement among the majority of the interview respondents that the programme helped them to improve their teaching skills, confidence, knowledge and expertise. These findings are supported by Smith, (2004), who discusses the effect of TPs on individual participants. This is of particular significance for this research, as all of the participants had embarked on a significant career change, and their experience of HE differed from that of those who have followed a traditional route into their academic discipline. This is quite similar to the finding of the questionnaire.

Encouraging Others to Attend This Programme

There was general agreement among the respondents that they would encourage others to attend the same programme. All of the participants in the study considered training programmes for academic staff as essential, given their objectives to prepare lecturers for a situation that demands transferable skills and performance. This belief is echoed throughout developed and developing countries, as many schools, centres, institutes, and colleges are becoming increasingly aware of the significance of finding suitable jobs for their new lecturers in the competitive global labour market (Cava *et al.*, 2009; Yorke and Knight, 2003) .

It can be suggested that the stakeholders' perspectives on encouraging others to get the same qualification are significant since they all overwhelmingly believe in the need to improve their teaching skills by strengthening personal abilities and skills, so that they have more awareness of the main problems in real-life working situations and are able to apply theoretical and practical concepts to help solve these.

Suggestions for Future TPs

The findings in connection to the theme 'the sort of training AS would like to see made available, and why', showed that the interviewees suggested some issues that should be considered when establishing TPs: the continuous development in diverse academic and/or professional settings every two or three years; and the emphasis on helping the teacher to be more innovative and creative.

Some generic texts on learning and teaching in HE give space to creativity and innovation (Cox and Calkins, 2009). Hunt and Chalmers, (2012) often mention “effective teaching”. Nonetheless, creativity is not mentioned. The key point is how teachers can make students learn and work in a technology world of which these teachers themselves have only a partial understanding (Smith, 2004).

The potential offered by ICT in teaching and learning is developing rapidly and members of academic staff are increasingly using that potential as they seek to keep pace with the expectations and skills of students.

The researcher believes that all these issues mentioned by the participants are important, given that continuing professional development is a unit for lifelong learning for all professionals to cope with the rapid developments in higher education.

How Should Training Be Delivered?

The discussions with participants reveal that they admit the importance of academic developers. The majority confirm that training providers must offer a training atmosphere that supports and assists the training practice. Their views concur with those of Trowler and Bamber, (2012) and Park and Jacobs, (2008). Tennant *et al.*, (2002) and Hackett, (2003) stress that training providers best judge how to meet objectives, and that they care and are passionate about their job.

Beer, (2014) declares that teachers are expected to take a reflective and scholarly approach to their teaching, which would enable them to deliver a high quality student learning experience, and therefore there is a need to support this with extensive staff development.

The researcher believes digital technologies are spreading in modern society. Students coming to the universities have grown up with them, and have high expectations that their institutions and teachers will provide reliable and easy access to online resources. It is evident that students entering HE expect universal internet access, support for using their own equipment within the university, and comprehensive access to learning and administrative information through the web. Therefore, it is important to consider

establishing more courses to form a technology education culture within institutions, which will help not only with current challenges but also help staff to achieve personal development and become more self-sufficient in the use of electronic resources online.

7.4 Discussions of the Interviews with Professionals (Providers or Developers)

In this section, the findings obtained from the three academic TP providers in two UK universities (Salford and Manchester) will be discussed. The discussion will include their perceptions of training programmes for academic staff, the achievement of their goals and the assessment for their post-graduation in their institute. The other main issue that was discussed in the interviews was the requirement to transfer this programme across to other universities.

Aims of the University to Provide TPs to the Academic Staff

As indicated in Chapter 2, the purpose of training programmes is to provide higher education with highly qualified teachers. The key way in which universities support and enable staff is through an HEA accredited UK Professional Standards Framework (UKPSF) scheme for Continuing Professional Development (CPD). The interviewees in this study agreed on the importance of producing qualified higher education teachers as the main aim of their universities. They pointed out that the main aim of the programme is to equip new academic staff to operate effectively within the University and to develop them as researchers. However, one of the respondents mentioned that the different universities and faculties have slightly different variations in programmes depending on their needs. The current programme was strong enough to provide valuable support to the academic staff in developing their own career within the university and externally; this is one of the most important aims achieved by enabling them to learn.

The researcher agrees with the developers that the main role of training programmes is to support academic staff members by giving them the tools to develop their own careers and to be self-reflective about how they teach and research.

Achievement of the University's Aims

The universities' goal is to provide a high quality learning and working experience for students and staff, as well as offer the highest academic values and educational innovation and to help research prosper and scholarship resonate throughout society. (Manchester and Salford universities, 2013-2014). Most of the interviewees believed that they achieved their university's aims. However, one of respondents felt that their achievement was not measured objectively and this achievement was with some difficulties. Another stated that they worked hard as a team, often challenged with significant problems, to be role models and create a positive learning atmosphere, to foster creativity and experimentation but also to support their students to become competent and confident teachers.

This finding is consistent with what Scott, (2000) described as the significance of higher education in inspiring and enabling individuals to develop their capabilities to the highest levels, and in increasing knowledge and understanding.

The purpose of HE is to meet the socio-cultural and developmental needs of a society. HE is needed for high-level human resources in a society. Its objectives include cultural and material development. The academic providers argued that they have some difficulties related to the programme such as the lack of a positive learning atmosphere.

The researcher supports the opinion of previous studies and agrees with the providers that it is important to improve these programmes and to support the trainees to become competent and confident teachers. Academics and other professionals who have been joining the programme felt part of a community and this has been one of the big achievements of this programme.

Thought about the Current Programme

This question was asked in order to understand the importance of the programme from the programme providers' point of view. They argued that this programme was strong enough to provide valuable support to the trainees in developing their own career within the university and externally. One of them was proud of their modules which can teach academic staff members from abroad the general terminology used in his university, and

also teach them about planning in the short, medium or long term which not only covers teaching but also research and administration. These findings coincide with those of Rust, (2000) regarding the importance of programme, and with those of Smith, (2004) about the analysis of individual impact. They also match the findings of Butcher and Stoncel, (2012).

Assessment of the Programme

The quality of the training outcomes is based on the training needs assessment as it is the most important factor and one of the main requirements for the success of the training (Odiorne and Rummmler,1988) .

All the respondents revealed that they did not assess their staff properly; they just have evidence from the alumni who stay in touch and share their experience. They also make judgements based on who receives teaching awards like ‘teacher of the year’, ‘teaching excellence’, ‘national teaching’, ‘world woman’ and student nomination from the programme. One of the interviewees commented:

“There is no research to assess PGCert or any equivalent programme, so we haven’t investigated that properly, we just have evidence from the alumni who stay in touch and who share their experience. However, it’s not formal.”

This is consistent with what Butcher and Stoncel, (2012), mention about the informal evidence of the earlier impact of the PGCert. They pointed out that if the training needs have not been appropriately assessed, then the training programme will not achieve the expectations of participants, and the training efforts will be a waste of time.

As argued by Chiu *et al.*, (1999), the main purpose of assessment is to improve the effectiveness of an organisation. The researcher suggests that the trainees can be assessed through their written portfolio or through a profile of their progress, achievements and attainment which is maintained during the programme.

Kirkpatrick's model of evaluation declares that the exit survey and the feedback received from peer review or from the students is useful and valuable.

To conclude, a good training-needs assessment should provide some basis on which training actions can be considered in order to make clear what academic staff members are doing and why. The process should diagnose training concerns and priorities in a logical way by examining individual cases. Therefore, conducting a systematic assessment is a serious initial step to training design and can significantly influence the overall success of training programmes (Goldstein and Ford, 2002; Sleezer, 1993; Zemke, 1994). Indeed, a systematic needs assessment can be used to specify a number of key aspects for the implementation and evaluation of training programmes. Another important point widely recognised in the literature review is that the most important factor in the successful implementation of changes in assessment practices is committed leadership.

The Challenges Facing the Programmes

In this part of the interviews participants were asked to give their views about the challenges facing the programme.

The findings have revealed that most participants agreed that many administrative, cultural and technological aspects were obstacles. Academics are busy already and do not get the time in many cases to do the programme.

