



**An investigation of the relationships between Libyan EFL lecturers' beliefs
about the teaching and learning of reading in English and their classroom
practices in Libyan universities**

Ahmed Rashed Ahmed Zraga

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ABSTRACT

Although the significant influence of lecturers' beliefs on their practices in the classroom is well known, not much is known about teachers' beliefs and the extent to which they influence reading instructional techniques (Woods, 2006). Furthermore, no comprehensive studies have been carried out in the context of Libyan universities, where lecturers in English are non-native speakers of the language and have only minimal resources and limited access to published research and scholarship regarding this topic.

The present qualitative study aims to fill this gap in knowledge, considering contextual factors such as limited access to expert knowledge, a fixed curriculum, time restrictions and the isolation of lecturers, in an analysis of the beliefs that lecturers in English hold and the correspondence between these beliefs and their teaching practices. The study explores the factors that shape lecturers' beliefs and examines the relationship between their beliefs and practices. Twenty-three unstructured observation sessions were conducted with male and female lecturers teaching English reading. Each class was observed 3 times, giving a total of 69 classes. In addition, semi-structured interviews were conducted with twenty male and female lecturers. The observation and interview data were analysed inspired by grounded theory. The findings revealed that lecturers held a variety of beliefs, and these did not always inform their practices in the classroom.

This study provides a more in-depth understanding of the multifaceted relationship between what lecturers believe and what they practise regarding the teaching of English reading. The study acknowledges the themes of the differences and similarities between lecturers' beliefs and practices, with observations such as 'lecturers knew, but did not do'; 'lecturers did, but were not aware that they did'; and 'lecturers did, and they knew'. In addition, the study demonstrates that correspondence between beliefs and practices does not necessarily result in positive pedagogical consequences, while a lack of such correspondence may not have negative results. The research also reveals that, irrespective of the relationships between beliefs and practices, the underpinning rationales are linked to the complex relationship between lecturers' beliefs and practices and a range of other factors. The findings of this study could be of benefit to both current and future EFL lecturers of reading and should also provide directions for further research in this field.

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ABBREVIATIONS

L1	First Language
L2	Second language
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development
SLT	Social Learning Theory
CoPs	Communities of Practice
ED	Electronic Dictionaries
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
LPP	Legitimate Peripheral Participation
GT	Grounded Theory
U1	University One
U2	University Two
U3	University Three
HE	Higher Education Authority
BA	Bachelor of Arts
ESP	English for Special Purposes

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

This research explores the present position of the teaching of English language reading in Libyan universities through an investigation into the relationship between lecturers' beliefs about and practices in the teaching of English reading in Libya. The research investigates language lecturers' conceptions regarding the teaching and learning of English reading to discover how their beliefs affect their teaching practices. This chapter describes the rationale for investigating this subject, the aims of the research, the research questions and the significance of the research. The Libyan context is briefly described along with the research design used and the structure of the thesis is explained as well.

1.2. Rationale of the Study

This research presents valuable insights which can be used to improve the theory and practice of the teaching of reading and to develop lecturers' classroom practice and their knowledge about the teaching of English reading, especially in the Libyan context of the study by giving chance for further research to be investigated. As a non-native English lecturer, I believe that teaching reading is a vital area of investigation because the ability to read academic and non-academic materials is considered to be one of the most important skills that those studying English as a second or foreign language need to acquire (Graner, 1987; Eskey, 2005). In order to be successful in an active society, students and teachers should be good readers who are able "to engage in advanced studies, get a job, travel, gain access to information, become more cross-culturally aware, communicating with others" (Grabe 2009: 6). The main aim of this research is to discover lecturer's beliefs and what techniques they are using to teach reading to improve students' understanding of English and enhance their proficiency in English communication. Furthermore, even though considerable attention has already been paid to the teaching of reading comprehension in general, as an EFL lecturer in Libya I was keen to examine what lecturers do in their classes in order to check what techniques they use and how. I have observed that a lack of knowledge and proficiency in teaching English reading still exists among Libyan EFL

lecturers. The link between learning and its results evidently depends upon the context in which that learning occurs. Thus, I think it is necessary to investigate whether lecturers' beliefs about the shortcomings of contextual and institutional settings are related to the types of exercises and activities they employ in the classroom. I believe that lecturers should be fully aware of the shortcomings in the context of learning, as such knowledge can help to facilitate better learning outcomes. For example, a lack of teaching resources, such as data show, language laboratories, libraries, good internet connections, electricity and electronic boards, will restrict the learning processes of students and lecturers alike; and will have a particularly negative influence on students. They will not experience a wide enough range of activities which will help them in their learning. For lecturers, this knowledge will help them in choosing or developing new teaching methods that can satisfy their students' needs and compensate for the shortcomings.

The researcher involves himself in this research as a lecturer and researcher and therefore his existence might have influenced the research and its outcomes to present picture of the subject of the study. Choosing a grounded theory by the researcher was to let the data speak for itself and theory will be derived from the data without the researcher interference. However, I was not a passive participant. I read carefully through all my data to derive any significant theme for the study.

It should be noted that observations sessions were conducted inside the classrooms, and this method was chosen to prevent any external factors which could influence my observation. The 'observer's paradox' might thus be relevant here, where the phenomenon being observed may be unwittingly influenced by the presence of the researcher. However, I had visited the participants many times before collecting the data in order to reduce any anxiety associated with my presence. This should avoid the situation that the participants would speak and behave naturally only if the researcher was not present.

As a reflexive Libyan lecturer and researcher, I have noticed that there are deficiencies in performance among Libyan EFL lecturers in terms of teaching and learning English reading in Libyan universities. This influenced me in choosing this topic and conducting further investigation. I have read different interpretations of my topic and I chose a method which I deemed suitable for the present investigation. The methodology adopted also reflected myself because it has been chosen to fulfil the need of such a topic. I found that a qualitative method that digs deep in the minds of lecturers could provide a comprehensive picture of the situation

investigated. Additionally, the findings have been triangulated via the use of different data collection tools (For more details, see chapter four).

The language syllabus in Libyan universities has recently changed, and the Communicative Approach rather than the Grammar Translation Method is required to be used. Thus, lecturers' classroom practices should be based on the principles and aims of the Communicative Method (Libyan National Commission for Education, Culture and Science, LNCECS, 2001, 87). However, most lecturers are still using the old teaching methods when they teach English reading (Gusbi, 1982; LNCECS, 2004; GPCE, 2008, 39). Therefore, this research also intends to find out to what extent lecturers are using different techniques when they teach reading. Moreover, my epistemological position as an interpretivist is to assume that knowledge is not static, but is constantly emergent and dynamic as understood by both observers and participants. Grounded theory supplies a method which facilitates the derivation of meaning and understanding from the data.

In addition to my own interest in the research subject, previous research has suggested that a lecturer's cognitions and beliefs are very important in influencing their classroom practice, and the beliefs teachers have that exert the most influence on their practices are those that are grounded in their own learning experience (Phipps & Borg, 2009, 380). A review of the literature indicates that teaching reading in a second language can be difficult for lecturers and that it is still a controversial issue (Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Small & Arnone, 2011; Ahmadi & Hairul, 2012). Therefore, the goal of this investigation is to understand EFL university lecturers' beliefs about teaching and to reveal how these are linked to what lecturers do in their classrooms. Furthermore, the impact of lecturers' beliefs about teaching and learning is investigated as a relatively new field of study which, to date, has involved only a few researchers (Borg, 2003, 2006). The present study explores lecturers' beliefs compared with their classroom practices in relation to the teaching of English reading.

During approximately ten years of experience as an EFL teacher in Libya, I have observed that a consideration of lecturers' classroom practices and their beliefs concerning the teaching of reading has been neglected in our educational institutions. Improving lecturers' teaching of reading seems crucial for many universities in Libya, but there is not much research in this context (LNCECS, 2001). To this end, the relationship between lecturers' beliefs about the teaching of reading and their classroom practices needs to be investigated to improve the

teaching of English reading. I had excellent relationships with the lecturers who were still working there because some of them had previously been my colleagues. Therefore, power imbalances between myself and the lecturers were negligible.

1.3. Aims of the Study

The current research explores the relationship between lecturers' stated beliefs and practices in the classroom relating to how reading is taught in Libyan universities. This study differs from previous research since its main focus is on the way reading is taught to Libyan university students, and the influence of university lecturers' stated beliefs regarding the teaching of reading on their practices. Note that, throughout this thesis, the term 'lecturer' beliefs' refers to their stated beliefs. The following research questions have been formulated to address the above aim.

1.4. Research Questions

1. What are the main characteristics of university lecturers' practices during classroom instruction in teaching English reading skills in Libya?

2. What beliefs are held by university English language lecturers in Libya concerning the learning of English language reading skills? Why do these beliefs develop and how do they affect the lecturers' practices in the classroom?

- What factors and constraints are responsible for shaping lecturers' beliefs regarding teaching English language reading skills?

3. How are the beliefs and classroom practices of lecturers of English in Libyan universities concerning the development of English language reading skills related?

1.5. Significance of the Research

This research is important in that it explores lecturers' beliefs and practices regarding the teaching of reading, and it could help to expand lecturers' understanding of this topic. For example, researchers have identified a need for improvements in reading comprehension instruction (Gambrell et al., 2002, 273), and this benefits both lecturers and students by

providing them with reading techniques. The current research investigates Libyan university lecturers' beliefs and practices regarding the teaching of English reading.

This research aims to increase awareness of lecturers' practices, which will help to expand their beliefs concerning the teaching of English reading skills. It will also help in identifying the different sources of lecturers' beliefs, which could be useful in understanding how these beliefs are created and which types of knowledge of English lecturers in reading should obtain.

Reading is a key to success in all content areas; the more one reads, the more knowledgeable one may become in any subject (Ahmadi & Pourhossein, 2012). Martin et al. (2008) stated that reading comprehension is a significant issue in language learning. Therefore, lecturers' classroom practices and their beliefs about the teaching of reading in Libyan universities are investigated in this study, as their beliefs and practices can influence the development of students' reading abilities (Martin et al., 2008).

1.6. The Context of the Study

Located in North Africa, Libya is an Arab country. It borders Chad and Niger to the south, Tunisia and Algeria to the west, and Egypt to the east. The Ministry of Education in Libya emphasises that the future of the country relies on the quality of the administration of instruction. The processes of modernisation have forced the education authorities to pay attention to the need to improve education in both urban and rural areas in the country (see LNCECS 2001). In Libya, public education starts for children aged six years old, whereas private education may start earlier.

Libyan schools introduce the teaching of the English language at grade seven, for children aged thirteen years old, and students continue to study it in their advanced studies. English classes last for forty-five minutes each, and students take four classes per week, where each subject is taught for at least two hours a week. Teachers of English in Libya are considered to be one of the main resources for learning the language. Richards (2001) commented on the importance of teachers when he pointed out that they can "often compensate for the poor-quality resources and materials they have to work with" (Richards, 2001:99).

Lecturers of the English language in Libyan universities, as non-native speakers, still suffer from a lack of support from the Libyan education system (LNCECS, 2004) which has faced many obstacles since formal education began in the country. One of these obstacles has been a lack of qualified Libyan teachers. Previous Libyan administrations, therefore, encouraged teachers to come from other countries, such as India, Egypt, and Iraq. However, the government's concern about this issue led to the establishment of a number of educational institutions to train teachers and lecturers.

University lecturers of English have a teaching load of four different classes per day, which last for two hours each, giving a total of 24 hours per a week during three months long semesters with class sizes of 35-45 students on average. The teaching methods used in the teaching of English reading were judged as inefficient by a GPCE (2008) report because such learning foreign language require a teacher who is able to apply methods of teaching English as a foreign language properly (GPCE, 2008:26). Furthermore, another issue that has been identified is that, in Libya, English language teachers tend to graduate without having obtained sufficient skills regarding oral communication in English (Orafi & Borg, 2009:251). The lack of learning and of teaching facilities such as visual aids and language laboratories (LNCECS, 2004), and of authentic resources such as newspapers might affect both learning and teaching alike and could create problems that lecturers may be unable to overcome. For example, having only limited experience may force them to follow exactly the same methods utilised by their lecturers during their own education (see section 6.2.2.1. in the data analysis and subsequent discussion for further information). It has been shown that lecturers find it complicated to teach using new approaches (GPCE, 2008), as to do so requires them not only to have a greater level of oral fluency in English, but also to be able to apply an English-only methodology, something that works better in smaller classes than in those they are accustomed to teaching (Orafi & Borg, 2009:91).

Three of the twelve major Libyan universities were chosen because of their suitability in terms of distance and time, so that they could be accessed easily. University One is in the west of the country, University Two is in the south-west, and University Three is in Tripoli, the capital of Libya. In each of these universities, there are Colleges of Arts and Sciences which include an English department. Twenty three unstructured classroom observation sessions were conducted of both male and female lecturers. Each class was observed three times, giving a total of 69 classes. Observations of nine of the lecturers were enough because the data collected achieved

theoretical saturation. Each of the nine classes was observed three times giving a total of twenty-seven classes (see the methodology chapter for more information). Twenty semi-structured interviews were conducted with male and female subjects. The analysis of nine of them was sufficient because theoretical saturation was achieved (see section 4.8. for further information).

1.7. Design of the Research

In this study, a qualitative method research design was used to investigate the relationship between lecturers' beliefs and their practices in reading classrooms in Libyan universities. A qualitative methodology was used to gather data. The triangulation of findings was achieved using semi-structured interviews and classroom observations. A research methodology is "the philosophy or general principle which guides the research" (Dawson, 2002:19), and thus certain methodological frameworks are discussed briefly below to clarify the reasons for the use of the chosen methodology.

The general aim of social research is to create knowledge of social behaviour, although specific aims may differ from one investigation to another. Bryman (2008) stated that, in contemporary social sciences, two main approaches are used: the positivist approach and the interpretivist approach. Each is based on a specific epistemological perspective, and the methodological approaches used differ. Positivist methods are mainly quantitative, dealing with figures and numbers, whereas interpretivists use mainly qualitative methods, dealing with words and sentences and opening up a variety of in-depth discussions (Crabtree, 1999, 378; Cohen, 2007, 269).

The type of analysis most often used by interpretivist researchers is qualitative analysis, whereas positivist researchers tend to use quantitative analysis. Bryman (2001) argued that an interpretivist researcher aims to distinguish between the different explanations and interpretations of a phenomenon. Thus, researchers applying an interpretivist approach aim to construct a theory based on their experience and understanding. The data they obtain in this way will include the understandings and perspectives of research participants (Cohen et al., 2007). Accordingly, the basic research approach adopted in this research is interpretivism.

1.8. Structure of the Research

This thesis comprises six chapters. This introductory chapter offers an overview of the research and its aims. The next chapter, Chapter Two, describes the Libyan context, and then Chapter Three reviews the literature while Chapter Four gives details of the methodology employed in this research. Chapter Five describes the analysis of the data collected and discussions of the results, while Chapter Six presents the conclusions of the research, discusses its limitations, and makes suggestions for further research. Figure 1.1 shows the organisation of the research.

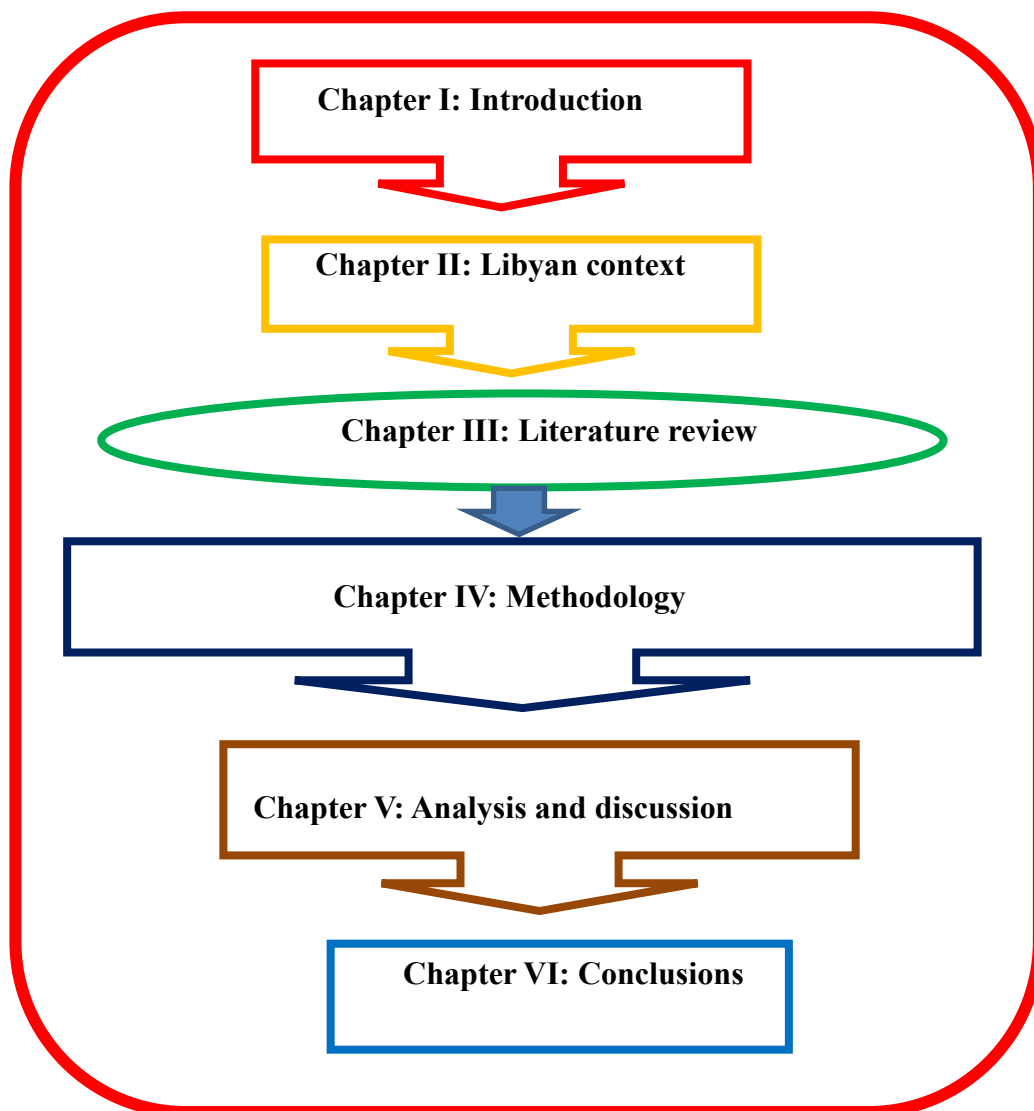


Figure 1.1 Organisation of the thesis

1.9. Summary

This chapter has introduced the present study. It has described the research aims and has indicated the significance of the research. In addition, it has outlined the Libyan context of the study and the methodology used. The structure of the thesis has also been described.

The Libyan context is discussed in further detail in the next chapter.

CHAPTER II

THE LIBYAN CONTEXT

2.1. Introduction

Libya is a country in which very little social research has been carried out (LNCECS, 2001). To the best of my knowledge, this investigation is the first to address the issue of lecturers' beliefs and practices concerning the teaching and learning of English reading at Libyan universities. To provide the further information required for such an investigation, this chapter presents a brief description of the Libyan context, outlining its geographical and demographic characteristics, as well as its climate, religion, and language. The historical development of the education system in Libya in general and higher education in particular is then highlighted, with a focus on English language education and the situation of the English language in Libya and of lecturers in English. Also the objectives of higher education, colleges of education, class sizes and the nature of classes in colleges of education, the English language curriculum for TEFL students at colleges of education, reading comprehension curriculum for 1st and 2nd year TEFL university students, reading comprehension curriculum for 3rd and 4th year TEFL university students and teacher training institutions are all highlighted and addressed.

2.2. Research Context

The present investigation took place in three large public Libyan universities in Libya. As stated earlier, Libya is bordered by Sudan and Egypt to the east, Algeria and Tunisia to the west, Chad and Niger to the south, and the Mediterranean Sea to the north, with a coastline of about 2,000 km. Libya is characterised by extensive desert areas which cover most of the land in the south. It experiences Mediterranean weather in the north, whereas the south is hot and dry in summer and cold in winter. Libya is a major oil producer; indeed, oil is the main natural resource, accounting for almost all of the country's earnings. This exploration was conducted in three large universities in Libya; U1 is located in the north-west of Libya, U2 is in the east while U3 is in the south-west. These universities were chosen because they are considered to be the largest Libyan universities in which lecturers of English teach English reading in English departments, and because access to these universities was available and easy, as I had worked in all three (see

section 5.8 in the methodology chapter for more information). The investigation was undertaken in departments which specialise in the teaching and learning of English.

2.3. Language and Religion

Libya is an Arab and Muslim country (all of the population are Sunni). The majority of the population in Libya speak the Arabic language. Meanwhile, less than 2% speak Berber as a first language, which is known as Amazighi and is used in Berber areas (LNCECS, 2001). Thus, the Arabic language is the main language which is used in writing, in daily formal activities, and in education at schools and universities. However, the language dialects in daily use, particularly for informal communication, vary according to regional differences in Libya.

2.4. The Education System in Libya

The Ministry of Higher Education in Libya has emphasised that Libya's future depends on the quality of its education system (LNCECS, 2001). There are two types of education in Libya: private and public. Private universities are not considered in the present study, which focuses on public universities as these are the most popular in Libya. Students who join the public education system begin studying English as a main school subject in grade seven at the age of thirteen years old. English is compulsory, and students take examinations in the subject (GPCE, 2008). Figure 2.1 illustrates the education system in Libya.

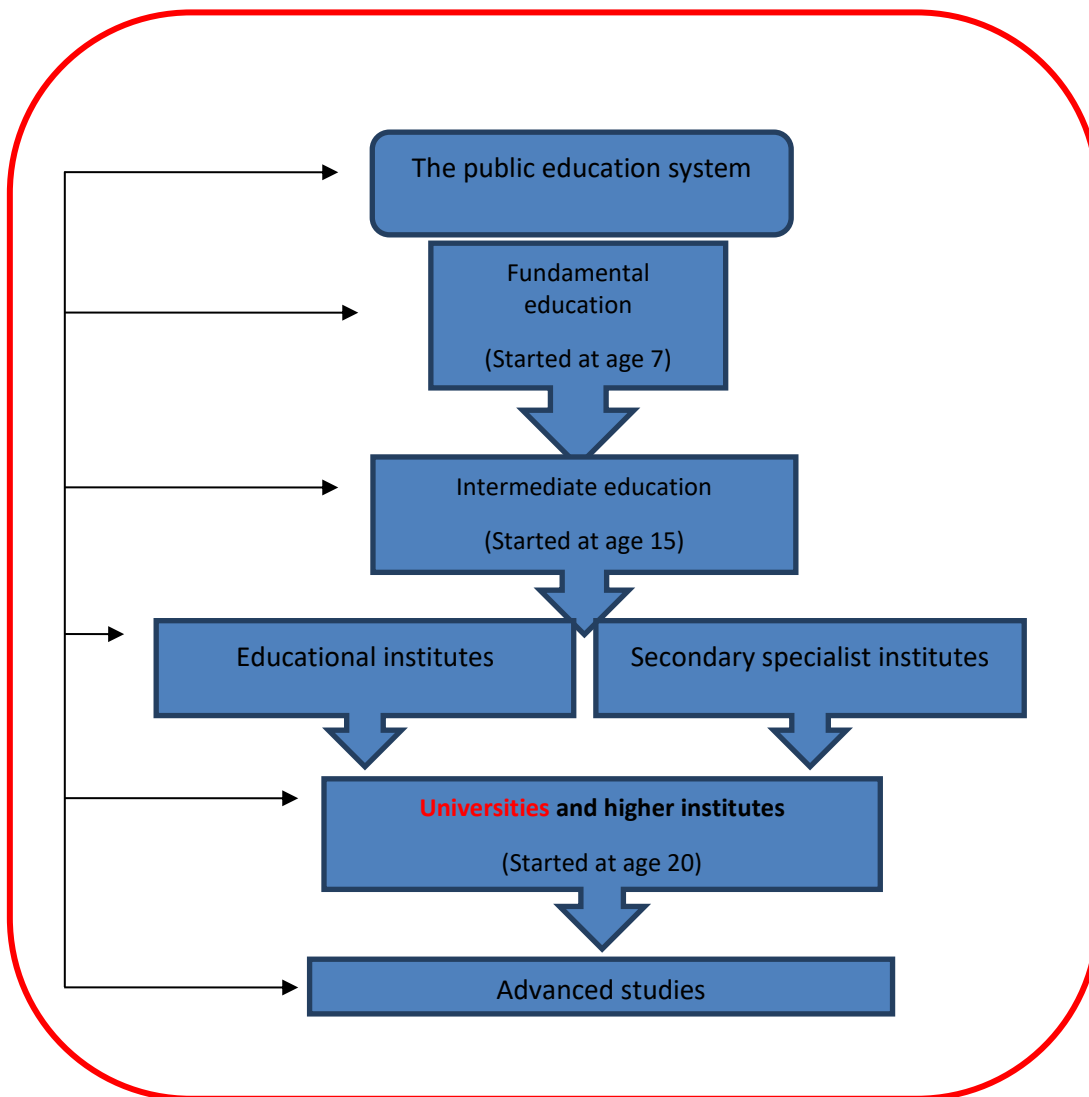


Figure 2.1 The education system in Libya (GPCE, 2008:16)

2.4.1. Basic Level

The general education system is characterised by different phases. The first stage is the basic level, which is divided into two parts, the first lasting for six years, and the second for three years. In the three years of the initial stage, students are required to learn literacy, but do not have to take any examinations. Pupils are required to learn reading and writing only in Arabic. In the last three years of this stage, students also study other subjects, such as mathematics, science, geography, and history. At this level, students must pass tests in all of these subjects to progress to the next level, otherwise they will remain at the same level and repeat the study of all subjects. In the final three years of basic education, students study the same subjects at an advanced level with additional subjects such as the English language.

2.4.2. Intermediate Level

When students have finished the basic level, they move to intermediate education in secondary schools in Libya. Students study general science and arts subjects in this year, and the following year, students must decide if they want to study sciences or arts (LNCE, 2004). Students must pass exams in each year in order to progress; otherwise, they remain for another year at the same level. In their final year, students may gain the necessary grades to join a university or another higher education institution. For example, students who want to study at colleges of medicine should gain scores of 85% to 100%, while students can join technical or higher education institutions with any score.

2.4.3. University and Higher Institute Level

Here students follow advanced study in either arts or sciences according to their specialisation at secondary school. Students cannot move from sciences to arts or vice versa. Arts studies last for a maximum of four years while science studies last for a maximum of seven years. These fields of study are intended to enrich “society with experts and specialists in different fields of life, i.e. teachers, lawyers, researchers and experimenters” (Ali, 2008:6). Figure 2.2 explains the specialisation existing in Libyan universities.

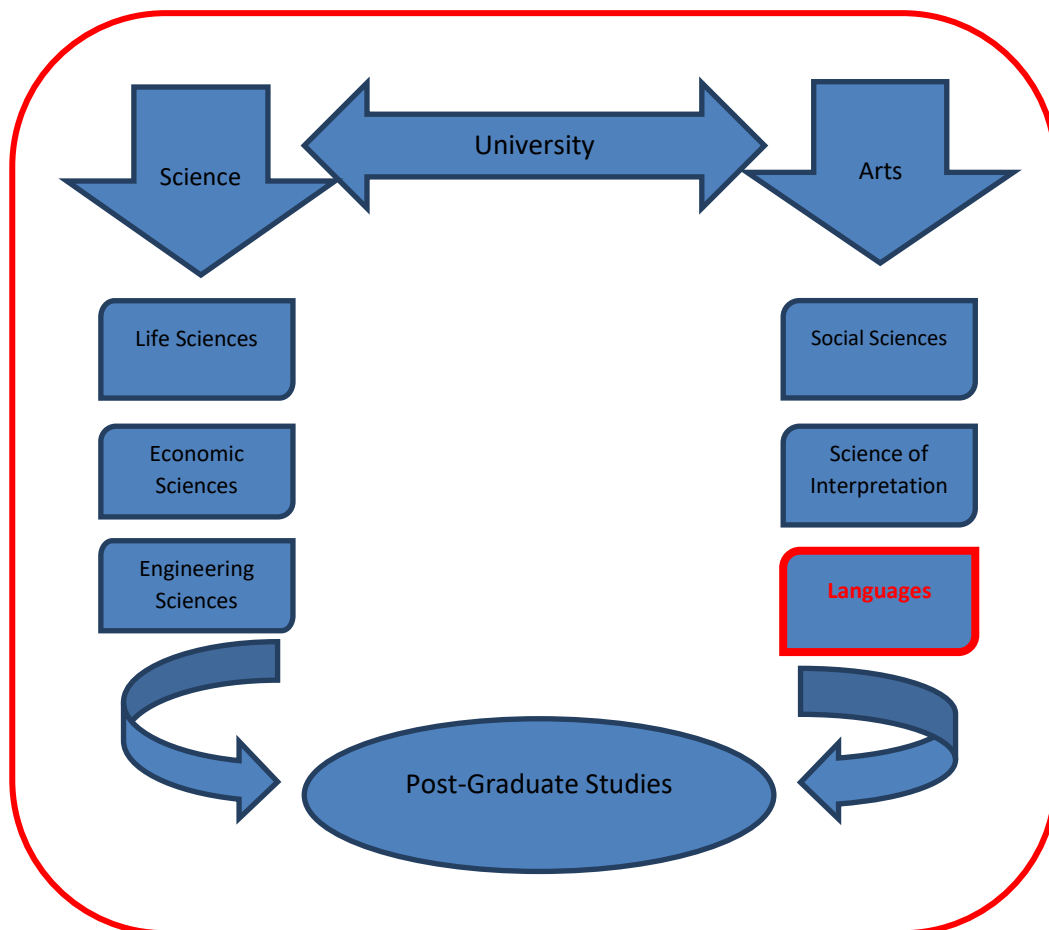


Figure 2.2 Classification of specialisms in universities in Libya

2.4.4. Advanced Studies Level

Students can advance to higher education once they have completed their initial university degree. Taking Master's and doctoral degrees in Libya is a recent phenomenon (GPCE, 2008), and the Libyan authorities generally encourage students to study for postgraduate degrees abroad. The assumption here is that these students will be more highly experienced in different fields of study than those studying in local universities or institutions of higher education (GPCE, 2008), except in some fields of study such as the Arabic language and Islamic culture which students are encouraged to study in Libya.

2.4.5. Objectives of Higher Education

According to Al-Fnayish (1998), HE has several goals. First, it is important that education policies are able to satisfy the needs of economic and social development by providing the specialised and qualified graduates that are needed to play a role in the nation's development

process. Second, it is crucial that universities be considered as centres for consultancy and that scientific research be properly funded. Furthermore, both cultural and scientific relationships with similar educational establishments should be facilitated not just locally but also abroad. Finally, it is essential to establish a solid base for scientific research, as this will provide the necessary skilled and qualified people.

2.4.6. Colleges of Education

In the present research, every university sampled had several colleges of education distributed among towns and cities depending on the population density. Each college has a range of departments specialising in different subjects, such as the Arabic language, the English language, physics, and history. Colleges of education accept only those students who have obtained the Secondary Education Certificate. Nonetheless, there is some variation in the admission conditions depending on the nature of the department. For example, it is normal for students applying to the English departments in Colleges of Education to have to take an admission test before they are accepted. The aim of these departments is to prepare students to teach English as a foreign language (TEFL) at secondary level within only four years. Those students who are successful in the final examination in the department of English receive a BA (Bachelor of Arts degree) and are subsequently qualified to work as teachers of the English language at secondary level.

2.4.7. Class Size in Colleges of Education

The term class size denotes the number of students for which one teacher is responsible (Achilles, 1998). In fact, there is significant controversy surrounding the relationship between class size and student achievement, as class size can have a variety of effects on the learning process. For example, it can influence students' level of cooperation or interaction with the teacher and with their peers in the classroom. Ehrenberg et al. (2001) claimed that changes in class size might affect the level of noise or incidence of disruptive behaviour among students; in turn, this can influence both the type and number of activities that the teacher can carry out with the students within a particular timeframe. In addition, it can affect the extent to which the teacher can focus on and satisfy the needs of individual students (ibid.). Meanwhile large classes might also be considered to provide more opportunities for interaction and social activities, for example, group work. On the other hand, the benefits of small classes are that the teacher is able

to give more attention to individual students, and the students can participate more in social activities and improve their level of academic achievement (Finn et al., 2003; Hess, 2001). In the context of the present research, it is assumed that a smaller class size leads to better achievements. Not only class size, but also the physical surroundings, furniture, and equipment can directly affect the process of interaction and learner involvement. However, in general, approximately twenty-five students in a class are considered a suitable number (Hay, 1973).

In the target population, it is extremely unlikely that small classes can be achieved. For example, in the colleges of education which are the main focus of this study class sizes range from 45 to more than 55 students, and although class sizes in the fourth year are smaller, they still range from 30 to more than 35 students per class.

2.4.8. The Nature of Classes in Colleges of Education

In fact, in this research context the classes are supposed to be more student-centred. Furthermore, the main aim of a university education is to aid students in becoming more independent learners. For example, when teaching reading comprehension, the lecturer chooses materials that are appropriate for the students in accordance with guidelines set down by the higher education authority. The role of the lecturer in the classroom is to provide a suitable learning environment for effective reading tasks and to provide assistance that will enable the students to take greater control over the reading task and deal with any difficulties they might encounter. Monitoring and assessing the students' progress in their learning are also the lecturer's responsibility. This environment might represent a major challenge for students when they join the university, since in secondary schools the classes are still teacher-centred, that is, they are dominated by the teacher, who is still a giver of information while students are receivers (Salama, 2002). Salama (2002) also stated that teachers keep the level of interaction among students to a minimum. Furthermore, most of the work is conducted in the students' mother tongue, at the expense of the target language. Thus, Libyan students in intermediate education classes seem to learn English using very traditional methods. The main focus is on rote-learning to pass examinations.

2.5. The English Language Curriculum for TEFL Students at Colleges of Education

The college English curriculum specifies basic subjects, for example, grammar, reading comprehension, and oral skills, which should be taught at all levels (see Table 2.1). In addition, it

includes other subjects depending on the students' level; 4th year students, for example, study linguistics, instructional strategy, literary readings, and teaching practice. Throughout the four years of study at Colleges of Education, the tutors have the responsibility for choosing the material that is most appropriate to their students' level in accordance with the specific planning of the HE Authority. Students are meant to deal with all their subject materials within a specific schedule; thus, first and second year students have twelve hours of class-contact per week while for third and fourth year students this is increased to fourteen hours per week.

Table 2.1: Subject materials and learning periods per week for TEFL first to fourth year students

first and second year students		third and fourth year students	
Subject Materials	Hrs per-week	Subject Materials	Hrs per week
Grammar	2	Grammar	2
Reading comprehension	2	Reading comprehension	2
Writing	2	Spoken English	2
Language lab & speaking	2	Literary readings	2
Phonetics	2	Introduction to linguistics	2
Listening	2	Instructional strategy	2
.....	--	Teaching practice	2
.....	--	Research paper	2
Total	12		14

2.5.1. Reading Comprehension Curriculum for First and Second Year TEFL University Students

In the first and second years of their university study, students are expected to be introduced to the following subjects.

- **Word study:** Depending on the curriculum, the focus is on developing skills learned previously and exposing students to advanced forms of writing, as the aim is for them to receive further training in the use of contextual clues to obtain meaning.
- **Sentences:** Students are introduced to more complex sentence practice; they are meant to analyse the structure of sentences, while identifying the relationship between the ideas contained therein.
- **Paragraphs:** Paragraph readings allow students practice in understanding how the overall meaning of the text can be affected by the arrangement of ideas. During their first year of university study, students are expected to work through a variety of reading passages selected by their lecturers.

2.5.2. Reading Comprehension Curriculum for Third and Fourth year TEFL University Students

It is expected that students will be exposed to various materials which include a range of advanced grammatical structures and new vocabulary. Lecturers are encouraged not to limit these materials to the suggested texts, but to include short stories and scenes from plays and articles from magazines and newspapers in their class materials, so that students can experience different styles of writing and reading as this will enrich their vocabulary and improve their knowledge of structures in the target language.

Fundamental approach to reading comprehension

The students are encouraged to make annotations directly on the reading passage sheet; such annotations would include underlining key words, phrases, or sentences; numbering related points or ideas in sequence; and writing comments or questions in the margins. In addition, the students are encouraged to make use dictionaries and a thesaurus in the classroom.

General reading

Third and fourth year students are also introduced to a range of reading techniques; these include skimming, scanning, and reading for meaning.

Critical reading

The students are introduced to a variety of critical reading techniques, including summarising and paraphrasing, questioning, contextualising, predicting, and outlining.

Applying reading techniques

The aim is for lecturers to apply a range of reading techniques, such as attribute webs, guided reading, semantic mapping, and close reading techniques.

Instructional techniques

In addition to the above, third and fourth year students are taught about instructional techniques. The aim is to improve their receptive and productive language skills as well as to develop skills in teaching them. Concerning reading skill, third and fourth year students should be introduced to a variety of techniques that will help them to read more rapidly and effectively; these include previewing, predicting, scanning, skimming, paraphrasing, guessing from the context, and reading aloud.

However, the focus is not solely on the theoretical side of pedagogy, as the third and fourth year students also gain experience through teaching practice in secondary schools to provide them with hands-on experience. During the teaching practice sessions, the students are supervised by experienced university lecturers. As stated previously, students who succeed in the theoretical and practical assessments are awarded a BA (Bachelor of Arts) in Teaching English as a Foreign Language, which means they will be qualified to work as TEFL teachers at secondary level.

2.6. Historical Review of English Education in Libya

The subject of the English language in Libya has been introduced at various times into the educational curriculum. It was first introduced as a subject in 1943 during the British administration of the country (Ali, 2008). Then, in 1960, Mustfa Gusbi introduced into secondary schools a new syllabus, entitled 'Further English for Libya', which relied on local material. In this text, the audio-lingual method was used, which is characterised by a focus on structure and form before meaning as the main strategy for teaching language. Thus, it focused mainly on grammar and did not involve group work. In other words, this approach has relied on introducing a topic, familiar to the learner's culture, followed by some drills and exercises. Meanwhile, at that time, the communicative method was introduced into curricula in the USA and European countries. Gusbi also introduced a new textbook, entitled 'Living English for

Libya', in 1982. This textbook focused only on the reading of texts and on studying the grammatical structure of passages (Orafi & Borg, 2009). When the new textbook was introduced, teachers became more like administrators in the classroom because it focused on applying the audio-lingual and grammar-translation methods.

These conditions remained until 1987, when the educational authorities in Libya decided to remove English from all stages of the curriculum, which was a political decision made by the regime. This continued until 1994, when teaching of the English language was once again recommenced. In 1999-2000, a new English language syllabus was designed by the GRCCE with support from Reading University in the UK. The new syllabus led to good progress in English language learning among Libyan secondary school students over the next decade (GPCE, 2008).

The English language has now become essential in Libya at different levels and stages of learning. It is considered to be the language of technology and science, and has come to be the main language used to develop these fields of study (GPCE, 2008). Such changes have strongly influenced the teaching of English, since not only students but also, for example, businesspeople are required to learn English business terms and doctors are required to learn English medical terms. This type of learning is known as English for Special Purposes (ESP). Orafi and Borg (2009) mentioned that communicative language teaching was applied in Libyan secondary schools much later compared to other countries. However, the textbooks now used are an advance on the previous ones for the following reasons:

- The textbooks could be described as intensive, introducing the four language skills and the sub-skills of vocabulary and grammar in each unit (GPCE, 2008).
- The communicative method is presented, teaching the four language skills in the subjects of each unit.
- Different topics covered in the textbooks help learners to use English in real-life situations (GPCE, 2008).

Therefore, the goal of ESP is to cater for the learner's specific needs. The current syllabus in Libyan secondary schools is quite new and is intended to enhance the students' level in subsequent stages, such as university level and, for example, if they become English teachers in the future.