It may be that the academic staff appointed for their work-based professional expertise bring with them professional knowledge gained from past experience, shaped by their encounters in workplace cultures and embedded in social learning environments. Additional problems are identified by Kandlbinder and Peseta, (2009), such as coming to terms with a new discipline and seeing the complexity in key concepts, and the wide ranging disciplinary contexts and cultural dimensions experienced by new academic staff appointed for their professional experience. This issue is emphasised by Hunt, (2007) who also considers the critical interdisciplinary Knowledge derived from the different perceptions of those involved. Comber and Walsh (2008) identify disciplinary

pedagogies as significant and as opportunities to gain a cross institutional perspective. Nevertheless, some theories of experiential learning disregard such contexts and environments (Kilminster *et al.*, 2002).

Notable here is another challenge revealed in this finding and supported by Cox and Mond (2010) that the foreign lecturers who are appointed in UK Higher Education feel that there are fewer positive effects. Academic staff members from other countries bring a wealth of wide-ranging experience and ideas into the UK system. However, this sometimes brings certain problems which universities must be alert to like their difficulty in dealing with the standard of English spoken by the lecturers and staff. In this the researcher agrees with (Gibbs, 2012) that it would be effective if more integrated programme arrangements combine generic emphases with aspects of disciplinary differentiation or sensitivity.

Other obstacles mentioned were resistance to attending the programme, especially from those who have already been lecturers or those who come from other institutions and have been teaching for a number of years and find it futile.

A different point of view suggests that this resistance may stem from difficulty in accepting new trends, rather than refusing to practise them. One of the participants pointed out new issues: that they can have a negative impact on peers also and that the less experienced seem to be less resistant to change.

Practice does not reflect their thinking. It is widely recognised in the literature that student-centeredness emerged as a significant shift from teacher-centred to student-centred approaches (Northedge, 2003; Prosser *et al.*, 2006; Butcher, 2012). This is consistent with the finding of this researcher's study which shows that the programmes are rated most positively.

Some participants revealed that there is a digital literacy gap where some academics do not fully understand how technology can support teaching and learning and their negativity resulting from a lack of skill at times can become a barrier for engagement

and learning. The researcher emphasises that AS should be open to different and better teaching methods (e-learning, problem-based learning, etc.). Therefore, academic staff should meet the requirement of the generation they teach, who are highly skilled in IT. The necessity for training academic staff results from the requirement to meet the challenges of the new innovative technology (Noe, 2005). The lack of IT competence among academic staff is due to the lack of timely IT training strategies. Therefore, higher education institutions should consider establishing such strategies to form a technology education culture within their training programmes, which will help trainees not only with current challenges but also with achieving personal development to become more self-sufficient in the use of electronic resources online.

In addition, the leadership (developer or provider in particular) must guarantee that all academic staff have a clear vision about the nature of this change. They should understand the full impact of the change, understand the vision of training initiatives and be clear about anticipated outcomes of the training programme and help in its on-going enhancement and monitoring where necessary.

Improvement of the Programme

Respondents brought forward some issues that they saw as important for developing their programme in the future. One of the participants assured the researcher that they try to improve all the modules and develop new modules such as leadership for learning gains and this module could be developed to a Master's course and to create a diploma.

The White Paper and the Professional Standards Framework leave institutions free to decide how to assess the results of training, subject to accreditation. Supported by the literature (Gupta, 1999), the researcher believes that training needs assessment must ensure that training programmes are developed based on identified needs and that they must be relatively easy to implement. Hence the assessment of the training outcomes should be realistic and practical. It should be designed to make the most of learning and engagement. It should oblige academic staff to take their teaching seriously, and to think seriously about how to improve as teachers.

On the other hand, other participants focused on improving the teaching skills and on organising lectures. Furthermore, one of the participants revealed a fascinating point – that they are looking for international PhD students to develop their teaching elements as a part of their study. He stated:

“Have the practice, get the qualification, when they get back to their country they can start implementing it right away; we [have] started talking to the embassies now.”

The researcher believes that these improvement initiatives could fail without leadership. Thus, the researcher considers that a commitment from both management and academic staff to accept any change can only be possible when there is full understanding of the long-term goal and objectives of that change.

Requirement to transfer the programme.

All the respondents agreed about the main elements which should be the foundation for the implementation of any of these programmes: the professional development unit, expert academic developer, access to the right resources and literature, national network, research to investigate the programme, inspirational teaching and accreditation body (for example the HEA in the UK). Other participants declared that it is important to have local expertise and academic developers who are experienced in driving change, since academic developers are change engines.

In this context, two participants believed that the implementation of this programme would depend on how it was perceived, and that to make it appealing to the international market they need to consider the content and adjust it to suit local contexts.

One of the participants stated that because the principles are the same, the background of the programme is totally transferable at faculty and university levels: *“It could be transferred to Libya or Saudi Arabia, or anywhere, its structure and the backbones of the programme actually is what is needed for academic development in any country and all you put in are specific examples to meet the goal and ambition of the university or country or the national policy”*.

The researcher agrees with the participants that these programmes can be transferred with consideration for local needs and the availability of the requirements to transfer these programmes as mentioned above. Therefore it is essential for higher education institutions to develop a plan that will inform staff about the capabilities and availability of the current technological infrastructure and will implement training sessions and regular support in order to ease the burden on TPs, should they want to proceed.

7.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter discusses the main findings from the interviews, questionnaire analyses and existing literature. It considers propositions in terms of implementing Training Programmes for Academic Staff in Higher Education Institutions and considers the perceptions of the participants about the TPs they undertake and that of the programme providers who also gave their opinions and recommendation to improve and enhance these programmes. There was tangible positive impact on most trainees on the programmes and on the programme providers; they felt if teaching was seen to be valued and the improvement of teaching encouraged, it would improve academic performance, teaching, learning, assessment, research, professional development, skills enhancement, maximisation of potential, and the improvement of the quality of education within the context of higher education. However, in terms of the challenges, it can be concluded that there are administrative obstacles, cultural obstacles and technological obstacles. All these issues were discussed in detail. The next chapter will discuss the findings obtained from the case study organisation and correlate them with previous studies.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION OF CASE STUDY FINDINGS

8.1 Introduction

The importance of this study is reliant on the potential effect of the dissemination of the research findings and their application within an emerging higher education institution in Libya. This chapter discusses the findings of this study and their implications, linked to relevant parts of the discussion in the literature review. This discussion will focus on the aim and the related objectives of this study, which are stated in Section 1.5. The discussion of the findings will be based on the framework which was developed from the literature review. This framework has been based on the issues (framework themes) of training programmes identified from the literature review. These issues or themes include: training elements, supportiveness towards training legislation; leadership commitment, finance, and unit for CPD. This framework has enabled the researcher to conduct semi-structured interviews with the targeted respondents in the case study. The interview questions were based on the aspects and concepts related to the issues of training.

In order to illustrate the process of fulfilling the aim and objectives of this research, the findings within the case study organisation, University of Tripoli, were presented in Chapter 6. The current chapter discusses these findings and presents their implications.

8.2. Motivation for Implementation of Training Programmes

One of the main justifications for this research is the intention of the Libyan education authorities to implement Training Programmes for the Academic Staff in the universities in that country. The discussion of this point gives a full picture of how Libyan Universities (LUs) will manage this goal in the context of a weak Libyan Higher Education Sector (LHES). It also outlines the possibilities inherent in the Universities' plans for quality improvement in Higher Education (HE) in Libya, and the challenges brought about by the poor organised management of the higher education sector, where the expansion has been in quantity rather than in quality.

As stated in Section 1.4 of this thesis, these are major challenges which could have an impact on the quality of the HE system in Libya. Hence, it is very important to determine how to change the patterns and methods of education and training in Libyan universities, where they have great impact in determining the level of human development.

The findings show a strong intention among respondents belonging to three levels of organisational hierarchy (Senior Leaders, Academic Staff and Head of Departments) to implement programmes to train academic staff. However, there is also agreement from all respondents that there are currently no such programmes in the universities, except for some simple courses in computing and English language for certain members of staff. This result is consistent with the findings of Hamdy, (2007), Mapuva, (2009), Rhema and Miliszewska, (2010) and Akkari, (2014), who thought that there is a lack of training programmes for academic staff in Libyan Universities. However, some participants mention that the only programmes offered to them were in the form of sabbatical leave for some member of the academic staff who have completed four years of teaching, or in the form of contributions towards conferences in certain disciplines. It was suggested that these privileges were only for those favoured by the decision-makers. These views appear to reflect a misunderstanding on the part of authorities of the value training programmes bring, and perhaps even of the meaning of the term, Training Programmes. Notably, this result matches the studies of Sawalha, (2002), and of Hutchings and Weir, (2006), in which it was found that favouritism intervenes in such areas, as it is a strong influence in decision making, and a part of the organisational culture in all Arab countries, intervenes in such areas.