The syllabus for elementary schools has two levels, while preparatory schools have three levels, secondary schools have three levels, and universities have four levels. There is a particular syllabus in the secondary schools for each type of subject, including social sciences and life sciences. For each level, there is a teacher's book, a coursebook, a workbook, and a CD. Each coursebook pays attention to the four language skills and includes sub-skills such as grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. The communicative approach and techniques are used. The main purpose of the syllabus is to improve the students' level in the four language skills in sequence to apply and practise the English language interactively (Orafi & Borg, 2009). Furthermore, it requires organising students to continue their learning at advanced levels in those institutes and universities that offer the required specialisations. The university syllabus is specialised for each subject as well.

This improvement continued when there was a review of the textbooks used by the national education authority, and English subject books were introduced to the syllabus so that students would simultaneously learn about a specific topic in the subject book and practise their English using a variety of strategies and techniques (Phillips et al., 2008). The textbook was designed to suit the requirements of the students' learning strategies and educational aspirations.

2.7. Lecturers in English in Libya

EFL teachers in secondary schools and university lecturers in Libya require more attention to be paid to them so that they can become as advanced as staff in other parts of the Libyan education system (GPCE, 2008). However, the severe lack of experienced Libyan lecturers has been one of the main difficulties encountered since formal education began in the country (LNCECS, 2004). Therefore, as mentioned earlier, Libyan administrators recruited EFL lecturers from other neighbouring countries, such as Egypt, and later on lecturers on education were installed, with native Libyan lecturers being recruited instead of non-Libyan lecturers. Orafi and Borg (2009) commented that, when most English language teachers in Libya graduated, they lacked sufficient oral communication skills in English (Orafi & Borg, 2009:251). An EFL lecturer has a usual teaching load of two to four classes a day and each class lasts for two hours and has 45-55 students on average. English lecturers at Libyan universities have a teaching load similar to that of secondary school teachers (24 hours per week).

English language teaching qualifications are not provided at universities or at teacher training institutions in Libya. Differences also exist in the qualifications gained by English teachers graduating from the various institutions. Some graduating English teachers have not taken a teaching methodology course in their university syllabus and thus have less specific knowledge about the teaching of English. However, some universities do include teaching methods in their syllabus, and hence their graduates have a better knowledge of pedagogy.

Richards and Rogers (2001) mentioned that EFL teachers often find it difficult to teach using various resources because of their lack of fluency in English and because applying the teaching methodology in large classes is difficult. In my opinion, this is still likely to be a serious problem in Libya, and the Ministry of Education has not considered the effect of the range of qualifications held by teachers on student achievement in schools and universities.

2.7.1. Teacher Training Institutions

Previously, in Libya, teacher training colleges were responsible for the preparation and training of EFL teachers, and in 1965, several such colleges were established in Tripoli (Elhensheri, 2004). However, a range of different types of teacher training institutions, offering courses for primary, preparatory, and secondary school teachers, were introduced in a period lasting from the 1970s until the mid-1980s. The training for primary school teachers lasted two years, and that of preparatory school teachers lasted four years at intermediate institutes after the completion of preparatory school. The training for secondary school teachers also lasted four years, but it involved a higher educational level (Clark, 2004; Abu-Farwa, 1988). However, 1995 saw the suspension of all of these types of institutions and they were replaced by colleges of education, which are currently responsible for preparing and training teachers.

2.7.2. Lecturers' Experience

Researchers in the field of education consider that experience is one of the most essential features in developing teaching skills. Tsui (2003) argued that such experience should include "the techniques used for teaching, such as managing classrooms and planning lessons." Additionally, teachers' experience over years of practice enhances the use of teaching techniques. Munro (2001) argued that experience is the most important feature that leads to successful teaching performance. Teaching experience is often considered in terms of the length of time

engaged in teaching (Gray et al., 2000), although such experience might have been achieved at various levels at different times.

Lecturers apply their teaching experience according to the situations they have been involved in previously. Turner (2001) mentioned that understanding the classroom environment leads to the best possible knowledge. Lecturers' experience helps them to expand their techniques of teaching during their career. Thus, those lecturers may pay more attention to their students' needs, and they may apply their knowledge and beliefs so as to meet their students' requirements.

Different textbooks have been used over the years in Libya, and thus the education authority considers that lecturers who have worked with these different textbooks are more experienced than those who have graduated only recently and have taught using only recent textbooks. Therefore, teachers with more experience are considered more professional in their teaching of English.

2.8. Summary

This chapter has described the context of the study. It started by describing the geographical location and demographic characteristics of modern Libya. It also mentioned Libya's language and religion, as well as the Libyan educational system. A historical background of the teaching of English in Libya was specified, and lecturers' experiences were referred to.

The next chapter investigates the literature relevant to the study.

CHAPTER III

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. Introduction

Research in this field has been very beneficial in the instruction of second and foreign language learners to increase their awareness and use of reading techniques and strategies to improve understanding (Kolic-Vehovic & Bajsnaski, 2007). Language researchers have long been concerned with the effective learning and teaching of languages, particularly researchers whose interest is in successful learning techniques for foreign or second languages (Griffiths, 2008). The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature on the theory and practice of teaching and learning English reading. The aim is to provide a clear picture about particular questions or problems, identify the methodologies that have already been used to address them, and consider the possible options for the next step in the research (Norris & Ortega, 2006:5).

With the aim of becoming more familiar with the topic under exploration, definitions relating to the processes of reading are reviewed. Moreover, the development of learning theories in reading and motivation and the learning of reading are also examined. Detailed discussions are also provided of the sub-skills of reading, types of reading, and approaches to reading. This is followed by a review of different techniques in reading that are used when conducting reading practice activities, such as using comprehension techniques or vocabulary terms, correcting errors and providing feedback, checking students' understanding of reading, using classroom interaction, and using interpretation techniques.

This chapter considers studies of the beliefs teachers have about the teaching of reading and about their practices in this area. The review of the literature on teachers' beliefs aims to reveal the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practice. The chapter discusses the difficulties associated with teachers' beliefs, and it identifies the gaps in knowledge that represent the main focus of this study by investigating previous studies relating to teaching and learning reading in general and the use of reading techniques in particular in second and foreign language learning (Gall et al., 2007).

3.2. Development of Learning Theories in Reading

As can be seen in the literature, there is no consensus on a “complete” theory of learning given that each individual theory has specific benefits and drawbacks. Therefore, this section examines the different aspects of significant theories and approaches which have influenced the development of theories of language learning techniques or strategies. It is considered important for teachers to have knowledge of this type of evaluation when they teach reading. Recently, learning language theories have come to be considered as one of the most crucial factors that can have an influence on the learning and teaching of reading. In this regard, the behaviours or strategies language learners might use when approaching learning tasks are generally grounded in constructivism, social constructivism and other theories of learning (Griffiths, 2004). Lightbown and Spada (1993: 71) argued that “knowing about the development of learner language helps teachers to assess teaching procedures in the light of what they can reasonably expect to accomplish in the classroom.” Therefore, the next section explores constructivist and social constructivist theories and considers their relationship to learning English reading as stand point of this research in some points. The figure below shows the theories used as a framework in this study.

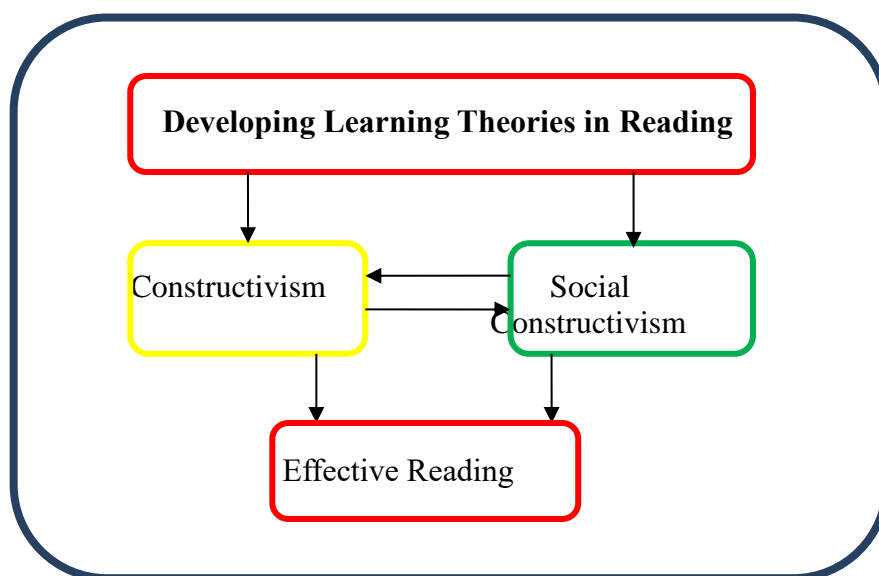


Figure 3.1. Developing Learning Theories in Reading

3.2.1. Constructivism and Learning Reading

Constructivist theory defines learning as “a process of constructing meaning; how people make sense of their experience” (Merriam et al., 2007:291). Jean Piaget’s (1896-1980) developmental work first established the psychological roots of constructivism, a learning theory that emerged in the late 1980s. Constructivism aims to explain the methods learners use to construct personal knowledge and understanding from their learning experiences. The core idea is that learners construct new knowledge on the foundation offered by their previous learning (Merriam et al., 2007). The “constructivist stance maintains that learning is a process of constructing meaning; it is how people make sense of their experience” (Merriam and Caffarella, 1999: 260). According to the individualist constructivist view, learning is a very personal process whereby “meaning is made by the individual and is dependent upon the individual’s previous and current knowledge structure” (p. 261). However, the significant number of differences between the various cognitive models means that constructing a comprehensive cognitive theory of second language acquisition is simply not possible. Furthermore, as Schimdt (1992) states:

There is little theoretical support from psychology for the common belief that the development of fluency in a second language is almost exclusively a matter of the increasingly skillful application of rules. (Schmidt, 1992:377)

The central claims of constructivism have been queried by several cognitive psychologists and educators, who claim that constructivist theories are either misleading or contradict established findings. The reason for this might be because when learners encounter a learning situation, they almost always have knowledge that they have gained from previous practices or experiences. Such knowledge is organised into schemata and affects whatever modified or new knowledge they are able to construct from the newly encountered experiences or learning tasks. This view offers an alternative to extant theories of learning, as it adopts the idea that learners draw independent conclusions about and make active interpretations of experiences rather than simply absorbing and storing the information they receive (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999; Garmston, 1996).

In fact, many pedagogies espouse constructivist theory; the majority of approaches that stem from constructivism indicate that learning is best achieved using a hands-on approach, as learners respond better to experimentation and to making their own discoveries and conclusions than to being told what to expect. This also highlights that learning is not an “all or nothing” process; instead, students learn new information by building upon previously acquired

knowledge. Thus, teachers must constantly assess their students' level of knowledge to ensure that how students perceive the new knowledge conforms to what teacher had envisioned. For example, lecturers evaluate the teaching techniques used in their classes to remedy any teaching weaknesses that were observed during the reading classes according to their experiences. As the students build upon previous knowledge, they may make errors when they are asked to retrieve the new information. Filling in the gaps in our understanding with logical, though incorrect, thoughts is known as a reconstruction error. Teachers need to identify and correct such errors, though inevitably, some reconstruction errors will always occur due to our innate limitations regarding retrieval.

In addition, many educators have queried whether this approach is effective, particularly as it concerns developing instruction for novices (Mayer, 2004; Kirschner, Sweller, and Clark, 2006). While constructivists have a tendency to support the idea that "learning by doing" is effective, there seems to be scant empirical evidence in support of this statement with respect to novice learners (Mayer, 2004; Kirschner, Sweller, and Clark, 2006). Sweller et al. (1988) claimed that novices do not have the underlying "schemas" or mental models required for "learning by doing" (e.g., Sweller, 1988). Indeed, Mayer's (2004) review of the literature revealed that, in five decades of empirical data, no support could be found for using the constructivist teaching technique of pure discovery; thus, he argues, guided discovery is a preferable strategy in situations requiring discovery.

Furthermore, Mayer (2004) claimed that not all learners benefit from the teaching techniques rooted in constructivism. Indeed, he suggested that many educators misapply constructivism and employ it with teaching techniques that need learners to be behaviourally active. This inappropriate use of constructivism is described as the "constructivist teaching fallacy": "I refer to this interpretation as the constructivist teaching fallacy because it equates active learning with active teaching" (Mayer, 2004: 15). Mayer proposed that, instead, learners should be "cognitively active" during learning while instructors should apply the technique of "guided practice." In contrast, Kirschner et al. (2006) viewed constructivist teaching methods as "unguided methods of instruction," and suggested that learners with little to no prior knowledge would benefit from more structured learning activities. For instance, the use of interactive techniques used by the lecturers will help learners to benefit from the structured learning activities. Chapter five gives further information about the other related findings.

3.2.2. Social Constructivism and Learning Reading

In the past few decades, constructivist theorists have included social and collaborative dimensions of learning in the traditional focus on individual learning. Social constructivism inspires the learner to find their individual version of the truth based on their culture, background, or embedded worldview. Through social interaction with more knowledgeable people or ‘experts’, the learner not only gains an understanding of the social meaning of important symbol systems, but also learns how to use them. Young children’s thinking abilities develop through their interaction with adults, other children, and the physical world. Thus, social constructivism highlights the importance of considering the learner’s culture and background throughout the learning process, as these elements help shape the truth and knowledge that the learner discovers, creates, and attains during the learning process (Wertsch, 1997).

For example, adopting interactive techniques includes helping students to share knowledge with each other, discussing ambiguous expressions with students, encouraging students to work in groups and assigning students to work in pairs in diverse ways, and involving students in discussions about their ideas and thoughts in social and cultural matters. Also correcting errors and providing feedback such as applying direct correction immediately, correcting students’ errors while they read, correcting students’ errors after reading and motivating students to participate are considered interactive techniques.

Social constructivism can be seen as a combination of aspects of Piaget’s work with that of Vygotsky and Bruner (Wood, 1998: 39). Cameron (2001) claimed that Piaget’s theory focuses on how learners deal with their environment and on how it affects their mental development. According to Piaget, it is through taking action that learners learn to solve problems, and the knowledge thus obtained is “actively constructed by the child” (p. 3). Piaget felt that, compared to action, which he considers fundamental to cognitive development, the role of language in cognitive development is minimal. Piaget seems to have viewed learners as isolated human beings who need to learn everything by taking action themselves, and he ignored the role of social factors in the development of thinking.

It is possible for teachers to apply some of Piaget’s ideas inside the language classroom by being aware of the learner’s sense-making and how it is restricted by their experience (Cameron, 2001). In the context of language classrooms, it can be claimed that learners require some

background information about the topics being taught and the kind of activities and tasks being used. Therefore, teachers should ensure that students can understand in the L1 what they are taught in the L2. This is because young children arrive at the language classroom not as empty vessels, but with a range of instincts, skills, and characteristics that can facilitate their learning of the L2 (Halliwell, 1992). Thus, teachers can scaffold their students' learning in ways that are most appropriate to the learners' intelligence, as well as taking account of their linguistic level and the background information they already have about the topics being taught. According to Piaget, learners obtain experience and learn through the opportunities their environment offers for taking actions. Similarly, classroom activities should involve carrying out tasks that provide learners with opportunities to learn. The role of teachers involves providing students with suitable activities that will inspire them to participate in language construction, as they will use language as a tool to enable them solve the problems while performing tasks.

Piaget and Vygotsky had differing views of development. First, Vygotsky felt the language and how it develops plays an important role in the child's second year and can effect a fundamental change in cognitive development. Vygotsky claimed that "language opens up new opportunities for doing things and for organizing information through the use of words and symbols" (Cameron, 2001: 5). Second, Vygotsky viewed the child as an active learner in a world full of people, whereas Piaget viewed the child as an active learner where the context is a world full of objects. Thus, for Vygotsky, development and learning occur in a social context. Adults can use a range of methods, such as reading stories or talking while playing, to help children do things and understand more than children can do and understand by themselves. This helps in adding to what Vygotsky called the child's zone of proximal development (ZPD) (ibid., 2001). The ZPD is viewed as the distance between a learner's current level of development and their potential level of development once they have had guidance from an 'expert', be it a teacher or simply a more advanced language learner (Harris & Hodges, 1995).

Therefore, in basic education classes for adults, the benefit of providing learning opportunities is that the adults can combine their wish to read and write with an ability to achieve this goal, a combination that can lead to the adults having a greater engagement with reading. This greater engagement helps enhance the readers' skills and enables them to use their ability to read to achieve both personal and social change. A logical relationship can be identified between how much an individual knows and their reading ability, as both originate from their level of declarative and procedural knowledge (Woodcock, 1998). Indeed, this can even be considered as

a form of academic achievement. Clearly, it is a robust link, which grows stronger as the individual grows older. It can be argued that the link involves a bi-directional relationship, that is, that general knowledge and vocabulary can enhance the individual's reading ability and vice versa.

Regarding the implications of Vygotsky's ideas for language learning, the ZPD notion helps teachers to identify what their learners can learn in the following step and so this can help teachers with lesson planning by enabling them to create appropriate tasks to assist learning. Easy tasks present no challenge, meaning that lessons are boring and children's attention will stray. However, similarly, setting difficult tasks will demotivate the children regarding acquiring the target language. Therefore, while classroom activities need to be demanding, they also need to be achievable. According to Brewster, Ellis, and Gerard (1992), it is important to find a balance between the level of support and the degree of challenge while carrying out activities. That is, language work should not be made too easy, nor should it be too difficult and threatening.

Bruner is renowned for his concept of scaffolding and routines. Scaffolding is concerned with the learner's needs; therefore, it is crucial that the teacher is able to assess the learners' needs accurately in order to provide effective scaffolding that can also be adjusted to suit the child's level of competence. Routines develop when teachers and learners frequently repeat activities in the classroom, whether it is giving the same instructions, or participating in particular types of activities, for example, revising previous learning or consolidating language items. These routines can help in language development, as learners' familiarity with the activities means they are better able to participate in such activities in the classroom (Cameron, 2001). Thus, it is important to establish classroom routines, as they can contribute to what is called indirect learning. For example, teachers might repeat the same words or phrases each day to give the learners instructions for carrying out tasks. Thus, though the focus of the activities may be elsewhere, children can learn some things through this simple repetition. Halliwell (2002) stated that even during controlled activities, learners can be aware of something beyond the focus of the activity and remember it better. In addition, this indirect type of learning encourages fluency.

In other words, social constructivists consider learning to be an active rather than a passive process whereby learners are able discover facts, principles, and concepts for themselves; hence, it is important to encourage guesswork and intuitive thinking in learners (Brown et al. 1989;

Ackerman 1996). Indeed, because, for social constructivists, reality does not pre-exist our social invention of it, it is not something that we can discover. Indeed, according to Kukla (2000), we construct reality through our own activities, and therefore, as members of a society, it is we who invent the properties of the world.

In summary, applying these theories in Libya may inspire lecturers to alter their teaching methodology, leading them to adopt modern styles of teaching and implement new strategies. In turn, this will enable them to encourage their students to approach the learning process with greater motivation and inspire them to be active participants in classroom discussions. Correspondingly, lecturers of reading not only need to demonstrate an awareness of the learners' desires, feelings, needs, and abilities, but must also show that they understand learners' educational or psychological problems. The combination of these considerations will help to promote the teaching and learning of reading.

3.3. Motivation and Learning Reading

Motivation is essential to learning. Indeed, Ur (2004: 120) emphasised the role of motivation, considering it vital for every aspect of language learning. Through motivation, it is possible to increase the limits of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing the English language. Therefore, teachers in reading classes should encourage students to be more motivated to learn the language, and the students should be keen to learn the language because it is very difficult for teachers to teach a second language if the learner has no desire to learn it. Cook (2001: 114-5) stated that integrative motivation encourages learners to know about the culture of the native speakers of a language, while some will have their own interest in learning the language as a second language. This type of motivation is enhanced by designing or implementing a type of lesson planning that creates interest among the learners. Yule (2006: 168-169) highlighted that it is a major tool, which persuades learners to learn an L2 in order to cope with the needs of a non-native society and to integrate easily into a particular culture by removing various barriers to interaction. Moreover, use of the L2 to gain material purposes is instrumental as one of the aspects of motivation.

Harmer (1998: 65) found that motivation is considered to have two benefits: it is considered to improve students' confidence, and it enables the lecturer to have a general idea regarding whether the students have understood the lesson. This could lead "students to be comfortable

taking intellectual risks because they know that they will not be embarrassed or criticised if they make a mistake” (Good & Brophy 1994: 215). The way a teacher manages to motivate his/her students and his/her treatment of them are essential elements in teaching a language successfully, and these elements are closely related to the level of students’ achievements in learning a language (Cook, 2001).

Atkinson (2000), Brophy (2004) and Dörnyei (2007a) claimed that ‘the motivational character’ of a class is dependent upon the motivational practice of the teacher, and therefore, it is the teacher who is able to control the students’ motivation in class. In addition, Johns (2007) pointed out that behaviours are intended to bring about certain internally rewarding consequences, such as a feeling of competence or of self-confidence. Thus, it can be argued that rejecting students’ answers may negatively affect their achievements and increase their lack of confidence. Similarly, Good and Brophy (1994: 215) suggested that teachers be patient and encouraging in order to support students’ efforts at learning.

In addition, it is possible that motivating students in this way gives them a sense of satisfaction and instant success in developing their learning and in their response to the teacher’s teaching (Macaro, 1997). Cook (2001) confirmed this, claiming that a crucial element in successful language teaching is the teacher’s ability to motivate the students. In this regard, it can be argued that the feedback teachers give to their students during classes can be an essential element in their success or failure to learn. Teachers who use implicit feedback could rephrase the learner’s utterances by providing and changing one or more constituents of the sentences (Mackey, 2007). Therefore, providing feedback seems to be a result of the language interaction which occurs in the classroom (Cook, 2001).

Other researchers (Bernard, 2010; Ahmad, 2004; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Dörnyei, 2001) have argued that without encouragement and motivation to help learners to sustain their level of attention in the course or learning task, the opportunities for positive results are seriously reduced. Moreover, positive feedback encouragement can be viewed as an extrinsic incentive, as the teacher asks the students to take a more active role in their learning (Yule, 2006). The way a teacher treats his/her students and the methods he/she uses to motivate them can be crucial factors regarding success in teaching a language, and these factors are closely linked to students’ level of achievement when it comes to learning a language (Cook, 2001).

Furthermore, as Cook (2001: 114) stated, motivation is used to improve career opportunities or to ensure more opportunities for securing a good future. The approach to learning a second language by British students has been used as an example by Coleman (1996, cited in Cook, 2001: 115-6). The three main concerns of students are earning a better income, becoming familiar with other cultures and people, and the fact that the language may be spoken worldwide. Everybody has different abilities, and an academic environment is mainly considered the best place for learning a language (Cook, 2001: 123). Ellis (1997: 73) considered being able to learn an L2 naturally to be a unique natural ability or process. Indeed, it can be considered a successful learning process. Using aptitude tests, it is easy to understand and analyse students' achievement levels.

Many educationists and researchers (Benson, 2000; Little, 1991; Wenden, 1991) claim that becoming an autonomous learner, that is, taking charge of one's own learning, can be beneficial to learning. Good and Brophy (1994: 228) noted that "the simplest way to ensure that people value what they are doing is to maximise their free choice and autonomy." Ushioda (1997: 41) supported this view, stating that "[s]elf-motivation is a question of thinking effectively and meaningfully about learning experience and learning goals. It is a question of applying positive thought patterns and belief structures so as to optimise and sustain one's involvement in learning." However, Dornyei (2001: 116) noted that "teacher skills in motivating learners should be seen as central to teaching effectiveness." Although many education-oriented publications have provided taxonomies of classroom-specific motives, they fail to offer an efficient guide to practitioners. Thus, the main aim of this research is to familiarise any putative "practitioners" with a range of strategies (henceforward, "motivational strategies") and techniques that can be used to encourage foreign language students to improve their reading.

Eller (1983, quoted in Dornyei, 2001: 116) claimed that motivation in reading classes is the 'neglected heart' when it comes to designing instruction. While many teachers consider that delivering the provided language materials and keeping discipline is sufficient to develop a classroom environment that will be conducive to learning, such teachers are unable to motivate their students to become active learners. Indeed, they will remain unable to do so unless they are willing to accept their students' personalities and to consider the details that comprise their psychological and social make-up. Furthermore, unless they can convert 'curriculum goals' (established by outsiders) into 'group goals' (established by members of the group), they will fail to form a cohesive and coherent group, which is essential for motivation. Learning a foreign

language differs from learning other subjects due to a range of factors, some of which will work for and others against success. Due to language being viewed as part of an individual's identity and because it serves to communicate this identity to others, acquiring a foreign language can significantly affect the learner's social identity, as they have to adopt new cultural and social behaviours and assimilate different ways of thinking.

3.4. Definition of Reading

Reading is “a combination of text input, appropriate cognitive processes, and the information that we already know” (Grabe, 2009: 74). In addition, effective reading “requires rapid and automatic processing of words, strong skills in forming a general meaning representation of main ideas, and efficient coordination of many processes” (Grabe & Stoller, 2002: 14). Researchers such as Clay (1991) and Paran (2003) have indicated that reading is crucial in our lives, especially independent reading. Reading can also be considered as a favourite activity in the EFL classroom (Borg, 2011). Indeed, being able to read is one of the most significant goals for foreign language learners and for study purposes (Richards & Renandya, 2002). However, reading comprehension instruction still needs to be conducted more in the classroom (Pressley, 2006; Pressley et al., 1998). Therefore, one of the aims of this study is to look at lecturers' practice and explore how it could be utilised to enhance their beliefs about the teaching and learning of English reading skills.

Furthermore, in various situations, reading may also help readers to develop themselves, such as in their general knowledge, spelling, and writing skills (Ahmadi & Hairul, 2012). Moreover, reading is “a creative art, capturing the imagination of the reader in ways that result in creative thought and expression” (Small & Arnone, 2011:13). It is also “often thought of as a skill, something to be learned and practiced” (ibid., 2011:13). Indeed, in many countries, reading has been the skill most emphasised in traditional EFL teaching (Ahmadi & Hairul, 2012). Moreover, reading can be expanded to the broad definition of literacy that “combines a focus on language use in social contexts...with an additional component of active reflection on how meanings are constructed and negotiated in particular acts of communication” (Kern 2010: 39).

Reading comprises various constituents, such as information and comprehension. It can also take different forms, such as scanning (reading for specific information), skimming (reading to obtain an overview of the text), reading for general comprehension, reading to learn, reading for

pleasure, and reading to investigate and evaluate information from a text (Alderson, 2000; Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Pretorius, 2000). In order to understand more about reading, reading processes are reviewed next.

3.4.1. Reading Processes

Grabe (2009) stated that researchers have found reading to involve a set of general underlying processes and knowledge bases. Generally, there is a consensus that reading is a product of decoding and comprehension. Thus, two groups of processes are identified in the literature on reading: processes for identifying printed words and processes for understanding a passage (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). These processes of decoding and comprehension are reviewed in order to demonstrate how reading takes place, as an understanding of this is essential to EFL teachers in the context of this study given the implications for instruction. These processes are described below.

3.4.1.1. Reading as a Decoding Process

According to Grabe and Stoller (2002), decoding processes represent linguistic procedures and are considered as more skills-oriented. The term ‘decoding’ itself captures the idea of the identification process; this involves “transforming graphemes into phonemes and blending the phonemes into pronunciation” (Ehri, 1995:116). This process includes word perception in the sense of accessing the consistent word in the mental lexicon. Consequently, readers need to recognise the concept of spelling to decode a word as one unit. In the early stage of learning to read, this process is applied deliberately. As part of this process, readers have to access the phonological form in order to obtain the relevant meaning. Skilled readers, on the other hand, are usually able to access the meaning without needing to refer to the phonological code (Carpenter & Just, 1986:15). This stage is reached when the reader has developed their decoding skills to such an extent that reading becomes automatised (Field, 2004).

Moreover, researchers such as Grabe (2009:23) have also considered word recognition to be an essential requirement for fluent reading comprehension. It involves the interaction between activated orthographic, syntactic, phonological, and morphological processes. Meanwhile, it also has to be rapid and automatic because learners will not understand a text unless they have the

ability to recognise words rapidly (*ibid.*, 2009). This might be because fast and efficient processing is closely related to a reader's working memory (Pressley, 1998).

Furthermore, word recognition which includes word meaning must also be complete and accurate because accuracy is considered an essential component of reading fluency (Grabe, 2009). A fluent reader possesses the ability to recognise phrasal groupings and word ordering information, and can determine what pronouns and definite articles are being referred to in a text (Hudson, 2007; Grabe, 2009). The discussion above shows that this type of process is very important in relation to the learning and teaching of reading. However, in a reading task, word meanings and structural information are combined (Grabe, 2009). This process starts automatically when the reader begins any reading task. After recognising words and grammatical forms, the reader combines the information in order to make meaning in relation to what has been read before. Hudson (2007) stated that meanings are connected, so they can then become central ideas in a reader's memory. This process is reviewed in this research in order to improve teachers' practice in teaching reading. This decoding process leads to a process called comprehension, which will be discussed next.

3.4.2.2. Reading as a Comprehension Process

In the literature, there are diverse views concerning the comprehension process. Yee (2010), for example, argued that comprehension itself is the reason for reading; it encompasses the learning, growth, and evolution of ideas that occur as one reads. However, reading comprehension also takes account of the processes during which the reader derives the main meaning from decoding the symbols on the written page (Grabe, 2009). Thus, reading comprehension instruction requires that attention be paid to a range of issues. Once a word is recognised, its phonological features are clear as is its grammatical relevance to the other words that are in the larger structure. In this way, it can be argued that readers start understanding the meanings of sentences. Therefore, it seems that the right way to develop EFL learners' reading comprehension is through constructing the whole meaning and thereby obtaining the intended message. However, recently, there have been many studies claiming that this is a weakness identified in struggling readers, and so this process may be delayed in adolescent readers (Trajanoska, 2012).

In contrast, Kintsch et al. (2005) claimed that text comprehension requires processing at different levels, moving from the linguistic to the semantic level. Subsequently, a relationship is

established between the semantic elements to create propositions that then form what is known as the text base, and this serves to represent the overall meaning of the text that is being processed. Thus, the literature emphasises three sub-processes involved in reading comprehension. The first sub-process is perceptual processing, whereby the reader, having focused on the written text, next stores this text in their short-term memory. The second step is the parsing process; in which blocks of meaning are constructed from words and series of words. The final stage is called the elaboration or utilisation process; the meaning derived from the passage or text is linked to the knowledge that has previously been stored in the long-term memory of the reader (Anderson, 1985).

A review of the literature on reading also shows that there are three contrasting views regarding the nature of reading comprehension and its structure:

- Reading comprehension consists of micro-skills, which are separate and do not relate to each other.
- Reading micro-skills are connected and complement each other.
- Reading comprehension is recognised as one skill rather than a composite of smaller skills (Chapman, 1974: 232).

The second view, that ‘reading micro-skills are connected and complement each other’, is the most comprehensive. Furthermore, the range of activities and of the movements readers participate in reflect the interactive nature of the reading process: checking the text “backward(ly) and forward(ly), identifying main ideas, integrating information across the text, connecting textual information with previous knowledge and inference generation” (Kolić-Vehovec & Bajšanski, 2007: 199).

Readers read in different ways based on their different purposes (Grabe & Stoller, 2002: 29), and there are two basic levels of text understanding that are commonly distinguished in the literature. These are text comprehension, which refers to the reader’s understanding of the text itself, and situation interpretation, which involves the reader’s construction of a text’s meaning (Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Grabe, 2009; Urquhart & Weir, 1998; Alderson, 2000; Wallace, 2003). The reader’s prior knowledge and the process of interpretation are important because they affect the processing of a text, especially in the Libyan context where EFL teachers lack knowledge about the teaching of reading (Ahmad, 2012). This prior knowledge may include: the reader’s purpose

in reading; their expectations of what the text is conveying; their knowledge about genre and discourse structuring; their evaluation of the importance of information; and their attitudes and emotions toward the text, task, and author (Grabe, 2009: 44). The interpretation process is considered to be more valued than comprehension (Wallace, 2003).

The purpose of this discussion of the reading process is to identify the possible relationships between research on reading and the techniques for teaching FL reading in Libya. However, suggestions from the research do not translate directly into classroom instruction. FL reading instructors should also be conscious of the context and of the students' needs and goals, as FL students are learning to read in many different settings and different institutions. Trajanoska (2010) argued that learners' ability to read allows them to feel successful, to access information, and to orient themselves in the world in competing concepts.

3.5. The Main Sub-skills of Reading

Reading is the main skill, and it includes number of sub-skills (Williams 1996). Therefore, readers are supposed to be proficient in the following main subs-skills.

3.5.1. Scanning

Williams (1996) claimed that scanning means that very little information is processed even for immediate action, while Pugh (1978:53) commented that the aim of scanning "is to find a 'match' between what the reader seeks and what the text supplies." Williams (1996:107) defined scanning as "reading for particular points of information." Urquhart et al. (1998:103) also described the main characteristics of scanning as an activity whereby "any part of the text which does not contain the preselected symbol(s) is dismissed." Furthermore, they claimed that "scanning involves looking for specific words/phrases, figures, names or dates of a particular event, the capital of a country, etc." (ibid., 1998:103). All of these arguments confirm that the scanning process is one of the main subs-skills that should be taught in reading classes.

3.5.2. Skimming

Skimming is the second main sub-skill in the reading process. According to Williams (1996: 96-97), it is very explicit and is used "simply to see what a text is about ... The reader skims in

order to satisfy a very general curiosity about the text, and not to find the answer to particular questions.” Similarly, Nuttall (1996) considered skimming as

glancing rapidly through a text to determine its gist, for example in order to decide whether a research paper is relevant to our own work ... or to keep ourselves superficially informed about matters that are not of great importance to us. (Nuttall, 1996:49)

Grellet (1996: 19) considered it as “a more thorough activity”, as it “requires an overall view of the text and implies a definite reading competence.” However, Rayner and Pollatsek (1989: 447) argued that skimming saves time, as individuals who are “unable to skim material would find [that] they spend their entire day reading.” For Urquhart and Weir (1998), the point of skimming is to create a general sense of the passage in order to meet students’ needs. Thus, skimming is considered as important reading process.

3.5.3. Browsing

Browsing is a “sort of reading where goals are not well defined, parts of a text may be skipped fairly randomly, and there is little attempt to integrate the information into a macrostructure” (Urquhart & Weir, 1998: 103). Readers often browse magazines or newspapers not for any didactic reason but just for enjoyment. However, in the classroom where English resources may be limited, there are few opportunities for learners to browse English articles. Thus, it is advisable that teachers maintain a stock of extra English materials specifically for this purpose. This has been confirmed by researchers such as Kintsch and Van Dijk (1978), who found that some participants in their study had no focus when reading passages, which meant they found the activity worrying.

Therefore, it is important for EFL teachers to identify all of the sub-skills mentioned above so that they will know what they should do in the context of their classroom.

3.6. Types of Reading

Numerous types of reading are described in the literature. As mentioned previously, in traditional EFL teaching, reading is considered a skill, and it is the foundation of EFL instruction in many

contexts (Ahmadi & Hairul, 2012). In Libya, for instance, the reading directive at university level involves an intensive reading procedure. In terms of understanding the procedures of reading, “Researchers agree that reading is a set of common underlying processes and knowledge bases such as text input, certain cognitive processes and the reader’s previous experience” (Grabe, 2009:74). This research considers two major types of reading that are used for developing reading skills, namely, intensive and extensive reading. Indeed, these two types are equally significant, firstly to help learners develop their confidence and secondly to develop better reading comprehension skills.

3.6.1. Intensive Reading

Intensive reading is the reading of second language texts with the aim of understanding the meaning (Hafiz & Tudor 1989). Paran (2003:40) stated that the intensive reading of texts and the techniques the teachers use involve the three phases of pre-, during- and post-reading with better language use and activation strategies to improve students’ learning. However, extensive reading alone is not enough to develop students’ reading skills, and explicit instruction in more focused intensive reading is also important for students (ibid., 2003). These views led Pressley (2006) to argue that successful reading comprehension instruction includes teaching reading techniques, and facilitating and explaining the lesson in such a way that will help students to understand it easily in the classroom.

The technique of intensive reading is “associated with the teaching of reading in terms of its component skills” (Bamford & Day, 1997:6). However, according to Susser and Robb (1990: 27), “Such a pedagogic practice may be justified as a language lesson, but... not as a reading lesson ... Intensive reading is actually not reading at all.” This could be why some Libyan university L2 learners are not fluent readers. Teachers utilize a top-down approach to reading passages by translating them into the students’ L1, which therefore detracts from their oral reading. This may lead learners to have negative attitudes toward foreign language reading.

Furthermore, intensive reading is “classroom oriented, where learners mainly focus on the linguistic and semantic details of a reading text to pick up specific points” (Brown, 1994:312). This indicates that readers read carefully and deeply to obtain a specific understanding of the passage through intensive reading. Indeed, Scrivener (1994:188) stated that, “Classroom work involves intensive reading. This involves going back over the same and usually short text a

number of times to find more and more in it, making sure that the words have been correctly interpreted.”

3.6.2. Extensive Reading

In contrast, extensive reading is commonly related to obtaining a general idea and comprehending the overall meaning of the passage, which is usually a large piece of text. The reader’s focus is more on the overall meaning of the passage rather than on the meaning of individual words or single sentences. It has been defined as

individual and silent independent reading of self-selected materials according to both the interest and level of a language learner, in an environment which is neither threatening nor evaluative, where the focus is on obtaining pleasure and information and achieving a general understanding of content rather than concentrating on surface details, such as grammatical or lexical points, or specific facts. (Alshamrani, 2003: 22- 23)

Thus, extensive reading involves a process through which readers absorb information and knowledge from different materials, then comprehend and analyse the language signs (Jiaying Wu, 2012). It is an activity that involves reading a variety of written objects with the purpose of learning to read (Pino-Silva, 2006). Independent reading also helps to build readers’ fluency and develop their confidence (Clay, 1991). Moreover, the literature shows that teachers of reading are often anxious when wanting to introduce extensive reading into their classroom (Takase, 2010). They should therefore introduce sustained silent reading, starting with simple stories and short related tasks. However, while students may follow this procedure, it is possible that they may encounter some significant problems. When this occurs, giving proper and reliable scores to students becomes problematic. In fact, it is possible that some students will claim that they are not receiving fair treatment (Pino-Silva, 2006).

Arnold (2009) commented that extensive reading plays an important role in the learning of any language since it is a way of acquiring and learning vocabulary. It is also argued that reading with no extensive learning can result in only incidental vocabulary development (Ponniah, 2011). In other words, the more we see words in texts, the more exposure we have to those words and the more vocabulary acquisition might take place. In this case, extensive reading can improve students’ knowledge about language, which may then involve “adequate exposure to the

language, interesting material, and a relaxed, tension-free learning environment” (ibid: 135). Arnold (2009) also described extensive reading as a means to an end, where the reader’s aim is enjoyment and/or obtaining information.

In addition, “The main characteristic of extensive reading, the freedom to choose what they read, encourages students to take control of their own learning” (Hirabe, 2011: 11). Furthermore, such reading increases students’ exposure to the target language. Indeed, Bell and Campbell (1996) suggested that extensive reading can motivate learners gradually, as well as helping to consolidate previously learned material. However, reading comprehension is not very well exploited in Libyan educational institutions; most university students in Libya are still unfamiliar with most of the common reading types and techniques that can be applied in a reading lesson. This might be because these students are rarely encouraged to read English texts intensively and/or extensively. Therefore, it seems both important and urgent for university students to develop their reading ability.

3.7. Approaches to Reading

As well as different types of reading, there are various approaches to reading, such as top-down, bottom-up, and interactive methods (Wray & Medwell, 1998). These are discussed below.