The interviews with the respondents from the CSO indicated that there is considerable variation in views, in the sense that there is no clear plan regarding how the HE should be developed to raise the standard of education in Libya, although the mainstream of respondents were PhD holders with different specialisations. The findings reveal that they have little experience of modern educational methods and lack adequate awareness of instructive technology; this is common among educators in higher education institutions in Libya. However, from these results it was obvious that the respondents were enthusiastic about the idea of training for academic staff, firmly believing that the

Libyan higher education institutions would benefit from it and that the consequent enhancement of the quality of the academic staff would reflect on the sector.

These views about training programmes within a single institution are an indication of the general lack of coordination between departments within the institution as well as of the non-comprehension of the context of this issue.

Therefore, it can be concluded that Libyan HE lacks effective planning and good management. Proper planning must precede implementation; programmes, before they can be applied, must be well-planned to be able to accomplish their aims, which should be consistent with and suitable for the local environment.

8.3 Supportive of Training legislation

A review of the literature in the area related to the training programmes in higher education indicate five core components necessary for successfully implementing, managing such programmes –one of them is supportiveness towards training legislation. Applicable, up-to-date and enforceable training legislation is an essential part of a modern system for training programmes. It is very important to have such regulation, which will therefore provide the HEIs with the foundation to support the implementation of training in Libyan universities for academic staff. These TPs will ensure that the staff have the knowledge, skills and confidence to enhance their performance and deliver quality teaching.

Given that Libyan Higher Education intends to improve the quality of educational institutions and of the teaching in them, major changes will have to be made in the patterns and methods of education and training in universities.

Regulations in general play an important role in HE activities; however, the study showed no evidence that the legislations of Libyan Higher Education provided or designated any explicit TPs for the development of the teaching processes.

Absence of such programmes could be due to the lack of understanding among the universities' senior leaders of the importance of programmes in developing and motivating staff to do good quality work.

The findings of this theme demonstrate that there is no regulation for academic staff training in Libyan Universities. The majority of interviewees, who were Senior Leaders or Heads of Departments or academic staff within Tripoli University, denied the existence of any particular legislation regarding TPs. Also, most of the academic staff Libyan universities are not formally trained in teaching methods. Hence, most of them lack teaching qualifications. Besides, there is no evidence in the higher education legislation that make teaching qualification mandatory for new AS in Libyan Higher Education Institutions.

Analysis of such aspects in Libyan legislation revealed that there is a set of regulations called “Regulations of National Libyan Universities’ Academic Staff Members, No. 199 issued in 2006”. These regulations consist of seventy articles in five chapters which include: general provisions, recruitment, relocation, deputies, promotion, hiring of AS; punitive regulations; holidays; and other related provisions.

Article No 17 of these regulations states that the AS in the universities could be encouraged to train, but only by offering AS one exceptional academic promotion during his or her work, based on a recommendation from the related department or section in the faculty. In order to achieve this exceptional promotion, AS should achieve two requirements: first, they should have taught for at least the half the period required for a standard promotion based on seniority; second, they should accomplish two of scientific research activities required for standard promotion.

The problem in this article is that it adhering to it could compromise the effectiveness and efficiency of training, because the training would be given to those who may not be the most suitable to receive it, given that people who demonstrate good work would be treated on an equal footing with those who do not even have the lowest requirements of their jobs; there are no clear criteria provided by this regulation as to how excellent work or excellent effort could be identified and evaluated (for instance what research activities or teaching can be described as high quality). Such regulations contain a lot of ambiguity. This finding was confirmed in the interviewees where two SL stated that there is no clear criterion for evaluating, rewarding and recognising excellent work in Libyan Higher Education legislation.

The Law in Libya is generally characterised by its highly changeable nature, owing to new political and economic options and Libya's political will to privatise and open the economy to foreign capital. These events have led to appropriate and rapid revisions and adaptations in all areas of Libyan law. Changes in Libyan legislation are still underway, and will continue for several years (Ben Abdurrahman and Partners, 2008).

According to Al-Teer (2006) university regulations in Libya are continuously changed. This leads to ignoring of many regulations among the universities. In studies by Al-Turbagya (2005), Alhawat (2005) and Al-Badree (2006) it has been suggested that Libyan Higher Education Institutions should consider the quality of development in the activities they provide. This could be realised by training their staff on quality methods and creating committees for this purpose.

8.4 Commitment of Leadership

The commitment of top management to implement any organisational change has been shown to be very important in the literature. Kanji and Tambi (1999) argue that leadership plays an influential role in guiding, planning, organising and controlling all organisational resources to achieve the desired goals. Whatever system changes are made, actual progress is delivered through belief, commitment and leadership in universities (Wilson, 2012).

Commitment is essential for implementing and maintaining an effective training system. Management commitment should extend to ensuring that all academic staff gets proper training in basic teaching methods to the point that they can take full responsibility for their work.

However, the training programme plan for academic staff in Libyan universities depends on many factors that have to support the implementation of these programmes. These factors include funds, legislation and commitment. An understanding of factors related to the success of training programmes such as staff participation, unit for continuous improvement, information system, evaluation, and a commitment from management, must be established to make these programmes successful. Leadership is also required to express a positive message of commitment through all steps of training in both words and actions.

Regarding this research, firstly the interviews exposed that there is awareness among the Senior Leaders of the importance of being committed to training academic staff. Also, the interviewee's opinions confirmed the advantages of management commitment to any training programme if it is implemented in the future. There appeared to be no recognition of the need to be committed to quality in the current teaching system. Further, it was revealed from interviews that the level of respondents' awareness and understanding of training for academic staff in Libyan universities was low. Consequently, this limited understanding leads to a lack of awareness of the specific requirements for academic and technical teaching and to a lack of recognition of its full benefits. This will affect the direction teaching skills policy takes in the future (Darling, 1992).

Reviewing the existing literature, it is evident that there is extensive proof of the barriers that can make the implementation of training programmes difficult in Libya. One of the main barriers is the lack of commitment from senior leaders. In this regard, Farnham (1994) concludes that the lack of leadership in training can cause barriers to training. Likewise, Zairi (1994) mentions that the implementation of training programmes require leadership commitment to developing staff, providing recognition for their efforts, and engaging them in appropriate training.

However, the majority of respondents from the academic staff and Head of Department levels, and a few from the Senior Leader level, believed that there is no effective leadership and they were not convinced that the management leader would lead them to success.

According to the responses from the academic staff interviewed, this is as a result of poor employment practices due to considerations which are part of the national culture such as personal interests, kinship, and mutual benefit. Thus, it is obvious that this will impact negatively on the efficiency of the leadership in universities; subsequently its commitment to any training becomes meaningless. Further, there is no specific criterion for leadership and there are no training programmes offered by the university or by the Ministry of Higher Education to the heads and leaders in universities. Subsequently, this impacts negatively on the efficiency of the guidance available in the university.

Overall, despite the importance of a full commitment to training academic staff, the critical analysis of this theme does not add much to the aim of this research, since currently there is no training offered to the academic staff in Libyan Universities. At this point it is impossible to judge the effect of such a commitment in practice as there is a significant difference between theory and its application in the Libyan context.

8.5 Training Elements

As mentioned by Torrington and Hall (1991), several important steps must precede any training programme.

These steps begin with the identification of training needs and conclude with an evaluation of training outcomes. The identification of training needs should be done in the light of the aims and requirements of the organisation. An effective plan for any training depends on a record keeping system that documents the training plan to provide evidence that the training has been conducted according to required processes; this documentary evidence should be maintained in an effective way.

However, the findings of this research reveal that there is a general agreement among respondents in the case study organisation that there are no training programmes offered to academic staff. Also, there is no evidence that Libyan universities provide any training for their staff at any level. However, interviewees agreed that such programmes are essential and will enhance the quality of teaching and improve their skills and abilities. These findings are consistent with what is stated by Hamdy (2007); the Libyan Delegation Report (2008); Mapuva (2009), and Akkari (2014); all these sources emphasise that despite the specialised scientific skills of teaching staff in Libyan universities, most of them are not formally trained in learning and teaching methods. In addition, interviewees agreed that such programmes are essential and must be offered by Higher Education authorities on a regular basis, because providing such programmes will enhance the quality of teaching and contribute to the improvement of academic staff. However, a few respondent stated that there are intermittent and limited courses in English language and computing offered by Tripoli University to select staff and employees.