3.7.1. Top-down Approach

The main characteristic of this type of procedure is that “the reader comes to the text with a previously formed plan, and perhaps omits chunks of the text which seem to be irrelevant to the reader’s purpose” (Urquhart & Weir: 42). Nuttall (1996) presented the following view of the top-down approach:

We draw on our own intelligence and experience the predictions we can make, based on the schemata we have acquired to understand the text ... We make conscious use of it when we try to see the overall purpose of the text, or get a rough idea of the pattern of the writer’s argument, in order to make a reasoned guess at the next step. (Nuttall, 1996: 16)

In the top-down method, the reader gets a general idea about the passage, which is called the starting point, and then moves to the stage of looking at every single word and sentence to

understand the whole meaning of the topic. Perception in this method depends on the reader, as “readers use their previous experiences, background knowledge, and predictions for understanding the reading text in the top-down approach to reading” (Richards et al., 1987:296). This means that understanding all the sounds, letters, and words is not essential in this approach: “With the help of their schema, readers realise the whole text. A passage can be understood even if some words in it cannot be comprehended” (Anderson, 2003:71).

Furthermore, Nuttall (1996: 16) argued that the top-down approach is helpful because it draws on individual intellectual abilities and experiences, particularly with regard to the predictions that they are able to make in accordance with the schemata they use to comprehend the text. As teachers go on to apply their decoding skills, the readers are then able to confirm that their speculations were correct or to modify them in accordance with what they have decoded (Goodman, 1976). This may help those students who have a low level of English and who tend to investigate each sound, letter, word, and sentence to achieve understanding (Harmer, 2001). Moreover, it can be argued that it demonstrates that employing an effective decoding strategy makes it possible for students to identify printed words rapidly and automatically with the necessary degree of accuracy (Pikulski & Chard, 2003). Thus, it can be concluded, the top-down approach enables students to have a sense of perspective and to utilise all the knowledge and understanding that they bring to the text, aspects that, at times, have not been sufficiently valued in the teaching of reading (Nuttall, 1996: 17). This approach is suggested irrespective of whether the teachers are aware of it because it is directly related to the reader’s schemata of his/her personal knowledge and experiences (ibid., 1996).

3.7.2. Bottom-up Approach

Readers may use a bottom-up procedure deliberately when they encounter problems in reading (Anderson, 2003). In this approach, readers begin by looking at every single word and sentence, for example, starting with letters, phonemes, and sounds, and ending by understanding words, sentences, paragraphs, and passages to comprehend the whole meaning of the text (Harmer, 2003): “When a reader reads a text and investigates every single sound, letter, word and sentence in order to understand the whole text, it is called the bottom-up approach to reading” (ibid., 2003: 201). In a bottom-up approach, the reader aims to be able to derive the specific meaning directly from the immediate context. Moreover, in this approach to reading, graphemes are used to form words, after which, words are seen to form sentences, and finally, the sentences are used

to form paragraphs (Parry, 1987). Anderson (2003:70) added that “one element of the bottom-up approach to reading is that the pedagogy recommends a graded reader approach.” This indicates that students start by learning the easiest vocabulary first and then progress to learning difficult words.

Furthermore, this approach is also called the ‘outside in’ model because it assumes that “reading is a process that begins outside the reader” (Wray & Medwell, 1997:97). Nuttall (1996: 17) argued that “the reader builds up a meaning from the black marks on the page: recognizing letters and words, working out sentence structure.” It is important to remember that field-independent cognitive styles are similar to bottom-up processing, and field-dependent cognitive styles are similar to top-down processing (Nuttall, 1996).

In this regard, Anderson (2003) found that readers use a bottom-up procedure deliberately when they encounter problems in reading. This is because, in this approach, “The reader begins the reading process by analysing the text in small units,” and “These units are built into progressively larger units until meaning can be extracted” (Kamil, 1986: 73). This is also supported by Brown (2001), who stated that specialists in reading might claim that the most effective method for teaching reading would be to apply the bottom-up approach: this would involve teaching the symbols, that is, grapheme-phoneme correspondences, and then teaching the syllables and lexical recognition. Moreover, Nuttall (1996) used the analogy of bottom-up processing being like a scientist using a microscope to examine the smallest details of a phenomenon, and he presented top-down processing as being similar to taking a bird’s eye view of a landscape.

3.7.3. Interactive Reading Approaches

An interactive approach to reading means combining both bottom-up and top-down approaches. Anderson (2003:73) stated that “reading is an interactive process of both bottom-up and top-down processes, while reading readers follow both of these two approaches simultaneously.” If learners come across unfamiliar vocabulary terms while reading, they use bottom-up processes to decode them. Likewise, readers utilize their prior experience to recognize the text.

Thus, it seems that there is no perfect approach to reading passages. Analysing the approaches of reading in depth could be helpful to comprehend a passage, and it is the general thought that

helps the learners to understand the text better. The subsequent figure is a graphical model of the interactive approach:

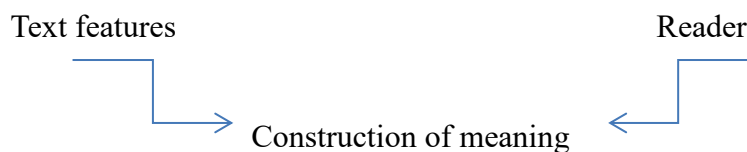


Figure 3.2 Graphical model of interactive approach (Harmer, 2003: 201)

The model above shows that the usage of the interactive approach depends not only on the type of text itself, but also on the learner. This is clear from Harmer’s (2003) example: “If someone attempts to follow the top-down approach to read a scientific journal, he will not understand the journal. He has to follow the bottom-up approach as he needs to understand every detail” (ibid., 2003: 201). The interactive approach seems to satisfy the majority of researchers and teachers. The purposes of reading are defined above, as well as the extent to which bottom-up or top-down handling is applied (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). Therefore, in this study, the focus is on the reasons why readers would choose one of the several types of reading, an issue which will be considered in depth in this chapter.

Readers in the interactive approach combine both approaches; they apply the processes and techniques of each one and then move from one approach to the other depending on the techniques they utilise. Nuttall (1996:17) argued that “a reader continually shifts from one focus to another, now adopting a top-down approach to predict the probable meaning, then moving to the bottom-up approach to check whether that is really what the writer says.” Therefore, this type of reading integrates both top-down and bottom-up approaches. Currently, models of interactive reading or modified interactive models seem able to satisfy a significant number of teachers and researchers (see, for example, Brown, 2001; Anderson, 1999; Grabe and Stoller, 2002).

In addition, in order for students to improve their skills in reading to an acceptable level, one option is the use of the technique of interactive reading combined with a properly thought out amalgamation of top-down and bottom-up approaches (Nuttall, 1996). In other words, interactive reading occurs when a reader makes continual moves from one focus to another, employing a top-down approach to anticipate the most likely meaning, then employing the bottom-up approach to assess the accuracy of their predictions (ibid., 1996).

The current research was designed to review all the above approaches in the literature in order to develop lecturers' techniques for teaching English reading. This can occur only by understanding classroom practice.

3.8. Reading and Classroom Practice

Practice can be defined "as any kind of engaging with the language on the part of the learner, usually under the teacher's supervision, whose primary objective is to consolidate learning" (Ur, 1988:11). Traditionally, practice is used by teachers in English classrooms as a tool to verify whether students have understood the lesson, while it helps students confirm their understanding when they have to repeat something many times.

Furthermore, classroom practice is influenced by the teachers' preferred methods (deductive and inductive approaches) and by the teachers' knowledge; teachers can hardly become involved in effective practice if they lack knowledge about classroom activities and techniques. In relation to the teaching of reading, researchers have recommended reassessing the teaching techniques used in the classroom. It is crucial that teachers encourage their students and help them to read effectively in the classroom. Therefore, activities in the classroom are considered to be essential for developing reading skills. In order to understand classroom practice in reading as a process of understanding or of comprehension, three stages are identified, namely, pre-reading, during-reading, and post-reading, as discussed below

3.8.1. Pre-reading

McDonough and Shaw (2003) defined the pre-reading stage as those activities that are given to learners before reading a passage. In this stage, readers tend to activate their schematic learning knowledge. This phase is considered as one of the most significant and useful because "it can 'whet' the students' appetites to read. It is important so as to grab the learners' attention in regards to the reading text" (ibid., 2003: 95). Greenwood (1998:15) commented that it could present a "need to read to complete an activity or confirm an idea; and it can persuade the students that as far as perception or hypothesis is concerned there are no right or wrong answers, only different ones." Moreover, Yusuf (2003:1452) stated that "these types of activities basically set ideas about the approaching text." In this phase, teachers should be careful to design

activities that make students mentally accept what they are going to be taught in the following stages. Urquhart and Weir (1998:184) suggested some of the pre-reading activities, as follows:

- Thinking about the title
- Checking the edition and date of publications
- Reading appendices quickly
- Reading the index quickly
- Reading the abstract carefully
- Reading the preface, the forward and the blurb carefully.

Considering the points above, it seems that this phase aims to begin to stimulate and encourage learners by introducing certain reasons for reading and it is recommended that some language training is needed to read the passage. Moreover, this stage is designed to check whether the students have any previous general knowledge about the task which they are going to tackle later. In addition, the reason behind such an activity is to help the students recall all of the vocabulary and information that they know about the topic.

3.8.2. During-reading

Greenwood (1998) defined the while-reading stage as exercises given to learners during the reading session. Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011: 146) stated that, “With these tasks teachers take the learners through the reading and they interact with the text.” This allows students to engage with the passage and to simplify their understanding.

Activities given during this stage consist of two main parts. The first part is based on the students’ ability to understand what they are required to do, as they have to scan the given text, which should not be so difficult as to be higher than their level. According to Ur (1991), the text should be easy and accessible because, if the text is difficult, students will focus on looking for the meaning of the words. This means that students will not improve their reading skills, but will just increase their vocabulary. Thus, after the students have finished reading, they are supposed to go through the given questions and try to give the correct answers. In addition, students might get confused about the method of reading they are asked to employ. Because of this, Breet (2008: 69) gave a simple definition of the scanning reading skill, which she said was “reading for specific information.” This means that the students are not required to read every word of the

text. Rather, the aim of this approach to reading is just to find out certain pieces of information. Some researchers, such as Urquhart and Weir (1998:187-202), have suggested some activities for this phase which could be applied inside the classroom, as follows:

- Guessing word meanings by using contextual clues
- Scanning and skimming for specific pieces of information
- Predicting text content
- Identifying topic sentences that contain the main idea of the paragraph
- Distinguishing between general and specific ideas
- Making conclusions and drawing inferences.

In this stage, learners should be engaged in such efficient practices in order to help them to react sensitively and creatively to the writing. Thus, in this phase, “Students must be taught how to read and respond to books” (Greenwood, 1998:59). This part of the activity is likely to act as a warm-up exercise for the students’ minds, as they have to start with an easy text, after which, the teacher will ask them to increase the level of the reading step by step. Later, students will be asked to share their answers with their partners and try to expand those answers in more depth and detail, which can change the reading activity to a speaking one.

Furthermore, after the students have finished this stage, the teacher starts with the second part by asking the students to read the same text extensively. Day and Bamford (1998: 6) argued that the main goal of extensive reading is “to get students reading in the second language and liking it.” To achieve this goal, teachers are supposed to encourage their students to read more books, journals, magazines, and authentic texts outside the classroom. The students will be provided with a number of comprehension questions which need a good understanding of the text. After that, they have to work out the answers to those questions individually. Finally, the teacher will ask the students to discuss their answers with each other, thus aiming to enhance their communicative skills.

In addition, it can be argued that the reason for this activity is to encourage communication between learners and to expose them to the target language as much as possible. According to McDonough and Shaw (2003: 20), students are more interested in using the language than in learning about the structure. In this way, the students will acquire some knowledge about the topic itself, which may increase their interest and help them later to understand the context of the

second language. In this activity, the teacher plays a less important role than in the pre-reading activity, as s/he will give only the structure to the students and let them work out the answers themselves. Moreover, s/he can help with any inquiry made by the students. In addition, at this point, the teacher may wish to do some more work on some of the vocabulary, as s/he asks the students to find out the meanings of some words. Later, the teacher will ask the students to discuss the meaning of some of these words. Thus, to make sure of the students' understanding, the teacher might ask them to define the words or to put them into full statements.

3.8.3. Post-reading

According to Williams (1996), classroom activities in this phase do not indicate the passage but 'grow out' of it. This phase of teaching helps learners to understand the activities once they have finished reading the passage. According to Medina (2008:16), "Post-activities are tasks in which learners, after interacting with the reading, reflect, argue and give their points of view." In other words, post-reading activities help students to understand the issues that appeared in the passage. Moreover, Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011:146) commented that, "In the post-reading phase, the readers integrate their background knowledge into a new schema structure." This means that in the post-reading phase, students' prior background learning knowledge is modified with new information (ibid.).

Wahjudi (2010) provided some examples of and activities for this stage. For example, learners can become involved in creating stories and posters, rewriting passages, and summarising the general idea of the text. Similarly, learners can be asked if they prefer to use these techniques and whether or not they enjoyed the text. If the passage is appropriate, it might be used to develop the learners' knowledge and experience. In one example, the activity was divided into three parts. The first part is about the students' own opinions about how to avoid illness. In this part, the students are required to think of as many ways as possible to avoid getting infected by any disease virus. Here, the teacher should attempt to engage the students' minds to check their knowledge of the topic in general. The second part involves a small and easy passage with some missing words. A list of words is given to help the students guess the correct answer. To make it easier, the teacher plays a silent video report to refresh the students' memories. What is more, the task should be done after students have watched the report individually. Next, students are required to revise what they have done with their partners, and then, in the same groups, they

work on the last part of the activity as they have to write a short dialogue about health and safety. Consequently, they are then asked to perform this dialogue in front of the class.

The main aim of this activity is to involve the students in writing a dialogue which will help them to practise their language fluency as well as to get used to the sound of the target language, as they have to listen to their classmates performing the dialogue (Harmer, 2007). The teacher also has a role to play while the activity is running, as s/he should give some interesting tasks before the students start the activity to facilitate the process, for example, playing a report or a song or showing some pictures (Ur, 1991). Moreover, the teacher is responsible for monitoring the learning process, as s/he must be ready to answer any inquiry made by the students and to guide them in applying the techniques properly.

Based on the above, this research concentrates on EFL teachers' classroom practice and their background in the Libyan context in order to find out whether or not and how they move through the three reading stages of pre-reading, during-reading, and post-reading. In other words, these procedures are explored in the current study in order to develop teachers' classroom practice and their beliefs about reading. This is based on some effective suggestions found in the literature regarding the teaching of reading in the classroom.

3.9. Teachers' Techniques in Reading Classes

As stated above, the study focuses on developing the different teaching techniques in reading that may be used when conducting reading practice activities.

3.9.1. Using Comprehension Techniques

Reading involves a set of common knowledge bases and underlying processes, such as "text input, certain cognitive processes, and the reader's previous experience" (Grabe, 2009:74). Reading inside the classroom could be a silent activity. Indeed, students should avoid reading aloud inside the class because "it is an extremely difficult exercise, highly specialized (very few people need to read aloud in their profession) and it would tend to give the impression that all texts are to be read at the same speed" (Grellet, 1996:10). Furthermore, reading aloud could prevent students from enhancing effective reading techniques.

This relationship between the text and the questions asked leads to positive effects because the silent reading technique prepares students to be ready for what lecturers say in relation to the lesson. In other words, it leads to an increase in learners' ability to read and allows them to feel successful, to access information and to orient themselves (Trajanoska, 2010). In other words, this technique is useful because it involves efficient and fast processing and is closely related to a reader's working memory (Pressley, 1998).

In contrast, reading aloud may help develop students with their pronunciation and make them more confident. This is confirmed by several researchers (Elley, 1989; Leong and Pikulski, 1990; Robbins and Ehri, 1994), who have claimed that reading aloud will help learners increase their language and vocabulary skills when they read some new words in the text. Grellet (1996:10) argued that the complexity of this technique means it should be avoided in the classroom while Ahmadi and Pourhossein (2012) also found that reading aloud could prevent students from developing effective reading techniques. Juel (2003) also claimed that it was not beneficial for students to employ the technique of reading aloud in the class, for the same reasons. In this regard, it can be argued that the technique of reading quickly is beneficial for students because it may help the reader to construct meaning from the symbols on the page (Nuttall, 1996). However, as stated earlier, this technique may not help a reader who uses the bottom-up approach to reading (Harmer, 2003). This confirms that consistent relationships between theory and practice do not always produce positive implications. In addition, in second and foreign language classrooms, at the early stage of learning a language, it is more important for readers to have opportunities to listen to the teacher reading aloud since, according to Amer (1997), when learners read to themselves, their limited linguistic competence means they have the tendency to read a text word by word rather than with any fluency.

3.9.2. Using Vocabulary Terms

Vocabulary is focused on in this research because of its importance to students. It is evident that the development of vocabulary is an extremely important element in improving reading ability. Nonetheless, Grabe and Stoller (2001) pointed out that, on its own, reading does not give full support for the development of vocabulary. Vocabulary is considered as a clue to understanding reading, to enable students to read and write easily (Asselin, 2002). Therefore, the teaching and learning of vocabulary seems to be essential to help students become proficient which in turn, helps them to create sentences and communicate closely with others (Nichols & Rupley, 2004).

Nonetheless, this field has been, to some extent, neglected in previous research (Nichols & Rupley, 2004).

There seems to be a sense that nearly all the strategies implemented in discovery activities could also be employed as consolidation strategies when it comes to the later stages of vocabulary development (Schmitt 1997). Carter-McCarthy (1991: 43) pointed out that:

knowing a word involves knowing its spoken and written context of use; its patterns with words of related meaning as well as with its collocation partners; its syntactic, pragmatic and discourse patterns; it means knowing it actively and productively as well as receptively.

Indeed, Read (2000: 74-5) claimed there was a “well-documented association between good vocabulary knowledge and the ability to read well.”

The review of the literature also indicates that some studies have dealt with vocabulary learning strategies (VLSs) as applied by Saudi students. In “Teaching and learning English vocabulary in Saudi Arabian public schools: An exploratory study of some possible reasons behind students’ failure to learn English vocabulary,” Al-Akloby (2001) aimed to explore the “vocabulary situation at the secondary school level in Saudi Arabian public schools in an effort to illuminate the strengths and weakness of the teaching and learning of English vocabulary there.” ‘Learner strategies’ was one of the components the study focused on. The study in general focused on vocabulary-related instruction as seen in the lexical syllabus, in the processes of classroom teaching, in textbooks and examinations, in learner strategies, and in learners’ individual difference variables, such as attitude, anxiety, motivation, and parental encouragement.

The second study to be considered is “Vocabulary learning strategies” by Al-Fuhaid (2000). In this study, he used the same scheme as that proposed by Schmitt (1997) was used to investigate VLS. Al-Fuhaid (2000) studied a wide range of strategies, including how students used both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, how they practised using new words, how students could use different media to acquire and practise using vocabulary, how teachers and classmates could be used as informants, and what students did to memorize words. Moreover, Carell and Grabe (2002) found that the learner’s ability to retain correctly guessed words could sometimes be even worse than their retention of incorrectly guessed words. It seems that this activity is time-

consuming at the early stages of practising the guessing of meaning and it interrupts the students' reading. Therefore, Nation (1990: 130) suggested that "it is best if this practice is done separately from other reading skill practice."

Wright (1990) indicated that the "potential of pictures is so great that only a taste of their full potential can be given" (Wright 1990: 6). More specifically, pictures need not be the main focus of the lesson, but they could simply be used in a supporting role as a "stimulus for writing and discussion, as an illustration of something being read or talked about, as background to a topic and so on" (Hill 1990: 2). Nonetheless, "pictures have their limitations too" (McCarthy 1992: 115). In teaching vocabulary, for example, pictures are not able to demonstrate the meaning of all words (McCarthy 1992: 115; Thornbury 2004: 81) and it is difficult to provide an illustration of the meaning of certain words; in particular those that define an abstract concept such as 'opinion' or 'effect'.

Nuttall (2005) identified what he termed 'word attack' skills, and he stated that these skills need to be taught explicitly. Methods to teach these words can include, for example, demonstrating to students the way the vocabulary in the language is structured, teaching them about word families so they understand the relationships between words, showing them the most effective way to use a dictionary, indicating methods to identify which words are not essential to the text and so need not be translated, or ways to use both contextual and structural information to understand those words that are essential to comprehend the meaning of the text (Nuttall, 2005: 69–76). Furthermore, increasing students' awareness of the ways individual words can have different frequencies and different meanings according to the disciplines and genres in which they appear could assist in the acquisition of vocabulary (Hyland, 2006:12). Using language corpora could be of significant help to learners regarding their development of this awareness (Lee & Swales, 2006; Sinclair, 1991), while learners' understanding and recall of words and their meanings is significantly improved by the use of graphic organizers and visuals (Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007).

Thus, the crucial element of the guessing strategy is to ensure that learners use contextual information before attempting to use word form clues (Nation 2001). Applying this technique seems to be essential to help students become proficient in learning vocabulary (Nichols & Rupley, 2004). A study conducted by Ebrahim et al. (2014) based on questionnaire data showed that the most important strategy for teaching reading is "to guess the meaning of the ambiguous

vocabulary from the context.” However, “the teaching methods applied in many reading classes do not support learners in deducing meaning from context” (Kazemian et al., 2015:49). Durkin (1979), who observed 4,469 minutes of reading instruction, stated that, of those minutes, only 19 were devoted to vocabulary instruction and that the content instruction included little or no instruction regarding vocabulary development.

This technique has the advantage of being highly flexible, which, in turn, leads to various other advantages such as those listed by Wright and Haleem (1996) when they stated that “[t]exts and pictures can grow in front of the class [...] can be erased, added to or substituted quickly” (Wright & Haleem, 1996: 5). Pictures are useful aids; they bring “images of reality into the unnatural world of the language classroom” (Hill, 1990: 1). Indeed, they not only bring images of reality, but in addition, they can introduce an element of fun into the class. It is sometimes surprising the extent to which pictures can transform a lesson, whether employed only in additional exercises or used simply to create an atmosphere.

Furthermore, Stahl (2005: 12) stated that, “Vocabulary knowledge is knowledge; the knowledge of a word not only implies a definition, but also implies how that word fits into the world.” Central to vocabulary teaching is the establishment of an interesting and plausible context, as such a context both makes it easier to capture the learners’ attention and helps in generating the target vocabulary naturally. Moreover, Nation (2001: 232) emphasised the importance of using context to guess the meaning of new words. In the past two decades, this strategy has been favoured given the popularity and effectiveness of the communicative approach compared with discovery strategies (Schmitt 1997: 209). However, a study by Liu and Nation (1985, cited in Nation 2001) showed that this guessing technique is effective only if the learner is already familiar with at least 95% of the running words.

Nation (1990) mentioned other vocabulary techniques that teachers might use in reading classes. One of these techniques is rote repetition where some learners find it useful to repeat a word and its meaning continually until such time as they have learned both word and meaning. Some students employ this technique to learn words on their own outside the class. Another technique is to use the context to guess the meaning of words. Teachers demonstrate this technique by asking students to look at the sentence or the clause containing the unknown word and to try to guess at what part of speech it is. Students may sometimes need to refer to nearby sentences or paragraphs to establish the context of the word and then, after guessing the meaning of the word,

they check whether they are correct. This activity helps students to increase their sensitivity not just to vocabulary, but also to the coherence of the text.

Moreover, Ghanea and Pisheh (2001: 460) found that motivation theory suggests that there is an incentive that encourages an individual to take part in the activity that is focused on the achievement of a particular goal, and this can be useful in increasing students' English vocabulary. Those students who are already motivated will be prepared to engage completely with activities for language learning. Indeed, motivation and positive reinforcement are viewed as being more effective than punishment or negative reinforcement. Coon and Mitterer (2007) held the view that punishment has a negative effect on students' learning, as evidence suggests that students simply repeat the same thing continually (p. 241). Therefore, the lecturer should use positive or motivational phrases, for example, "Okay" and "Good", to indicate that the praise is given meaningfully because a significant amount of the feedback teachers give can appear automatic, and therefore it is unclear what its effect on learners might be (Nunan, 1991: 197).

In the Libyan context, to my knowledge, only two studies have dealt with vocabulary, both of which focus on the phonological acquisition of English: "A generative phonetic analysis of the vowel development of native Arabic speakers learning English as a foreign language" by Botagga (1991) and "The development of some English consonants: a longitudinal study" by Salem (1991). The current research differs from those two studies because the authors did not explore learning English vocabulary in terms of teaching and learning reading. In this study, the significance of teaching vocabulary is considered one of the main aspects of the research.

Guessing meaning from the context will help students to understand the text quickly. However, some lecturers might not apply this technique in their classes. This might be due to certain constraints, such as student speculations and the requirement to prepare students for exams (Urihara & Samimy, 2007).

According to Anderson (2003:71), "A passage can be understood even if some words in it cannot be comprehended." Using images helps to "provide an immediately available source of pictorial material for the activities. Students and lecturers' drawings also have a special quality, which lies in their immediacy and their individuality" (Wright 1990: 203). This feature of individuality might have a marked effect on how students remember, whether it is a particular phrase used by the lecturer or an expression that the students have produced during their creation of pictures.

Wright (1990) and Wright and Haleem (1996) found several methods to illustrate the meaning of a new word or to use images to explain a piece of language. Sometimes, a single picture may be sufficient; yet, using more than one might sometimes be more effective in helping students to realise what aspect of the picture the lecturer wants to focus on. One way of achieving this would be to form a display of several pictures, which, while different in some ways, all have one identical feature. An example of this would be selecting a number of pictures of individuals, each of whom is horrified by a different thing, as a way of teaching the phrase 'to be horrified' (ibid).

3.9.3. Correcting Errors and Providing Feedback

Different viewpoints have been expressed concerning correcting students' errors and providing them with feedback. Therefore, this is considered one of the main issues to be explored in the current study. Traditionally, and as an educational procedure, it is the teacher's responsibility to correct students' errors. To be more precise, teachers should locate errors, analyse them, and then find solutions (Ali, 2008). In oral situations, the teacher should listen carefully and analyse the errors to be corrected before speaking to the student (Rivers, 1981). The teacher himself/herself should then correct the students' errors. This is a vital part of any correction process. It is useful to mention in this context that the teacher either corrects errors without asking the student to correct (direct teacher correction) or corrects after many students have failed to give the correct answer.

Furthermore, there are various factors that affect a teacher's methods of error correction. For example, the teacher may not give students the time and chance to correct themselves or each other and dominates the correction process. Ali (2008) stated that this method of correction is viewed as ineffective because it provides formal feedback, which is the least effective for student improvement. As Eisenhart et al. (1989: 27) commented, "As a last resort, if all other possibilities fail, the teacher gives the correct form and then says the whole sentence." Therefore, teachers should understand the ways of dealing with errors; they should be clear when locating errors and be very careful not to cause confusion, embarrassment, and disappointment in their students.

McDonough and Shaw (2003) found that the teacher's attitude and the type of error made determined the techniques employed for error correction. Johnson (2001) also said that no great importance or significance should be attached to students making errors. However, Nunan and

Lamb (1996) pointed out that correcting errors may result in students becoming more aware of their mistakes because other students can make a student aware of when they have committed an error, and therefore the student eventually increases their awareness of their own errors.

Moreover, Harmer (2001) argued that the correction of students' errors should vary according to the type and the aim of the activity (Harmer 2001:104). Harmer continued, "There are times during communicative activities when lecturers may want to offer correction or suggest alternatives because the students' communication is at risk, or because this might be just the right moment to draw the students' attention to the problem" (2001: 105). Immediate correction has become popular in FL teaching/learning classes (Fang & Xue-mei, 2007). Rivers (1981), Gower et al. (1995) and Harmer (1998) all suggested that the immediate correction of pronunciation errors should take place during the drill phase of the lesson, and Johnson (2001) found that some teachers demonstrated a preference for correcting errors immediately, as they felt that this would improve the students' language. This could also be due to teachers' concerns that, if errors are not corrected immediately, they might become internalised (Fauziati, 2011). McDonough and Shaw (2003) found that the immediate correction of errors and giving immediate feedback can improve students' results; however, reading without interruption could give the students more confidence (Lochtman, 2002).

In contrast, it can be argued that using this technique may not allow students to participate in the next activity or that at least they will hesitate in doing so. Krashen (1985, 1999), Hammond (1988), and Truscott (1996, 1999) considered foreign language learning to be similar to first language learning. Their view was that corrective feedback is relatively ineffectual regarding learners' acquisition of the target language. In their opinion, error correction should be avoided as it might activate the "affective filter" and so would be harmful, as it would not only lead to an increase in the students' anxiety levels, but as a consequence would prevent the students from being able to acquire communicative competence. Moreover, Lochtman's (2002) findings show that it is preferable for lecturers to avoid using techniques that involve direct correction, as it can reduce students' confidence. This supports Brooks' (1964:148) conclusion that "students must not be stopped in the middle of a word or an utterance in order to be corrected if communication is to be successfully learned." Meanwhile Cook (2001) reported that immediate feedback is a result of the language interaction that occurs in the classroom, but Lightbown and Spada (1999) recommended that errors should not be pointed out in the midst of a task, but should be considered in a separate lesson, as any interruption may negatively affect students' achievements.

However Ur (1998: 247) argued that the “recommendation not to correct a learner during fluent speech is in principle a valid one, but perhaps an over-simplification.”

In addition, teachers differ in the choice of suitable techniques for correction. Techniques of error correction should be valuable and less time-consuming in order to fulfil the goals and purposes of the language course. Teachers need to be keenly aware of how they correct their students’ oral errors and avoid using correction techniques that might embarrass or frustrate students. Moreover, finding the most suitable manner and time of correction is very important for both the teacher and the student (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Santagta, 2005). Teachers may correct any error either individually or chorally, taking into consideration the number of students committing the same error and the time available in the lesson (Ali, 2008). For instance, some teachers prefer individual correction on the assumption that they thus help every student in the classroom to correct his/her errors. Furthermore, Fang and Xue-mei, (2007:10) stated that one of the most useful teaching processes in the learning of a foreign language is error correction, which is why this research intends to identify which techniques are the most appropriate for lecturers of reading in Libya to use when correcting their students’ errors and giving feedback.

According to Savage et al. (2010: 23), when a teacher provides feedback in a classroom activity, they should aim to improve the grammar and pronunciation of the students. However, Harmer (2001: 99) pointed out that “feedback encompasses not only correcting students, but also offering them an assessment of how well they have done, whether during a drill or after a longer language production exercise.” Meanwhile Ellis (2006) mentioned that many studies have found that explicit feedback is more successful than implicit feedback, as lecturers using this form of feedback provide students with immediate feedback so that students do not commit the same errors again. In general, corrective feedback takes the form of responses to learners’ utterances that contain an error which can consist of: (a) an indication that an error has been committed, (b) provision of the correct target language form, or (c) metalinguistic information about the nature of the error, or any combination of these (Ellis, Lowen & Erlam, 2009: 303).

McKay (2000: 30) claimed that when interaction involves feedback, the learners pay attention to the form of their errors and so subsequently modify their responses. Implicit feedback could involve rephrasing the learner’s utterance by changing one or more constituents of the sentences (McKay, 2007). It can be argued that providing students with positive feedback during the classroom may motivate them to participate more in future activities. In fact, it could be argued

that this is in line with Cook's (2001) claim that the way a teacher treats his/her students and the methods he/she uses to motivate them can be crucial factors regarding success in teaching a language, and that these factors are closely linked to students' level of achievement when it comes to learning a language.

Positive feedback is good for students, and therefore, learners will be both more motivated and more active. Harmer (1998: 65) found that motivation has two benefits: it is considered to improve students' confidence, and it enables the lecturer to have a general idea regarding whether the students have understood the lesson. However, in a study by Good and Brophy (1994: 215), the data also indicated that one lecturer did not completely agree with other lecturer arguing that "motivating students to learn reading is useful for learners who suffer from a low English level." Cook (2001) also confirmed that the way a teacher manages to motivate his/her students and his/her treatment of them are essential elements in teaching a language successfully, and these elements are closely related to the level of students' achievements in learning a language.

Furthermore, Gower, Phillips, and Walters (1995: 167) stated that, once motivated, "Students have more faith in their teachers and, therefore, teacher correction helps the learners to correct their errors without any doubt." Learners who are more motivated and involved in reading are expected to conduct their learning work better than are those who are not sufficiently or appropriately encouraged (Baker & Wigfield, 1999; Wei, 2009). However, "punishing students is a mistake for the teachers, as students learn nothing by being punished. Most of the time, it is seen that students are repeating the same thing again and again" (Coon & Mitterer 2007: 241). In other words, "Feedback encompasses not only correcting students, but also offering them an assessment of how well they have done, whether during a drill or after a longer language production exercise" (Harmer, 2001: 99).

It is obvious from the literature mentioned above that the correction of errors is important in the process of FL learning (Fang & Xue-mei, 2007: 10). Moreover, Ellis (2006: 100) found that it is best to include input- and output-based feedback that can be either implicit or explicit. Consequently, the present research aims to investigate the techniques utilised by Libyan university lecturers of reading to correct their learners' errors and provide feedback.

3.9.4. Checking Students' Understanding of Reading

One of the most important activities for teachers is checking whether students have understood the task (Savage et al., 2010). Teachers may employ any information that they have obtained regarding the progress of their students as a foundation for future procedures that are intended to support students' learning (Hedge, 2000). Harris and McCann (1994) also said that it can be considered as a method that is useful for gathering data regarding a pupil's progress while not under examination conditions. Similarly, Harlen (1994) also emphasised that using this kind of procedure will help lecturers employ suitable techniques with their students in order to enhance their learning, while Sutton (1992:3) added that without checking students' understanding teachers could not fulfil their function effectively.

Lecturers seem to know the value of using this technique; although they may have diverse reasons for applying it. Sutton (1992:3) stated that this technique can be used "every few minutes." Savage et al. (2010:23) also stated that "while students are working on their own, the teacher circulates to check that students are doing the task correctly and assists them as needed, including correcting individual students' errors in grammar and pronunciation."

In addition, summarising is another technique for checking students' understanding, and it is important when it comes to developing an understanding of a text's meaning. Summarising should provide "an accurate and objective account of the text, leaving out our reaction to it" and involves rejecting minor details, so that students are obliged to read for meaning (Grellet, 1996: 13, 22-24). These are important techniques because they "enable students to understand the best way to approach a text" (Yusuf, 2003:1452). Similarly, Broughton et al. (1980) argued that summarising is efficient and useful in the classroom, as students will be forced to read meaningfully in order to produce a good summary.

In brief, it is crucial that EFL teachers understand these techniques and are able to implement them to teach English reading effectively. This study explores if these techniques are used to assess whether or not students had understood and learn what they have been taught since, if they have, it would demonstrate that the teaching process has been successful.

3.9.5. Using Classroom Interaction

Classroom interaction refers to a mutual influence that involves sending and receiving ideas in order to reach the point of communication. Interaction is identified as “reciprocal events that require at least two objects and two actions. Interaction occurs when these objects and events naturally influence one another” (Wagner, 1994:8). Thus, the communicative process does not happen unless there is interaction between at least two people (Allwright & Baily, 1991). Nunan (1995) argued that interactive learning offers learners an opportunity to understand the language before they begin using it. Therefore, language teachers can make use of real situations that require communication and which may be encountered by learners in their everyday life (Galloway, 1993).

Compared to other methods of teaching, the communicative language approach differs in that it stresses the significance of spontaneity in the processes of teaching and learning a language. That is, there should be at least two parties, for example, a teacher and the students, or students working independently from the teacher, to interact and communicate. EFL teachers should help their students use a text meaningfully to improve their reading abilities.

Furthermore, as interaction “occurs when objects and events naturally influence one another” (Wagner, 1994:8) clearly, interaction cannot occur in isolation; to achieve communication, there must be a giving and receiving of messages. Several researchers, for example, Mackey (2007) and Ellis (2003), have suggested that classroom interaction has been shown to assist in language development overall; however, there is no evidence to show that interaction is beneficial for developing all the skills involved in second language learning. Nevertheless, it cannot be ignored that classroom interaction can involve the learners’ collaboration (Ali, 2008).

Wenger (1998) suggested that, currently, modern educational institutions are based mainly on the assumption that “learning is an individual process, that it has a beginning and an end, that it is best separated from the rest of our activities, and that it is the result of teaching” (p. 3). However, another significant concept is what Lave and Wenger (1991) termed legitimate peripheral participation (LPP). This concept is linked to the idea of communities of practice and social learning theory. LPP, which is a type of situated learning, involves a process where learning, rather than being purely psychological, is basically a social process. Lave and Wenger used observations of a range of learning situations outside of formal education to support their theory. In such situations, people tend to join communities and initially learn from their position on the periphery. However, as they become increasingly competent, they progress towards the middle of

each particular community. Therefore, learning is seen not just as individuals acquiring knowledge, but rather as a process of social participation. In these circumstances, the nature of the situation is significant because the social context has an important effect on the process of learning and participating in the community.

Having obtained a significant amount of data from teachers across a variety of disciplines, Coulthard (1977) pointed out that teachers play an important role by discussing with the learners the content of the course, asking questions, using students' ideas, giving guidance, and critiquing students' responses. In other words, different strategies can be applied to facilitate classroom interaction and to help students to communicate (Harmer, 2001). Thus, teachers should use a variety of techniques in order to help students to understand the meaning of new words and of whole sentences. This concept forms a major part in Dewey's view of how to overcome the common division between theory and practice.

Moreover, there are different types of classroom interaction, and these may occur in different ways inside the classroom. Thurmond (2003:78) referred to four types of classroom interaction: "learner-course content interaction, learner-learner interaction, learner-teacher interaction and learner-technology interaction." Two main types of social interaction are the focus in this research, namely, teacher-learner interaction and learner-learner interaction. In teacher-learner interaction, teachers could interact with ideas, thoughts, topics, content of the topic, and students (Coulthard, 1977). Scrivener (2005) mentioned that during this type of interaction, students show and demonstrate their reading in front of their teachers. This method of interaction is very important in teaching and learning English reading.

Mercer's (1995; 1996) approach to identifying different kinds of talk in classrooms, on the other hand, combines both a dialogical description of reasoning and a particular version of Vygotsky's view of individual development in which reasoning is seen as a social process in which personal development results from social practices. It therefore fits the model of the construction of knowledge. Similarly, Harmer (1991) stated that the use of group work and pair work produces a facilitating and conducive environment for students to work in. There are several advantages to group work Gower (1987) claimed that it enhances the learners' knowledge of a range of types of interaction and is able to generate a more relaxed and cooperative classroom atmosphere. However, it could be argued that, in some contexts, "students are very anxious about making mistakes in front of others" (Weaver and Hybles, 2004:157).

Lindsay and Knight (2006) emphasised the benefits of bringing students together and allowing them to work in pairs or in groups to practise speaking in the L2. Richards and Lockhart (1996: 152) were in favour of this view, stating that interaction with other students, whether in pairs or in groups, gives students the chance to implement their linguistic resources in circumstances where they feel safe using a range of interactions. Indeed, researchers believe that this type of interaction facilitates the development of many aspects of both communicative and linguistic competence. Harmer (2009) stated that there are three things teachers should focus on when they are involved in discussion with their students. Firstly, it is crucial that the students find the language comprehensible; therefore, the output that the lecturers provide should be accessible to students. Secondly, lecturers should be aware that learners view their speech as a resource and so should moderate it accordingly. Finally, it is important that the lecturers plan what they are going to say to their students.

Nattinger and Dicarrico (2002: 128) added that “students talking with their peers about the content of the course is a powerful way for them to reinforce what they have learned.” Thus, it is important for teachers to encourage such interaction between learners because this technique can lead to rapid and effective learning, and can help learners to be active rather than passive participants in their learning. Harmer (2001) asserted that pair work increases the amount of time each student can dedicate to practising their oral skills; in addition, students can work and interact to develop their independence. Nunan (1995:140-141) discovered that, out of a selection of nine language-learning activities, lecturers considered pair work to be essential, but students considered it to have little importance. Orafi and Borg (2009: 247) also reported how three Libyan EFL lecturers’ merged pair work activities into a question and answer session, as they failed to understand that their role in such activities was as facilitators.

Pair work is beneficial to the students because it seemed to help them to interact with each other. Nuttall (2005: 162) argued that:

Individuals participate more actively, partly because it is less threatening than participating in front of the whole class and partly because it is more obvious that everyone’s contribution counts. And the discussion helps students to see how to read thoughtfully.