Furthermore, the findings of this research reveal that the university does not offer any training plan for staff. Also, there is no evidence that there are any plans for such training in the future. (This was triangulating with relevant documents and against the minutes of meetings with some staff in different departments within UoT).

This indicates that there is a lack of understanding among senior leaders about the quality of teaching; had this understanding been there, it may have led them to take responsibility to improve university activities in the field of academic staff training. As things stand, this lack of understanding is likely to result in a lack of training for teachers provided by the university. This is confirmed by what Lewis and Smith (1994) say of the failure in quality improvement efforts in any organisation, attributing it to leaders who have been not trained in how to improve the quality system in that organisation.

Despite the fact that training programmes are not yet implemented in Libyan Universities, an exploration of the barriers which militate against the successful implementation of these programmes is necessary to understand how to overcome these challenges.

According to some interviewees, it is difficult to predict all the obstacles that such programmes may face in their planning and implementation, as these programmes have not yet been applied in the universities. On the other hand, they did predict some obstacles, for example, the lack of proficiency in the use of computers, poor management which includes the lack of communication between various departments and the central administration. This is similar to what was found by Milton (2013), who stated that the system had become distorted and corrupted by years of mismanagement.

Also, the findings expose other hindrances such as the absence of highly qualified staff to teach these programmes. This view is supported by Franceschini and Terzago (1998) who stress the necessity of good communication, and the importance of providing trainees with examples in order to explain any unclear concepts. A lack of appropriate communication between management, staff and students has a significant negative impact on overall educational excellence (Sakthivel, 2007).

Also, the findings identify bureaucracy as a factor that can influence the enthusiasm of training programmes for academic staff, it is commonly related to processes and regulations in the bureaucracy of Higher Education ministry or administrative departments.

Another barrier which was considered formidable is the unfamiliarity of most members of the academic staff with the English language, which is unavoidable if technology has to be mastered. As there is a weak infrastructure for teaching languages in Libya and subsequently strong demand for overseas and domestic foreign-language learning. Nevertheless, this problem was not observed in interviews with senior and middle management, as language was not mentioned in their interviews. This indicates that their being graduates of foreign universities with a good command of English may have led them to not perceive as an obstacle the unfamiliarity of most academic staff with English.

Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, (2006) confirm that the lack of the suitable facilities for training cause negative attitudes. The researcher suggests that competence in English affects policy implementation for those in Libyan Higher Education Institutions; this could also be a factor that affects the readiness for the implementation of training programmes. If Libyan Higher Education Institutions are serious about developing a strategy to implement these programmes, then the language issues have to be taken into account by introducing policies concerning English language capabilities and conducting comprehensive English language courses for all members of the academic staff.

Another barrier mentioned by the interviewees was the lack of opportunities to train. New teachers should have the opportunity to participate in an introductory session on teaching in order to improve their pedagogical thinking and skills, or be required to enrol on a compulsory teacher training programme such as the ones offered in UK universities for new teachers. These strategies depend on the local needs. This result is consistent with what Herschbach, (1997) discusses about the need for training organisations to plan and implement new strategies that will allow them to develop training.

Resistance to change was another obstacle mentioned by the participants; they considered this obstacle a result of a culture of opposition to innovative programmes and to adapting to new transitional challenges. This finding is also supported in the literature; resistance is a common response to change in everyday situations, especially when those who resist it have no prior experience of the effects of this change (Waddell and Sohal, 1998; Smith, 2005).

In addition, a lack of awareness of the importance of these programmes by the Ministry of Higher Education, the lack of regulations to support training programmes in Higher Education legislation in Libya, and an absence of effective leadership in Libyan universities are considered enormous barriers to academic staff training. This result is consistent with that of study by Milton, (2013). University leaders, therefore, should put great effort into developing a commitment to implement training programmes for academic staff through effective dialogue with the workforce which explains why these programmes should be adopted.

Training programmes should be delivered at the level which would best increase the performance of the academic staff, especially the relatively new staff; they should also be delivered according to the requirements of each department in the university. They can be designed as workshops, seminars or lectures.

With regard to the question about the form training programmes should take, the findings reveal that the programmes should be relevant to the local need, but adapted from successful programmes in the west; in particular, Britain was mentioned as a model, because of the progress this country has made in training academic staff, and its years of experience in the area. Furthermore, these programmes should be periodic, systematic, specialisation-related, suitable to local needs, and delivered by the training unit at the university.

The researcher believes that western programmes can be applied in Libyan Universities as she agrees with the view of one of the UK interviewees that the principle being the same, the background of the programme is totally transferable.

8.6 Finance

As stated by Hackett (2004), the financial aspects of training are a dynamic factor for implementing any kind of establishing any educational training project. In this matter the researcher asked the participants from the three levels if there is enough financial resources to cover the costs for training and the technical necessities for AS. The majority of the participants agreed that the university has enough financial resources to cover the costs for training and technical requirements.

The lack of money can be problematical for implementation of any TPs in the universities, but this is not the case in LHE situation. So there will be no problem in funding the TPs.

However, one of the AS declare that there is important priorities than training currently, such extensive refurbishment in some of the faculties' buildings, some lecture halls and the libraries.

HE is largely financed by Libyan government, except for private universities. Although each university in Libya has its own charter, functions, budget, and occasionally different purposes which are assumed semi independently, all universities serve as centres for disseminating knowledge, teaching, educating and training students, and supporting and promoting research activities. They also involve themselves vigorously in the advancement of the nation in all areas. Funding is thus not a significant factor in Libya, because any decision to implement training programmes will have to be backed by funding provided by the University.

8.7 Unit for Continuous Professional Development (CPD)

Continuous Professional Development (CPD) is a set of learning activities that develop the capabilities to enable professional accountants to perform competently within their professional environment and assistant individuals in the workplace to understand more about their work environment, the job they do, and how to do it better (Corrall and Brewerton, 1999). However, many staff members in organisations in developed countries do not understand what educational development is, because it is a relatively new field (Bath and Smith, 2004) and to some extent its purposes and boundaries are

still being debated within the educational development community (Martensson and Roxa, 2005).

Prytherch, (2005) defines CPD as a career-long process of improving and updating the skills, abilities and competencies of staff by regular in-service training and education, supported by external courses. However, Corral and Brewerton (1999) describe CPD as “the systematic maintenance, improvement and increase of knowledge and skills and the development of individual qualities essential for the execution of professional and technical duties throughout the practitioner’s working life”.

CPD is a commitment to being professional and keeping up to date. It is the key to optimising a person's career opportunities today and for the future (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2000; Melanie, 2009). However, in some institutions the activities that are designed to enhance teachers’ understanding and to change their thinking and classroom behaviour are called staff development.

The findings of this research reveal that all the respondents including senior leaders believe in the importance of CPD processes. They are also aware of the value of CPD. Furthermore, there is agreement among respondents that there is no clear plan in Tripoli University to adopt or implement CPD. However, some interviewees in the university declared that there is a training department in each faculty, though unfortunately there is lack of professionals experienced to manage this unit.

Furthermore, the interviews conducted during this research reveal that the role of senior leaders in Tripoli University is limited with regard to the creation of goals that lead to continuous improvement. However, more than a few of the academic staff and Heads of Departments interviewed mentioned that leaders differ in terms of their skills, visions, and abilities with regard to improving the processes in the department or faculty. They further added that some senior leaders who offered plans for improvement were struggling to implement these plans. The reason for this is the bureaucratic delays that hinder many such efforts.

The findings also show that the role of the Ministry of Higher Education in Libya in enhancing professional practises was limited to financial support given to selected staff members to attend local and international conferences twice a year, or to join some internal scientific activities such as workshops and training lectures.

The researcher believes that to appropriate strategies for continuous improvement can be better implemented by promoting a culture that encourages training programmes through a teaching or training development unit in each department. However, most of the participants emphasise the availability of financial support within the higher education institutions in Libya.

Nevertheless, there was agreement among participants that CPD is very useful to improve the performance of the academic staff in higher education. However, the absence of any criteria for evaluating the academic staff, the facilities and the universities themselves makes it difficult to establish training programmes. Therefore, any Training Programme should be obligatory as a part of the terms and conditions of the appointment, evaluation and promotion of academic staff. The researcher believes that all members of academic staff understand and recognise the need for continuous improvement, and emphasise the need to make training programmes mandatory in the university, as is the case in UK universities.