According to Richards and Lockhart (1994: 187-188), students rarely have the opportunity to do this in the classroom. While teachers may offer students the chance to ask and to answer questions, they may focus this activity on only a small number of students, such as those “within their action zone”, that is, those students with whom the teacher has established eye contact, to whom they have addressed questions, or whom they have previously nominated during the class. Nevertheless, it is crucial to acknowledge that classroom interaction focuses on the learners’ collaboration (Ali, 2008). Therefore, students should be encouraged to initiate conversation more frequently, rather than merely responding to lecturers (Harmer, 2001).

As mentioned earlier, the communicative process does not happen unless there is interaction between at least two people (Allwright & Baily, 1991). Group work can increase the amount of talking time for individual students and produce a greater variety of ideas and opinions (Khadidja, 2010). Regan (2003: 598) found that working in a group can have a positive effect on guiding students towards involvement in autonomous learning. In addition, Allwright (1984) argued that keeping learners active during the class reduces the amount the teachers speak in the classroom and instead increases students’ speech time, as interaction happens when learners talk and engage in the classroom in pairs or in groups. In this regard, Garrett and Shortall (2002: 47) suggested that providing a variety of activities during group work will have a range of benefits for learners. Similarly, Ellis (2003: 267) believed that applying the technique of group work in the language classroom could provide an opportunity to cater for individual students’ various requirements.

3.9.6. Using Interpretation Techniques

Various types of interpretation that the teachers may use in their classes are described in the literature. These techniques include using the students’ L1 and using different dictionaries. Regarding using the students’ L1, different arguments exist, where some researchers support using it whereas others do not. Atkinson and Schweers (1999) suggested that students’ L1 should be utilised more than the L2 in the L2 classroom. They believed that using L1 in the classroom increases students’ understanding of English and makes students more flexible. This view is supported by Burden (2000), who found that L1 use creates a more relaxing learning environment. In contrast, Ellis (1984) argued that the L2 should be used more than the L1 in the classroom to improve students’ English and make them practise it more. However, L1 use is justifiable if students do not understand certain words, and might find it difficult to follow the

lesson and achieve the learning objectives. Similarly, Atkinson (1987) revealed that some students were concerned that unless the target language input had been translated into their L1, they would not be able to understand it. Atkinson (1987) found that using students' L1 helps the lecturer to check if the learners have understood or not, and helps the lecturers to give instructions to their students.

In contrast, some researchers discourage using the L1 in students' L2 classes. Also, Phillipson (1992: 187) discovered that teachers applying the L1 often feel embarrassed about doing something they perceived as wrong. Cook (2001) concluded that while, ideally, there should be little or no use of L1 in the L2 classroom, there would be little benefit in completely forbidding its use, as the learner will always have L1 in their mind. His justification was that lecturers use the L1 as this helps to minimise the interference which occurs due to differences between the two languages. Teachers should give students the opportunity to think more about any difficult words or sentences because using their "linguistic resources can be beneficial at all levels of ESL" (Auerbach, 1993: 1).

Using a dictionary is another technique in teaching reading. Dictionary use seems to be aiming to improve the students' ability to increase their learning of English (Ahmadi & Hairul, 2012). Knight (1994) conducted an experiment with second year students of Spanish as a foreign language at a US university to make comparisons between productive vocabulary learning, incidental receptive vocabulary learning, and reading comprehension. The students were asked to read on a computer screen 250 words from authentic texts that comprised 95.2% known words, with some students being able to access dictionary definitions through the computer while others were not able to do so. After reading the texts, the students then were asked to write a summary of what they could recall in order to check what they had understood. Those students who had access to dictionary definitions attained significantly higher scores than those who did not. The comprehension scores were analysed further by categorising students according to their level of ability (high or low). Both ability groups obtained higher scores when they had access to a dictionary; however, the low ability group were the only ones to demonstrate a statistically significant increase over the group that did not have access to a dictionary.

However, Gonzalez (1999) argued that, although dictionary work might be arduous, it is still essential and important for ESL students to be taught how to use a monolingual dictionary. Nishino (2007) claimed that learning styles influence the choice of dictionary use, as was clear

when he pointed out individual variations in strategy preferences. For example, one of his subjects preferred to infer word meanings from the context, while another preferred to look up word meanings in a dictionary. Luppescu and Day (1993) studied the use of dictionaries among 293 Japanese EFL university students, some of whom were using electronic monolingual dictionaries or printed bilingual dictionaries while the remainder used no dictionaries. They devised a five-page narrative that had been edited in such a way that it had enhanced content, and target words were repeated to assist students in predicting their meanings. They then made a comparison between the groups regarding vocabulary acquisition and the time required to read the passage. The group using monolingual dictionaries took twice as long to read the passage, but nonetheless their average score on a multiple choice vocabulary quiz was 50% greater than the mean score. In contrast, with regard to certain items that had a range of dictionary definitions, the group without dictionaries performed better than the group using dictionaries.

In addition, Nishino (2007) suggested that the interplay between learning styles, including the tolerance of ambiguity, and educational experiences such as the promotion of dictionary use seem to influence individual differences in achievement, while Grabe and Stoller (1997) found that using a dictionary could provide support when otherwise the subject would have been obliged to make too many inferences. Moreover, it can be argued that the necessity of using a dictionary might be related to the “complex process [of making] meaning out of the text, for various aims and in varied contexts” (Allan & Bruton, 1998). Koren’s (2000) findings show that bilingual dictionaries are frequently preferred by teachers. These dictionaries, however, can cause problems for some students who tend to focus on translating each word individually rather than looking to capture the broader sense of the passage, and thus the use of bilingual dictionaries may have a negative impact on students’ ability to comprehend the overall meaning of the passage.

Gow et al. (1991) considered the use of monolingual English-English dictionaries as a strategy employed by low proficiency EFL learners, and Briggs (1987) and Thompson (1987) found that English-English dictionaries are used as reliable sources for word meanings and spellings as well as for pronunciation. Bensoussan et al. (1984) compared the effect on reading comprehension of the use of bilingual or monolingual dictionaries or no dictionary at all in a sample of EFL university students. Performance was evaluated using multiple-choice questions to assess their understanding of a range of text passages.

The authors concluded that “less proficient students lack the language skills to benefit from a dictionary, whereas more proficient students know enough to do without it” (ibid: 271). Koren (1997:2) found that the use of bilingual dictionaries might resolve some of the issues that monolingual dictionaries present. This is supported by Baker et al. (2011), who found that, due to L2 learners having only a limited vocabulary, they find it difficult to understand the text unless they are able to refer to a dictionary. However, an e-dictionary provides them with a quick tool to enhance comprehension.

In addition, Weschler and Pitts (2000: 1) found that modern electronic dictionaries (EDs) can allow students to look up the definition of words 23% more rapidly than when using conventional dictionaries; however, the increase in speed that comes from using an ED may involve a corresponding reduction in engagement and in-depth processing of words, which could mean that, ultimately, students learn less vocabulary. Stirling (2003: 2-3) also carried out a small survey of EFL lecturers who listed the following possible disadvantages of EDs: “insufficient examples, inaccurate meanings, unintelligible pronunciation, lack of collocations, excess of meanings, and the absence of improvements found in other dictionaries.” Using electronic dictionaries tend to give better results in comprehension and vocabulary assessments than does the use of printed dictionaries (Flynn, 2007). In addition, Knight (1994: 285) indicated that educators might have another concern which would apply to the use of all dictionaries: “Looking up words frequently interferes with short-term memory and thus disrupts the comprehension process.” In this regard, it could be argued that, while using dictionaries saves time and is useful for learners, it can exacerbate certain other issues; for example, students may be exposed to less in-depth processing of words, which could reduce the level of vocabulary learning (Stirling, 2003).

In summary, there are a range of arguments regarding the use of interpretation in L2 classes. Therefore, this research considers students’ use of such techniques in classes teaching reading.

3.10 Teacher Cognitions

Borg (2003: 81) defined teacher cognitions as “the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching: what teachers know, believe, and think.” The reason for exploring teacher cognition in this study is that it represents “the store of beliefs, knowledge, assumptions, theories, and attitudes about all aspects of their work which teachers hold and which have a powerful impact

on teachers' classroom practices" (ibid, 1998:19). Since the 1980s, this area has attracted a number of researchers wishing to explore teachers' thoughts and to consider how they are engaged in their lessons (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). Numerous studies of teacher cognition (such as Borg, 2006; Brickhouse, 1990; Fang, 1996; King & Wiseman, 2001) have confirmed that there is an increased interest in how teachers' beliefs are affected by their performance in the classroom. This leads the current study to explore how teachers perform in the classroom and what they believe about the teaching of reading. Definitions of teachers' beliefs are explored next.

3.10.1. Teachers' Beliefs

There has been intense interest in teachers' beliefs among researchers since the 1970s (Freeman, 2002). Research into teacher cognition in general has identified different sources of teachers' beliefs, including their learning experiences, or the "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie, 1975: 61) and teacher education. Borg (2003: 88) argued that "teachers' prior language learning experiences establish cognitions about learning and language learning which form the basis of their initial conceptualisations of L2 teaching during teacher education." Similarly, Breen et al. (2001) discovered that teachers' classroom practices are significantly influenced by their previous experiences as learners. Further sources of teachers' beliefs may include "teachers' personality factors, educational principles and research-based evidence" (Richards & Lockhart, 1996: 30).

Beliefs are viewed as a "messy construct" since investigators use different terms when referring to them (Pajares, 1992:307). According to Richards (1998:66), teachers' beliefs are considered as "the information, attitudes, values, expectations, theories, and assumptions about teaching and learning that teachers build up over time and bring with them to the classroom." However, Erkmen (2010: 22) stated that "beliefs do not require a condition of truth, they are episodic, affective, built on presumptions and have an adaptive function." This means, it is crucial to explore teachers' beliefs in order to understand what happens inside the classroom (Borg, 2001). In general, the structure of a teacher's beliefs seems quite simple, but has a profound influence on both a teacher's behaviour and their perceptions (Hassan, 2013). Thus, one of the main aims of this research is to attempt to fill the gap in the research by concentrating on teachers' beliefs about the teaching of English reading.

Teachers' beliefs are defined by Pajares (1992) as:

their attitudes, values, judgments, opinions, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles and perspectives. (Pajares, 1992:309)

In addition, teachers' beliefs could be considered as "statements teachers made about their ideas, thoughts, and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what should be done, should be the case and is preferable" (Basturkmen et al., 2004: 224). Clearly, this argument is limited, precise, and straightforward, and it is the one which the present study has adopted. Pajares (1992: 324) provided some "fundamental assumptions that may reasonably be made when initiating a study of teachers' education beliefs." These assumptions include, among others, the following:

- beliefs are formed early and tend to self-perpetuate, being preserved even in the face of contradictions caused by reasoning, time, schooling, or experience;
- individuals develop a belief system that includes all the beliefs acquired through the process of cultural transmission;
- beliefs are instrumental in defining tasks and selecting the cognitive tools with which to interpret, plan, and make decisions regarding such tasks;
- individuals' beliefs strongly affect their behaviour;
- knowledge and beliefs are inextricably intertwined. (Pajares 1992: 324)

In addition, Pajares (1992:314) added that "beliefs cannot be directly observed or measured but must be inferred from what people say, intend, and do - fundamental prerequisites that educational researchers have seldom followed."

The above discussion shows that there are wide variations in definitions of the term beliefs due to its complexity, meaning that there is no one agreed-upon definition. This might be because the term is associated with "definitional problems, poor conceptualisations, and differing understandings of beliefs and belief structures" (Pajares, 1992:307). However, in the current study, I have adopted Basturkmen's (2004: 224) definition when he considered beliefs could be considered as "statements teachers made about their ideas, thoughts, and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what should be done, should be the case and is preferable", for the reasons stated above.

3.10.2. Sources of Teachers' Beliefs

Research into teacher cognition has identified different sources of teachers' beliefs, including their learning experiences, or the "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie, 1975: 61), and teacher education. Borg (2003: 88) argued that "teachers' prior language learning experiences establish cognitions about learning and language learning which form the basis of their initial conceptualisations of L2 teaching during teacher education." Breen et al. (2001) also found teachers' classroom work to be highly influenced by their prior experiences as learners during their early years. Further sources may include "teachers' personality factors, educational principles and research-based evidence" (Richards & Lockhart, 1996: 30).

Teachers' beliefs, according to Kindsvatter et al. (1988), stem from different sources including, as mentioned above, their prior learning experiences. This suggests that teachers tend to teach by following the way they were taught during their own education. Thus, their beliefs concerning teaching often reflect how they were taught, and they sometimes use the techniques or methods of teaching their own teachers used, and what they experienced when they were students affects their beliefs. Therefore, when student teachers come into the classroom, they already have a set of beliefs based on their own experiences as learners. Moreover, Kajinga (2006) contended that the type of discipline in school and the type of pre-service experience undoubtedly shape teachers' beliefs. Kajinga (2006: 17) further reported that "the influence of school memories on teachers' beliefs form part of the most striking finding" of her study of the influence of formal training on teachers' beliefs."

Moreover, Borg (2003:81) found much evidence to support the view that the experiences teachers had when they were learners continued to affect their beliefs about teaching and learning throughout their careers. Thus, experience can be influential in shaping teachers' beliefs about teaching. Similarly, different investigations also show that language teachers' beliefs about teaching are guided by their previous knowledge of learning and teaching (Carter, 1991; Ng et al., 2009; Woods, 1996). These studies have shown that teacher education can be one of the strongest influences in terms of shaping teachers' beliefs. However, none of these studies explored the value of the relationship between all the aspects of classroom practice and teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning reading.

Wiseman et al. (2002: 17) stated that knowledgeable teachers are able to fine-tune their teaching strategies and, depending on their preferences, may gain expertise in a particular strategy. Moreover, this experience may have been enhanced and advanced over many years of preparation and training, thus reinforcing their teaching technique. Richards and Lockhart (1996: 30) mentioned that personality factors are also considered as sources of teachers' beliefs. For instance, beliefs may come from a particular teaching pattern or activity that some teachers may prefer because it matches their personality. Teachers' beliefs may also derive from recognized practice, and a certain teaching method may be favoured in a particular class. Teachers may also feel more comfortable with a particular teaching approach.

3.11. Factors that Influence Lecturers' Practices

The literature shows different factors that influence lectures' beliefs and practices, such as professional training. Ford et al. (1997) argued that it has long been accepted that training effectiveness is a crucial issue for organizations. Indeed, in the future, it is likely to become even more important (Blanchard and Thacker, 1999). This has been indicated by several studies about training where the researchers aimed to use it to break down language barriers. However, short training sessions will not be sufficient to ensure that EFL teachers have the knowledge and skills about teaching that they require. The "real change in practice will not arise from short programmes of instruction, especially when those programmes take place in a centre removed from the teacher's own classroom" (Adey & Hewitt, 2004:156). EFL teachers need to be familiar with the methods and techniques in order to be able to manage their classroom activities.

Moreover, understanding the context is also important. Borg (cited in Kajinga, 2006:18) claimed that teacher "training succeeds mostly in reinforcing existing beliefs and theories", while Bax (2003: 283) argued that "any training course should make it a priority to teach not only methodology but also a heightened awareness of contextual factors, and the ability to deal with them." Thus, in the Libyan context, it seems essential that there should be regular teacher training sessions, as teachers' confidence in their reading classes increases when they know that their background knowledge is up to date.

Experience is another factor that has some effect on teachers' beliefs and practices, as these appear to have been influenced by their own learning background. A number of researchers (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Meijer et al., 2001; Borg, 2003) have confirmed this and their

research has demonstrated that language teachers' knowledge of teaching is significantly influenced by their own previous experiences of teaching and learning. For example, Borg (2003: 81) revealed that "there is ample evidence that teachers' experiences as learners can inform cognitions about teaching and learning which continue to exert an influence on teachers throughout their careers." Moreover, Nespor (1987:320), found that "a number of teachers suggested that critical episodes or experiences gained earlier in their teaching careers were important for their present practices." Borg (2003: 81) also stated that there was significant evidence to demonstrate that the experiences teachers have as learners can influence their subsequent perceptions regarding the teaching and learning processes. Thus, all of these studies have evidenced that teachers' prior experience of teaching and learning English is a crucial factor that influences their classroom practice.

Furthermore, institutional factors and learner variables also influence lecturers' beliefs and practices. Thus, it can be argued that educational background is a further important learner variable. For students who lack any formal education, focusing on form will not be productive. However, literate, well-educated learners will benefit from being taught using formal instruction and having their errors corrected, as it will provide them with a challenge. Thus, not only will it avoid them becoming frustrated, but in addition, it will assist them in becoming both more accurate and fluent in the L2 (Celce-Murcia, 1991). Learners variables also include educational background and level, and age, and all of these variables may affect teachers' beliefs. Age, in fact, is a crucial variable, because it can be used to decide the extent to which the learners should concentrate on English forms. Another essential variable in teaching reading is the learner's level of proficiency. For example, it is unlikely that lower-level students will derive much benefit from an explicit presentation combined with an overt explanation of the target language, as it is probable that they will lack sufficient English to understand the explanation (Savage et al., 2010). Therefore, all of these variables should be considered in the area of teaching and learning English reading.

Moreover, instructional materials are another factor that may influence the teachers' beliefs and their performance in teaching reading. As shown in Borg and Burns' (2008) study, the teaching practices of teachers were considerably influenced by the instructional materials used. Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011:146) stated that, "With these tasks teachers take the learners through the reading and they interact with the text." Furthermore, syllables and materials of teaching are considered to be one of the most important sources of knowledge in Libya. However, the

universities are meant to provide lecturers with these teaching materials, and the lecturers are supposed to understand and master their content without raising any queries regarding their credibility: “Education in Libya has a traditional character in methods and schemes. It is interested to supply students with information, but it does not care much for scientific thinking methods” (Libyan National Commission for Education, 2004:65).

In addition, class size is considered one of the factors that affect teachers’ beliefs and practices in teaching reading. Cooper (1989), Bennett (1996) and Achilles (1999) investigated interactions between teachers and learners in the classroom, and found that increasing class size correlates with a reduction in the amount of time teachers can dedicate to instructing individual students, which in turn has a negative effect on the teaching and learning process. Nation (2001: 232) maintained that “incidental learning via guessing from context is the most important of all sources of vocabulary learning.” The previous studies indicate that EFL teachers often find it difficult to apply their teaching methods in large classes (Richards & Rogers, 2001). In other words, problems in teaching might occur because teachers might not be willing to interrupt students while they are reading, or it could be that due to classroom size, applying a methodology of teaching to large classes makes it difficult to give the meaning of new words immediately (Richards & Rogers, 2001). In this regard, greater efforts are currently being made to improve the flexibility of classroom layouts (Orafi, 2008).

The language skills of teachers also affect their beliefs and practices in teaching reading. Carless (1999) argued that it is important for teachers to acquire the skills and knowledge that they need to implement strategies to convey what they mean to teach. This is particularly true if what they are teaching differs slightly from their usual methods. Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000) claimed that there is now growing proof of the ways in which teacher education can influence lecturers’ beliefs and knowledge. According to Ebrahim el al. (2014), before they can effectively change their classroom practices, EFL teachers have first to change their beliefs about these practices. To help EFL learners apply their knowledge of reading, it is important that teachers should motivate them to learn how to read effectively. In this regard, House commented (1997) that language teaching is usually delivered in the classroom in accordance with long-held beliefs concerning the order in which the stages of language acquisition occur, namely, listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Furthermore, both accuracy and fluency are considered essential for learners and for teachers. This is because “if a learner has mastered a language successfully, that means that he or

she can understand and produce it both accurately (correctly) and fluently (receiving and conveying messages with ease)” (Ur, 1991: 103).

Teachers’ awareness of language is an important factor that may affect their beliefs and practices in teaching reading. Therefore, teachers must have a high level of awareness of their own language skills, and should reflect upon their beliefs and abilities. These reflections offer an additional cognitive dimension to the teacher’s beliefs and awareness of language, which, in turn informs the tasks of both planning and teaching (Andrews, 1999b). Andrews (ibid: 163) also felt it was important to make a distinction between “the educated user’s knowledge and awareness of a language and the language that the teacher of that language requires.” He carried out a study to explore how lecturers’ language awareness affects their classroom practice (Andrews 2001) which revealed that this awareness plays a basic role in the way teachers structure input for students. In addition, he identified a number of factors that affected how the input to which the learners are exposed could be influenced or filtered including time constraints and the teacher’s explicit knowledge and confidence.

Many studies, for example, by Grossman et al. (1989), Wright and Bolitho (1993), Leech (1994), and Thornbury (1997), have demonstrated how teachers’ subject-matter knowledge affects their practice. For example, according to Grossman et al. (1989: 28), both “knowledge, and the lack of it, of the content can influence the way teachers evaluate textbooks, the way they choose material to teach, the way they structure their courses, and the way they provide instruction.” This is particularly applicable when a teacher is not aware of and so cannot take into account the shortcomings in a textbook, or is ‘caught out’ by a student’s question about the language. They went on to say that, in such situations, it is important for teachers to be able to use their linguistic knowledge, not because they need to offer students the ‘correct answers’, but because they need to offer students the expertise required to help them to overcome the difficulties they are facing (ibid.: 292).

Regarding this factor, vocabulary acquisition (Hyland, 2006: 12) could also be facilitated by increasing students’ awareness of the way individual words can have different frequencies and meanings according to the discipline and genre in which they are used. As has already been discussed, low-level students tend to investigate every single sound, letter, word and sentence to achieve understanding (Harmer, 2001). This is also echoed by Sanaoui (1995), who identified two distinct approaches to learning vocabulary: the first approach involves students structuring

their vocabulary learning, which means they independently employ a range of learning activities, and then review and practise the target vocabulary, while in the second approach, the students eschew such strategies.

Finally, educational culture is an essential factor in any society because a teacher's practices are influenced by sociocultural factors (Sharnim, 1996; Tudor, 2001). Shamim (1996:119) commented that the culture of the wider community will influence how learners behave in the classroom. In addition, she commented that it is easier for any improvement to be rejected due to the similarity between the expectations about the protocol of teacher/learner activities in the classroom and the culture of the community in which the learning takes place. Moreover, Flores (2005:396) argued that sharing knowledge is important and worthwhile for teachers to become 'socialized' into the ethos of teaching; they start doing what their colleagues do and what their institutions recommend. This kind of knowledge aims to provide teachers and students with information, but there is little or no interest in scientific thinking methods (Libyan National Commission for Education, 2004:65). This is in accordance with the Libyan educational culture where students' role in the classroom involves sitting quietly and learning off by heart information the teacher gives them. Students have to be polite when debating or discussing issues with the teachers, while the chairs and desks are set out in rows, all facing to the front of the classroom. Students are meant to participate normally in classroom activities when teachers call upon them to do so. Given these assumptions, students might feel inhibited about participating in classroom activities where they are asked to be actively involved (Orafi, 2008).

In brief, contextual factors might be a reason why teachers do not apply what they say they believe to be right for their students. For example, teachers' classroom practice can be affected by decisions about curriculum materials and instructional time, resources, student abilities, class size, and other contextual factors, as has been discussed in several studies (Graden, 1996; Gebel & Schrier, 2002; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Feryok, 2008 and Borg, 2003, 2006). However, Kennedy (1996) and Carless (2003) demonstrated that, although there may be changes in teachers' beliefs, this does not necessarily mean that there will be any corresponding changes in their practice. Nevertheless, none of these studies has examined such relationships in terms of teaching reading.

3.12. Studies of Teachers' Beliefs and Practices

Teachers' beliefs about teaching are connected strongly to their teaching practices (Calderhead, 1996). Thus, when exploring "how teachers' actions led – or did not lead – to student learning" (Freeman, 2002: 2), researchers become concerned about what teachers do and why they teach the way they do. Some qualitative studies have examined individual teachers' teaching and cognition. Accordingly, Freeman and Richards (1996: 1) argued that:

In order to better understand language teaching, we need to know more about language teachers: what they do, how they think, what they know, and how they learn. Specifically, we need to understand more about how language teachers conceive of what they do: what they know about language teaching, and how they think about their classroom practice. (Freeman & Richards 1996: 1)

Borg (2006), however, has stated that conventional educational research has made important contributions to the field of teacher cognition. Studies in the literature have involved teachers' planning decisions, interactive thoughts, and beliefs. However, there are no such studies investigating the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices related to the teaching of English reading at university level. My study intends to address this lacuna in EFL research.

Some researchers (Deford, 1985; Richardson et al., 1991; Johnson, 1994; Davis & Wilson, 1999) have recognised that teachers hold theoretical beliefs about teaching and learning and that such beliefs affect their practices. However, Borg (2003, 2006) stated that studies into teacher cognition have shown that the relationship between beliefs and practice is difficult to determine. More specifically, previous studies have revealed that teachers' classroom practice is affected by decisions about curriculum materials and instructional time, resources, student abilities, and other contextual factors (Graden, 1996; Gebel & Schrier, 2002; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Feryok, 2008). Furthermore, Northcote (2009:71) claimed that the lack of congruence between what teachers believe and what they practise in the classroom is not necessarily a flaw, but rather should be viewed as an opportunity to interpret language learning and teaching in greater depth.

Moreover, Schreiber and Moss (2002:1) claimed that "our beliefs guide our desires and shape our practice." Thus, it is possible to argue that there is widespread agreement that teachers' personal beliefs are among the elements that shape their practice and influence their professional conduct at their place of work. Garcia and Rueda (1994) claimed that teachers have a range of

beliefs regarding their profession, and the way they fulfil their professional duties is based on such beliefs, thus having either a positive or a negative effect on their practice. Borg (as cited in Kajinga, 2006:17) noted that “the earlier the belief is incorporated into the belief structure, the more difficult it is to alter, for these beliefs in the long run influence perceptions and the processing of new information encountered.”

In a review of the nature of beliefs and attitudes in learning to teach, Richardson (1996: 113) concluded that the EFL teacher represented a weak source of interference “sandwiched between two powerful forces - previous life history, particularly that related to being a student; and classroom experience as a student teacher and a teacher.” In the same way, Peacock (2001) and Urmston (2003) also concluded that, despite some differences in the beliefs expressed by pre-teachers at the start and end of their course, there was no significant change during the period of their course. These results were attributed to the powerful influence of the trainees’ prior beliefs. This indicates that teacher education has a limited impact on teachers’ prior cognitions.

Feryok (2008) also investigated the relationship between language teachers’ classroom practices and their cognitions. A six-month investigation was conducted on a secondary school EFL teacher in Armenia using e-mail interviews and two classroom observation sessions. The results showed that the teacher’s cognitions about classroom teaching reflected her knowledge of communicative language teaching. From classroom observations, the researcher also found that the teacher performed according to many of her stated cognitions, although some cognitions were shown to not to be reflected in practice. It was concluded that the teacher “may not yet have fully developed practices that closely match some of her stated cognitions about CLT, relying instead on familiar routines” (Feryok, 2008: 236). My study can be considered different to this in many ways, as it includes only non-native speakers as participants.

Furthermore, other researchers, such as Freeman (1993), Sendan and Roberts (1998), and Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000), have argued that there is now growing proof of the ways in which teacher education can influence teachers’ beliefs and knowledge. For example, Sendan and Roberts (1998:241) demonstrated how teachers’ professional growth can occur during education, but that, according to them, the progress of development is such that new experiences lead teachers to restructure their ideas in order to organise their personal approaches. My study differs from the above researchers’ studies because I compare teachers’ classroom practices with their beliefs about the teaching of English reading in Libyan universities.

Other studies have also revealed that changes can take place in student teachers' beliefs during teacher education (Richards et al., 1996; Borg, 1998). However, a shared finding of these studies is that the probable move from theory to practice can occur in different ways among different teachers on the same course. Teachers understand and respond to innovation in ways which relate to their existing practices and beliefs. Therefore, as the findings of the studies on teacher cognition suggest, policymakers have to be more sensitive to teachers' cognitions. However, systematic reflection upon the possible congruence or incongruence between practices and beliefs can assist teachers in developing their comprehension both of what they wish to achieve in their classrooms and of changes they consider they should implement to improve their approaches both to teaching and to learning (Farrell, 2013:14).

Moreover, another study conducted by Breen et al. (2001) in Australia found a complex relationship between teachers' practices and their beliefs. They observed eighteen teachers and identified different pedagogical principles that were common to all teachers. In addition, evidence of differences between teachers' classroom practice and their beliefs as they related to form-focused instruction was reported by Basturkmen et al. (2004). They indicated that it is appropriate to see teachers' beliefs as "potentially conflictual rather than inherently inconsistent" (p. 268), and argued that the variations between practices and beliefs among teachers need to be addressed.

Hiep (2007) explored three teachers' beliefs and the employment of communicative language teaching (CLT) in Vietnam. His findings revealed that these teachers could not apply the techniques of CLT such as group work and pair work even though they articulated their beliefs about applying CLT. It could be said that the variation between the teachers' beliefs and their practice was because of contextual factors such as large class sizes, traditional examinations, lack of experience in creating communicative activities, and their beliefs about the respective roles of students and teachers. However, Hiep's (2007) exploration is completely different from my investigation in terms of its aims, the instruments employed, and the samples used.

Urihara and Samimy (2007) utilised interviews and questionnaires to investigate the effects of a four-month methodology term on the practices and beliefs of eight Japanese teachers of English. They discovered that the full semester study influenced teachers' beliefs. However, several constraints, such as student speculations and the need to prepare students for exams, prevented teachers from changing their practices. This means that it not always the case that "beliefs guide

teachers' behavior and inform teachers' practice by serving as a kind of interpretative framework through which they made sense of what they do in their classrooms" (Navarrete, 2014:172). Their research differs from mine in terms of its participants and its focus.

Chou (2008) conducted an investigation based on the hypothesis that teachers' practices are strongly affected by their beliefs. The researcher used only a questionnaire with Likert scale items to understand the significance of reading theories in reading comprehension and to evaluate how these theories and strategies could be implemented in teaching practice. The sample comprised 42 English instructors from two universities in Taiwan. It was found that the tutors emphasised the importance of both cognitive and metacognitive strategies. The findings also showed that reading theories and strategies in three areas, and specifically the importance of both reading theories and reading strategies in reading comprehension and teaching practices, were positively related to each other. The current study differs from Chou's study in many respects, such as the aims, context, sample, methodology, and findings. Moreover, no hypothesis is tested in the current study.

Kuzborska (2011) explored the correlation between the beliefs of eight native-speaking teachers and their practices with advanced learners of reading in the United Kingdom. Video recall was utilized to obtain data on teachers' beliefs, while evaluating those beliefs and behaviours in accordance with research standards. The researcher found congruence between practices and beliefs in the majority of teachers regarding the teaching of reading. My study differs from this research because the participants are non-native speakers, and both the context and the tools used in the methodology are different.

Bamanger and Gashan (2014) conducted a quantitative study of Saudi EFL teachers in different schools in Riyadh. The researchers' aim was to discover teachers' beliefs about teaching reading strategies and theories and to investigate how the strategies and theories influence teachers' practices. The participants were seven Saudi EFL teachers and questionnaires were used to collect data which was then analysed using the statistical software SPSS. They found that EFL teachers placed great emphasis on the importance of teaching reading strategies and theories. The researchers also found that this relates most significantly to what teachers really do in their classrooms. This exploration differs significantly from the current investigation in many aspects; my focus is wider than theirs in terms of the aims of the study, its context, number of participants, and the methodological approaches used. Regarding the methodology, in the current

study, qualitative methodology (observations and interviews) were used, whereas only a questionnaire was used in their study.

3.13. Limitations of Previous Studies and Exploring Gaps in Knowledge

Research contributing to the understanding of the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practice has been carried out in various areas of the teaching of reading. However, the current study differs from earlier investigations in the following respects:

- The literature review revealed that none of the previous studies investigates the relationships between lecturers' beliefs about teaching reading and their classroom practice, and it considers how the beliefs identified in the research influence the lecturers' practices in the teaching of reading university level.
- Other studies argue that, to influence any practice in the teaching of English, it is crucial to have knowledge about what teachers believe regarding language teaching and about the way these beliefs can be transferred into teachers' everyday instructional practices. Having an understanding of teachers' beliefs may facilitate both the development and the effectiveness of teacher education. However, it should be noted that none of these studies has conducted research on teachers' beliefs about reading and their classroom practice.
- Borg (2003, 2006) reviewed different studies of teachers' cognition and classroom practice, but studies investigating teachers' beliefs compared with what they actually do in the classroom regarding teaching reading skills in a Libyan context are rare. Only a few studies have shed light on English teacher cognition in Libya, focussing on teachers' perceptions of new approaches to English language learning and teaching.
- Although important contributions have been made to understanding the association between teachers' beliefs and practices in the area of L1 reading, there has been little investigation into teacher cognition in the teaching of reading in FL contexts. Therefore, as Borg (2006: 166) contended, "L2 reading instruction is thus clearly an area where a gap exists between our understanding of methodological and theoretical principles on the one hand, and what we know about teachers' actual practices and cognitions in teaching reading on the other."

- Research on L2 teachers' practices and beliefs has been limited in several ways (Borg, 2011). For example, much of the research has been conducted in developed countries with non-native speaking teachers; however, existing research is not fully representative of language teaching settings around the world (Lin, 1999). This indicates that there is a need to fill contextual gaps in the literature by conducting further studies.

Generally, it is clear that teachers use their theoretical beliefs about language teaching and learning, which may inform their practical performance. However, studies on teacher cognition have also shown that the correlation between practice and belief is complex. According to previous studies, teachers' instruction is often guided by decisions about curriculum materials, instructional time, resources, student levels, and other factors. In addition, there is very little research regarding teachers' beliefs and practices in FL university settings (Borg, 2009). Similarly, there has been little focus on teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to the teaching and learning of reading in Libya. Thus, as the extant literature clearly demonstrates, these issues should be explored so that teachers' beliefs about and practices in the teaching and learning of English reading can be improved.

In addition, no investigation has concentrated on beliefs about teaching and learning reading in a Libyan university level context. It has been also recommended that there is a need for research about the teaching of reading, as such studies can "add to our understanding of EAP teachers' beliefs and practices in the area of academic reading instruction and can act as a catalyst to enable other teachers to reflect on and examine their own beliefs about their teaching of reading in academic contexts" (Kuzborska, 2011: 122).

I hope that the insights obtained from my research may help to develop a more comprehensive picture and understanding of the relationship between EFL teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices.

3.14. Research Questions

Based on the above literature review, the following questions were derived. These questions focus, in particular, on university EFL lecturers' beliefs and classroom practices regarding the teaching and learning of reading.

1. What are the main characteristics of university lecturers' practices during classroom instructions in teaching English reading skills in Libya?

2. What beliefs are held by university English language lecturers in Libya concerning the learning of English language reading skills? Why do these beliefs develop and how do they affect the lecturers' practices in the classroom?

- What factors and constraints are responsible for shaping lecturers' beliefs regarding teaching English language reading skills?

3. How are the beliefs and classroom practices of lecturers of English in Libyan universities concerning the development of English language reading skills related?

3.15. Conclusion

In this chapter, definitions of reading were identified and the processes of reading were discussed. This chapter also presented different approaches to and types of reading and discussed the significance of selecting suitable texts for efficient reading. In addition, classroom practice and the sub-skills of reading were reviewed. Reviewing all of these aspects of reading was intended to allow the identification of the implications of research on reading and FL teaching. Furthermore, reading instruction should be sensitive to the context and to the students' needs and goals, as FL students are all learning to read in different settings and at different institutions (Grabe, 2009). Therefore, these points are considered part of the theoretical framework of the current study in order to identify gaps in existing research.

Researchers have stated that teachers' practices are influenced by their cognitions in different ways. This means that what teachers do inside the classroom is governed by their beliefs, as illustrated in various studies, such as those of Yim (1993), Woods (1996), Ng and Farrell (2003), and Lin (2010). Therefore, the whole impetus of this investigation has been to investigate Libyan university English lecturers' practices and beliefs about the teaching and learning of English reading.

Previous research has shown the importance of conducting the current study. The rationale of this section was to re-examine the mental constructs of teachers, such as their beliefs about the

teaching of reading. Different types of lecturers' beliefs were discussed. Furthermore, teachers' theoretical and practical beliefs were considered as well. Factors that influence lecturers' beliefs and practices were also discussed. The importance of this field of study inspired me to find a gap in the literature related to the beliefs and practices of Libyan university lecturers about the teaching of reading in the context of Libyan universities. Three major research questions and one sub-question were created, as mentioned above, and it is hoped that the results of this investigation will be of value, particularly to lecturers who intend to teach English as a second language. The next chapter discusses the research methodology in detail.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology that guided the research process. A research method comprises the investigative approaches and processes used to gather data in support of “inferences and interpretation, for explanation and prediction” (Cohen et al., 2000: 44). The chapter begins by explaining the epistemological framework and research design used, with particular reference to the investigation of lecturers’ beliefs and classroom practices in terms of teaching the reading of English. Then the research philosophy and justifications for the research methods used in the present study are highlighted. This is followed by a description of qualitative research and why it was used in this study. Then, the data collection process is described. One type of data was collected, namely qualitative data, and the construction and administration of the tools to collect this type of data are explained. The ethical considerations guiding the research are then highlighted.

A qualitative approach should yield adequate data to provide appropriate answers to the following research questions which have been mentioned in the previous chapters:

1. What are the main characteristics of university lecturers’ practices during classroom instruction in teaching English reading skills in Libya?
2. What beliefs are held by university English language lecturers in Libya concerning the learning of English language reading skills? Why do these beliefs develop and how do they affect the lecturers’ practice in the classroom?
 - What factors and constraints are responsible for shaping lecturers’ beliefs regarding teaching English language reading skills?
3. How are the beliefs and classroom practices of lecturers of English in Libyan universities concerning the development of English language reading skills related?

4.2. Epistemological Framework and Research Design

Research in the field of teaching the English language can be conducted using one of the following research frameworks: positivist, interpretivist or critical. The relevant social circumstances and the purpose of the present investigation were discussed in the literature review, based on various sets of expectations about the research. Bell recommended that “decisions have to be made about which methods are best for particular purposes and then data collecting instruments must be designed to do the job” (2005: 115).

Epistemology involves the expectations, claims, or hypotheses formed in particular contexts about the ways in which it is possible to acquire knowledge, how it is understood and how what exists may be acknowledged (Gratton and Jones, 2004: 14). An epistemological position presents a “view of and a justification of what can be considered as knowledge, what can be known and what criteria such knowledge must satisfy in order to be called knowledge rather than beliefs” (Cohen, 2007: 7; Crabtree, 1999: 8). It can be assumed that there are various levels of reality and that truth is in a state of continuous change, reliant on context and the individual. I am a Libyan lecturer in the English language, and I have been influenced by previous research and my own experiences, all of which must have had an effect on my beliefs. The epistemological framework and the research design of this study are summarised in the following diagram.