A policy that makes training compulsory is supported by Trowler, (2005), who affirms such a policy would achieve its goals if these goals and the criteria for success are clear in the minds of the leadership, and if there is some agreement among educational developers and others involved in its implementation. However, the majority of senior leaders believe that the lack of infrastructure for training programmes and the obstacles resulting from bureaucratic administration make it hard to adopt an effective strategy for CPD. This argument is especially relevant when considering the poor utilisation of financial resources due to lack of advance planning.

For CPD to be effective, the awareness among senior leaders of its importance should be translated into action. This could be achieved through providing them with a better

understanding of the importance of enhancing the quality of teaching through establishing training programmes. Thus, the University of Tripoli should adopt CPD if they intend to improve the teaching skills of their academic staff and consequently the learning quality of their students.

By comparing the Theoretical Framework for TPs implementation (literature review conclusion) that shown in (figure 2.1) with those that emerged from the case study organisation and from UK questionnaires and interviews, a substantial amount of consistency was found, but after analysing and discussing the data collected during the fieldwork, new factors relating to the TPs implementation were revealed, These factors can be summarised as following:

- Negative attitude toward TPs among AS;
- Lack of Awareness of importance of TPs;
- Lack of motivation;
- Failure of MHE's role in developing training programme;
- Lake of supportive legislation for training;
- Inadequate commitment from management;;
- Lack of infrastructure.
- Mismanagement
- No communication and coordination between AS and their university departments;
- Bureaucracy related to HE processes and regulations.

However, these finding are further summarised by figure 8.1 under each pillars of TP implementation. This figure displays the influences affecting the factors relating to TP implementation in Libyan universities. These factors are discussed in this chapter and the previous one.

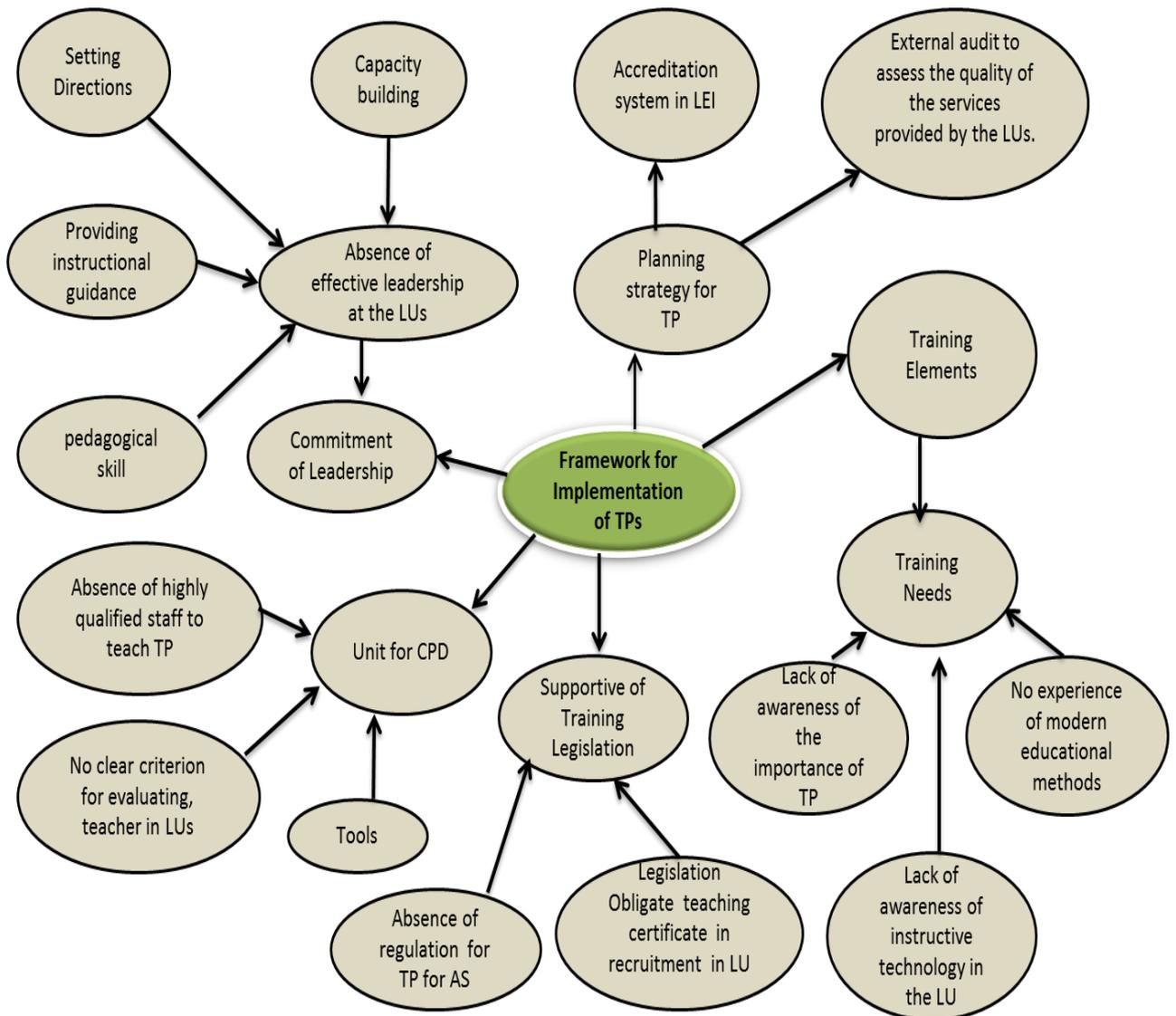


Figure 8.1: A summary of factors that influence effective implementation of TP within Libyan universities.

8.8 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the research findings from the case study organisation have been discussed in the light of the literature review in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3. Many issues which influence the implementation of TPs were taken into consideration in this discussion. The discussion has also highlighted a number of significant obstacles which

affect the implementation of training programmes in the case study organisation. This chapter has also shown how the carefully developed research methodology has assisted the researcher in carrying out this rigorous study, and consequently, has facilitated the achievement of the aim and objectives of the study.

The next and final chapter will conclude the thesis by offering overall conclusions and explaining how the research has justified itself by meeting its aim and objectives. It will also review the contribution it has made and offer recommendations regarding future research in this field that the authorities at the Ministry of Higher Education in Libya and the leadership at the University of Tripoli may want to take up.

CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1 Introduction

This chapter brings together the results of the discussion of the interviews, the questionnaire and the analysis of the supporting documentation to draw conclusions on the methodology used and to identify the necessary factors for the effective implementation of training programmes in order to improve the performance of academic staff of Libyan universities.

The recommendations will be organised around each of the objectives of the research and the overall aim stated. As a result, recommendations will be made for the future development of the Libyan Higher Education, proposing methods for improving the University of Tripoli (UoT) and other existing/proposed Universities in Libya.

9.2 The Success of the Research Method

This study has examined the implementation of training programmes within the universities in Libya. It aimed to identify the necessary factors for effectiveness of such implementation in order to improve the performance of the academic staff of Libyan universities; for this purpose, a case study was done on Tripoli University. In order to achieve the research aim and objectives, to answer the research questions and to increase the quality of the case study findings, there was a need to choose the most appropriate methodology. The selection of the appropriate methodology for this research came after a review of the literature on the research topic, the setting of the aims and objectives, along with an examination of the literature on research methodology.

Based on the nature of this study, the interpretive approach was selected as the main approach of this research; a positivist approach has also been used to intensify the validation of the collected data, and to enhance the research quality (see Section 4.3). The case study was selected as the best strategy for this research, informed by the

advice of Yin (2009) regarding the appropriateness of this strategy. The required data was collected through two main sources: a primary data collection method and a secondary data collection method. The former included semi-structured interviews, questionnaire and study of documentation to investigate the implementation of training programmes in Tripoli University; the latter involved an intensive literature review to understand the aspects of training programmes in higher education institutions.

The multiple sources of evidence were found to be useful as they helped to reduce uncertainty and bias, since the researcher could consult documents to verify the answer provided by respondents and then compare the results of this with those of other techniques of data collection. This method of data analysis was based on the systematic analytical technique process.

9.3 Meeting the Aim and Objectives and Answering the Research Questions

The aim of this research was to identify the necessary factors for the effective implementation of training programmes in order to improve the performance of academic staff of Libyan universities. This aim has been accomplished effectively by addressing the research objectives as follows.