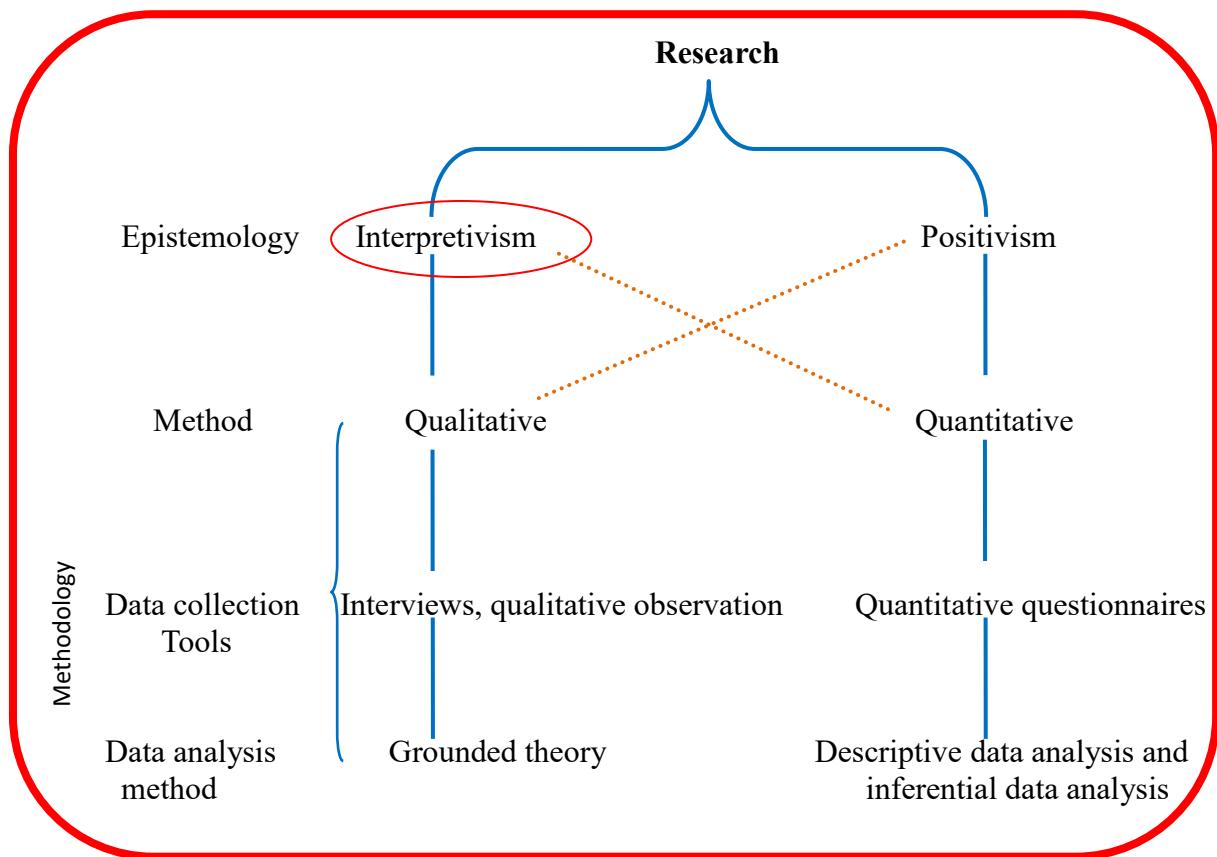


Figure 4.1: Epistemological framework and research design

Figure 4.1 illustrates the epistemological framework of interpretivism implemented in this investigation. There are two levels of approaching research: epistemology, and methodology. At the level of epistemology, researchers can be either interpreters or positivists, and I adopt a stance of interpretivism in the present study. At the level of methodology, the epistemological position taken makes no difference to the research, and so the researcher can use both quantitative and qualitative methods, although I have used only qualitative methods in my investigation. Interpretivism is favoured here because of the philosophical attitude which informs the methodology employed and supplies a context for the research procedure and its grounding theory. A qualitative methodology was selected because the field of enquiry involves lecturers' beliefs concerning the characteristics of the subject under exploration. Two data collection tools were utilized: unstructured observation and semi-structured interviews. Grounded theory was employed to analyse the qualitative data gathered.

4.3. Interpretivism

Interpretivism “respects the differences between people and the objects of the natural sciences and therefore requires the social scientist to grasp the subjective meaning of social action” (Bryman, 2008: 13). Positivism is interested in facts and truths using surveys or experimental methods, but the value of this has been disputed by interpretivists, who stress that these methods impose a view of the world on subjects rather than understanding, describing, and capturing the subjects’ own worldviews. (Cohen, 2007: 18) Subsequently, “the study of the social world ... requires a different logic of research procedure” from those used in the natural sciences (Bryman, 2008: 15). Interpretivism often does not begin with a theory; instead, it is inductive (Cohen, 2007).

Furthermore, adopting the interpretive concept in this exploration because of the evidence assumes that procedures and meaning are essential to understand human behaviour (Bryman, 2001). In addition, the understandings, interpretations, and experiences of humans were considered, and the study is inductive and does not start with a specific theory (Anderson and Burns, 1989).

Implementing an interpretivist framework required the following issues to be addressed:

- Participants’ beliefs and practices are organized according to the social processes involved in teaching the reading of English.
- The relationships between lecturers’ beliefs and practices in the context of Libyan university lecturers’ teaching of reading need to be understood.

4.4. Qualitative Methods

Qualitative methods were used for the purpose of this research. According to Creswell et al. (2003)

A qualitative study involves the collection or analysis of qualitative data in a single study in which the data are collected concurrently or sequentially, are given a priority, and involve the integration of the data at one or more stages in the process of research. (2003: 212)

The selection of a qualitative method was influenced by numerous considerations. Firstly, the usage of a single research tool was avoided in the present study. All tools may be beneficial, if used appropriately, and research can draw on elements of qualitative approaches if administered

properly. Secondly, a qualitative methodology is an appropriate way to answer the research questions, considering the complexity of the subject studied. The qualitative approach provides information about two dimensions: classroom observations are planned to discover what lecturers actually do in their classes, while interviews are intended to delve deeper into their minds and to explore their beliefs about the teaching of English reading. Moreover, it is often noted that no single research tool is better than any other, and many authors, such as Cohen et al. (2007), claim that combining research tools can develop and enhance the value of an investigation. Finally, qualitative methods are considered suitable when further views on phenomena are sought (Cohen et al., 2007), as here they allow a richer and more complete picture to be gained concerning the variety of beliefs about the teaching of English reading.

Thus, qualitative methods were selected to collect the data. Cohen et al. (2007) argued that, in this type of study, the researcher employs “more than one tool to investigate some aspects of human behaviour.” The results of the analysis of data gathered using two qualitative methods were integrated in the interpretation of the results.

4.4.1. Limitations of Qualitative Methods

Despite the advantages of the qualitative approach, Creswell warned that “conducting qualitative methods research is not easy” (2007: 10), as it “complicates the procedures of research and requires clear presentation if the reader is going to be able to sort out the different procedures” (Creswell, 2007: 10). Creswell also argued that researchers “are often trained in only one form of inquiry, and qualitative research requires that they know both forms of data” (2007: 10).

The mitigation of the limitations of the qualitative methods is illustrated below with respect to each method used in this study.

4.4.2. Integrating Qualitative Methods

The use of qualitative data collection techniques can be a very fruitful approach in this field of study. In this research, qualitative methods were used in three separate stages. The first stage was collecting and analysing qualitative data from the observations. The second stage was collecting and analysing qualitative data from interviews. The results from the analysis of both datasets were brought together in the third interpretation stage, as the results “need to be mixed in some

way so that together they form a more complete picture of the problem than they do when standing alone” (Creswell, 2007: 7).

Qualitative data analysis is concerned with interpreting meanings in textual data and the spoken word. A qualitative approach aims to capture a variety of views on social phenomena. It is clear that, in this study, an understanding in some depth is desired concerning the ‘why’ and ‘how’ of the problem, because lecturers’ classroom practices regarding the teaching and learning of reading in Libyan universities are associated with certain beliefs.

Triangulation is often considered to be associated with mixed methods approaches to a research problem in contrast to a single method approach (Cohen, 2017: 265). Denzin (1970) extended the scope of triangulation to include many kinds which include “methodological triangulation” which is used in this research which is instrument triangulation with a combining both classroom observation and interviews. Combining qualitative methods achieves methodological triangulation (Cohen, 2007: 142); for example, with the use of various data collection tools in a single study to enhance confidence in the findings.

4.5. The Process of a Qualitative Approach

At the beginning of a piece of research, the difference between various qualitative approaches is not relevant (De Vos, 2002: 85). The process starts with the choice of a topic for the research, and determining the approach to the research. The research process followed in this study involved the following steps:

- Choosing the research approach, called methodological triangulation.
- Determining which research methods would be used to collect and analyse data.

Unstructured classroom observations (analysed using grounded theory) were used for the purposes of the study, and semi-structured interviews (tape recordings, transcriptions, and analysis using grounded theory).

- Selection of the sample.

I went to the three universities to be sampled and asked for permission and help from the head of the English department in each university to observe lecturers’ classes and to conduct interviews with them about my topic, and I explained the significance and purpose of my study. They told me to leave my contact details and then they would contact me to let me know how many

lecturers were interested in participating in this investigation. The heads of the English departments then contacted me and said that the participants were ready to participate. I visited the universities and collected the names of respondents who had indicated that they would be prepared to have their classes observed and to be interviewed. For University One, 27 lecturers said that they were willing to be observed and interviewed. I mixed and shuffled the 27 names and then I started observing them at random until I stopped at the third one when no more data were obtained from the fourth, fifth and sixth participants in this university. The same procedure was followed with the 19 lecturers from University Two and 23 lecturers from University Three who said that they would be prepared to be observed and interviewed.

- Collecting data and then analysing it, followed by writing up the study.

The selection of research instruments is justified in the following section along with an illustration of how they functioned in the research. For the collection and analysis of data, the following instruments were used:

1. In the three universities, twenty three unstructured classroom observation sessions were conducted of both male and female lecturers. Each class was observed three times, giving a total of 69 classes with each class lasting almost 2 hours. All of the lecturers were Libyan non-native English lecturers. Observations of nine of the lecturers were enough because the data collected achieved theoretical saturation. Each of the nine classes was observed three times giving a total of twenty-seven classes. (See section 4.8 for more information about theoretical saturation.)
2. In the three universities, twenty semi-structured interviews were conducted with male and female subjects. The analysis of nine of them was deemed sufficient because theoretical saturation was achieved.

4.5.1. Classroom Observation

Classroom observation is one of the most useful strategies for the study of language teachers' beliefs and practices because it affords verification of what occurs in the classroom (Borg, 2006). Borg (2006, 231) also mentioned that observing teachers' practices introduces "a concrete descriptive basis in relation to what teachers know, think and believe." In addition, observation gives straightforward information rather than self-reported accounts (Dornyei, 2007: 178). In

qualitative research, observation is often accompanied by interviews, as this is the best method to obtain the views of the participants regarding how they act from their own perspective (Duff, 2008: 141). Furthermore, Gebhard (1999: 35) clarified that classroom observation allows classroom events to be described and subsequently analysed and interpreted in a non-judgemental way. Thus, the reason for adopting this instrument was to discover Libyan university lecturers' beliefs and practices related to the teaching of reading.

Cohen et al. (2007) mentioned that observing classes can provide sufficient explanations about the topic under exploration. Thus, observation was chosen as one of the most appropriate methods for this investigation. Other purposes of observing lecturers' classroom practices in the teaching English reading are presented below:

- Observation provides the researcher with valuable information without being personally engaged. It can also provide valuable data about the topic explored (Cohen et al., 2007).
- Observing lecturers in the classroom allows the researcher to compare what lecturers do, say, and know about the teaching and learning of reading.

In this study, observation was considered to be one of the main tools for collecting data. In order to gain reliable data, observations took place before the interviews. The reasons for this were that, firstly, had the lecturers been interviewed first this could have affected what they consequently did when observed; and secondly, if the lecturers were asked first about their behaviour and asked to explain why they used certain teaching techniques in the classroom and also explaining approaches to them in the interviews, this might have triggered compliant behaviour, where lecturers thought that, this was what I wanted to see while observing their classes.

4.5.1.1. Limitations of Observation

As with any research instrument, observation has limitations. Walliman (2001: 242) insisted that observation is an inefficient form of data collection, as either time is wasted waiting for events of note to occur or, when events do occur, there is too much simultaneous action and so it is difficult for the researcher to observe and record it all. For example, it can be very difficult for an observer to monitor many different events that may occur in a classroom. Therefore, observation

might not be reliable, because if several events happen simultaneously in the classroom, it may be difficult to write about them all in sufficient detail.

4.5.1.2. Issues with Unstructured Observation and How to Mitigate Them

Unstructured classroom observation can give the investigator valuable insights into the subject under exploration (Cohen et al., 2007). Different issues emerged in this investigation, one of which was identified by Allwright and Bailey (1991: 70) as “the observer’s paradox.” The first case seen in this investigation was that not all of the lecturers felt relaxed in my presence although they knew that I was not assessing them. This was observed in some new and inexperienced lecturers. My presence in this situation could affect both lecturers and students and lead them to change their behaviour and their ways of teaching and learning, which would also affect the data collected (Bryman, 2008). For example, video recording would not be helpful in observing lecturers’ normal performance, as participants would be aware of every single movement inside the classroom and of the image they were presenting. Therefore, I avoided using it during the observations. The solution in this situation was to utilise audio recording instead of video and to visit the classes repeatedly just to show the lecturers that I was not assessing them, but simply observing normal patterns of teaching, and so to reduce any concerns they might have (Cohen et al., 2007).

The second issue encountered is that lecturers do not always fulfil the needs of the fieldwork (Orafi, 2008). This was also seen in this investigation. For instance, in some situations, lecturers were absent, saying later that it was due to private circumstances. I have taken this point into consideration to avoid the problem of wasting time (Bryman, 2008). The third problem was that observing and writing notes simultaneously made it difficult to notice every single event inside the class even when the audio recorder was also working. Subsequently remembering every single action in the class was difficult, particularly those related to the interaction between lecturers and their students. The solution to this issue was to write a transcription of the recording and note comments on the same day because it was easier to remember what had happened in the class on that day (Cohen et al., 2007).

4.5.1.3. Validity and Reliability of the Unstructured Classroom Observation

The rationale of the classroom observation in this investigation was to discover what Libyan EFL universities lecturers did whilst teaching reading. The validity of observation could be measured using several processes, as mentioned earlier (Cohen et al., 2007: 133). In this investigation, instrument triangulation is considered as an important technique and as the main source of validity and reliability (Somekh & Lewin, 2005). With the aim of ensuring the validity of the observation data, all necessary measures were considered. I introduced myself during the first visit and briefly explained the aim and significance of the research to encourage the lecturers and to ensure they would behave naturally during the observation.

Additionally, as an essential part of the research, the participants' agreement and permission were secured in advance for the audio tape-recording of their classes. Thus, I did not rely just on my memory and notes for accurate accounts. To guarantee confidentiality and to ensure the anonymity of the participants, real names are not used in any part of this thesis. Furthermore, to reduce their anxiety, all participants were informed of my status as a PhD student and that the data I was collecting would be used only in my research and would not be accessed by anybody else.

4.5.2. Semi-structured Interviews

Berg (1989) and Lincoln and Guba (1985) indicated that semi-structured interviews involve “a conversation with a purpose.” Researchers such as Briggs (1986) and Coughlan and Duff (1994, cited in Duff, 2008: 133) illustrated how a research interview is the product of both the interviewer and the interviewee. According to Borg (2006), the value of semi-structured interviews is their flexibility, because interviewees have the freedom to talk and to express their thoughts in an open-ended way. Cohen et al. (2007) mentioned that the interview is a dialogue between the interviewer and the interviewee, which is used to gather significant information. In addition, Van Patten et al. (1993) stated that semi-structured interviews represent “a long and successful tradition in teacher thinking research” (2004: 294) because this technique asks teachers to discuss their ideas in encouraging and non-assessment surroundings.

A one-to-one interview method was used in this investigation for two reasons. The first was to provide a wealth of information about lecturers' beliefs about teaching English reading. The open-ended interview questions adopted aimed “to allow the respondents opportunities to develop their responses in ways which the interviewer might not have foreseen” (Campbell,

McNamara & Gilroy, 2004: 99). The interview questions were concerned with the lecturers' beliefs and classroom practices related to the teaching and learning of the reading of English as a second language, the teaching methods they used, and the influences on their pedagogical approaches. From this, it was predicted that the teachers' own theories about practice could be discerned. The data from the interviews would then be compared with the data gained from the observations of the teachers in their classrooms in order to detect convergence and divergence between their stated beliefs and their real practices concerning teaching the reading of English.

The second reason for using one-to-one interviews was to enable me to enhance and increase the teachers' confidence so that "intersubjective depth" (Miller & Glassner, 1997: 106), which is essential for the value of the investigation, would be attained, and so that they would feel more secure when asked questions afterwards. Nine participants were involved in the one-to-one interviews in order to obtain the required data. Three teachers from each of three universities were chosen randomly for interviews, and each interview took about 40 minutes.

One-to-one interviews were used for the following reasons:

- The interviewee can expand upon unpredicted subjects which arise during the interview (Cohen et al., 2000).
- Follow-up questions could improve the interviewees' responses.
- Qualitative interviews can reveal the interviewees' ideas, opinions, and points of view.

4.5.2.1. Limitations of Semi-structured Interviews

One of the difficulties with semi-structured interviews is the flexibility of the interviewer's questions, which may lead to an endless process. Moreover, the data gained from an interview may not be objective (Sax, 1979). Additionally, Denscombe (2007) mentioned that the presence of the interviewer might have a negative impact on the interviewees' responses. The individual responses in particular contexts may affect the reliability of interview data.

4.5.2.2. Issues with Semi-structured Interviews and How to Mitigate Them

The semi-structured interviews provided many insights into lecturers' practices regarding the teaching of English reading. Therefore, different issues appeared related to the interviews, which needed to be acknowledged. One of the most important issues that appeared in this investigation

is that the location in which the interviews occurred needed to provide a suitable environment for the interviewees to express their thoughts in more detail (Flick, 2002). The other issue I faced in this exploration was that conducting interviews in the lecturers' room was not convenient because some of the lecturers did not feel free to talk in front of their colleagues. Therefore, I asked the head of the department if I could conduct the interviews in private rooms. Another issue that emerged was that sitting with female lecturers in a private room was not allowed (Ali, 2008). The heads of English language highlighted this issue, but resolved the problem by telling female lecturers to choose any friends or colleagues to accompany them.

The final issue was the language used. All the interviewees were asked to use their preferred language, whether L1 or L2, to express their opinions more fluently (Rossman & Rallis, 2003) although I found that all lecturers preferred to use the L2. When I asked the participants why they did not want to use the L1 during the interviews they said that they were able to talk and express their thoughts in English easily. Therefore, I conducted the pilot and the main study using the L2 with interviewees in accordance with their choice, which showed that they could speak English without any difficulties. I also tried to make the topic interesting by maintaining eye contact (Cohen et al., 2007) and explaining some terms and expressions to the lecturers, as some of them could not remember some of those that were connected to the teaching and learning of English reading. For instance, some lecturers could not comprehend some terms and expressions, such as 'interactive', 'bottom-up' and 'top-down'. The solution to this issue was to reword the questions and illustrate each term in more detail to make the interviews as relaxed and enjoyable as possible. During this illustration, lecturers easily remembered and comprehended these expressions after I had explained them.

4.5.2.3. Semi-structured Interview Questions

Adopting and formulating the research questions with the help of the relevant literature was carried out using Mohamed's (2006) investigation, and the questions were then modified in order to be appropriate for this research. Mohamed's (2006) interview questions aimed to explore teachers' teaching backgrounds and how their knowledge affected the ways they taught. I utilised similar questions, but with different expressions and terms to explore the relationship between lecturers' beliefs and their practices regarding the teaching of English reading. In addition to this, I designed some of the interview questions after consulting the literature and internet sources, talking to colleagues, and using my own experience. These sources were useful for formulating

the rest of the questions. All of the additional questions were related to lecturers' beliefs about the teaching of English reading. The additional questions were as follows: 'What do you believe about adopting social techniques in your reading class?' 'At the end of a reading class, what do you believe is the best way to evaluate your teaching techniques?' and 'Do you believe teaching vocabulary is an important part in teaching reading texts?' The interview questions were intended to discover the lecturers' beliefs about the teaching of English reading (see Appendix A).

Several procedures were followed in order to make the interview questions more suitable and appropriate to this investigation. For example, determining the weaknesses and strengths of the questions was carried out after suggestions and notes had been received from my two research supervisors and from colleagues, and after the pilot study. The interviews were recorded and were conducted in the lecturers' L2 in accordance with their preferences. See section 4.7.1.2 for information on piloting the interviews and the results.

4.5.2.4. Validity and Reliability of Semi-structured Interviews

The purpose of using semi-structured interviews in this investigation was to discover information about EFL lecturers' beliefs about and practices in teaching English reading. Flexibility was one of the main reasons for applying this method. However, this should not be related to validity. Different methods should be utilized to confirm the validity of the data collected (Denscombe 2007).

The validity of qualitative data is crucial, and it can be evaluated by assessing aspects such as the truth, range, depth, and detail of the data obtained; the research participants involved; and the extent to which there is triangulation of the data (Cohen et al., 2007: 133). The other way to ensure validity is to check participants' knowledge when answering the interview questions (Denscombe, 2007).

I took all the measures required to confirm the validity of the interview data. The questions were structured in such a way as to be comprehensible to the interviewees. Colleagues who had experience of this field of study were given the questions to check that they were fully understandable. The feedback gained was helpful, as I adjusted some of the questions after piloting them (see section 4.7 for further explanations about the pilot study). Lecturers were allowed to use their favoured language (L2) to ensure their understanding.

All of the respondents, and in particular the female lecturers, were given guarantees that the recordings of their answers would not be heard or used by anybody else and that false names would be used instead of their real names. Leading questions were also omitted during the interviews to avoid confusing the interviewees. I applied all of these techniques to produce a suitable atmosphere for a fruitful discussion between me and the participants during the interviews. Furthermore, I adopted a triangulation technique to provide another source of reliability.

4.6. Ethical Issues Related to the Study

Ethical issues refer to rules for conducting research according to a code or set of principles. Any potential for ethical issues to arise in a piece of research at any stage is supposed to be checked by the researcher. Bryman (2001) explained that ethical issues involve people with whom the investigator is conducting the research. Thus, the investigators are supposed to take into consideration each possible element of ethical concern before conducting their study.

Accordingly, several points were considered to avoid ethical problems in this study:

- My research supervisor provided me with a confirmation letter showing the purpose of my study and the places where I would collect the data. This letter was sent to the Cultural Attaché at my embassy, who then issued another letter addressed to the Libyan education authorities to allow me to conduct research in the target universities.
- All lecturers had freedom to participate or not, and they were also told that they could withdraw from the investigation at any time.
- Participants were informed that, in this investigation, no real names would be used; even if the participants wrote their real names during the classroom observations or on the interviews, the names would not be mentioned in this research. The reason for telling them this was to reduce their anxiety and to show them that confidentiality was guaranteed.
- During the observation sessions, I remained at the back of the class to see every single action that happened. In addition, as a non-participant observer, I remained quiet.
- The purpose of and the rationale for the investigation were explained in depth to the participants. The lecturers were given the option of conducting the interviews in English

or in Arabic to avoid the feeling that I was assessing their English. However, they preferred to use the L2.

- Consideration of religious, cultural, and social restrictions must be one of a researcher's priorities. For example, I asked the female lecturers to be accompanied by a friend when attending the interview sessions. This was because it is not allowed in Islam for a male to stay alone with a female. I also avoided using video recordings of the participants.

Finally, I thanked all of the lecturers and all of the heads of the English departments at the three major Libyan universities. The data gathered were kept securely and could be accessed only by myself. All of these procedures were considered to be essential; as Cohen et al. (2000: 49) stated there is a need to balance the role of the researcher, as a scientist seeking truth, and the rights of subjects whose values or interests may be compromised by their participation in research.

A copy of the ethics application form that was agreed by the Ethics Group at London Metropolitan University and a copy of the consent form are available in Appendix H.

4.7. Pilot Study

One of the most important devices for researchers to use in assessing their research tools is a pilot study. Burns (2000) asserted that the reason for piloting is not only to obtain the required data, but also to learn how to gain appropriate and precise data. Piloting can identify ambiguities and weaknesses in the research. A pilot study in this investigation was conducted to assess and test the research tools and check if there were any ambiguous terms in the questions in the semi-structured interviews. It was also possible to consider some of the points raised when piloting classroom observation to test whether these tools were valid and reliable to find appropriate answers to the research questions (see section 4.1 for the research questions).

All data collection instruments were piloted in order to check how long data collection would take and to make sure that all the questions were understandable to participants, and to allow any questions to be removed which did not provide utilisable data (Bell, 1993: 84). Consequently, collecting any real data in these explorations was avoided before the data collection tools had been piloted. In this investigation, the pilot study was valuable because it revealed various inadequacies in the data collection instruments used.

Table 4.1: Demographic data from the pilot study

Participant no	Gender	Age	Qualifications	Level or year currently teaching	University	Time and date of the interview	Time and date of the observation
One	Male	55	PhD Education	First and second year	University one	02/02/2015 At 12:30	16/03/2015 At 9:00
Two	Female	31	MA TESOL	Third year	University two	03/02/2015 At 10:30	19/03/2015 At 12.00
Three	Male	43	PhD Education	Fourth year	University three	03/02/2015 At 3:30	23/03/2015 At 3.00

4.7.1. Impressions of the Pilot Study

The pilot study generated many ideas that could be used to modify the research and to add new questions so that the research instruments would be able to find proper answers to the research questions in this investigation.

4.7.1.1. Reflections on Piloting the Interview

A few problems related to the interviews were encountered, as follows:

- The language proficiency of the interviewees, particularly those with MAs, meant that there were some questions that they did not understand or there were unfinished thoughts that needed to be investigated, especially in relation to beliefs.
- Some interviewees tried to express their ideas on what they thought I was focusing on. This happened particularly with younger participants.

4.7.1.2. Reflections on Piloting the Observation

Some points were raised during piloting the observation that had not previously been considered:

- One of the beneficial procedures was visiting the classes before starting to collect data. This helped me to overcome any awkwardness between the researcher, lecturer, and students so as to reduce any negative impact of my presence.

- The other helpful point was practice in taking notes and audio-recordings with the least possible environmental distortion.
- The final point was identifying the materials used by lecturers in the classroom to teach reading.

4.7.1.3. Reflections on the Analysis of the Pilot Study

The interview and classroom observation data in the pilot study were first transcribed and then coded and analysed using the processes of grounded theory to reveal mismatches between what the participants said, believed, and did.

During the analysis of the pilot study data, a number of issues were identified for consideration in the main study:

- Transcribing the data obtained immediately was efficient in combining both participants' beliefs and practices.
- The purpose behind applying grounded theory to analyse the qualitative data was to check whether the research instruments worked and provided appropriate answers for the research questions, even though the data were obtained from a small group of people who had specific views about lecturers' beliefs and practices in teaching reading.
- I have conducted observations first in the main study since I have noticed that the interviews affected the subjects' practices in the pilot study, for example triggering compliant behaviour if lecturers thought that this is what I wanted to see in the observations sessions. Therefore, I changed the order of data collection and conducted classroom observation first and then interviews.

4.8. The Population and Sampling Procedures

A population consists of all of the people or objects of interest in a research exploration, from which a sample is drawn (Dörnyei 2003; Cohen, 2007). The population of this study was "stratified on more than one variable" (Dörnyei, 2003: 73), and then samples were "selected at random from the groups defined by the intersections of the various strata" (Dörnyei, 2003: 73). In this case, the strata were all based on the teaching of reading by EFL Libyan lecturers with different qualifications and of both genders in three Libyan universities. Due to data protection

issues, a letter of permission was given by the Libyan embassy and my university to allow me to gain access to and collect data from universities in Libya without any restrictions.

As explained in section 1.6 three of the twelve major Libyan universities were chosen because of their suitability in terms of distance and time, so that they could be accessed easily. University One is in the west of the country, University Two is in the south-west, and University Three is in Tripoli, the capital of Libya. In each of these universities, there are Colleges of Arts and Sciences which include an English department. The process used for selecting the sample in this study is described in Figure 4.2 below.

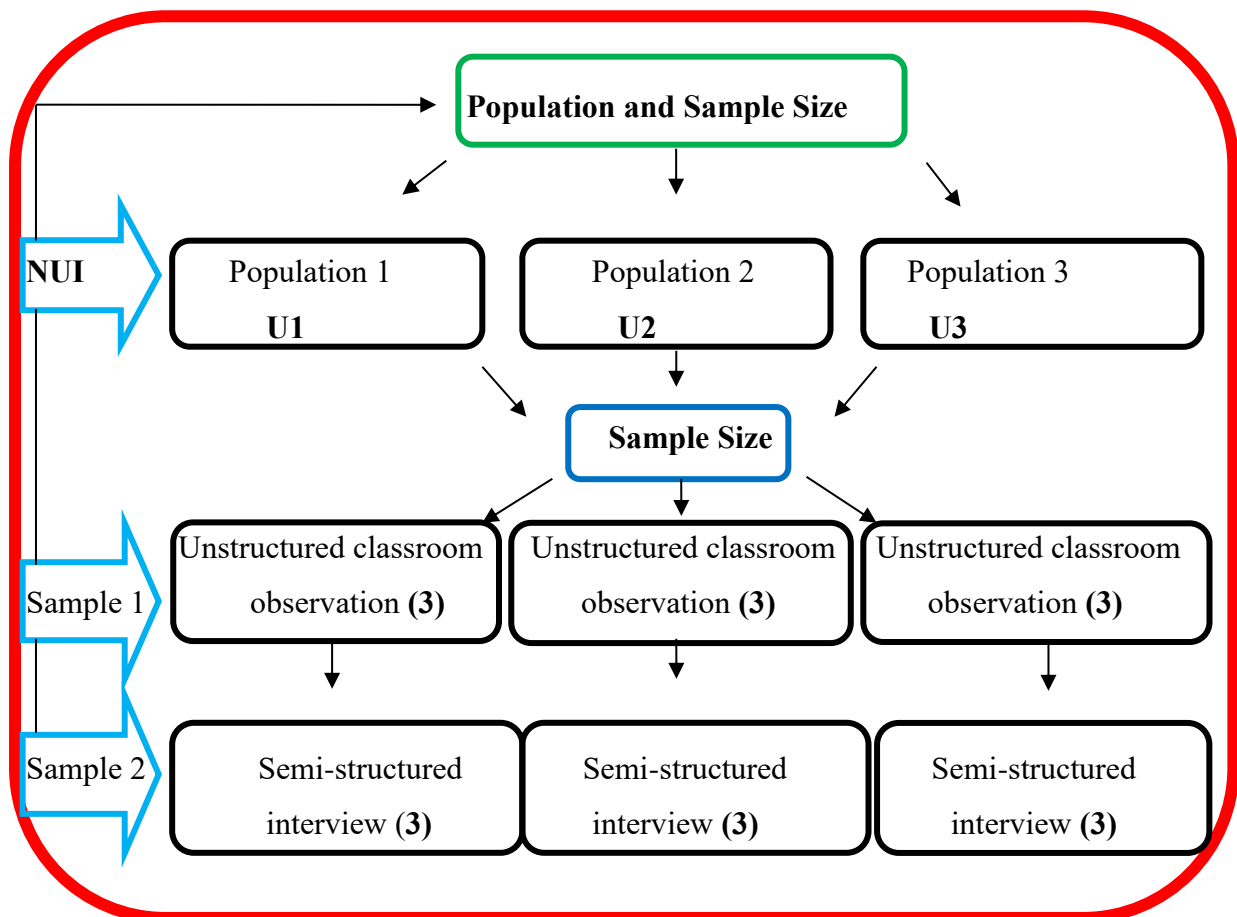


Figure 4.2: Population, sub-populations and samples used in the study

A purposive sampling strategy was employed, where it was considered “appropriate to select a sample on the basis of knowledge of a population, its elements, and the purpose of the research” (Babbie, 2004: 23). However, in order to avoid problems associated with their absence or other circumstances arising among subjects, I carried on observing and interviewing up to twenty-three lecturers. Nonetheless, I noticed that lecturers ten, eleven, twelve and thirteen in each university

were repeating the same things as lecturers seven to nine, and therefore I stopped collecting data at this point because data from nine lecturers from the three universities was considered enough to give sufficient and interesting information. No more interviews and observations were needed because the point of saturation had been reached with lecturer number nine (Douglas, 2003).

Consequently, only three lecturers from each university were observed and interviewed (see Figure 4.2). According to Strauss and Corbin (1998), researchers are not able to make judgments of sample size unless they are involved in the data collection and analysis. The process of determining theoretical saturation is illustrated in Figure 4.3.

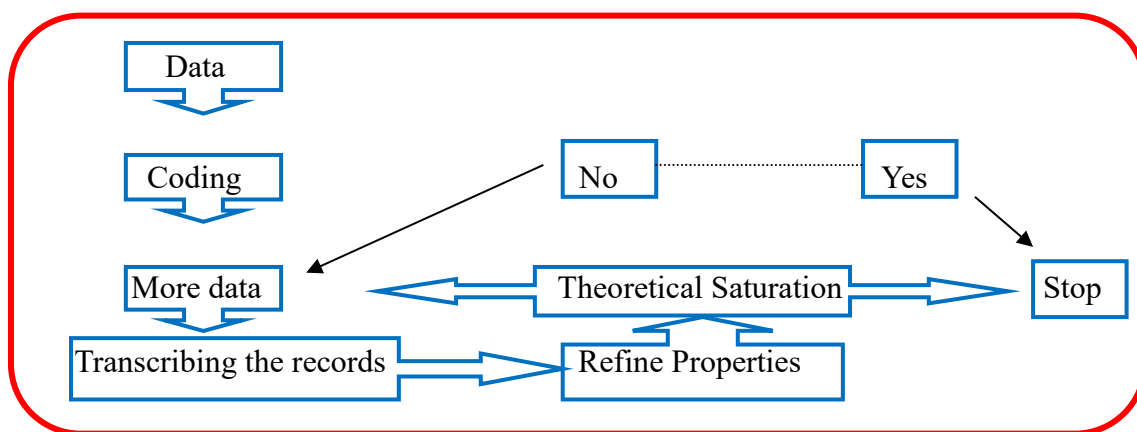


Figure 4.3: Theoretical saturation

4.9. Power Relations

Most of the lecturers who participated in this investigation were familiar with other lecturers pursuing their higher education abroad. As a PhD student, and having taught English reading in all of these universities, I had excellent relationships with the lecturers who were still working there because some of them had previously been my colleagues. Therefore, power imbalances between myself and the lecturers were negligible.

Table: 4.2. Lecturers' descriptions

Name	Age	Gender	Qualifications	Experience	Nationality	First language	Year of teaching English
U1							
Omer	43	Male	PhD	8	Libyan	Arabic	12
Abd Allah	40	Male	MA	10	Libyan	Arabic	7
Huda	33	Female	MA	5	Libyan	Arabic	3
U2							
Malak	39	Female	PhD	9	Libyan	Arabic	8
Ali	40	Male	PhD	12	Libyan	Arabic	10
Hassan	49	Male	MA	17	Libyan	Arabic	16
U3							
Othman	38	Male	PhD	8	Libyan	Arabic	8
Hajer	29	Female	MA	1	Libyan	Arabic	1
Moneer	29	Male	MA	1	Libyan	Arabic	1

4.10. Data Collection Procedures

The pilot study yielded useful knowledge and encouraged me to follow almost the same procedure in the main study. The first step when I arrived in Libya on 4 March 2015 was to visit the universities involved. The purpose of these visits was to meet the people there and to solicit their help to find sufficient lecturers to accomplish the stratified random sampling for the collection of qualitative data (see section 4.5.). Subsequently, the task of meeting the targeted lecturers and establishing good relationships with them was accomplished by giving the lecturers a brief introduction to my purpose in being there and the nature and aims of my research. This helped to persuade, encourage, and stimulate lecturers to take part in the qualitative study. Between 7 March and 30 March 2015, I undertook several visits to English departments in the participating colleges of education at the three universities. The rationale for these visits was to obtain information about the lecturers' views and beliefs about the teaching of reading in order to conduct the purposive sampling required.

Classroom observation is one of the most important and reliable tools for collecting data in order to evaluate a teacher's practical performance. Nevertheless, the presence of observers may affect a

teacher's performance. I became more conscious about any possible influence of my presence when I noticed it occurring with some of the lecturers during the pilot study. Therefore, I tried to meet lecturers individually so I could explain to them the purpose of this investigation before I started to collect the data. The reason for this was to reduce any anxiety and to reduce any influence of my presence during the observation.

Additionally, I decided not to collect any data in the first visit to the lecturers' classes in order to make them and their students familiar with my presence. Mitchell and Jolley (2004: 155) mentioned that it is preferable for the subjects to gain a certain familiarity with the researcher so that the researcher's presence no longer influences their behaviour.

I started the observation sessions on 1 April and finished on 30 June during the university year 2014- 2015 over a period of three months, and each lecturer was visited for three periods of one-and-a-half hours each. Furthermore, I recorded every single significant event that occurred in the class. I also noted down non-verbal actions of lecturers and their students. However, it cannot be fully guaranteed that my presence had no effect at all on the lecturers' performance.

Table: 4.3. Lecturers' classroom observations (U1)

U1			
Omer	Observation date	Length (hours)	Number of students
1 st visit	01/04/2015	01:30	56 (43 Female and 13 male)
2 nd visit	09/04/2015	01:40	49(40 Female and 9 male)
3 rd visit	16/04/2015	01:45	56 (43 Female and 13 male)
Abd Allah	Observation date	Length	Number of students
1 st visit	08/04/2015	01:40	59 (49 Female and 10 male)
2 nd visit	15/04/2015	01:30	59 (49 Female and 10 male)
3 rd visit	22/04/2015	01:45	58 (49 Female and 9 male)
Huda	Observation date	Length	Number of students
1 st visit	27/04/2015	01:45	60 (52 Female and 8 male)
2 nd visit	29/04/2015	02:00	60 (52 Female and 8 male)
3 rd visit	30/04/2015	02:00	60 (52 Female and 8 male)

Table: 4.4. Lecturers' classroom observations (U2)

U2			
Malak	Observation date	Length	Number of students
1st visit	05/05/2015	02:10	41 (30 Female and 11 male)
2nd visit	12/05/2015	01:30	41 (30 Female and 11 male)
3rd visit	19/05/2015	01:15	41 (30 Female and 11 male)
Ali	Observation date	Length	Number of students
1st visit	06/05/2015	01:45	46 (34 Female and 12 male)
2nd visit	13/05/2015	01:30	45 (33 Female and 12 male)
3rd visit	20/05/2015	01:25	40 (33 Female and 7 male)
Hassan	Observation date	Length	Number of students
1st visit	07/05/2015	01:30	57 (49 Female and 8 male)
2nd visit	14/05/2015	01:20	55 (49 Female and 6 male)
3rd visit	21/05/2015	01:35	53 (48 Female and 5 male)

Table: 4.5. Lecturers' classroom observations (U3)

U3			
Othman	Observation date	Length	Number of students
1 st visit	01/06/2015	01:50	48 (39 Female and 9 male)
2 nd visit	08/06/2015	01:40	48 (39 Female and 9 male)
3 rd visit	15/06/2015	01:40	48 (39 Female and 9 male)
Hajer	Observation date	Length	Number of students
1 st visit	10/06/2015	02:00	53 (41 Female and 12 male)
2 nd visit	17/06/2015	01:35	53 (41 Female and 12 male)
3 rd visit	24/06/2015	01:30	53 (41 Female and 12 male)
Moneer	Observation date	Length	Number of students
1 st visit	23/06/2015	01:40	35 (29 Female and 6 male)
2 nd visit	29/06/2015	01:35	35 (27 Female and 8 male)
3 rd visit	30/06/2015	01:30	35 (29 Female and 6 male)

The qualitative interview data were gathered within a period of four weeks from 1st July to 30th July by conducting nine semi-structured interviews with lecturers. Fortunately, convenient and appropriate places for the interviews were found in all three universities. The only problem encountered was in University one when one of the lecturers was absent for two weeks. This problem was solved with the intervention of the Head of the English Department, who kindly called the lecturer and arranged a meeting in his house for the interview.

Since sample size was to be determined by theoretical saturation, I continued conducting interviews with the target sample until this point was reached, and no more new information was provided (see section 4.8.), as recommended by Goulding (2004). The total number of interviews conducted was nine from the three universities.

The interviews were conducted in an informal style to allow the lecturers to speak frankly. I made use of body language in terms of simple gestures, such as nodding while saying 'Right', 'Interesting' or asking neutral questions, such as 'Could you explain how?', 'Could you explain why?', 'Any other comments on this point?' (see Appendix E). The main purpose of this was to

motivate and give more confidence to the lecturers to participate more actively (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996). I then transcribed the interviews and checked their accuracy many times. Although the practice of listening and transcribing was laborious and time-consuming, it also offered me a good opportunity to become familiar with the data collected. Furthermore, the transcriptions also provided useful concrete material from which I could select direct quotations to support, illustrate, and combine the arguments developed in the process of data analysis.