Objective 1: To review the relevant literature related to the training programmes for university academics around the world;

To achieve this objective, a critical literature review was conducted. This is discussed in Chapter 2. The following concepts have been examined through this literature review: definitions and the main features of training programmes, education, training and development; the distinction between teaching and learning; training programmes in western countries such as Finland, Norway, Holland, Australia, and New Zealand; training programmes in the Arab world; training programmes in UK universities; professional qualifications in teaching and learning; and training programmes in Libyan Universities.

Accordingly, overviews of Training Programmes were prepared; hence, the first objective was successfully achieved.

Objective 2: - To identify the existing training programmes for academic staff in Libyan universities and to investigate the factors affecting their applicability.

In order to satisfy this objective, a case study was conducted to gather relevant information about the current status of the training programmes in Libyan higher education and about the factors affect the applicability of these programmes for lecturers within the LUs. The methods of data collection chosen as appropriate was asset of semi-structured interviews with staff members in UoT following appropriately prepared interview protocols within the theoretical framework. These interviews were later triangulated with documents, and this process enhanced the validity of this research. This offered a deep understanding of the staff members' thoughts, attitudes and points of view. Therefore, the second objective was successfully achieved. It should be mentioned that meeting this objective was highly dependent on the first objective having been accomplished.

Objective 3: To identify and explore the barriers affecting the implementation of training programmes for academic staff in Libyan universities.

To meet this objective, the findings from the case study organisation were categorised and thereafter analysed to meaningfully interpret and present their findings. Data triangulation was achieved and the barriers were explored and identified, thereby securing the third objective.

Objective 4: To establish a theoretical framework based on the issues around Training Programmes in the case study organisation, so as to enable the introduction of TPs to Libyan universities in general.

To meet this objective, the issues around training programmes were identified from the earlier literature review. These have been discussed in Chapter 2 and illustrated as

‘pillars’ (figure 2.1) on which to base in-depth exploration which followed later. The interview protocol was based on the contents of these themes or issues within the theoretical framework. Meeting this objective was highly dependent on the first objective having been accomplished, since the foundation knowledge derived from the meeting of that objective helped the researcher to understand the theories and concepts related to the TPs pillars and to consequently prepare the interview protocol and questionnaire.

9.4 The Status of Training Programmes in Tripoli University

The overall results indicated that training programmes for academic staff in Libyan Universities were barely mentioned due to their scarcity in all faculties. This limited understanding of the need for Training Programmes for lecturers creates a bad impact on general quality of teaching and learning and adversely affects students and the progress of the institution. Training programmes have prerequisites such as: supportive training legislation; training Element; effective leadership; and continuous professional development. There were all found to be insufficient in Tripoli University. There is no clear criterion for the promotion, evaluation, reward and recognition of outstanding teachers in LUs; there are no training programmes for academic staff and there is no communication and coordination between the members of the academic staff and their departments in the university.

The lack of experience in modern educational methods combined with the lack of adequate awareness of instructive technology –which is common among educators in Libyan Higher Education Institutions –were all identified as major weaknesses in UoT.

9.5 Lack of Legislation

The findings related to this theme demonstrate that there is no regulation for academic staff training in Libyan Universities. Also, the academic staff members in universities are not formally trained in teaching methods. Hence, most of them lack teaching qualifications. It is very important to have explicit legislation provided in connection with training programmes for the development of teaching processes.

An analysis of such aspects in Libyan legislation revealed that there is a set of regulations called “Regulations of National Libyan Universities’ Academic Staff Members, No. 199 issued in 2006”. Item No 17 of these regulations states that the academic staff in the universities could be encouraged to train, but only by offering them one exceptional academic promotion during their work in the university, based on a recommendation from the related department.

The problem in this article is that there are no clear criteria provided by this regulation as to how excellent work or excellent effort should be identified and evaluated. For instance, what research activities or teaching can be described as high quality? Such regulations contain a lot of ambiguity.

The national regulations (stated above) are not even applied and in some circumstances not recognised.

9.6 The Impediments to academic staff training in Libyan Universities

The difficulties in training programmes for academic staff in Libyan higher education are:: the lack of awareness of the importance of training programmes; absence of any criteria for evaluating the academic staff; mismanagement; absence of highly qualified staff to act as teacher trainers; the failure of the Ministry of Higher Education in its role of developing training programmes for academic staff; the lack of communication between management and teaching staff which creates a significant negative impact on overall educational excellence; bureaucracy related to HE processes and regulations; resistance to innovative programmes and to adapting to new circumstances created by challenges; and the favouritism of senior managers towards some members of the academic staff in matters like promotion and recognition of excellence.

The success of a training programme (if implemented) depends on the training of the senior leaders on the importance of their role in maintaining the teaching quality of the academic staff. A commitment from senior leaders must be established to make training programme successful.

9.7 Originality

An original contribution to knowledge from this research is a comprehensive evaluation of the necessary factors for the effective implementation of training programmes to improve the performance of academic staff of Libyan universities. This study is the first to be carried out in Libya into the implementation of training programmes. It is also the first academic study using the University of Tripoli in Libya as a case for study. No case study research examining this topic in Libya is mentioned in the literature. Therefore, this study provides a basis for the development of scientific research in this area in particular.

Moreover, little attention has been paid to training programmes for academic staff of universities in developing countries in general and in the Arab world in particular. Therefore, this research will add to the corpus of knowledge in this field because it is about the implementation of training programmes in this context.

In addition, this study identified the barriers to the implementation of training programmes of academic staff of Libyan universities, thus contributing to original knowledge in the field of training related implementation-barriers in universities, and thereby narrowing the gap in this field.

Another main contribution to knowledge is the identification of six factors that affect the implementation of training programmes for academic staff of Libyan universities. These factors are:

- The absence of legislation regarding training programmes for academic staff in Libyan universities;
- Deficient advance planning for these training programmes;
- Absence of effective leadership in Libyan Universities;
- Weak infrastructure for teaching languages and its impact on the use of technology;
- The absence of an accreditation system in educational institutions in Libya;

- The lack of a mechanism for internal or external audit to assess the quality of the services provided by Libyan universities.

In addition, it was found that finance, which is identified in existing literature as an issue in planning and implementing training programmes, is not a relevant factor in this case study in Libya.

These findings by the researcher will provide the first literature available on training programmes in Libyan Higher Education.

9.8 Further Contributions to Knowledge

The main contribution is the identification of the necessary factors for the effective implementation of training programmes for academic staff of Libyan universities;

It is expected that Libyan educators and Libyan government bodies who have influence higher education will benefit the most from the contributions presented by this research.

This research has addressed the lack of empirical study on the implementation of training programmes for academic staff in the universities in Arab countries. Moreover, to the best of this researcher's knowledge, none of the previous studies on this topic were carried out in a Libyan context.

The findings of this research will help the Libyan higher education institutions to determine procedures for implementing training programmes in Libyan universities. This is a contribution that has not so far been made by previous research. In a nutshell, this research has accomplished the following:

- Identified unique factors that affect the implementation of teacher training programmes in Libya;
- Identified issues for the improvement and development of current and future universities in Libya through a critical analysis of teacher training in Tripoli University through a case study;

- Provided pointers for the Libyan government to identify changes necessary for Libyan higher education institutions in order to upgrade themselves to be relevant in the globalised labour market;
- Highlighted the importance of training programmes for the academic and provided a methodology for the practical application of training programmes;

This study is thus a useful resource for both researchers and practitioners who have a strong interest in understanding training programmes for academic staff and in designing and implementing them. Hence, this research provides an opening for developing a considerable body of knowledge that could support and help decision-makers in Libyan Higher Education to understand the various issues that could affect the improvement of the quality of programmes provided in Libyan universities.

9.9 Recommendations

The recommendations of this study are presented below. These recommendations have been divided into two sections; recommendations for policy, and recommendations for Libyan universities and those in other Arab countries.

9.9.1 Recommendations for policy

It is recommended that Libyan government should clarify the goals of its political strategy with regard to training educators, and begin to develop a national vision and strategy for Libyan Higher Education. It should also arrange open and participatory consultation with all relevant stakeholders in Libyan higher education.

Ministries of higher education need to look thoroughly at internal restructuring and capacity needs, and should address issues that affect the educational process at the university level. In particular, it should look at obstacles to the improvement of teaching quality.

It is recommended that Ministries of higher education establish a national body which sets standards and plans training for skills required in the job market. Libyan education institutions including primary and secondary schools and universities should establish a

network which offers an environment for better understanding, co-operation and co-ordination among themselves. The Ministries of higher education should introduce policies concerning English language, so that it is taught at all levels of education from primary schools to Universities. In order to improve the quality of higher education by making a positive contribution, it is recommended that higher education institutions take prompt action to review curricula in the light of recent scientific and technological developments. The Libyan Government should give greater importance to accreditation of universities, testing laboratories, calibration laboratories, inspection bodies, certification bodies, quality management and environmental management, and bodies that give Personnel Certificates. Collaborating with European and international accreditation bodies is a key element in the development of education.

9.9.2 Recommendations for University of Tripoli

The university should implement criteria for supporting outstanding staff, those with a high level of knowledge and experience to ensure that the university achieves a teaching quality of a high level. The university should maintain a high level of communication between the academic staff and the administrative departments to encourage changes that benefit educational outcomes. The university should set up certain policies for training and for identifying training needs, as well as for implementing training programmes for their academic staff. These training programmes will encourage positive interaction between staff and improve their skills and performance. The University of Tripoli should adopt units for continuing professional improvement in order to improve teaching skills and learning quality. Furthermore, collaborating with foreign institutions could aid the development of planning and strategy through inputs of expertise and knowledge from developed countries. The level of educational attainment and relevant qualifications combined with expertise should be considered in the appointment of employees who will have leadership roles in the University, as effective leaders with high skills are more likely to implement effective and successful training programmes. As management commitment is necessary for the implementation of any effective training programme, the management of Libyan universities must convey a positive message of commitment to all levels of the academic staff in both words and actions. The University Administration should conduct regular formal

quarterly or half-yearly meetings, meeting depending on the need and circumstances, to evaluate the suitability and effectiveness of all activities related to training programmes. Any concerns or weaknesses in these should be addressed in a timely way to ensure improved skills and performance of teachers. The universities should create IT training policies to form a technology-education culture within its faculties, which will eliminate current challenges in the IT area that are faced by academic staff and thus increase personal progress and confidence. Newly appointed academic staff should be trained and this should continue throughout their career with refresher training given at appropriate stages in their career, so they can cope with the developments in lifelong learning; these training programmes can offer a chance to those who have no experience in teaching in higher education.

To obtain adequate and effective training programmes, it is recommended that Libyan universities recognise the following:

- Capacity-building in training and education of all academic staff is necessary to improve the quality of teaching;
- There should be greater focus on maintaining appropriate skills and training for leadership.

9.10 Limitations of the Study

Yin (2003) notes that every research study is limited by the constraints placed upon the researcher, and this research is no exception. The researcher has made every effort to overcome these limitations to ensure the smooth delivery of this study, but it was not possible to control all the factors that were likely to affect the outcomes. The first limitation is that there was no literature on the factors that affect the implementation of training programmes for academic staff. There was also little literature based on studies conducted in Arab countries with a similar culture and social structure to Libya. This research is limited to a single case study, which was the selected research strategy. However, further research could use multiple case studies for possibly upgrading the research process and to increase the generalisability of findings. In this situation, a comparison of various higher education institutions might be advantageous, as knowledge can be attained from different experiences. Some of the case study

documents were considered private; therefore, the researcher was not able to obtain copies. This has reduced the ability to confirm or refute responses from interviewees and clarification was not always available while triangulating evidence. Another limitation concerned the inability to record the interviews on tape due to cultural constraints; an example for this was the interview with the deputy Minister of the Higher Education. This could have resulted in missing some important information and decreased attention given to the interviews; however the researcher tried to write as much as possible during the interview in order to tackle this limitation. Also, immediately after every interview the researcher spent time to write down ideas and all the different pieces of information while they were still easy to remember.

9.11 Recommendations for Further Research

The following recommendations arising from the present study are made for future academic and professional research:

- Specific research is required to investigate and understand the factors affecting the implementation of TPs in other Libyan Higher Education Institutions.
- This research has presented the findings by classifying them into the research framework themes. Further research may want to take that further; each theme provided by the analytical framework could be investigated individually in order to gain a deeper understanding of issues encountered within each theme.
- A study involving other factors not considered in this research, such as those related to government policies and regulations, would enhance the overall understanding of TPs for AS in LUs' provision.
- In the present research, the focus has been on the AS and their views about the training programmes; there is an obvious need to explore the impact of the training programmes on the students and this could be achieved by using a survey for students in one or more universities in Libya, thus producing a broader picture of implementation of TPs for AS.

- Private Universities are a recent phenomenon in Libya. The number of private HEIs has increased in the last few years (Elzalitni, 2008). Therefore, a study of the private sector in education would complete the current picture in this area.
- Programmes on the students and this is be conducting by using survey for students in one or more universities in Libya, would produce a broader picture of implementation of TPs for AS.
- Private Universities is a recent phenomenon in Libya. The number of private HEIs has increased in the last few years (Elzalitni, 2008). Therefore, a study of private sector would complete the current picture in this area.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Ethical Approval

Academic Audit and Governance Committee

Research Ethics Panel
(REP)

To Majda Mansur Elferjani
cc: Prof L Ruddock, Prof M Kagioglou
From Jayne Hunter, Contracts Administrator
Date 27th September 2011



MEMORANDUM

Subject: Approval of your Project by REP
Project Title: Evaluation of Training Programmes Provided for the Academic Staff of Libyan Universities
REP Reference: REP11/040

Following your responses to the Panel's queries, based on the information you provided, I can confirm that they have no objections on ethical grounds to your project.

If there are any changes to the project and/or its methodology, please inform the Panel as soon as possible.

Regards,

Jayne Hunter
Contracts Administrator

For enquiries please contact
Jayne Hunter
Contracts Administrator
Contracts Office
Enterprise Division
Faraday House
Telephone: 0161 295 3530 Facsimile: 0161 295 5494
E-mail: j.hunter@salford.ac.uk

Appendix 2: Consent Form

RESEARCH PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Title of Project: Identification of the Necessary Factors for the Affective Implementation of Training Programmes in Order to Improve the Performance of Academic Staff of Libyan Universities.

Name of Researcher: Majda Elferjani

Name of Supervisor: Prof. Les Ruddock

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for the above study and what my contribution will be.

Yes	No
-----	----
2. I have been given the opportunity to ask questions (face to face)

Yes	No
-----	----
3. I agree to take part in the interview

Yes	No
-----	----
4. I agree to the interview being tape recorded

Yes	No
-----	----
5. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I can withdraw from the research at any time **without explanation**

Yes	No
-----	----
6. I agree to take part in the above study

Yes	No
-----	----

Name of participant

Signature

Date

Name of researcher: Majda Elferjani

Researcher's e-mail address: M.elferjani1@edu.salford.ac.uk

Appendix 3: Interview Questions for the PGCHE Holder (UK)

Q1- What were your main reasons for enrolling on the programme?

Q2- What do you think of the view that academics should be trained teachers?

Q3- Did the programme meet your expectations?

Q4- Was the training programme useful in developing your teaching skills?

Q5- On the basis of your experience on this training programme, would you encourage others to get the same qualification?

Q6- What sort of training would you like to see made available? Why do you think this training might be important?

Q7- How do you think training should be delivered?

Appendix 4: Interview Questions for the Professionals (Providers)

Q1- What are your university's aims regarding Training Programmes provided to the academic staff?

Q2- Did you achieve your university's aims?

Q3- What do you think about the current programme in your university?

Q4- How did you assess the value of the programme for staff who completed the programme?

Q5- What are the obstacles and the challenges facing the programme?

Q7- How could you improve this programme in the future?

Q8- What do you think about the possibilities and the requirement to transfer the programme to other countries?

Appendix 5: Interview Questions in Libya

What is your educational background? How long have you held this position?

What is your knowledge about Training Programmes (TPs) for Academic Staff (AS)? Do you apply these programs in LUs?

Is there any legislation or were there regulations relating to training programmes for the academic staff in Libyan Universities?

Do you think that management commitment to training programmes leads to improvement in the teachers' skills?

Is there effective leadership in Tripoli University?

Have you received any instruction/training programmes that support Academic Staff in Tripoli University?

Are there any barriers that affect the implementation of the Training Programmes for Academic Staff in Libyan Universities? If so, what are these barriers?

Do you have a specific plan to train and develop the Academic Staff and do you have any documentation supporting that?

What form should the Training Programmes take? Emphasising local needs or the more Western' models of HE teacher development?

Do you think the university has enough financial resources to cover the expenses and technical requirements for implementing training programmes for academic staff in the university.

What does the Ministry of MHE provide in the way of Enhancing Professional Practises for Academic Staff in TU?