Table: 4.6. Lecturers' interviews

Lecturers' interviews	
U1	
Interview dates	Length (minutes)
Omer	
01/07/2015	40
Abd Allah	
08/07/2015	43
Huda	
15/07/2015	35
U2	
Malak	
16/07/2015	42
Ali	
20/07/2015	43
Hassan	
22/07/2015	40
U3	
Othman	
23/07/2015	44
Hajer	
29/07/2015	50
Moneer	
30/07/2015	41

The following sections provide further explanation of the qualitative method of data analysis used in this study; namely, grounded theory (GT).

4.11. Data Analysis Process

As mentioned in Chapter One, the research took place in Libya with the aim of investigating lecturers' beliefs about the teaching and learning of English reading at Libyan universities. This investigation determines the relationship between lecturers' beliefs about the teaching and learning of English reading and the techniques employed by them. Qualitative methods were utilised to analyse data, and the advantages and weaknesses of these methods are assessed in accordance with the requirements of the research. De Vos et al. (2002:339) considered data analysis to be the procedure of "bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data." In this research, qualitative methods were applied to analyse the data obtained from the interviews and observations. These are explained below.

4.11.1. Qualitative Data Analysis Using Grounded Theory

Grounded theory was applied to the analysis of the lecturers' responses in the three interviews to assess the methods used and justifications of their beliefs concerning the techniques they used. The results of the qualitative analysis were mainly used in order to provide deeper understanding. This is a powerful way to analyse data and draw meaningful conclusions (Allan, 2003) using a research approach that differs from most conventional research models (see Figure 4.4). Grounded theory is an iterative process, as researchers continue collecting data until a saturation point is reached, and then theory is built up from the data collected.

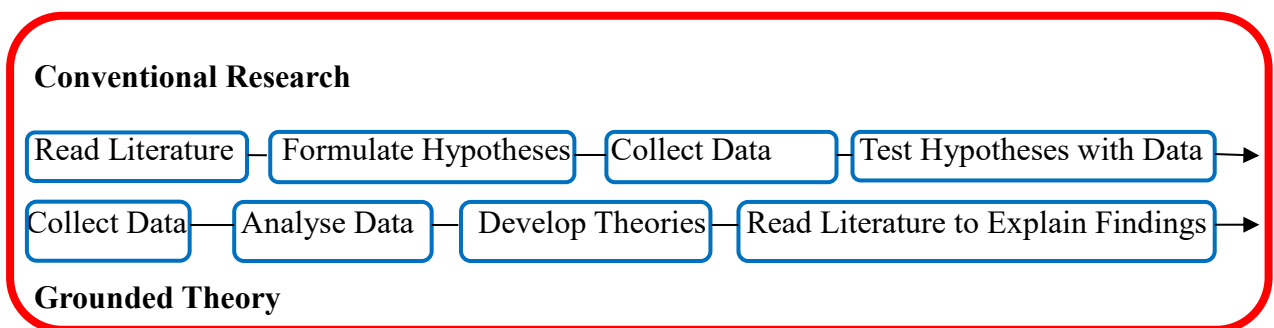


Figure 4.4: Comparison between conventional research methods and grounded theory
 Source: (Allan, 2003: 232)

Neuman stated that data analysis using grounded theory includes “examining, sorting, categorising, evaluating, comparing, synthesising, and contemplating coded data as well as reviewing the raw and recorded data” (2007: 427). The following steps describe the process used to analyse the qualitative data:

- data gathering
- arranging and organising data into groups with regards to samples
- reading and summarising data
- describing and categorising data and interpretation
- reading and relating the results to the literature
- presenting the analysis of the data in the form of a report.

4.11.2. Rationale for Adopting Grounded Theory

Robson (2002) emphasised that no single method or technique is best for the analysis of qualitative data. Choosing a suitable and appropriate method relies upon the researcher’s evaluation of the methods available. In this investigation, the grounded theory approach was utilised to analyse the data collected from 9 interviews and 27 classroom observation sessions. Although I was working from the bottom up, starting with the data to see what was there and gradually developing themes and concepts, I did not start with a blank mind, and I did have a general view of the literature, but not in regard to this specific population in this context. Moreover, my epistemological position as an interpretivist is to assume that knowledge is not static, but is constantly emergent and dynamic as understood by both observers and participants. Grounded theory supplies a method which facilitates the deriving of meaning and understanding from the data.

4.11.3. Steps in the Analysis of Qualitative Data

The grounded theory adopted in analysing the qualitative data followed a number of stages, with the initial purpose of achieving more familiarity with the data. I personally conducted and transcribed the interviews and classroom observations. All the interviews were conducted in the interviewee’s L2, although they had been asked if they preferred to use their L1. I did not use the lecturers’ real names in the transcriptions, as anonymity is very important in social research.

Grinyer (2002) mentioned that privacy and anonymity are not considered only matters of ethics, but also have legal implications.

4.11.3.1. Preparing the Data for Analysis

All the interviews and classroom observations were recorded with the agreement of the participants. The decision to record the interviews was taken because:

- as we were all lecturers, I had no problems concerning trust with the interviewees, thus dispelling one of the most serious objections normally raised against recording, which is that its use inhibits respondents;
- focusing on the interview is important for the researcher rather than making full written notes; and
- using the option of taking notes from memory after the interviews were over meant that material might be at risk of being lost, thus precluding the use of direct quotations.

Transcribing the classroom observations and interviews was time-consuming, but was done for several reasons. Firstly, the transcription process was significant in the data analysis for condensing material, summarising less relevant text, and making a note of direct quotations that offered particular insights and valuable extracts of popular opinions. Secondly, transcribing the interviews and classroom observations also helped to sharpen awareness of matters for future interviews or classroom observations. Thirdly, the transcription process was another opportunity to become acquainted with the data. Various aspects of the classroom observations and interviews were better remembered, and differences in meaning or expression previously missed were highlighted. As Jorgensen (1989:107) stated “With facts broken down into manageable pieces, the researcher sorts and shifts them, searching for types, classes, sequences, processes, patterns or wholes. The aim of this process is to assemble or reconstruct the data in a meaningful or comprehensible fashion” (see Appendices A and C).

4.11.3.2. Open or Initial Coding

Strauss and Corbin, (1990: 101) defined initial coding as the “process through which concepts are identified and their properties and dimensions are discovered in data.” The process of open coding in this exploration was initiated by a concentrated reading of transcripts word-by-word,

sentence-by-sentence, and paragraph-by-paragraph to increase the understanding of the data in order to produce categories. Furthermore, reading the transcriptions line-by-line and coding several times led to the refinement of concepts and reduced the influence of my own beliefs (Charmaz, 2010). The data were broken down and divided into separate units or sections and then grouped together to form meaningful categories and concepts. Glaser (1978) mentioned that open or initial coding proceeds by identifying a section with the use of possible expressions that the action gerund (see Appendix G for more details). The procedure adopted focused on the data rather than on nouns which might lead the investigator to make premature “conceptual leaps” (Charmaz, 2006: 48). At this stage, the data were examined without any constraints in range. Hence, all data were accepted, which made it possible to discover issues easily. This led to the identification of the common techniques of teaching English reading utilised by these Libyan university lecturers.

The process of initial coding of the 27 classroom observations and 9 semi-structured interviews produced a long list of initial codes (see Appendices A and C).

4.11.3.3. Axial or Focused Coding

The stage of axial or focused coding involves relating categories to sub-categories. The term ‘axial’ is used because the coding is based upon an axis of a category, with categories being linked at different levels; for example, of properties and dimensions (Strauss & Corbin, 1990: 123). This stage was concerned with revising and filtering or refining the codes obtained in the previous procedure of open coding by removing, mixing, and making connections between categories in order to define their content. Therefore, refined patterns started to appear and could be used to form an image of what techniques Libyan university lecturers employed when teaching reading (see Appendix E).

4.11.3.4. Selective or Central Coding

Selective coding involves integrating and refining the theory that is derived from the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990: 143). This was the last step concerned with discovering the main groups or themes that might emerge from the application of the grounded theory method. To facilitate an appropriate theoretical structure for the investigation, all groups or categories were

reviewed repeatedly. Seven themes or subjects were identified by analysing the data obtained from the classroom observations and semi-structured interviews (see Appendix F).

4.11.3.5. Theoretical Coding

The final step of coding was theoretical coding, where the investigator achieves the stage of saturation in data collection where no new theoretical insights can be obtained (Charmaz, 2006: 113). Mertens (1998) considered that theoretical coding is both a strength and a unique element of grounded theory. In this study, the point of saturation was attained and no additional data were expected to emerge from further sampling after the researcher had conducted nine semi-structured interviews and nine classroom observation sessions.

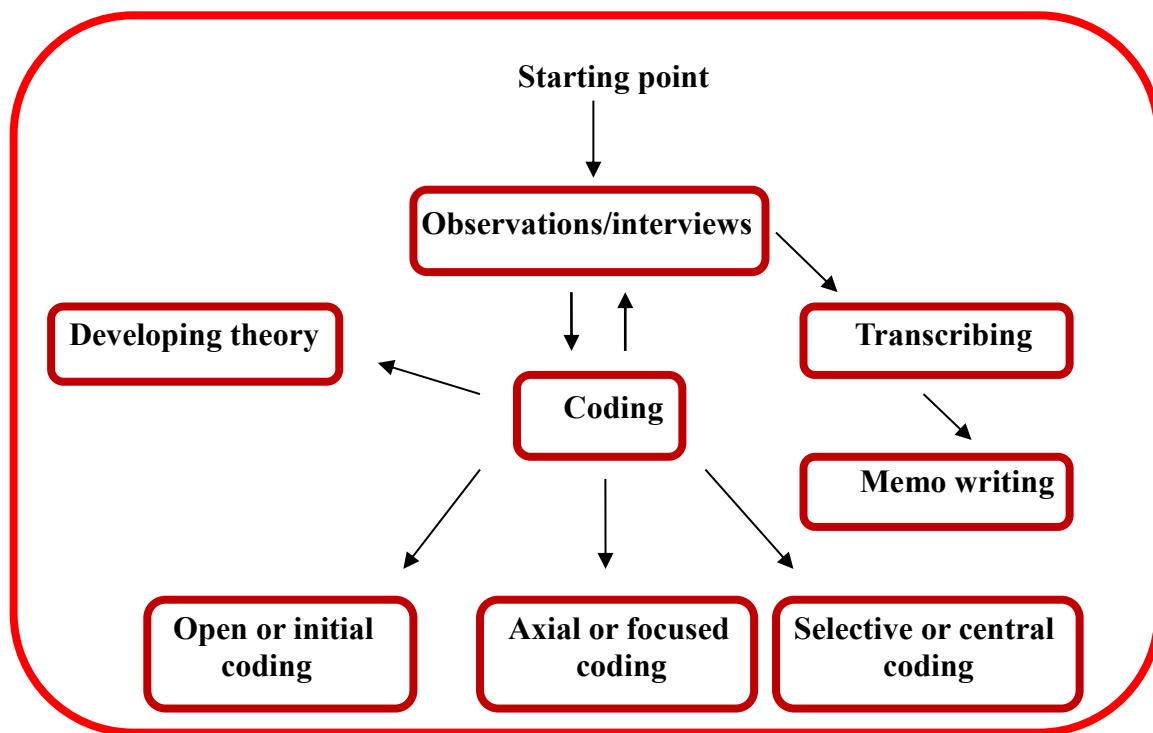


Figure 4.5: Process of grounded theory analysis

4.11.3.6. Memo Writing

Memo writing was used to record every single action that occurred in the lecturers' classrooms, whether verbal or non-verbal. All the actions recorded were used in the analysis of the data. Memos are notes and comments that an investigator writes during the collection and analysis of data (Corbin & Strauss, 1990; Rubin & Babbie, 2009). Added to this, Charmaz (2006: 72) described memo writing as constituting "a crucial method in grounded theory because it

promotes you to analyse your data and codes early in the research.” Writing memos during the analysis of the data helped me to refine and keep track of ideas which were then improved when comparing concepts, and it also helped me to stay on track with the data analysis and to discover the relationships between them.

4.12. Summary

This chapter has presented an explanation of the philosophy and methodology of and the techniques used in this research. It has also described how the data were collected, summarised, presented and analysed. From an interpretivist position, I utilised qualitative method. The qualitative data were gathered by conducting nine classroom observation sessions and administering nine semi-structured interviews in three universities, to investigate Libyan university lecturers’ beliefs and classroom practices related to the teaching of English reading.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

5.1. Introduction

This chapter describes the analysis and interprets the results of the classroom observation and semi-structured interviews data gathered from nine Libyan university lecturers in terms of their beliefs about the teaching of English language reading, the purposes of teaching reading, and their actual classroom practice (see section 4.5. for more information about the process of a qualitative approach). It also attempts to explain the relationship between such beliefs and the corresponding practice. De Vos et al. (2002:339) defined data analysis as the procedure of “bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data,” and the current chapter also provides a detailed discussion and interpretation of the findings obtained in regards to the research questions and the existing literature.

In order to achieve a better understanding of language teaching, it is important to know “more about language lecturers: what they do, how they think, what they know, and how they learn” (Freeman & Richards 1996: 1). In this case, the findings of this study support those of Kane, Sandretto and Heath (2002: 181), who stated that “an understanding of university teaching is incomplete without a consideration of teachers’ beliefs about teaching and a systematic examination of the relationship between those beliefs and teachers’ practices.”

The “analysis phase is exciting because of the continuing sense of discovery” (Rubin & Rubin, 1995: 227), and the qualitative analysis of observation and interviews data used in this research means that explanations can be formed based on the detailed evidence obtained (Rubin & Rubin, 1995:4). More specifically, the data collected from twenty-seven observation sessions and nine individual interviews are analysed and interpreted to answer the research questions in this investigation (see sections 1.3 and 4.4). Although there are different methods of analysing qualitative data, such as discourse analysis, content analysis, conversation analysis and textual analysis, in this study, grounded theory was used for various reasons, as discussed in more detail in section 4.11.1.

To achieve a high level of validity in analysing the qualitative data it is crucial to apply the coding procedure effectively (Strauss, 1987). In this research, three types of coding are applied, namely initial, axial and selective coding. (See sections 4.11.2.4, 4.11.2.5, and 4.11.2.6 in the Methodology Chapter and Appendix G for more detail.) References to the literature are used in this chapter because it involves a comparison between data from this study with that presented in other studies. This chapter both describes the data and interprets it.

5.2. Framework of Data Analysis

An analytic framework was designed to deal with the data in order to make the analysis more convenient. To facilitate the triangulation of the data from observation sessions and interviews, categories emerging in the analysis were classified into three groups, concerning the lecturers' practices, the lecturers' beliefs, and the relationship between them. Each theme included a number of central categories, which, in turn, incorporated a number of related themes. The process of analysis started with the identification of what, lecturers actually did in class (lecturers' practices) and then the lecturers' beliefs, (lecturers' beliefs) concerning the teaching of reading. This framework was based on the following research questions that are repeated here for the reader's convenience:

1. What are the main characteristics of university lecturers' practices during classroom instruction in teaching English reading skills in Libya?

2. What beliefs are held by university English language lecturers in Libya concerning the learning of English language reading skills? Why do these beliefs develop and how do they affect the lecturers' practices in the classroom?
 - What factors and constraints are responsible for shaping lecturers' beliefs regarding teaching English language reading skills?

3. How are the beliefs and classroom practices of lecturers of English in Libyan universities concerning the development of English language reading skills related?

In relation to the above questions, the results of the data analysis are presented in the form of tables to illustrate the major findings. Table 5.1 contains seven main sections, and each section is separated into three main parts according to the three main research questions of the

investigation. (See appendices A, C, D, E and F for further information about the data collection and how the themes emerged.)

Table: 5.1. Framework of qualitative data analysis

Framework of Data Analysis			
Sections	Lecturers' practice	Lecturers' beliefs	Relationship between beliefs and practice
1	Presenting reading techniques	Lecturers' beliefs about presenting reading techniques	The relationship between lecturers' beliefs about and their practices in presenting reading techniques
2	Comprehension techniques	Lecturers' beliefs about comprehension techniques	The relationship between lecturers' beliefs about and their practices in teaching comprehension techniques
3	Employing interpretation techniques	Lecturers' beliefs about employing interpretation techniques	The relationship between lecturers' beliefs about and their practices in employing interpretation techniques in teaching reading
4	Adopting interaction activities	Lecturers' beliefs about adopting interaction activities	The relationship between lecturers' beliefs about and their practices in adopting interaction techniques

5	Error correction and giving feedback	Lecturers' beliefs about error correction and providing feedback	The relationship between lecturers' beliefs about and their practices in error correction and giving feedback
6	Teaching vocabulary	Lecturers' beliefs about teaching vocabulary	The relationship between lecturers' beliefs about and their practices in teaching vocabulary
7	Evaluating teaching techniques used	Lecturers' beliefs about evaluating teaching techniques used	The relationship between lecturers' beliefs about and their practices in evaluating teaching techniques used

In this study, it was decided to employ grounded theory to analyse the qualitative data gathered from both the classroom observations and the interviews. Coding processes were used to classify the data into groups directly linked to lecturers' practices in and their beliefs about the teaching of English reading. The lecturers all expressed their beliefs about the teaching of English reading. The stages of initial coding, axial coding, and selective coding are presented in Appendix G to show how the themes were generated (Strauss & Corbin, 1990:101).

5.2.1. Section One: Lecturers' Classroom Practices

This section focuses on what the lecturers did inside the classroom when they were teaching English reading. The various themes derived from the classroom observation data are given in tables where the themes of practices are grouped together under the major themes. These themes are interpreted and discussed in order to develop techniques for teaching reading.

5.2.1.1. Presenting Reading Techniques

The observations data showed that the lecturers used three main approaches in presenting reading: top-down, bottom-up or interactive.

Table: 5.2. Presenting reading techniques

Action	Presenting reading techniques
1	Employing top-down reading processes
2	Employing bottom-up reading processes
3	Presenting reading interactively

Employing top-down reading processes

The analysis revealed that seven of the lecturers adopted top-down processes during their teaching for at least some of the time. Omer, Abd Allah, Huda, Moneer, Othman, Hajer and Ali began their classes with the largest unit and then moved to smaller units to explain the text. For instance, the use of top-down techniques could be seen in Abd Allah's reading lesson. He began his class with the largest unit and subsequently focused on smaller units to help students understand the meaning of the text. Thus, he started by writing the title, "*Looking at Looks*", on the board and said, "*Well, let's start with the new lesson.*" He asked the students to open the book at page 33; he then started reading the title and explaining what the students would learn from this lesson. This seemed to allow students to form expectations of what the reading passage was about. In this case, these lecturers seemed to help students to construct meaning by applying their general knowledge about the world or by considering specific elements of the text to help them anticipate what might follow in the text. This indicates that the lecturers were probably aware that reading processes are started by the reader speculating about the text's meaning. As they go on to apply their decoding skills, the readers are then able to confirm that their speculations were correct or to modify them in accordance with what they have decoded (Goodman, 1976). Nuttall (1996: 16) argues that the top-down approach is helpful because it draws on lecturers' individual intellectual abilities and experiences, particularly with regard to the predictions that they are able to make in accordance with the schemata they use to comprehend the text. However, the findings revealed that some lecturers only claimed to prefer the top-down method, but in practice, they

used the bottom-up method for teaching reading. The decisions by these lecturers seemed to depend on their students' level of English, as low-level students tend to investigate every single sound, letter, word, and sentence to achieve understanding (Harmer, 2001).

Employing bottom-up reading processes

Lecturers such as Malak and Hassan were seen to use bottom-up approaches, but with different styles. In the bottom-up approach, according to Nuttall (1996: 17), "the reader builds up a meaning from the black marks on the page: recognizing letters and words, working out sentence structure." Thus, this approach as used by Malak and Hassan could be seen when they started their lessons by focusing on the smallest units by providing reading examples from handouts and by writing some activities on the board to make the students think about them and practise answering each activity. The reason for this might be to generate the students' engagement with classroom activities during the session. This was clear in Hassan's class when he introduced the British currency to students, saying, "*Do you know the English currency? The picture in the book shows British coins. There are 100 pence (p) in a pound (£1). There are also £5, £10, £20 and £50 notes.*" As there was no reaction from the students, he then asked, "*Have you heard about them before?*" The students replied that it was the first time they had heard about this topic, so the lecturer said, "*OK, now you can know more about British currency.*" Then, to help the students to know more about the topic, he asked one student to read the instructions sequentially. These lecturers were observed encouraging students to use new words in different sentences and to practise their meanings in different situations. Instructors sometimes resort to using the bottom-up approach due to the learners' low level of English. In this regard, Anderson (2003) found that readers use a bottom-up procedure deliberately when they encounter problems in reading. This is because, in this approach, "the reader begins the reading process by analyzing the text in small units," and "these units are built into progressively larger units until meaning can be extracted" (Kamil, 1986: 73). This is also supported by Brown (2001), who stated that specialists in reading might have claimed that the most effective method for teaching reading would be to apply the bottom-up approach: this would involve teaching the symbols, that is, grapheme-phoneme correspondences, and then teaching the syllables and lexical recognition.

Presenting reading interactively

According to the analysis of data, most of the lecturers seemed to teach reading interactively, although some of them stated during the interviews that they did not know much about this process. Anderson (2003:73) confirmed that “reading is an interactive process.” Ali, Malak, Hassan, Omer and Abd Allah were observed teaching reading interactively in their classes. All of these lecturers started their sessions by providing students with examples, and they sometimes used pictures or diagrams to encourage students to understand the text and discuss it. An example of this was observed in Ali’s sessions. He started by explaining what the text was about, the title of which was “A Large Memory”, and then he discussed how the diversity of the United States had contributed to the development of American culture. Next, he asked the students to think about the topic, discuss it with their partners, and then to share their ideas with their classmates. In order for students to improve their skills in reading to an acceptable level, one option is the use of the technique of interactive reading combined with a properly thought out amalgamation of top-down and bottom-up approaches (Nuttall, 1996). In other words, interactive reading occurs when a reader makes continual moves from one focus to another, employing a top-down approach to anticipate the most likely meaning, then employing the bottom-up approach to assess the accuracy of predictions (ibid., 1996).

5.2.1.2. Reading Comprehension Techniques

The findings obtained from the classroom observations of the nine lecturers revealed that they used comprehension techniques in different ways. The techniques used were recorded as reading out loud, reading silently, creating mental pictures of what is being read and guessing the meaning from the context. The results are given in detail below.

Table: 5.3. Reading comprehension techniques

Action	Comprehension techniques
1	Reading out loud to get a general idea about the text
2	Reading silently
3	Creating mental pictures of what is being read
4	Guessing the meaning from the context

Reading out loud to gain an idea about the text

In Omar's, Huda's and Malak's classes, reading out loud was observed. For example, Omar asked the students to read the passage out loud and to identify difficult words. Malak started by reading the passage out loud twice, and then asked if any of the students could read it. Then, she said, "*Each student should read at least one paragraph out loud from the passage.*" These lecturers seemed to use reading out loud to give the students an opportunity to practise some of their reading skills such as pronunciation accuracy. Indeed, applying this technique may help develop students' pronunciation and make them more confident. It was confirmed by Elley (1989), Leong and Pikulski (1990) and Robbins and Ehri (1994) that reading aloud will help learners increase their language and vocabulary skills when they read new words in the text. On the other hand, other lecturers were not observed using this technique of teaching reading. Grellet (1996:10) argued that the complexity of this technique means it should be avoided in the classroom. Ahmadi and Pourhossein (2012) also found that reading aloud could prevent students from developing effective reading techniques.

Reading silently

The analysis of the data showed that five lecturers (Omar, Malak, Hassan, Othman, and Hajer) were observed using the silent reading technique in their classes. For example, Othman asked the students to read the passage silently for about 5 minutes and to identify any difficult words; he then explained the meaning of the words they had identified. Indeed, it is possible to claim that the technique of silent reading is highly specialized because there are very few professions that require people to read a text out loud. These lecturers seemed to be aware of the significance of using this technique when practising reading in the classroom. On the other hand, four lecturers (Moneer, Ali, Huda and Abd Allah) did not use the silent reading technique in their classes.

Creating mental pictures of what is being read

During the classroom observation, some lecturers (Hassan, Omar, Abd Allah and Huda) were observed asking students to create mental pictures of what was being read. This kind of technique was applied by the lecturers in similar ways, but at different levels. They began by telling the students to identify new words and to think about the whole text in order to create a mental picture of it. For example, Hassan started by saying:

Imagine you are driving from London to Stratford-upon-Avon one Sunday with three friends. You decide to stop in Oxford on the way. How is driving into Oxford made easy? Read the leaflet on the opposite page and give the correct description.

This illustrates that these lecturers understood that reading involves a set of common underlying processes and knowledge bases, such as “text input, certain cognitive processes, and the reader’s previous experience” (Grabe, 2009:74). It can be argued that creating mental pictures is an essential teaching technique. This was clear when Nuttall (1996) used the analogy of bottom-up processing being like a scientist using a microscope to examine the smallest details of a phenomenon, and he presented top-down processing as being similar to taking a bird’s eye view of a landscape. Nuttall (1996) claimed that it is important to remember that field-independent cognitive styles are similar to bottom-up processing and field-dependent cognitive styles are similar to top-down processing. However, the findings revealed that five of the lecturers did not apply this kind of technique inside their classes, which suggests that those lecturers were unaware of this technique. This finding contrasts with evidence that demonstrates that employing an effective technique makes it possible for students to identify printed words rapidly and automatically with the necessary degree of accuracy (Pikulski and Chard, 2003).

Guessing the meaning from the context

Only in Omar’s and Huda’s classes were students asked to guess the meaning from the context. These lecturers seemed to be trying to help learners to be independent, probably to enhance their confidence. For example, Huda asked students to scan the article to find specific words or phrases, and to use contextual clues to complete the chart shown in the following table. She asked her class to guess the meaning from the context.

Vocabulary	Paragraph	Synonym or Definition
Decode	1	
Telegraph	2	
Replaced	4	
Transmit	5	
Global	5	
Linking	6	
Access	6	
Instantaneous	8	

Applying this technique seems to be essential to help students become proficient in learning vocabulary (Nichols & Rupley, 2004). This finding is also in agreement with those of Ebrahim et al. (2014), who conducted a study based on questionnaire data and showed that the most important strategy for teaching reading is “to guess the meaning of the ambiguous vocabulary from the context.” Meanwhile, the other seven lecturers did not use this technique in their classes. This is in line with the view that “the teaching methods applied in many reading classes do not support learners in deducing meaning from context” (Kazemian et al., 2015:49). However, it can be argued that there is no specific strategy for learning vocabulary used by all lecturers in this study.

5.2.1.3. Employing interpretation techniques

The data derived from the classroom observations indicated that the lecturers employed interpretation techniques to various extents. The lecturers also had different preferences regarding the techniques they used. This was obvious when they asked students to use different types of dictionaries, such as electronic, English-Arabic or English-English dictionaries, and to translate English items in order to understand the text. The four activities shown in Table 5.4 are further analysed below.

Table: 5.4. Employing interpretation techniques

Action	Employing interpretation techniques
1	Translating into L1
2	Using an English-English dictionary
3	Using an English-Arabic dictionary
4	Using an electronic dictionary

Translating into L1

The data showed that certain lecturers in this investigation utilised the L1 (Arabic) with varying degrees of frequency to further clarify their explanations. Omar, Malak, Othman and Moneer used the L1 when they were teaching reading. For instance, when a student said he could not understand a sentence, Malak asked him to write it on the board. Malak then translated everything from English to Arabic for the student in order to help him understand the sentence. She said, “OK, what is the difficulty in understanding that sentence, then?” and the student replied, “It is clear now.” Othman also used the students’ L1 when he started asking questions to check whether the students had any problems in understanding the meaning. Some students did not understand and asked him to explain the new words again. So the lecturer explained them and finally gave the meaning of the words in Arabic. It seemed that the lecturers applied the L1 to make it easier for the students to comprehend the reading passage if they did not understand the explanations in English. Atkinson and Schweers (1999) suggested that students’ L1 should be utilised more than the L2 in the L2 classroom. They believe that using L1 in the classroom increases the students’ understanding of English and makes them more flexible in the classroom. This view is supported by Burden (2000), who found that L1 use creates a more relaxing learning environment. However, Cook (2001) concluded that, ideally, there should be little or no use of the L1 in the L2 classroom. On the other hand, the findings revealed that the other five lecturers did not use the L1 in the classroom, maybe because they wished to make students independent. Ellis’s (1984) argued that the L2 should be used in the classroom more than the L1 to improve their English and make students practise English well. Meanwhile Cook (2001) promoted the use of the L2 and also highlighted that, as the learner will always have L1 in their mind, there would be little benefit in completely forbidding its use.

Using an English-English dictionary

The observation data showed that only three lecturers (Othman, Ali and Huda) out of the nine focused on using an English-English dictionary in their classes. For example, Ali asked his students to use an English-English dictionary when some of them asked about new words in the text; he said, “*Please check your English dictionary very quickly and record the appropriate meaning in your notebook.*” In a study related to this issue, Knight (1994) conducted an experiment with second year students of Spanish as a foreign language at a US university to make comparisons between incidental receptive and productive vocabulary learning and reading comprehension. The students were asked to read on a computer screen 250 words from authentic texts that comprised 95.2% known words with and without access to dictionary definitions through the computer text. Having read the texts, the students then wrote a recall summary to check their comprehension. Those students who had access to dictionary definitions attained significantly higher scores than those who did not have access to dictionaries. The comprehension scores were analysed further by categorising students according to their level of ability (high or low). Both ability groups obtained higher scores when they had access to a dictionary; however, the low ability group were the only ones to demonstrate a statistically significant increase over the group that did not have access to a dictionary. Therefore, it can be argued that lecturers who employ dictionary use as a teaching technique seem to be aiming to improve the students’ ability to increase their learning of English and enhance their vocabulary storage (Ahmadi & Hairul, 2012).

Using an English-Arabic dictionary

Two lecturers out of the nine were observed suggesting that their students use an English-Arabic dictionary when they found that their students did not understand the meanings of words. Huda and Hajer used this approach to clarify further new words and phrases. For example, Huda asked the students to read the article three times and to highlight any new words they did not know. She told them to look for the new words in the English-Arabic dictionary, and the students subsequently spent some time checking the meanings of the new words. These lecturers seemed to give priority to the students using English-Arabic dictionaries to find the meanings of new items in the L1 in order to help the students comprehend the passage. Nishino (2007) recommended that the interplay of learning styles, such as the extent to which the subjects

tolerate ambiguity and educational experience (promoting dictionary use) appeared to influence individual differences, while according to Grabe and Stoller (1997) the use of a dictionary gives the subject support when he would otherwise have to make too many inferences. Moreover, it can be argued that the necessity of using this technique might be related to “a complex process to make meaning out of the text, for various aims and in varied contexts” (Allan & Bruton, 1998).

Using an electronic dictionary

During the classes observed, only one lecturer (Hassan) was seen encouraging the students to use an electronic dictionary. This happened when he asked the students to use their electronic dictionaries after he had read the passage to them, to find the meanings of new words. The technique of using electronic dictionaries can help students to make use of the advantage of listening to the new words being pronounced. However, Nishino (2007) claimed that learning styles influence the choice of dictionary use, as was clear when he pointed out individual variations in strategy preferences. For example, one of his subjects preferred to infer word meanings from the context, while another subject preferred to look up word meanings in a dictionary.

5.2.1.4. Adopting Interactive Techniques

The analysis of the observation data showed the use of interactive techniques by the lecturers. In this regard, the main themes from the observation data are presented in Table 5.5.

Table: 5.5. Adopting interactive techniques

Action	Adopting interactive techniques
1	Helping students to share knowledge with each other
2	Discussing ambiguous expressions with students
3	Encouraging students to work in groups
4	Assigning students to work in pairs

Helping students to share knowledge with each other

The findings showed that four lecturers (Hassan, Moneer, Omar and Othman) seemed to engage their students in the practice of sharing knowledge and ideas, and they did this in diverse ways. One way was to involve the students in discussions about their ideas and thoughts. These lecturers were observed asking their students to state their ideas and opinions to the group, and they also encouraged students to express their points of view in class discussions. This was observed when Hassan asked his students to state the topic sentence and then chose students to talk about the topic sentence and express their views on it. This technique was beneficial to the students because it seemed to help them to interact with each other. What these lecturers did seem to agree with Nuttall's (2005: 162) argument that:

Individuals participate more actively, partly because it is less threatening than participating in front of the whole class and partly because it is more obvious that everyone's contribution counts. And the discussion helps students to see how to read thoughtfully.

Usually, successful collaborative learning is able to take place when students are working in groups, which facilitates this type of learning.

Discussing ambiguous expressions with students

The results of the data analysis suggest that most of the lecturers discussed ambiguous expressions with students to check their understanding. Hajer, Hassan, Ali, Huda, Omar, Malak and Moneer were observed trying to explain unclear expressions or phrases to their students. For instance, Hajer started her lecture by answering reading comprehension questions about the previous two texts. After writing the unclear expressions from the passage on the board, the lecturer then distributed handouts and asked the students to think about them in order to answer the reading comprehension questions from the current text. The students followed her instructions by writing in their notebooks. When she had finished, she told them to give their answers so they could check them together. In this case, this activity provided students with a good opportunity to interact with each other and/or with their lecturers. According to Richards and Lockhart (1994: 187-188), students rarely have the opportunity to do this in the classroom. While teachers may offer students the chance to ask and to answer questions, they may focus this activity on only a small number of students, such as those "within their action zone", that is, those students with whom the teacher has established eye contact, to whom they have addressed questions, or whom they have previously nominated during the class.

Encouraging students to work in groups

The results from the classroom observations showed that four of the nine lecturers, namely Huda, Omar, Hassan and Ali, asked students to work in groups in their reading classes. For instance, Omar wrote some sentences on the board, stating that sharing a common interest could often bring different groups together: “This web page describes how two groups gained friendship and understanding through songs.” Then he asked the students to discuss what he had written. Ali used the same technique, but with a slight modification, when he asked students to work in small groups. He said, “*Imagine you are moving to a new town. What do you hope to find there? What do you hope not to find there? Use the chart below to categorise the following situations. Then add your ideas.*” These activities seemed to be helpful for students because they seemed to encourage them to share their thoughts with each other. These lecturers seemed to be aware that it is the lecturer’s responsibility to manage the class and to decide, for example, who should talk, to whom, on what subject, and so on. Nevertheless, it is crucial to acknowledge that classroom interaction focuses on the learners’ collaboration (Ali, 2008). Therefore, students should be encouraged to initiate conversation more frequently, rather than merely responding to lecturers (Harmer, 2001).

On the other hand, the findings revealed that the other lecturers did not apply this technique of teaching. This may have a negative effect on their students’ learning because the communicative process does not happen unless there is interaction between at least two people (Allwright & Baily, 1991), and Richards and Lockhart’s (1996) results suggest that group work is useful for promoting collaboration among students. They also stated that it is an important element in creating the idea of a learning community so that learners do not feel isolated. Mercer (1995; 1996), however, takes a different approach when it comes to identifying the different types of dialogue occurring in classrooms. He uses a combination of a dialogical description of reasoning and a version of Vygotsky’s version of individual development, which emphasises reasoning as a social process wherein personal development is the result of social practices. Therefore, this fits with the model of knowledge construction.

Assigning students to work in pairs

Abd Allah, Omar and Hassan encouraged students to work in pairs during their classes. This technique was applied in different ways. For example, Omar divided students into pairs and

asked them to start answering the questions while he walked around the class and held discussions with each group individually, as in the extract below:

Omar told the students, “*Share what you have learned and write the following from the board*”:

A. Work with a partner who is reading the same article.

1. Read the focus questions of the article in the chart below.

2. Discuss the questions and write down the answers.

Focus questions for text A

1. Why do sports teams name themselves after Native Americans?

2. Why do Native Americans dislike the use of their names and symbols by teams?

3. What did the Tomales School Board decide to do? Do you think Native Americans were happy about the decision?

4. Why is it difficult to solve the conflict between Native Americans and sports teams that want to use Native American names and symbols?

The above extract shows how the lecturer encouraged the students to co-participate in answering these questions. This led to the students providing a range of answers for all these questions. Abd Allah used the same technique, but with a different activity; he asked the students to talk with their classmates about a cartoon. He told them to decide which sentence best described the young woman in the cartoon, and then asked the students to co-participate in answering his question. Hassan, on the other hand, asked the students to work in pairs to match words, though some of them could not do this. Then he said, “*OK, what is the problem? It is easy. Look here, first you should know the meaning of the words and choose one of them to explain the objections.*” Harmer (1991) stated that using pair work and group work makes it easier for students to work in an environment that they find both conducive and facilitating. Indeed, group work has been found to have a number of advantages. Gower (1987), for example, claimed that group work helps to stimulate students’ knowledge of various sorts of interaction and makes it easier to create a classroom atmosphere that is characterised by being both more relaxed and more cooperative. On the other hand, the other six lecturers did not apply this technique in their

classes. It could be argued that in some contexts, “students are very anxious about making mistakes in front of others” (Weaver and Hybles, 2004-157).

5.2.1.5. Correcting Errors and Providing Feedback

The data obtained from the lecturers’ practices showed two main sets of findings concerning correcting errors and providing students with feedback. Both categories were grouped under the major themes, as shown in Table 5.6. The analysis revealed that the lecturers used different techniques regarding how and when to correct students’ errors and to provide them with feedback. Mckay (2000: 30) claimed that when the interaction involves feedback, the learners pay attention to the form of their errors and so subsequently modify their responses. The lecturers’ methods of correcting students’ errors and giving feedback were observed to be similar in some cases but different in others. Quotations from the data are introduced to give examples, and the results are provided in detail.

Table: 5.6. Correcting errors and giving feedback

Action	Correcting errors and giving feedback
1	Applying direct correction immediately
2	Correcting students’ errors while they were reading
3	Correcting students’ errors after reading
4	Motivating students to participate

Applying direct correction immediately

The analysis of the data from the lecturers’ classroom practices revealed that Abd Allah, Othman, Hassan and Malak were observed to provide the students with the correct answers directly. This led to the students being helped to find the right answer without them having to make much of an effort. An example of this can be found in Othman’s class when he started writing on the board all of the answers for the comprehension questions of the two texts in the book and told the students to follow him and correct their mistakes immediately. He also gave the right answer to one of his students during his third session. This occurred when the lecturer said, “*Now Ahmed, can you tell us the meaning of the word ‘request?’*” The student answered, “*It means ‘think’*”, to

which the lecturer responded, “*No. it means ‘ask for’.*” In this situation, the lecturer did not seem to give the student time to think again and to correct himself. Johnson (2001) found that some teachers demonstrated a preference for correcting errors immediately, as they felt that this would improve the students’ language. This could also be due to teachers’ concerns that if errors are not corrected immediately, they might become internalised (Fauziati, 2011). McDonough and Shaw (2003) suggested that the immediate correction of errors and giving immediate feedback can improve students’ results. On the other hand, the other five lecturers were not seen to correct their students’ errors immediately. These lecturers seemed to be unaware of the significance of giving immediate feedback, because none of them were seen applying this technique in the three observation sessions. It could be argued that a significance of immediate correction of errors against Cook (2001), when he reported that immediate feedback is a result of the language interaction that occurs in the classroom.

Correcting students’ errors while they were reading aloud

During their classroom practice, only three lecturers, namely, Omar, Hajer and Moneer, were seen to correct their students’ mistakes while the students were reading aloud, whereas the other six lecturers, Ali, Abd Allah, Huda, Othman, Hassan and Malak, were not seen to employ this technique of correction. One of the lecturers who interrupted students when they heard pronunciation errors was Omar, who regularly used this technique in his classes. For example, he gave the students a long article from a sociology textbook, which described some of the ways that the United States manages its diversity, and then he asked one student to read. The student started reading, and the lecturer interrupted the student occasionally and corrected his pronunciation errors. This seems to be counter to Lightbown and Spada’s (1999) recommendation that errors should not be pointed out in the midst of a task, but should be considered separately, as any interruption may negatively affect students’ achievement. On the other hand, the other six lecturers were not seen to employ this technique of correction, supporting Ur’s (1998: 247) argument that the “recommendation not to correct a learner during fluent speech is in principle a valid one.”

Correcting students’ errors after reading

The data revealed that the technique of correcting students’ errors after reading was sometimes observed in some of the lecturers’ classes; those of Hassan, Ali, Huda, Omar and Malak. For

instance, Ali asked one student to read an article; he let him finish his reading, and then he said, “*Nour, do you think the last sentence is correct?*” Nour said, “*Yes.*” Then, the lecturer said, “*No, it is not, because the correct sentence is ‘an abandoned building is a place that is left empty after businesses or families move out.’*” However, the lecturer had not interrupted the student while he was reading. To conclude this point, those lecturers who were correcting students’ errors after reading seemed to be aware of the importance of this kind of technique as they had been observed to apply it in the first, second and third classroom observation sessions (see Tables 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4). Rivers (1981), Gower et al. (1995) and Harmer (1998) suggested that there should be immediate correction of pronunciation errors during the drill phase of the lesson. However, immediate correction is not favoured by those scholars who emphasise communication rather than accuracy. Meanwhile, other lecturers were not observed correcting students’ errors after reading, but instead, they corrected the errors while the students were reading. However, Brooks (1964:148) pointed out that “students must not be stopped in the middle of a word or an utterance in order to be corrected if communication is to be successfully learned.”

Motivating students to participate

The results showed that lecturers applied different techniques to encourage students to participate in class activities. This was observed in Ali’s, Abd Allah’s, Huda’s and Omar’s classes. For instance, Huda was seen to motivate her students by maintaining eye contact and moving toward her students as she interacted with them, nodding her head to show that she was listening to them. She also paid attention to the strengths and weaknesses of each of her students, rewarding their strengths and rectifying their weaknesses. Furthermore, she was seen giving many examples and encouraging students to share their ideas and comments about the passage, even if they were incorrect. The lecturer in this situation tried to make the students more active and communicative with each other through practising structuring sentences and sharing opinions with each other to learn new words, expressions, or phrases. To sum up this point, these lecturers supported using various techniques to motivate the students to learn reading. Brophy (2004), Dömyei (2007a), and Atkinson (2000) all assert that the teacher’s motivational practice influences the character of a class, and therefore, the students’ motivation in the class is influenced by the teacher. On the other hand, the other lecturers were not observed to motivate their students when they were teaching reading. Good and Brophy (1994: 215) suggest that teachers should be patient and encouraging in order to support students’ efforts at learning. It is important that students are able

to feel comfortable when taking intellectual risks; thus, they need to be aware that, even if they make a mistake, they will not be subject to criticism or made to feel embarrassed.

5.2.1.6. Teaching Vocabulary

The findings obtained showed that the lecturers in this investigation taught English vocabulary in various ways using different techniques. Table 5.7 shows the techniques used by the lecturers to teach vocabulary during English reading classes.

Table: 5.7. Teaching vocabulary

Action	Teaching vocabulary
1	Encouraging students to understand the meaning of new words from context
2	Giving the meaning of new words immediately
3	Letting students themselves study vocabulary
4	Using an image of the word's meaning

Encouraging students to understand the meaning of new words from context

Most of the lecturers were seen to encourage students to understand the meaning of new words from the context. For example, Abd Allah explained a topic to the students and encouraged them to discuss their ideas with their classmates for a while. He then asked them to think about the following questions. He wrote the following on the board:

1. What does porch mean?

On nice days, old Mrs. Willows always sat out on her front porch and watched the people pass by.

2. What does soggy mean?

The window had been left open during the storm; the papers on my desk were a soggy mess.

3. What does sketch mean?

Many artists make a pencil sketch of their subject before they start to paint it.

The lecturer explained and discussed the above words with the students to help them understand their meaning. This technique was effective because some of the students seemed to understand the meaning when they wrote down the new words from the context and made notes in their notebooks about the meaning. Malak's practice was similar to that of the other lecturers regarding this matter, but she added some extra techniques when asking the students to practise after they had received instructions about how to deal with the new words. After giving the students five minutes to think about the new vocabulary, the lecturer then helped the students and encouraged them to find the correct meaning of each word. Next, she started by asking, "*Who knows the first word?*" When the students raised their hands, she chose one student to give the meaning of the first word and asked another student to give the meaning of the second one. Nation (2001: 232) maintained that "incidental learning via guessing from context is the most important of all sources of vocabulary learning." Some of the other lecturers were not seen using this technique of teaching in their classes, which might be related to the method of teaching they normally used or to their lack of awareness of the technique. EFL lecturers often find it difficult to apply their teaching methods in large classes (Richards & Rogers, 2001).

Giving the meaning of new words immediately

The analysis of the data revealed that Omar, Moneer, Ali, Hajer, and Huda provided students with the meanings of new words immediately. A specific example of this could be found in Ali's performance when he asked his students to highlight new words that they did not know. After they had highlighted them, he started writing each word on the board along with its meaning. These included the following:

1. Awkward: embarrassed; not relaxed
2. Compatible: able to go together well; well-matched
3. Stranger: person who is unfamiliar

After he had written the meanings of the above words on the board and explained them to the students, Ali asked them to write the words down. Then he moved directly to the new text. The lecturer here did not give the students much opportunity to think more or work out what the meanings of the new expressions or words might be or to decode the words independently. This did not seem to help the students to think more about the meaning of the new vocabulary because they did not make any effort to search for the meaning of the word by themselves. While such a technique may give students a clear idea in the lessons and a clear understanding of the meanings of new words, some other lecturers were not seen applying this teaching technique in their classes. It could be that these lecturers might not have been willing to interrupt the students while they were reading, or it could be that, due to classroom size, applying this methodology of teaching to large classes makes it difficult to give the meaning of new words immediately (Richards & Rogers, 2001).

Letting students study vocabulary by themselves

Only in Malak’s, Hassan’s, Othman’s and Abd Allah’s classes were students provided with opportunities to study and think about the meaning of new vocabulary. This technique led to more classroom participation. For instance, Hassan gave the students an opportunity to study each word in the text in order to increase their vocabulary knowledge, as shown in the extract below. The lecturer told the students to find the words that they did not know and asked them to copy them into their notebooks and write the definition, as shown below. He said, “*Blank table for unknown vocabulary*” and continued, “*Write here the words that you don’t know but you can deduce the definition and in the other side the words you don’t know and you can’t deduce the definition.*”

Exercise 1

Words you don’t know but you can deduce the definition	Words you don’t know and you can’t deduce the definition
approximate	Xxxxx
composition	Xxxxx
demonstrate	Xxxxx

Students wrote different words from the text and started discussing their meanings

In the extract above, the lecturer's goal was not to provide the students with the answers immediately, but to give them a chance to make sure of their answers. The lecturer appeared to be flexible with his students, which could help students to become involved and to participate in reading activities. Regarding this technique, in order to facilitate vocabulary acquisition, it is important to raise students' awareness of the way that individual words can often be used with different frequencies and can have a range of meanings according to the disciplines and genres in which they are used (Hyland, 2006: 12). The rest of the lecturers were not observed to use this technique for teaching reading in their classes. The decision by these lecturers might have depended on their students' level of English, as low-level students tend to investigate every single sound, letter, word and sentence to achieve understanding (Harmer, 2001). This is also echoed by Sanaoui (1995), who identified two distinct approaches to learning vocabulary: the first approach involves students structuring their vocabulary learning, which means they independently employ a range of learning activities, and then review and practise the target vocabulary, while in the second approach, the students eschew such strategies.

Using an image of a word's meaning

During classroom observation, only Abd Allah was seen to use an image of a word's meaning to help students comprehend the meaning of words. This led to students finding the meaning of new vocabulary quickly and easily. In the lecture, Abd Allah gave the students the opportunity to read the text first. He also asked them to focus on the image and to answer questions about the text. In other words, he wanted students to imagine a picture or representation of something to help them memorise words easily. This may lead to students understanding the meaning of words quickly and easily. It can be argued that this lecturer seemed to be wanting to push students to use their background knowledge because "with the help of their schema, readers realise the whole text. A passage can be understood even if some words in it cannot be comprehended" (Anderson, 2003:71). Using images helps to "provide an immediately available source of pictorial material for the activities. Students and lecturers' drawings also have a special quality, which lies in their immediacy and their individuality" (Wright 1990: 203). This feature of individuality might have a marked effect on how students remember, whether it is a particular phrase used by the lecturer or if it is an expression that the students have produced during their creation of the pictures. Meanwhile, the other lecturers did not use this technique in their classes at all, which may

indicate they were unaware of using this technique which, in turn, may have a negative effect on their students' learning. Wright (1990) and Wright and Haleem (1996) found several methods of how to illustrate the meaning of a new word or how to use images to explain a piece of language. Sometimes, a single picture may be sufficient; yet, using more than one might sometimes be more effective in helping students to realise what aspect of the picture the lecturer wanted to focus on. One way of achieving this would be to form a display of several pictures, which, while different in some ways, all have one identical feature. An example of this would be selecting a number of pictures of individuals, each of whom is horrified by a different thing, as a way of teaching the phrase 'to be horrified' (Wright and Haleem, 1996).

5.2.1.7. Evaluating the Teaching Techniques Used

The analysis in this section centres on the evaluation that the lecturers gave to the teaching techniques applied in order to remedy any teaching weaknesses that were observed during the reading classes. It was found that three techniques were used. The main findings obtained from the observations are presented in Table 5.8.

Table: 5.8. Evaluating teaching techniques used

Action	Evaluating teaching techniques used
1	Checking students' understanding
2	Using similar strategies with different texts
3	Summarising the text

Checking students' understanding

The classroom observation data showed that all of the lecturers checked students' understanding, depending on the activity concerned. This was observed in all of the lecturers' sessions, and particularly in Huda's, Omar's, Abd Allah's, Hassan, and Malak's classes. For instance, Abd Allah asked the students to go to the next page and answer the quiz individually.

The quiz was:

Take the quiz and compare your answers with a partner.

He started reading the quiz which was.

First Impressions Quiz

1. What is the most important thing to do when you first meet someone?
a. smile b. shake hands c. say "Hello!"
2. What do people think about the most when they first meet you?
a. how you speak b. how you look c. how you act
3. How long does it take for someone to decide what kind of person you are?
a. 1 hour b. 10 minutes c. 30 seconds

In the above extract, the lecturer's aim seemed to be to check students' understanding by reading through the simple quiz. When students had finished the quiz, he told them to compare answers with each other to see whether they had understood the reading activity. The data showed that the lecturers checked students' understanding, depending on the activity concerned. This suggests these lecturers were aware of applying this technique and had background knowledge about it. This allows teachers to carry out informal checks on their students, and therefore, students are not necessarily aware that they are being assessed. This technique also allows teachers to check students' learning continuously throughout the process of teaching and learning. Savage et al. (2010: 23) mentioned that it is important for the lecturer to check constantly on students who are working independently to ensure that they receive the attention they need to complete the task effectively and without error.

Using similar strategies with different texts

The results revealed that all of the lecturers used similar strategies while teaching different texts, specifically when they were dealing with teaching vocabulary and introducing texts to the students. For example, Malak's teaching strategies were consistent when she was teaching reading. She read through the passage twice. After she had finished reading, she asked the

students if it was clear. This occurred in all the lecturers' classes. For instance, this was confirmed in Ali's teaching when he was observed asking his students to listen to him while he read the text twice. However, some differences were observed between the lecturers while using other techniques for teaching reading, as was shown in previous sections.

Summarising the text

It is interesting that only three lecturers occasionally used the technique of summarising texts and whole lessons by asking students to summarise what they had read. During classes, Moneer, Malak and Hassan occasionally used this technique. Their aim seemed to be to encourage students to engage more with classroom activities. For example, Hassan asked the students if anyone could summarise what they had read in the class the previous day. Some of them raised their hands, so he said, "*Salem can you tell us about what you have learnt from our lesson yesterday?*" The student summarised some points, and the lecturer praised him, saying, "*Yes, that is fine. Thanks, Salem, for that.*" It can be argued that such a technique is useful because if learners have understood what they have been taught, then the technique used can be considered to be efficient and useful to be applied again in the classroom (Broughton et al., 1980). It is important to develop the technique of summarising, as it demonstrates that a student has understood the meaning of a text. Students are forced to read meaningfully because with the summary, they will need to provide "an accurate and objective account of the text, leaving out our reaction to it" and ignoring any minor or irrelevant details (Grellet, 1996: 13). However, the observation data revealed that the other lecturers did not use this technique in teaching reading in their classes.

5.2.2. Section Two: Semi-structured Interviews with Lecturers

In this section, the analysis and discussion of the issues focus on what the lecturers said during the interviews regarding how they taught English reading in Libyan universities. The themes obtained from the semi-structured interview data are presented in table format. Furthermore, quotations and extracts are given from the data to support the data analysis. The categories are grouped under the major themes in the tables.

5.2.2.1. Lecturers' Beliefs about Presenting Reading Techniques

The data derived from the interviews show that the lecturers had different beliefs about how to present reading techniques; however, all the lecturers agreed on the importance of presenting reading techniques in teaching and learning reading. The findings revealed that the lecturers said that they applied their own techniques. Table 5.9 summarises the data in three themes, which are analysed in more detail below.

Table: 5.9. Lecturers' beliefs about presenting reading techniques

Action	Lecturers' beliefs about presenting reading techniques
1	Awareness of employing top-down, bottom-up and interactive reading processes
2	Teaching reading techniques and lecturers' preferences
3	The effect of teaching and learning experiences on presenting English reading

Awareness of employing top-down, bottom-up and interactive reading approaches

The data showed that none of the lecturers were fully aware of the meaning of top-down, bottom-up and interactive reading approaches. For example, Omar said, “*Actually, I have not heard these three terms for a long time.*” Moneer added, “*I have not heard about these three approaches before, but I know that there are different styles of teaching English reading*”, while Malak stated, “*I do not know about the names of these methods of teaching reading. Thanks for your help and making me familiar with these terms.*” This may indicate a possible lack of awareness of the three techniques. Furthermore, it is important to note that what teachers believe is true significantly affects the nature of both the teaching and the learning that takes place either within or outside the classroom (Prawat, 1992). With regard to this issue, Schreiber and Moss (2002:1) claimed that, “*Our beliefs guide our desires and shape our practice.*” Therefore, it would appear that there is widespread consensus regarding the important role lecturers' personal beliefs and metaphors they have when talking about teaching and learning of reading and in determining both their practice and their behaviour as professionals.

Teaching reading techniques and lecturers' preferences

The interview data revealed that the lecturers expressed different attitudes towards employing top-down, bottom-up and interactive methods for teaching reading. Five lecturers (Hassan, Ali, Abd Allah, Hajer, and Huda) were very interested in using top-down methods to teach students reading. For instance, Hassan said:

I prefer to teach by the method which best helps me to achieve my lesson aims. Normally, I begin with the largest unit and then move to the smallest one to understand the text, and I think that is the best way to teach reading.

The above extract indicates the technique that he thought best for his students. Furthermore, some lecturers (Omar, Malak, and Othman) preferred top-down techniques, but they stated that they used the bottom-up technique too when they taught reading. For example, Ali said:

I prefer the top-down approach to teach English reading, but I use the bottom-up approach. The reason behind utilising this is that if I applied the top-down technique, the students would not understand what I do or say. For that reason, I employ the bottom-up approach to teach reading.

Hassan's approach clearly highlights little understanding of the top down, bottom up and interactive approaches, as when he discussed how he taught his students in the classroom, he did not know which approach he used. This was further emphasised by Garcia and Rueda (1994), who claimed that teachers have a wide range of beliefs regarding their profession, and so, consequently, the way they fulfil their professional duties in accordance with such beliefs will also show a wide range of variation. In addition, the influence of these beliefs on the way teachers practice can be either positive or negative.

The effect of teaching and learning experience on presenting English reading

The results showed that all of the lecturers believed that their presentation of reading techniques was affected by their previous teaching and learning experiences. For example, Abd Allah said, "I was influenced by my lecturer's way of teaching reading when I was a student. He always advised us to learn reading independently." Malak added, "Concerning my beliefs and knowledge of learning and teaching, yes, of course it helps me 100% and always gives me support when I am teaching English reading."

This finding reflects the importance of the role of teachers' prior knowledge in the teaching of reading, which leads to the creation of autonomous learners. It is also in line with the argument of Borg (2003), Wiseman et al. (2002), and Arıoğul (2007) that lecturers' previous learning and teaching backgrounds can affect their beliefs about teaching and learning throughout their careers. Furthermore, experience can be used as a 'credit' system, where lecturers store up their experience and use it when they need it.

5.2.2.2. Lecturers' beliefs about comprehension techniques

This section focuses on the lecturers' beliefs about techniques for monitoring comprehension. The findings show that the lecturers seemed to have various beliefs about these techniques. The themes found in the semi-structured interview data are shown in Table 5.10, and a review of the main results is then given.

Table: 5.10. Lecturers' Beliefs about Comprehension Techniques

Action	Lecturers' beliefs about comprehension techniques
1	Lecturers' beliefs about reading quickly to get an idea about the text
2	Lecturers' beliefs about reading silently
3	Lecturers' beliefs about creating mental pictures of what is being read
4	Lecturers' beliefs about considering what is highlighted in the text

Lecturers' beliefs about reading quickly to get an idea about the text

The data analysis showed that there were some similarities and differences among the lecturers' beliefs about reading quickly to get a general idea about the text. Most of the lecturers in this study, namely, Omar, Moneer, Ali, Hajer, Huda, Abd Allah, and Malak, believed that reading quickly is a useful strategy for understanding the meaning of the whole text from the context. For example, Ali said, "*I ask my students to read and focus on the first sentence of each paragraph to get a concept about its components, scanning to find specific information to know the general idea about the text.*" On the other hand, the findings also showed that Hassan and Othman both had the same beliefs about this teaching technique. For instance, Othman said:

I never ask my students to read quickly to get a general idea about the text. I have no idea about this technique, and I always ask them to read slowly in order to understand the meaning word by word and sentence by sentence.

As the findings show, the lecturers had different beliefs about monitoring comprehension techniques during the teaching of English reading. In terms of lecturers' beliefs about reading quickly to get a general idea about the text, most of the lecturers believed this to be a technique to aid understanding of the meaning of the whole text. Borg (as cited in Kajinga, 2006:17) noted that "the earlier the belief is incorporated into the belief structure, the more difficult it is to alter, for these beliefs in the long run influence perceptions and the process of new information encountered." On the other hand, some lecturers who were against the technique of reading quickly seemed to be in agreement with Grellet (1996:10), who argued that "it is an extremely difficult exercise, highly specialized and only very few people need to read quickly in their profession." For example Hassan said that "*it is very difficult to use this technique in reading classes because the lack of the learner's proficiency and also this technique needs advanced level to be applied.*" He added that "*I never ask my students to read quickly as I do believe that reading quickly is not helpful to all level of learning.*"

Lecturers' beliefs about reading silently

Omar, Moneer, Ali, Abd Allah, Hajer, and Huda were in agreement about the importance of applying this technique. For instance, Huda said, "*Asking students to read silently is a good chance for them to revise their prior knowledge in order to recognize the whole passage.*" In the current study, similarities as well as differences in lecturers' beliefs about using the silent reading technique were found. Overall, the majority of the tutors emphasised that reading silently and practising the silent reading technique were important in learning English. These lecturers seemed to have a positive attitude to this technique for monitoring reading and clearly felt that reading inside the classroom could be 'a silent activity' (Grellet, 1996).

In contrast, Othman, Malak, and Hassan believed that reading silently is not necessary for students. For instance, Hassan said, "*I believe this technique is not important, and it will not help too much to understand the text.*" Kajinga (2006) claimed that not only the type of pre-service experience that teachers have, but also the form of discipline applied in a school plays a significant role in shaping teachers' beliefs. Furthermore, Johnson emphasised Kajinga's (2006:

17) finding that “the influence of school memories on teachers’ beliefs form part of the most striking finding of her study on the influence of formal training on teachers’ beliefs.”

Lecturers’ beliefs about creating mental pictures of what is being read

The results gained from the interviews with the lecturers illustrate that almost all of them were unaware of the technique of creating mental pictures of what is being read. For example, Abd Allah said, “*I have no idea about this technique and it would be very difficult to apply.*” This was further confirmed when Huda said, “*I have no idea about it and it would be very difficult to apply.*” Indeed, it seems that only Othman and Malak had experience of this technique. For instance, Malak stated, “*I ask my students to create mental pictures of what is being read to make the reading task more interesting and the text more understandable.*” This strategy was recommended by Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011:146), who stated that, “With these tasks lecturers take the learners through the reading and they interact with the text.” The reasons the lecturers held these beliefs could be due to their background and the way that the lecturers themselves were taught.

Lecturers’ beliefs about considering what is highlighted in the text

The analysis of the data has shown that there were similarities between lecturers’ decisions to focus on certain points in reading texts. The lecturers believed that it is important to push students to concentrate on what their lecturers have focused on and to copy their notes into their notebooks. For instance, Huda said, “*I advise my students to consider everything that their lecturer says especially when their lecturers repeat something in class*” while Moneer added, “*I believe concentrating on some points during the reading lessons, and asking students to highlight these points in their own way is essential as a summary of the important points.*” The comments suggest that all of these lecturers encouraged the students to be more focused throughout the process of constructing the meaning of texts. Borg (as cited in Kajinga, 2006:18) argued that teacher “training succeeds mostly in reinforcing existing beliefs and theories.”

5.2.2.3. Lecturers’ Beliefs about Employing Interpretation Techniques in Teaching Reading

Findings from the analysis of the data obtained from the semi-structured interviews concerning employing interpretation techniques are presented in Table 5.11. A brief review of the results on this issue is also provided.

Table 5.11. Lecturers' beliefs about employing interpretation teaching techniques

Action	Lecturers' beliefs about employing interpretation teaching techniques
1	Lecturers' beliefs about translating into the L1
2	Lecturers' beliefs about using an English-English dictionary
3	Lecturers' beliefs about using an English-Arabic dictionary
4	Lecturers' beliefs about using an electronic dictionary

Lecturers' beliefs about translating into the L1

The data revealed that lecturers had different views about translating new words and sentences into Arabic. Almost all of the lecturers, Omar, Moneer, Ali, Hajer, Huda, and Abd Allah, said that they used their L1 in the English classroom. Each lecturer had his or her own reasons to justify this. For example, Omar said, *“It will help students because it will be easier for them to find the right translation of the words, and they will learn the meaning of the words very quickly.”* Moneer also had a similar point of view, stating that *“when the lecturer uses Arabic, his students like the lesson more than when he speaks English, and his students find it more interesting than using English.”* Hajer added, *“Translating into the students' first language depends on the situation, on how much information they get from the lecturer and how much practice the students get from the lecturer.”*

Atkinson (1987) found that using the students' L1 helps the lecturer to check if the learners have understood or not, and helps the lecturers to give instructions to their students. This was also confirmed when Nguyen (1999: 40) and Zacharias (2003) reported on the use of L1 to teach the L2 and concluded that a majority of the lecturers in their study agreed with the use of L1 for teaching English. Indeed, it has been shown by some researchers that, to facilitate learners' understanding and acquisition of an L2, both students and teachers might occasionally need to use the L1 (Tang, 2002; Wells, 1999).

In contrast, only Malak, Hassan, and Othman disagreed with the use of the students' first language to translate words or sentences. For instance, Hassan said:

I consider that applying the first language inside the class is not good for lecturers while teaching reading. I agree to use it in the class only when the usage of English is not beneficial to make students understand the core idea.

This lecturer seemed to be in agreement with those scholars who are against using the students' L1 during English lessons. This viewpoint is supported by Phillipson (1992: 187), who found that those using the students' L1 were often shamed for doing something wrong. These lecturers seemed to avoid using the L1 in their reading classes in order to increase their students' abilities to use English.

Lecturers' beliefs about using an English-English dictionary

Similarities as well as differences were again recorded among lecturers in terms of their beliefs about using an English-English dictionary. Abd Allah, Hajer, Huda, Ali, Omar, and Othman agreed that students should use an English-English dictionary, saying that these dictionaries enrich students' vocabulary and enable them to paraphrase words when they engage in communication with other people. For example, Omar said, "*Using L2 helps both advanced and weaker learners to recall more newly learned words*", while Abd Allah added:

I sometimes ask my students to use English-English dictionaries instead of using Arabic, saying that English-English dictionaries enrich their vocabulary and enable them to paraphrase the words should they pronounce them mistakenly when they engage in a communicative situation with other people.

The above extract shows that these lecturers preferred to use a monolingual English-English dictionary first in order to increase students' vocabulary. Almost all of the lecturers considered the use of these kinds of dictionaries to be important in helping students to increase their understanding. They supported using this technique for teaching reading during their classes, as they believed that these dictionaries enrich students' vocabulary and enable them to paraphrase words when they engage in communication with other people. This conclusion supports the arguments put forward by Briggs (1987) and Thompson (1987), who found that using dictionaries as reliable sources for word meanings and spellings as well as for pronunciation is a widely recognised technique among second language learners. It could be argued that using such a technique enriches learners' knowledge and increases their understanding. On the other hand,

some lecturers, such as Moneer, Malak, and Hassan, disagreed with using English-English dictionaries, and they cited various reasons for this. For instance, Moneer stated, “*It is difficult for [students] to grasp the meaning of new words from monolingual dictionaries.*” This supports Gow et al.’s (1991) argument when they considered the use of monolingual English-English dictionary as a strategy employed by low-proficiency EFL learners. It could be argued that those lecturers believed that using an English-English dictionary might not increase learners’ skill in reading.

Lecturers’ beliefs about using an English-Arabic dictionary

The analysis of the interview data confirmed that lecturers had different points of view about using an English-Arabic dictionary. One group of lecturers, such as Hajer, Huda, Ali, Malak, and Hassan, supported using this technique of teaching reading during their classes. For example, Ali said:

I believe using this technique is beneficial for students to learn very quickly, especially when used to highlight new words or write them down on a sheet of paper to check them in an English–Arabic dictionary later.

The above extract reveals that this lecturer was keen to use an English–Arabic dictionary. These particular lecturers seemed to agree with Koren (1997:2), who found that the use of bilingual dictionaries might resolve some of the issues that monolingual dictionaries present. Indeed, most of the lecturers preferred to use a monolingual dictionary. On the other hand, the analysis of data revealed that Omar, Moneer, Abd Allah, and Othman considered that using an English–Arabic dictionary does not help students to improve their English vocabulary.

Lecturers’ beliefs about using an electronic dictionary

The analysis of the interview data revealed that the lecturers had similar beliefs about using electronic dictionaries. They all believed that using this kind of dictionary helps students to increase their English vocabulary and improve their pronunciation. However, they had different reasons for this belief. For example, Huda stated, “*I ask students to use electronic dictionaries in order to be able to listen to how new words are pronounced*”, while Malak added, “*My students use this kind of dictionary to listen to the pronunciation of new words.*” It seems that these

lecturers valued using an electronic dictionary, which can help students to save time, as they can find the meaning of new words quickly. The views of these particular lecturers seem to be in line with the views of Weschler and Pitts (2000: 1), who found that modern electronic dictionaries (EDs) can allow students to look up the definition of words 23% more rapidly than when using conventional dictionaries; however, the increase in speed that comes from using an ED may have a corresponding reduction in engagement and in the in-depth processing of words, which could mean that, ultimately, students learn less vocabulary. Stirling (2003: 2-3) also carried out a small survey of EFL lecturers who listed the following possible disadvantages of ED: “insufficient examples, inaccurate meanings, unintelligible pronunciation, lack of collocations, excess of meanings, and the absence of improvements found in other dictionaries.” In addition, Knight (1994: 285) indicated that educators might have another concern, which would apply to the use of all dictionaries: “Looking up words frequently interferes with short term memory and thus disrupts the comprehension process.” In this regard, it could be argued that while using electronic dictionaries saves time for learners, it can cause certain other issues.

5.2.2.4. Lecturers’ Beliefs about Adopting Supportive Activities

The analysis shows four main themes (see Table 5.12) regarding the lecturers’ beliefs about adopting a variety of other activities, which are presented together in this section during the teaching of reading to improve the learning of English. The findings related to this issue are presented in Table 5.12.

Table: 5.12. Lecturers’ beliefs about adopting supportive activities

Action	Lecturers’ beliefs about adopting supportive activities
1	Lecturers’ beliefs about sharing knowledge with other lecturers
2	Lecturers’ beliefs about discussing unclear expressions in the reading text with students
3	Lecturers’ beliefs about encouraging students to work in groups
4	Lecturers’ beliefs about assigning students to work in pairs on an exercise

Lecturers’ beliefs about sharing knowledge with other lecturers

The analysis revealed that all of the lecturers believed that sharing knowledge with other lecturers was important, as they all confirmed its value in teaching reading. For instance, Ali said, *“I do believe that sharing knowledge is very important technique for lecturers as it helps the less experienced lecturers when they require any information from more experienced lecturers”* Also, Moneer said, *“Sharing knowledge with other lecturers is necessary in teaching, but the problem is that none of the lecturers like to be involved in it. I do not know why”* while Hajer added, *“I have tried with some lecturers whom I know in my department, but there was no response.”* This was confirmed by Flores (2005:396), who mentioned that sharing knowledge is important and worthwhile for lecturers to become ‘socialized’ into the ethos of teaching: they start doing what their colleagues do and what their institutions recommend. However, the data show that not all of the lecturers were ready to share their personal knowledge, especially those who might have been suffering from a lack of self-confidence. This was confirmed by Huda, who stated, *“I believe the reason for ignoring sharing knowledge with other lecturers is that there are some lecturers who lack teaching knowledge and are afraid of the others.”* This indicates that these lecturers were aware of the technique of sharing knowledge with other lecturers although they did not apply it.

Lecturers’ beliefs about discussing unclear expressions in the reading text with students

The interview findings demonstrated that the discussion of ambiguous items with students depended on the objectives of each particular lesson. The lecturers used different techniques for teaching reading when their students did not understand items or sentences. Omar, Moneer, Ali, and Hajer used similar techniques. For instance, Omar said, *“I ask some other students to help the student who does not know the meaning of the item, and if they do not know either, I then clarify it for them.”* Moneer added, *“It is better to ask students in pairs to think for a while and work together to introduce the meaning of unclear items from the context.”* The interview data also revealed that Hassan, Othman, Huda, Abd Allah, and Malak were in agreement that the lecturer can encourage students to discuss ambiguous items with other students in groups. Thus, the lecturers seemed to want to use a variety of techniques wishing to help students to understand the meaning of new words and of whole sentences. Dewey further emphasises the importance of this idea, seeing it as a way to avoid the common division between theory and practice. Indeed, Widdowson (2003) also focused on this issue by underlining the idea that for teachers to experience professional growth, it is important that they be provided with opportunities to reflect

“on their own practice, and that of others” and so be able to “theorise about it” to help them thus understand their own practices by identifying and highlighting the principles that inform their practice (p. 3).

All these techniques are part of the strategy of good interaction that helps students to engage with and understand unclear expressions in the text. Brown (2001, 165) related such interaction to communication: “Interaction is, in fact, the heart of communication: it is what communication is all about.” It could be argued that the classroom is a form of community, and so personal relationships are a crucial element in guiding learners to discuss unclear expressions together. Regarding modern institutions, Wenger (1998) claimed they are based mainly on a view of learning is “an individual process” one that has “a beginning and an end, that it is best separated from the rest of our activities, and that it is the result of teaching” (p. 3).

Lecturers’ beliefs about encouraging students to work in groups

The findings from the interviews showed that all the lecturers believed that involving the students in working in groups was an essential technique in teaching reading. Othman, Moneer, Ali, Hajer, Huda, Abd Allah, Malak, Hassan, and Omar all thought that classroom interaction in group work was essential for lecturers and students to help each other to improve learning. For example, Malak said that “*classroom interaction or group work is like the energy which helps the students and lecturers to become very active in the classroom*”, while Huda stated:

I know the importance of applying group work interaction, but I failed. I asked students many times, if they could work in groups, but most students did not raise their hands, which means they could not apply this technique.

Othman added:

I asked learners to read the text or passage first, and then I asked them to work in groups in order to understand the whole meaning of the passage, but this technique did not work with them in many cases.

It is clear from the extracts above that the lecturers were aware of the significance of involving students in group work, although some of them offered reasons as to why they did not apply this

technique in their own classes. This is in line with the findings of Regan's (2003: 598) study, which showed that working in a group can have a positive effect on guiding students towards involvement in autonomous learning. In addition, Allwright (1984) argued that keeping learners' active during the class reduces the amount the lecturers speak in the classroom and, instead, increases students' speech time, as interaction happens when learners talk and engage in the classroom in pairs or in groups. In this regard, Garrett and Shortall (2002: 47) suggested that providing a variety of activities during group work will have a range of benefits for learners. Similarly, Ellis (2003: 267) believed that applying the technique of group work in the language classroom could provide an opportunity to cater for individual students' various requirements.

Lecturers' beliefs about assigning students to work in pairs on an exercise

There were similarities among the lecturers interviewed about assigning students to work in pairs. Othman, Moneer, Ali, Hajer, Huda, Abd Allah, Malak, Hassan, and Omar all stated that student-student interaction was necessary in teaching reading. For example, Huda said, "*I tried to push learners to interact in couples, but they could not. When I asked the students to read by using the words in the box, the students could not do it.*" Abd Allah also believed that the lecturer should encourage students to interact with each other. He added, "*I use this technique and divide students into pairs to complete the activity as a competition between them.*" To conclude, in one way, this finding is similar to Nunan's (1995:140-141) findings that, out of a selection of nine language learning activities, lecturers considered pair work to be essential but students considered it to have little importance. Orafi and Borg (2009: 247) also reported how three Libyan EFL lecturers' merged pair work activities into a question and answer session, as they failed to understand that their role in such activities was as facilitators.

5.2.2.5. Lecturers' Beliefs about Correcting Errors and Giving Feedback

The findings from the analysis of the semi-structured interview data showed that the lecturers seemed to have different beliefs about correcting students' errors and providing learners with feedback during reading classes. The issues that emerged from the data are presented in Table 5.13, and a brief review of the results is then given. Fang and Xue-mei (2007:10) stated that one of the most useful teaching processes in the learning of a foreign language is error correction, which is why this research intends to identify which techniques are the most appropriate for lecturers of reading in Libya to use when correcting their students' errors and giving feedback.

Table: 5.13. Lecturers' beliefs about correcting errors and giving feedback

Action	Lecturers' beliefs about correcting errors and giving feedback
1	Lecturers' beliefs concerning using direct correction immediately
2	Lecturers' beliefs about correcting students' errors while they are reading
3	Lecturers' beliefs about correcting students' errors after reading
4	Lecturers' beliefs about motivating students to participate in the classroom
5	Lecturers' beliefs about rejecting students' answers

Lecturers' beliefs concerning using direct correction immediately

The data showed that all of the lecturers, Omar, Moneer, Ali, Hajer, Huda, Abd Allah, Malak, Hassan, and Othman, were conscious of the significance of using direct correction. All of them believed that applying this type of correction helps learners to learn effective reading. For example, Moneer said, *"I would say the best way of correcting students' errors is by giving the correct answer immediately to the students, because it helps all students in the class to get the right answers without making them unsure about their answers."* This study confirmed that all of the lecturers were conscious of the significance of using direct correction and had a positive attitude towards this technique. These participants believed that applying this type of correction helps learners to learn effective reading. Similarly, Ellis (2006) mentioned that many studies have found that explicit feedback is more successful than implicit feedback, as lecturers using this form of feedback provide students with immediate feedback so that they do not commit the same errors again. Furthermore, corrective feedback is a response to errors in learners' utterances. These responses can take different forms, for example, they could merely indicate that there has been an error which has been committed, they could provide the desired target language form, they could take the form of metalinguistic information regarding the error, or they could be any combination of such responses (Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2009: 303).

However, the data also showed that there were some lecturers, such as Ali and Omar, who in some situations had a negative attitude to correcting errors immediately. For example, Ali said:

I support correcting students' errors immediately, although I believe it sometimes is not beneficial for them because misunderstandings might occur. At the same time, students in some situations cannot correct their errors, unless somebody helps them, which is difficult for lecturers. The problem is that some students cannot even grasp the lecturers' hints or options for answers.

These lecturers had a negative attitude about correcting students' errors immediately. This is in line with another group of researchers (e.g. Krashen, 1985, 1999; Hammond, 1988; Truscott, 1996, 1999), who claim that foreign language learning has many similarities to first language learning. Therefore, it is their opinion that if corrective feedback has any impact on the way the learner acquires the target language, it is so slight as to be negligible. Indeed, they feel that rather than being beneficial, error correction can have a negative effect and therefore it is important to avoid this type of correction, as it might activate the "affective filter" by making students increasingly anxious, thus preventing them from acquiring communicative competence.

Lecturers' beliefs concerning correcting students' errors while they are reading

Regarding correcting students' errors while they are reading, the findings revealed that all the lecturers believed that this technique is both necessary and important. Indeed, they were all aware of the significance of using this technique. For instance, Malak said, "*I believe lecturers should correct their students' errors during their reading; correcting the students' errors orally inside the class is essential for students' speech to know whether students know how to read the text correctly or not.*" This lecturer seemed to be conscious of the implications of correcting students' errors while they are reading in the class as a feedback technique. This was confirmed by Cook (2001), who found that it is beneficial to give feedback during classroom interactive activities.

Lecturers' beliefs about correcting students' errors after reading

Two patterns among the lecturers emerged from the data. Hajer, Huda, Ali, Malak, and Hassan believed that correcting students' errors after reading activities is better than correcting errors while students are reading; they thought that it is not helpful to interrupt students when they are reading. Such an approach seems to encourage students to communicate. For instance, Hassan said, "*I do not like to interrupt my students or bother them when they are reading.*" In contrast,

Omar, Moneer, Abd Allah and Othman stated that the technique of correcting students' errors after reading should not be applied and that lecturers should correct learners' errors directly or while reading to help students to recognise their errors and consider correcting them. It would also help other students in the class. For example, Othman said, "*correcting students' errors directly or during the activity helps other students not to repeat their classmate's error.*" In this regard, Cook (2001) argues that feedback and correcting student's errors is a result of the language interaction which occurs in the classroom. The second pattern was expressed by those lecturers who were against correcting students' errors after they have finished reading. These lecturers supported the technique of correcting learners' errors directly or while reading to assist students in recognising their errors so they can avoid repeating them in the future.

Lecturers' beliefs about motivating students to participate in the classroom

The data showed that the lecturers in this investigation believed that it is important to encourage students to contribute, as this is a valuable technique of providing feedback. The data also indicated that all of the lecturers agreed that learners would engage more if they were stimulated by their lecturers. For instance, Huda stated that "*a good lecturer encourages students by saying praising words*" while Othman added that "*motivating students to learn reading is useful for learners who suffer from a low English level.*" It is interesting that all of the lecturers in this investigation believed that it is important to encourage and motivate learners to participate as a helpful technique to engage students. These participants were in agreement that students would learn more if they were more motivated by their lecturers. This idea is confirmed by Harmer (1998: 65), who found that this technique is considered to have two benefits: it is considered to improve students' confidence, and it enables the lecturer to have a general idea regarding whether the students have understood the lesson or not. This could lead "students to be comfortable taking intellectual risks because they know that they will not be embarrassed or criticised if they make a mistake" (Good & Brophy 1994: 215). However, the data also indicated that one lecturer, Othman, did not completely agree with other lecturers; he argued that "*motivating students to learn reading is useful for learners who suffer from a low English level.*" Cook (2001) also confirmed that the way a teacher manages to motivate his/her students and his/her treatment of them are essential elements in teaching a language successfully, and these elements are closely related to the level of students' achievements in learning a language. Thus, it is crucial that EFL lecturers manage the motivation techniques within the classroom, as their

ability to do so can help their students regarding the learning of reading and, in turn, this can help motivate the students in learning the target language.

Lecturers' beliefs about rejecting students' answers

The interview results showed that the lecturers took different positions concerning rejecting students' answers and giving negative feedback. Omar, Moneer, Ali and Hajer were in agreement that rejecting students' answers is a form of direct unenthusiastic feedback. For instance, Hajer commented, "*Although I know rejecting students' answers is not good, sometimes I am forced to do it.*" They all agreed that rejecting students' answers is not helpful in the teaching process. When such behaviour occurs, students may hesitate to give their answers in future classes with these lecturers.