Do you think the university has enough financial resources to cover the expenses and technical requirements of adopting and providing e-learning? In your opinion, what is the total cost of this process?

**Appendix 6: Evaluation Survey of Postgraduate Certificate
in Higher Education Programmes**



This questionnaire is designed to collect information about the Postgraduate Certificate in Higher Education (PGCHE)/(PG CAP)/(PGCert) or any equivalent certificate in selected U.K. universities, capturing student perceptions and understandings about the training programme provided. The intention is to distribute this questionnaire to those whom have taken part in this programme of study.

Knowledge captured will be used to evaluate the benefit of this programme. All information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Analysis will take place for statistical purposes only.

Please read the questions carefully and answer by ticking the appropriate letter or write in the blank space. This questionnaire should take you no more than 15-20 minutes to complete. If you require clarity in answering any of the questions, please do not hesitate to contact me for help.

Thank you very much for taking part in this study. I appreciate your taking the time to complete the questionnaire.

MajdaElferjani

University of Salford

School of the Built Environment

Mobil no.: 07706102489

Email : m.elferjani1@edu.salford.ac.uk

Part 1. General information

Q1. Name: (optional)

Q2. Age: (optional)

21-29 30-39 40-49 50-59

Q3. Gender:

Male Female

Q4. University:

Salford Oxford Sheffield Nottingham Others

Q5. Mode of study

Part time Full time

Q6. What is the highest level of your formal education?

- A. GCSE or equivalent
- B. A level or equivalent.
- C. Bachelor degree
- D. Masters Degree
- E. Doctoral Degree

Q7. What were your main reasons for enrolling in the programme?

- A. I'm unemployed and want to improve my job prospects.

B. To obtain a teaching qualification required from most of the UK's universities.

C. Desire for more study for its own sake.

D. I wasn't accepted on a course I preferred.

E. Improve teaching performance.

F. Improve skills.

G. Other, please specify:

.....

.....

Q8. When did you start the programme?

A. 2007

B. 2008

C. 2009

D. 2010

E. 2011

Q9. What is your primary immediate post-graduation plan?

A. University employment.

B. Other

If B, indicate your plans:

.....

.....

Q10. Have you had any work experience in teaching?

A. Yes

B. No

If Yes, indicate at what level and for what duration.

.....

.....

Part2. PGCHE

Q1. What is the duration of the programme?

- A. One year
- B. Two years
- C. Three years

Q2. What is your opinion about the programme, compared with your expectations?

- A. It meets / met my needs and expectations.
- B. It didn't meet my needs and expectations.

If B, **please give a reason** (you may select more than one option):

- 4.1. Because of the programme time table.
- 4.2 The programme is not challenging enough.
- 4.3 The programme is too challenging.
- 4.4 No comment.
- 4.5 Other.

If Other, please specify:

.....
.....

Q3. In general terms, are you satisfied with the programme?

- A. Very satisfied
- B. Satisfied
- C. Dissatisfied
- D. Very dissatisfied

If C or D please go the following:

- 5.1. The programme doesn't reflect professional practice
- 5.2. The programme is out of date.

- 5.3. The relevance of the programme is not appropriate to modern teaching.
- 5.4. The programme's time-table wasn't well-organized.
- 5.5 The timetable was over demanding.

Q4. What is your personal evaluation of the PGCHE programme?

- A. Contained too much theory (scientific)
 - B. Not enough theory (practical)
 - C. Well balanced.
 - D. Other:
-

Q5. What is your judgment of employment opportunities after graduation?

- A. Very good
- B. Good
- C. Fair
- D. Poor

Q6. Do you perceive that the staff demonstrate their knowledge, skills and attitudes as professional and effective practitioners?

- A. Yes
- B. No

Part 3. Experience evaluation after attending the programme

Read the following statements carefully. Please tick one box for each statement to indicate your progress in the specified areas:

- A.** Very good progress, **B.** Good progress, **C.** Poor progress. **D.** No progress.

Q1. I am now confident to support student learning at all levels of higher education.

A	B	C	D
---	---	---	---

Q2. I have a systematic understanding of curriculum content.

A	B	C	D
---	---	---	---

Q3. I understand the value in providing assessment and feedback to students.

A	B	C	D
---	---	---	---

Q4. I have developed personal skills for effective critical analysis.

A	B	C	D
---	---	---	---

Q5. I have successfully integrated research with teaching, as a consequence improving my academic career.

A	B	C	D
---	---	---	---

Q6. The programme of study has consequently improved my integrated technology

s

A	B	C	D
---	---	---	---

Q7. I am now skilled in using e-learning technology for the subject area.

A	B	C	D
---	---	---	---

Q8. I have improved my teaching by using feedback from observations performed.

A	B	C	D
---	---	---	---

Q9. I have the ability to research a theme from academic practice and produce a critically analytical report.

A	B	C	D
---	---	---	---

Q10. I can now use a variety of assessment methods including observation, self-assessment, and achievement test to improve on my teaching capabilities.

A	B	C	D
---	---	---	---

Q11. I am now confident to carry out different research techniques that can be used to improve my teaching skills.

A	B	C	D
---	---	---	---

Part 4. Programme-evaluation

By drawing on your experience in the PGCHE programme, please tick one box as appropriate:

Q1. I perceive the student and teacher meetings effective.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Not Applicable
----------------	-------	---------	----------	-------------------	----------------

Q2. I have had enough time and resources to perform my study properly.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	---------	----------	-------------------

Q3. During the programme of study I had the use of appropriate learning technologies.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	---------	----------	-------------------

Q4. The programme included the opportunity to enhance IT skills effectively.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	---------	----------	-------------------

Q5. The programme structure should be altered in the following way:.

More classes	Less classes	Shorter classes	Longer classes
--------------	--------------	-----------------	----------------

Q6. What suggestions do you have to develop the programme? (You may select more than one option):

- A. Increase length of programme.
- B. Reduce the length of the programme.
- C. Provide better guidance to student/trainee prior to the programme.
- D. Improve labs/workshops. Explain.....
.....
.....
- E. Other:
.....

Q7. On the basis of your experience in this university, would you encourage others to enrol on this programme?

- A. Yes
- B. No

Please use the following space if you have any other comments you would like to add.

.....
.....
.....
.....

Thank you very much for you time and cooperation.

Appendix 7: Feedback on Questions: Pilot Study

1) How long did it take you to complete the questions? _____

2) Were the instructions clear? Yes No

If not, which ones were unclear?

3) Did you object to answering any of the questions?

Yes No

If yes, which ones?

4) Do you think any major issue was omitted in the questions?

Yes No

If yes, which ones?

5) Any other comments?

Thank you again, for taking time out of your busy schedule to give me valuable feedback.

Appendix 8: Published Papers

Majda Elferjani and Les Ruddock, L, 2010, Evaluation of Training Programmes Provided for the Academic Staff of Libyan Universities. Proceedings of the Salford Postgraduate Annual Research Conference (SPARC) 10 and 11 of June 2010.

An assessment of the current higher education system in Libya

Elferjani, M and Ruddock, L 2011, An assessment of the current higher education system in Libya , in: Education in a Changing Environment (ECE) 6th International Conference : Creativity & Engagement in Higher Education, 6 - 8 July 2011, The University of Salford, Greater Manchester, UK. IPGRC Conference.

Majda Elferjani, Prof. Les Ruddock Evaluation of Training Programmes Provided for the Academic Staff of Libyan Universities. (Case Study: Al Fatah University, Tripoli, Libya): Methodological Perspective. 30 and 31 May 2012.

A Strategic Plan for Electronic learning in Libyan Higher Education Dr.Abdulbasit Khashkhush1, Prof. David Eaton, Nagat Elmsallati and Majda Elferjani.

Research Institute for the Built and Human Environment, Proceedings of the Salford Postgraduate Annual Research Conference (SPARC) 30 and 31 May 2012.

University of Salford, Salford, great Manchester, M5 4WT, UK.

Safour, A. and Elferjani. M. (2013). "Evaluation of the Training Programmes for Academic Staff of Architecture Departments of Libyan Universities ". Paper submitted to the Women Engineers Conference 2013.Tripoli, Libya.

Majda Elferjani, Prof Les Ruddock, Dr. Nagat Elmsallati and Dr.Abdulbasit Khashkhush. Development of Training Programmes Provided for Academic Staff of Libyan Universities. The Forum for Access and Continuing Education's (FACE) 21st Annual Conference in 2 and 4 July 2014 was hosted by the University of Salford, Manchester, UK.