They all agreed that rejecting students' answers is not helpful in the learning and teaching processes. However, they felt that this technique can be applied in some cases and should be done in such a way that it does not present a negative image of the student in front of other students. For example, Othman stated, "*I use my previous knowledge when I politely reject the student's answer.*" These lecturers seemed to be in agreement with the view which says that lecturers using implicit feedback could rephrase the learner's utterance by providing and changing one or more constituents of the sentences (Mackey, 2007). Therefore, it can be argued that providing students with positive feedback during the classroom may motivate them to participate more in future activities. This is because the technique of providing feedback seemed to be a result of the language interaction which occurs in the classroom (Cook, 2001). In fact, it could be argued that this is in line with Cook's (2001) claim that the way a teacher treats his/her students and the methods he/she uses to motivate them can be crucial factors regarding success in teaching a language, and these factors are closely linked to students' level of achievement when it comes to learning a language.

5.2.2.6. Lecturers' Beliefs about Teaching Vocabulary

The findings gained from the interviews showed that the lecturers seemed to have different beliefs about teaching vocabulary. The main aim here is to explore using vocabulary techniques for teaching English reading. The themes that emerged are shown in Table 5.14.

Table: 5.14. Lecturers' beliefs about teaching vocabulary

Action	Lecturers' beliefs about teaching vocabulary
1	Lecturers' beliefs about encouraging students to understand the meanings of new words in their context
2	Lecturers' beliefs about letting students study vocabulary by themselves
3	Lecturers' beliefs about using images of word meanings
4	Lecturers' beliefs about increasing students' English vocabulary

Lecturers' beliefs about encouraging students to understand the meanings of new words in their context

The analysis of data provided a picture of the lecturers' points of view concerning using different techniques to assist students in understanding the meanings of new words in their context. Four lecturers (Omar, Moneer, Malak and Ali) believed that understanding the meanings of new words in context is important. For instance, Omar stated, "*I let students write any new word with its meaning several times to learn the exact meaning of the word*", while Ali stated, "*I believe studying new words is essential to develop reading skills.*" On the other hand, the other five lecturers, Hajer, Huda, Abd Allah, Hassen, and Othman, believed that, in order to understand the meaning from the context, lecturers should paraphrase the word's meaning and study the parts of speech and the affixes and roots of new words. For example, Abd Allah commented, "*I analyse affixes, add or omit prefixes or suffixes to show the meanings of new words.*" Analysing words morphologically to obtain the meaning helps in terms of increasing student's knowledge of words. Moreover, Hassan added:

I believe lecturers should ask their students to reword new words even when they use their word lists. They get into the habit of writing the new words combined with the meaning in their word list. I believe doing so facilitates learning processes of new words.

All of these strategies were used by the lecturers to increase students' understanding of new vocabulary in context. Thus, it can be seen that teachers aim not only to develop the strategies

students need for learning new vocabulary, but also to show students how to apply them successfully when reading. Nuttall (2005) identified what he termed word attack skills and stated that these need to be taught explicitly; for instance, demonstrating to students the structure of the vocabulary, the way words are related, the best way to use a dictionary, how to identify which words are not essential to the meaning of the sentence or phrase, or how to use both structural and contextual information to decode unknown words that are crucial to understanding (Nuttall, 2005: 69–76). Moreover, vocabulary acquisition could also be helped by making students aware of how individual words occur with different frequencies and with varied meanings depending on the discipline and the genre (Hyland, 2006: 12). Using language corpora could help learners to increase their awareness of such techniques (Lee & Swales, 2006; Sinclair, 1991). Furthermore, students can be helped to understand and remember words and their meanings by the use of graphic organizers and visuals (Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007).

Lecturers' beliefs about letting students study vocabulary by themselves

Almost all of the lecturers were aware of independent learning techniques, such as letting students study vocabulary by themselves. Hassan, Omar, Ali, Hajer, Moneer, Huda, and Othman were in agreement that it is possible for students to discover the meaning of vocabulary by themselves. For example, Othman stated, *“I believe it is a good method to leave students to think about the meaning of any new word at least for a while. This lets students use their previous knowledge to know the meaning of the new vocabulary.”* In contrast, only two lecturers, Abd Allah and Malak, believed that it is impossible for learning processes to occur unless supported by lecturers. For instance, Abd Allah commented, *“Learning new words should be supported by lecturers to make students acquire the new words easily”*, and Malak added, *“I believe that it is impossible for learners to learn new words unless supported by lecturers.”* In order to make students more independent, the lecturer should develop a good, trusting, and respectful relationship with them and ensure that the students feel they are important by listening to their views and ideas and discussing issues with them both inside the classroom and elsewhere. Lecturers should also demonstrate that they value students' abilities and efforts, and should encourage them to be more enthusiastic and stimulated about their subjects and to enjoy their lessons. Discovery strategies include both determination strategies and social strategies. Thus, a student may find out the meaning of a new word by picking up clues from the context, by using an L1 cognate, by making use of reference materials (mainly a dictionary), or by asking someone, for example, another learner or their teacher. It would seem that nearly all the

strategies used in discovery activities could also be employed as consolidation strategies once students have progressed to the later stages of learning vocabulary (Schmitt 1997).

Lecturers' beliefs about using an image showing the word's meaning

The data obtained showed that three lecturers, Malak, Hassan and Othman, used images of word meanings as a memory strategy. They believed that this kind of technique was useful to increase students' vocabulary and to improve their reading skills. For instance, Malak said, "*I make links between words and their images. This can only take place with concrete words. Imagination, according to those students, facilitates learning and the memorisation of concrete words.*"

In contrast, the data also revealed that the other lecturers, Omar, Moneer, Ali, Hajer, Huda and Abd Allah, did not use images to teach English vocabulary. They all held similar points of view and agreed that they did not use this technique. For example, Omer said, "*Acquiring new words with the usage of word images is not used in my class*", and Abd Allah added, "*I have no idea about learning new words with word images.*" This indicates that there was a mismatch between lecturers' beliefs regarding learning vocabulary. Wright (1990) indicated that the "potential of pictures is so great that only a taste of their full potential can be given" (Wright 1990: 6). More specifically, pictures need not be the main focus of the lesson, but they could simply be used in a supporting role as a "stimulus for writing and discussion, as an illustration of something being read or talked about, as background to a topic and so on" (Hill 1990: 2). Nonetheless, "pictures have their limitations too" (McCarthy 1992: 115). In teaching vocabulary, for example, pictures are not able to demonstrate the meaning of all words (McCarthy 1992: 115; Thornbury 2004: 81); it is difficult to provide an illustration of the meaning of certain words, in particular those that define an abstract concept, such as 'opinion' or 'effect'.

Lecturers' beliefs about increasing students' English vocabulary

The analysis of the data showed that all of the lecturers tried to increase their students' English vocabulary, but in different ways. Similarities as well as differences were identified in the techniques used by the lecturers. Ali, Omar, Hajer, Abd Allah and Malak had similar points of view about how to develop students' technical vocabulary. Hajer, for example, said, "*I believe using word lists is most important for students to learn English vocabulary.*" Meanwhile, Omar and Ali believed that using repetition and taking notes can be helpful in increasing students'

vocabulary knowledge. However, the other participants, namely, Moneer, Othman, Huda and Hassan, differed in their views about the techniques for teaching vocabulary. For instance, Huda said, *“I used to write the meaning of the new words above the words or in the margins of books when I was a student. I also ask my students to use this technique in my classes.”* Moneer and Othman believed that putting English labels on physical objects is a good technique to help students to learn English vocabulary, while Hassan said that students may also affix word lists to the walls in their rooms to refer to as well. Moneer added, *“I always advise my students to use English media, such as watching TV, listening to the radio, and listening to songs, in order to increase their vocabulary.”*

Moreover, Ghanea and Pisheh (2001: 460) found that the theory of motivation suggests that there is an incentive that encourages an individual to take part in the activity that is focused on the achievement of a particular goal, such as increasing students’ English vocabulary. Those students who are already motivated will be prepared to engage completely with activities for language learning. Indeed, motivation and positive reinforcement are viewed as being more effective than punishment or negative reinforcement. Coon and Mitterer (2007) held the view that punishment has a negative effect on students’ learning as evidence suggests that students simply repeat the same thing continually (p. 241). Therefore, the lecturer should use positive or motivational phrases, for example, “Okay” and “Good” to indicate that the praise is given meaningfully because a significant amount of the feedback teachers give can appear automatic and therefore it is unclear what its effect on learners might be (Nunan, 1991: 197).

5.2.2.7. Lecturers’ Beliefs about Evaluating the Teaching Techniques Used

The data revealed lecturers’ different beliefs concerning the evaluation of teaching techniques to improve teaching during reading classes. The main findings are presented in Table 5.15.

Table: 5.15. Lecturers’ beliefs about evaluating teaching techniques used

Action	Lecturers’ beliefs about evaluating teaching techniques used
1	Lecturers’ beliefs about checking students’ understanding
2	Lecturers’ beliefs about summarising the text

Lecturers' beliefs about checking students' understanding

The results obtained from the interviews with the nine lecturers showed that they all believed that checking students' understanding is an essential part of the process of teaching and learning reading, although they had different reasons for this. The findings illustrated that the lecturers applied their own techniques to check their students' understanding. Omar, Moneer, Ali, Hassan and Othman had diverse goals while applying this technique, although agreement between lecturers was shown when, for instance, Othman said:

I always encourage students to engage with all that I teach, and the best technique for checking students' understanding is through asking students to give the meaning from the passages, because this is simple and straightforward to teach, and it helps learners to test their reading. I believe this technique is very good at revealing students' ability.

The findings also revealed that other lecturers, such as Hajer, Huda, Abd Allah and Malak, had similar views about engaging learners when they wanted to verify their understanding of reading. For example, Abd Allah said, *"Using this technique helped me to know if the students understood what we have done or not"*, while Hajer added that *"checking students' understanding gives an indication of whether to move to a new activity or repeat the old one."* Hedge (2000) found that, in order to support students' learning, lecturers should use any information that they have been able to obtain regarding their students' progress to provide a foundation for future learning and checking students' understanding. These lecturers seemed to know the value of using this technique although some lecturers had diverse reasons for applying it. Sutton (1992:3) stated that this technique can be used "every few minutes." He also stated that, without checking students understanding, lecturers are not able to teach efficiently. It can be argued that lecturers cannot know whether their students have understood their explanations unless they apply this procedure.

Lecturers' beliefs about summarising the text

The analysis of the data revealed two different views concerning summarising texts. Certain lecturers, such as Huda, Abd Allah, Malak, Hassan and Othman, stated that they believed that summarising the text was important as an approach to increase learners' understanding. In their interviews, they said that they utilised this technique. For example, Malak mentioned:

I usually summarise texts for students and help them to do the same when I ask them to [summarize the text]. I consider it as proof to show me that they have understood the text. This technique helps students to understand more about the lesson.

However, the findings showed that Omar, Moneer, Ali and Hajer did not apply this technique during their reading lessons. Ali said:

To be honest, I have never used this technique in my classes although it might be useful in order to assess students' understanding during the class. I think it is better to use it with students with an advanced level of English.

Ali said, *"I have never used this technique in my classes."* These differences support Borg's (2003, 2006) findings, which confirmed that the relationship between beliefs and practice is complicated regarding summarising text. Summarising is an important technique when it comes to developing an understanding of a text's meaning. It is "an accurate and objective account of the text, leaving out our reaction to it" and involves rejecting minor details, so that students are obliged to read for meaning (Grellet, 1996: 13, 22-24).

In brief, the findings show that the lecturers held various views about teaching and evaluating teaching techniques. The participants occasionally agreed but sometimes disagreed regarding their views on specific teaching techniques.

5.2.2.8. Factors that Influence Lecturers' Beliefs and Practices

Generally, the data show that certain factors are responsible for shaping lecturers' beliefs and practices. Firstly, professional training or the lack thereof influences lecturers' beliefs and practices. For example, regarding this issue, Moneer said, *"I have not heard about these three approaches before, but I know that there are different styles of teaching English reading."* When asked by the interviewer why he had not previously heard about these approaches, he said that "the lack of training courses for university lecturers might be one of the factors preventing them from knowing or being familiar with these approaches to teaching." Similarly, Malak stated, *"I do not know the names of these methods of teaching reading."* When the interviewer asked her, *"Do you know why you don't know these methods?"*, she answered, *"This might be related to the weakness of the syllabus and lack of training courses. Thanks for your help and for making me familiar with these terms."* These responses suggest that they have not graduated from a teacher

training course because there are two faculties in Libyan universities: the Faculty of Arts, which teaches approaches to teaching English and the Faculty of Science, which does not (see section 5.2.1.1, p. 93 for more information).

Secondly, experience has some impact on lecturers' beliefs and practices, as these appear to have been influenced by their own learning background. For example, Abd Allah said, "I was influenced by my lecturer's way of teaching reading when I was a student. He always advised us to learn reading independently." When Abd Allah was asked why he had been influenced by his lecturer when he was a student, he replied, "*Because I feel that the method my lecturer used when I was a student was helpful to learners, and the techniques used were very convenient, especially for me*" (see section 5.2.1.1, p. 95 for further information).

Thirdly, institutional factors and learner variables also influence lecturers' beliefs and practices. As long as the assessment of learners in Libyan universities remains traditional and not communicative, learners will have to learn reading to pass their examinations. In this case, lecturers are assessed in terms of academic success as measured by their students' performance in examinations. The scores or grades that the students achieve in examinations are taken to reflect the quality of the lecturing. All the above factors are considered to have most influence on the lecturers' use of teaching techniques. For example, Moneer said that "*examinations influence lecturers' performance and also forced me to assess the techniques used*" (see section 5.2.1.7, p. 123 for more information).

Educational background is a further important learner variable. For preliterate students, who lack any formal education, focusing on form will not be productive. However, literate, well-educated learners will benefit from being taught using formal instruction and having their errors corrected, as it will provide them with a challenge. Thus, not only will it avoid them becoming frustrated, but in addition, it will assist them in becoming both more accurate and fluent in the L2 (Celce-Murcia, 1991).

Fourthly, the data showed that instructional materials influenced the lecturers' performance in teaching reading in this study. If lecturers do not have the freedom to choose their own instructional materials, their beliefs and practices will be affected. Some lecturers even said that the textbook is 'law' and must be followed. For example, Malak said that "*following the textbook always restricted me from applying what I feel is applicable for my students, and it also affects*

my performance in some situations.” As in Borg and Burns’ (2008) study, the teaching practices of lecturers in this study were considerably influenced by the instructional materials used.

Fifthly, class size is considered to be one of the main factors that affects lecturers’ beliefs and practices in teaching reading. Indeed, Malak, Omar, Huda, and Ali all said that class size is one of the most important issues that affect lecturers’ performance in their teaching of reading. For example, Ali said that *“class size is one of the reasons that prevent me from applying my preferred techniques in teaching reading; for instance, the communicative approach cannot be applied in classes of 55 students.”* Cooper (1989), Bennett (1996) and Achilles (1999) investigated interactions between teachers and learners in the classroom, and found that increasing class size correlates with a reduction in the amount of time teachers can dedicate to instructing individual students, which in turn has a negative effect on the teaching and learning process.

Sixthly, the language skills of the lecturers affect their beliefs and practices in teaching reading. Lecturers would find it difficult to teach reading using different methods unless they themselves are able to speak the language with accuracy and fluency. For example, Moneer commented, *“The lack of proficiency with some lecturers may affect their teaching performance in the class, and also the lack of training courses will also affect their practices.”* Therefore, it is crucial that the language skills of EFL lecturers in reading are of a high standard so that they can make a positive contribution when teaching students. Carless (1999) argued that it is important for teachers to acquire the skills and knowledge that they need to implement something. This is particularly true if what they are teaching differs slightly from their usual methods.

To help EFL learners apply their knowledge of reading, it is important that lecturers should motivate them to learn how to read effectively. In this regard, House (1997) commented that language teaching is usually delivered in the classroom in accordance with a long-held belief concerning the order in which the stages of language acquisition occur; namely, listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Seventhly, lecturers must have a high level of awareness of their own language skills, and should reflect upon their knowledge and their abilities. In addition, these reflections offer an additional cognitive dimension to the teacher’s knowledge and awareness of language, which in turn informs the tasks of both planning and teaching (Andrews, 1999b:163). Andrews also felt it was

important to make a distinction between the educated user's knowledge and awareness of a language and the language that the teacher of that language requires. In this case, some lecturers in this study, such as Omar, said that *"lecturers are supposed to be aware of their knowledge about language teaching and should increase their language awareness regarding the teaching of reading and English language generally."*

Andrews (2001) carried out a study to explore how lecturers' language awareness affects their classroom practice. His research revealed that this awareness plays a basic role in the way lecturers structure input for students. In addition, he identified a number of factors that influenced how the input to which the learners are exposed could be influenced or filtered; these included time constraints, the teacher's explicit knowledge, and their confidence. Many studies, for example by Grossman et al. (1989), Wright and Bolitho (1993), Leech (1994), and Thornbury (1997), have demonstrated how teachers' subject-matter knowledge affects their practice. For example, according to Grossman et al. (1989: 28), both "knowledge, and the lack of it, of the content can influence the way teachers evaluate textbooks, the way they choose material to teach, the way they structure their courses, and the way they provide instruction." This is particularly applicable when a teacher is not aware of and so cannot take into account the shortcomings in a textbook, or is 'caught out' by a student's question about the language. They went on to say that in such situations, it is important for teachers to be able to use their linguistic knowledge, not because they need to offer students the 'correct answers', but because they need to offer students the expertise required to help them to overcome the difficulties they are facing (ibid.: 292).

Finally, educational culture is critical factor in any society; because a teacher's practices are influenced by sociocultural factors (Sharnim, 1996; Tudor, 2001). So it is important that teachers comprehend the educational culture of the students. Indeed, it should be noted that teachers and students bring with them to the classroom their existing knowledge and thoughts about what should take place inside the classroom, particularly regarding what to teach and what methods to use to teach.

Shamim (1996:119) commented that the culture of the wider community will influence how learners behave in the classroom. In addition, she commented that it is easier for any improvement to be rejected due to the similarity between the expectations about the protocol of teacher/learner activities in the classroom and the culture of the community in which the learning takes place. However, it is possible for learners to resolve that issue if their teachers are willing

to explain to them that their learning of the L2 will improve if they are able to alter their ideas and think in a variety of ways that are in accordance with the target language they aim to learn. In this study, some of the lecturers, such as Ali, Monner, Othman, and Moneer, mentioned that the behaviour of the learners affected their way of teaching when they applied some of the teaching techniques. For example, Ali commented, *“When I apply some of the teaching techniques, such as working in pairs or in groups, I feel that some students are not happy with these techniques, and they feel shy when they talk to each other, especially male and female learners, because of their culture.”* In this case, it could be said that this factor influences lecturers’ performance when they teach reading.

Furthermore, in Libya, textbooks are viewed as the second most important source of knowledge. Students receive a range of textbooks from the university and they are supposed to assimilate their content without ever raising queries regarding their credibility, as in Libya education is traditional in character, in both teaching methods and curriculum. Its aim is to provide students with information, but there is little or no interest in scientific thinking methods (Libyan National Commission for Education, 2004:65). In this investigation, most of the lecturers believed that textbooks are responsible for shaping their practice. For example, Abd Allah said, *“Textbooks are one of the obstructions that affect my performance when I teach reading”* while Ali added, *“The syllabus in my university restricted me from applying what I wanted to teach, and for this reason, I changed my technique several times in the classroom.”*

In accordance with the above, in Libyan educational culture, students’ role in the classroom involves sitting quietly and learning off by heart information the lecturer gives them. Students have to be polite when debating or discussing issues with the lecturers while the chairs and desks are set out in rows, all facing to the front of the classroom. Students are meant to participate normally in classroom activities when lecturers call upon them to do so. Given these assumptions, students might feel inhibited about participating in classroom activities where they are meant to be actively involved (Orafi, 2008).

In brief, it is obvious that, in Libya, there is a range of factors that affect the prevailing educational culture. Such factors are pivotal in Libyan society and have an important role to play in influencing what takes place in classrooms in Libya.

5.3. Section Three: Significance of the Relationships between Teachers' Beliefs and Practices

Most research in second language learning now focuses more on effective reading strategies as these increase comprehension. Researchers, however, have been unable to demonstrate any consistency between language teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices (Fang, 1996; Breen et al., 2001; Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004; Chou 2008; Khonamri & Salim, 2010). The present research differs from previous studies, as it explores the relationship between lecturers' beliefs and their classroom practices in teaching reading in the Libyan HE context (see section 3.4). In this section, the analysis and the discussion focus on the relationship between what the lecturers said they believed concerning the development of students' English reading skills and what they actually did in class when they were teaching English reading in Libyan universities. This study was able to demonstrate that there was a relatively strong relationship between what lecturers said they believed and what they practised in the classroom; supporting the claim that lecturers of English teach according to their theoretical beliefs. This study also shows that there are clear and important differences in what lecturers believe (Kuzborska, 2011). Indeed, this research has identified similarities and differences in the relationship between the lecturers' beliefs and their practices in terms of teaching reading.

In addition, a one-to-many relationship has been identified, and thus, it can be said that the results in this investigation differ in various ways from the findings of other studies in the literature (see sections 3.2.2 and 3.6). For example, congruence was found between the beliefs and practices of the nine lecturers in the sample. Notwithstanding individual variations in the performance of their roles, the lecturers in the investigation as a whole presented a quite regular relationship between the practices they applied in the reading classes and the beliefs they expressed about their work during the interviews. Northcote (2009:71) claimed that the lack of congruence between what lecturers believe and what they practise in the classroom is not necessarily a flaw, but rather should be viewed as an opportunity to interpret language learning and teaching in greater depth.

The discussion of the findings is based on the main themes that were identified from the data analysis sections. The themes to be discussed are: presenting reading techniques, using comprehension techniques, employing interpretation techniques, correcting errors and providing feedback, using techniques for the teaching of vocabulary, and evaluating the teaching techniques used.

The diagram below illustrates how lecturers' beliefs and their practices in reading classes are related. The seven main themes are presented in the circles in the diagram followed by lecturers' classroom practice (from observation) and their beliefs (from interview data). The main interesting findings are discussed below.

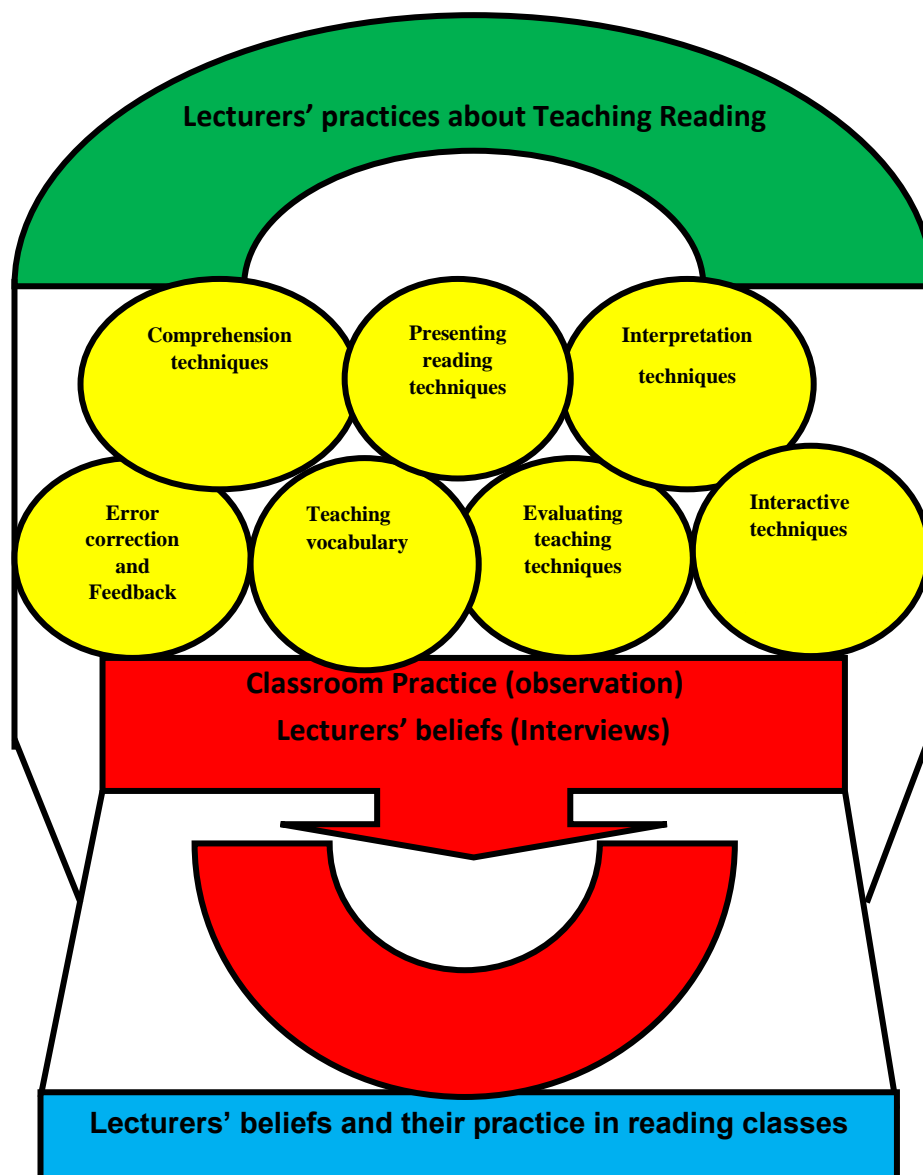






























Figure 5.3.1: Lecturers' beliefs and how they are applied

5.3.1. Significance of the Relationship between Lecturers' Beliefs and their Practices in Using Reading Techniques

The analysis of the data obtained from the classroom observations and semi-structured interviews revealed that there are different relationships between the lecturers' beliefs and their

practices while teaching reading. Table 5.3.1 shows the relationships found between lecturers' beliefs and practices.

Table 5.3.1. Relationship between lecturers' beliefs and practices in using reading techniques

Lecturers										Relationships	
N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Similarities	Differences
	Othman	Moneer	Ali	Hajer	Huda	Abd Allah	Malak	Hassan	Omar		
1							-	-		<i>Lecturers were not aware of the top-down approach to teaching reading, but they used it.</i>	
2	-	-	-	-	-	-			-	<i>Lecturers used the bottom-up approach to teaching reading, but were not aware of it.</i>	
3	-			-						<i>Lecturers were not aware of the interactive approach to teaching reading, but they used it</i>	
4	-	-					-		-	<i>Lecturers believed that the top-down approach is the best, and they applied it.</i>	
5		-		-	-	-		-		<i>Lecturers believed that the top-down approach is the best, but they did not apply it.</i>	
6	-		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>Lecturers believed that the interactive approach is the best, and they applied it.</i>	

A tick in the table above refers to a similarity and a cross refers to a difference between a lecturer's belief and their practice in using a reading technique.

Similarities between beliefs and practices in presenting reading techniques

In addition to the differences between the beliefs and practices among the nine teachers, similarities were also found in terms of presenting reading techniques. Speaking of the role of the teacher, some lecturers reported that they preferred employing particular approaches to teaching reading, and they were observed applying them in their classes.

The findings revealed that there was a relationship of congruence when the lecturers Hajer, Ali, Abd Allah, Huda, and Hassan believed that the top-down approach to teaching reading is the best, and they applied it. For example, Hassan said:

I prefer to teach by the method which best helps me to achieve my lesson aims. Normally I begin with the largest unit and then move to the smallest one to understand the text and I think that is the best way to teach reading.

The same lecturer was observed using this approach in his classes. This confirms that there was congruence between the lecturer's thoughts and practices. Indeed, most of the lecturers had a positive attitude towards using the top-down approach to reading, and they were also seen to apply this approach during their classes (see sections 5.3 and 5.5.1). This means that there was congruence between what they believed and what they did. These lecturers thought this kind of approach the best because it helped them to achieve their learning objectives for each lesson. Thus, these lecturers' practices were affected by their beliefs. Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000) argued that there is now growing proof of the ways in which their education can influence lecturers' beliefs and knowledge. Ebrahim et al. (2014) pointed out that before they can effectively change their classroom practices, EFL teachers have first to change their beliefs about these practices.

Another interesting finding from the analysis is that only one lecturer put into practice what he believed in his classes in terms of the interactive approach to teaching reading. He commented, "I use the interactive approach to teach reading because it is easy for me, and it helps the students to understand more readily." This was also observed in his class. For example, he asked

students to look at their worksheets, and he started talking about the Internet and about how to travel without travel documents to any part of the world. Indeed, he spent a significant amount of time discussing and explaining many things about the Internet. In the first text, he started explaining the topic generally and gave a basic idea about the text, and then he started explaining every single unit in the text. However, he approached the second text differently, in that he started explaining the new expressions and terminologies in the text, and then afterwards, gave the general idea about the text. This means that there was congruence between Moneer's beliefs and his practices. This lecturer considered this approach to be easy to implement, and believed that it helps the students to understand the text more readily. Anderson (2003:73) stated that "reading is an interactive process of both bottom-up and top-down processes, and while reading readers follow both of these two approaches simultaneously." In this case, it can be argued that this lecturer was aware of the interactive approach to the teaching of reading.

Differences between beliefs and practices in presenting reading techniques

The statements of certain lecturers suggested that they were aware of presenting techniques for the teaching of English reading; however, these lecturers were not observed to apply these beliefs in the classroom. This indicates that there were mismatches between what the lecturers said they believed and what seemed to be their actual teaching practice. These mismatches occurred regarding lecturers' presentation of reading techniques. A review of the relevant literature shows that, to date, there has been no research to explore these issues with regard to the teaching of English reading in terms of lecturers' beliefs about such techniques (see section and 3.6). Thus, there is a need for a more in-depth investigation of the relationship between lecturers' beliefs and their practices, as there could be pedagogical implications regarding teacher cognition and the teaching of reading.

The findings showed that some lecturers were not aware of the top-down approach to teaching reading, but they applied it. There was incongruence between Omar's, Othman's, Moneer's, Ali's, Hajer's, Huda's and Abd Allah's beliefs and their practices regarding using top-down techniques for teaching reading in the classroom. For example, Omar said, "Actually, I have not heard these three terms for a long time." while Moneer added, "I have not heard about these three approaches before, but I know that there are different styles of teaching English reading." During the observation stage, however, these lecturers applied the top-down approach some of the time. These lecturers began their classes with the largest unit of the text and then moved to

smaller units to explain the text. These lecturers justified their lack of awareness by saying that they had never heard of this term before. The top-down approach enables students to have a sense of perspective and to utilise all the knowledge and understanding that they bring to the text, aspects that, at times, have not been sufficiently valued in the teaching of reading (Nuttall, 1996: 17). This approach is suggested irrespective of whether the lecturers are aware of it because it is directly related to the reader's schemata of his/her personal knowledge and experiences (ibid., 1996).

Moreover, the findings obtained from the interviews and observations showed there were some lecturers (Hassan and Malak) who applied the bottom-up approach to teaching reading, but they were not aware of it. For example, they read the text to the students and investigated every word and sentence in order to help students to understand the text. For instance, Malak commented, "*I did not know the name of these methods of teaching reading. Thanks for your help and making me familiar with these terms.*" This means there was a mismatch between what they said they believed and what they did regarding this approach to teaching reading. In this case, it can be argued that these lecturers seemed to need training sessions to undergo continuous professional development where they could be exposed to different approaches, become familiar with the terminology for such approaches, and learn how they can apply them. However, their justification was they were not familiar with these terms, although they were observed reading the text to the students and investigating every word and sentence in order to help learners to understand the text. This means that they understood that the graded reader approach is an important element when using the bottom-up approach to reading with learners (Anderson, 2003). These lecturers also knew that students start by learning the easiest vocabulary first and then progress to learning difficult words. Some teachers who are keen to use the bottom-up approach believe that "the reader builds up a meaning from the black marks on the page: recognizing letters and words, working out sentence structure" (Nuttall, 1996: 17). Readers employ this process consciously if they find the initial reading confusing. This is because in the bottom-up approach to reading, graphemes are used to form words, after which words are seen to form sentences, and finally, the sentences are used to form paragraphs (Parry, 1987).

Interestingly, although most of the lecturers (Huda, Ali, Abd Allah, Malak, Hassan, Moneer, and Omar) were not aware of the interactive approach to the teaching of reading, they applied it. This means that there was incongruence between what they said they believed about the interactive approach to teaching reading and what they did in their classes. These lecturers apparently had

similar levels of awareness about this approach to teaching. A concrete example of this was when Ali said that he was not aware of the interactive approach, yet the data obtained from the classroom observations showed that he applied this approach in his classes. He started by explaining what a text entitled “A Large Memory” was about, and then he explained how the diversity of the United States had contributed to the development of American culture. He asked students to think about the topic and discuss it with their partners and then to share ideas with classmates. This indicates that these lecturers also were not familiar with the terminology of the methods of teaching reading and seemed not to have heard about this approach previously. Nonetheless, after the clarification of the term ‘interactive’ by the researcher, Moneer said that he preferred to “*use the interactive approach to teach reading because it is easy for me, and it helps the students to understand more readily.*” This was confirmed by Schreiber and Moss (2002:1), who argue that “our beliefs guide our desires and shape our practice.” It can be argued that hypothesis formation is not possible without detection; however, it should be noted that for detection to occur awareness is not essential, but that detection is nevertheless a crucial element of attention. Schmidt (1990, 1993) defined awareness as understanding and claimed that ‘understanding’ signifies a higher level of awareness than merely noticing. Tomlin and Villa (1994) also believed that awareness is not an essential element and that although attention is a crucial element of awareness, awareness is not a crucial element of attention. Attention involves three components: alertness, orientation, and detection. Of these, it is only detection that is the main organism of selective attention. In this case, it can be concluded that teachers should have an awareness of all of these techniques to achieve their learning objectives for each lesson. This is because the interactive process involves three important factors that the teachers need to demonstrate: conceptual abilities, background knowledge, and process strategies. So, for a successful reading, a reader must possess a basic intellectual ability (Coady, 1979: 7). This finding has positive educational effects on lecturers’ classes, although they were not aware of teaching reading interactively. This issue is not mentioned in previous studies related to teaching reading as a foreign language (see section 3.5).

In addition, the analysis revealed that some lecturers believed that the top-down approach to teaching reading is the best, but they did not apply it. This means that there was incongruence between what these lecturers said they believed and what they did in their classes. These lecturers (Omar, Malak, Ali, and Othman) said they preferred the top-down approach, but they adopted bottom-up techniques in their teaching. This is confirmed by Ali’s comment:

I prefer the top-down approach to teach English reading, but I use the bottom-up approach. The reason behind using this is that if I applied the top-down technique, the students would not understand what I do or say. For that reason, I employ the bottom-up approach to teach reading.



The extract above reveals that there was a significant difference between what lecturers claimed they believed and what they actually did in their classes. The top-down approach to reading involves readers using their background knowledge, previous experiences, and predictions to develop an understanding of the reading text (Richard, Platt & Weiber, 1987: 296). These lecturers wanted to apply this approach because it can provide a sense of perspective and take advantage of all the knowledge and experience that the reader brings to the text (Nuttal, 1996: 17).

In summary, the data regarding this theme revealed six relationships of similarity and four of differences between beliefs and practices concerning the use of reading techniques, as illustrated in Table 5.3.1.

5.3.2. The Significance of the Relationships between Lecturers' Beliefs and Their Practices Regarding Using Comprehension Techniques

This section focuses on lecturers' beliefs and their practices in terms of using comprehension techniques. The findings from the semi-structured interviews and the observations of classes show that the lecturers seemed to have various beliefs and applied different comprehension techniques during the teaching of English reading.

Table 5.3.2. The relationships between lecturers' beliefs about and their practices regarding using comprehension techniques

Lecturers										Relationships	
N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Similarities	Differences
	Othman	Moneer	Ali	Hajer	Huda	Abd Allah	Malak	Hassan	Omar		

1	-	-	-	-	✓	-	✓	-	✓	Lecturers knew about the reading quickly technique, and they applied it.
2	-	✗	✗	✗	-	✗	-	-	-	Lecturers knew about the reading quickly technique, but they did not apply it.
3	✓	-	-	-	-	-	-	✓	-	Lecturers did not have any beliefs about reading quickly, and they did not do it.
4	✗	-	-	-	-	-	✗	✗	-	Lecturers believed that the reading silently technique is not necessary for students, but they applied it.
5	-	-	-	✓	-	-	-	-	✓	Lecturers believed that the reading silently technique is good for students, and they applied it.
6	-	✗	✗	-	✗	✗	-	-	-	Lecturers believed that the reading silently technique is good for students, but they did not apply it.
7	-	-	-	-	✗	✗	-	✗	✗	Lecturers were not aware of the technique of creating mental pictures of what is being read, but they applied it.
8	-	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	-	-	Lecturers were not aware of the technique of creating mental pictures of what is being read, and they did not apply it.
9	✗	-	-	-	-	-	✗	-	-	Lecturers were not aware of the technique of creating mental pictures of what is being read, but they applied it.
10	-	✓	✓	-	✓	-	-	-	✓	Lecturers believed that asking students to consider what is highlighted in the text is

										<i>important, and they applied it.</i>
11	⊗	⊗	-	⊗	-	-	⊗	⊗	-	<i>Lecturers believed that asking students to consider what is highlighted in the text is important, but they did not apply it.</i>
12	-	-	-	-	✓	-	-	-	✓	<i>Lecturers believed that guessing the meaning from the context will help students to understand the text quickly, and they applied it.</i>
13	⊗	⊗	⊗	⊗	-	⊗	⊗	⊗	-	<i>Lecturers believed that guessing the meaning from the context will help students to understand the text quickly, but they did not apply it.</i>

Beliefs and Practices: Similarities in Relationships of Using Comprehension Techniques

The analysis confirmed that there were similarities between what the lecturers believed and what they did in their classes in terms of applying the technique of reading quickly to get a general idea about the text. This was the case in Omar’s, Huda’s and Malak’s interview and observation data. These lecturers supported using this technique of teaching, and they were also observed using it in their classes. For example, Malak started her lesson by reading the passage quickly and asking who could read it. Then, she said, “*Each student should read at least one paragraph quickly from the passage.*” When she had finished, she asked students to answer some questions about the general idea of the text. To sum up, congruence occurred between some lecturers’ thoughts and their practices. They thought that this type of technique helped learners to gain general information about the text based on their experience. It can be argued that the reading quickly technique is beneficial for students because it may help the reader to build up “a meaning from the black marks on the page: recognizing letters and words, working out sentence structure” (Nuttall, 1996: 17). However, this technique may not help a reader who “reads a text and investigates every single sound, letter, word and sentence in order to understand the whole text”

(Harmer, 2003). This suggests that congruent relationships do not always produce positive implications.

The findings obtained from the semi-structured interviews and the classroom observations indicated similarities between the beliefs of two other lecturers about adopting the technique of reading quickly and their practices. These lecturers were Othman and Hassan. Othman, for example, said, *“I never ask my students to read quickly to get a general idea about the text. I have no idea about this technique.”* The classroom observations showed that, as he claimed, he did not apply this technique in his class. One of the situations that needs further attention is that the findings show how some of the lecturers did not have any beliefs about reading quickly, and nor did they apply this technique in class. These lecturers explained their behaviour by saying that they had no idea about using this kind of technique for teaching reading.

The findings also showed that some lecturers (Omar and Hajer) believed that the technique of reading silently is good for students, and they applied it in their classes. This means that congruence was also found. These lecturers thought this technique useful to help students to know more about the text in order to answer some questions about the passage before becoming involved with the whole passage. For instance, Hajer stated that *“using the reading silently technique is helpful for students to understand more about the texts.”* Indeed, Hajer was observed asking her students to read the text silently twice, and then she distributed handouts to the students and asked them to answer some questions about the passage. It can be argued that this relationship between the text and the questions leads to positive effects because the reading silently technique prepares students to be ready for what lecturers say related to the lesson. In other words, it leads to an increase in learners’ ability to read and allows them to feel successful, to access information, and to orient themselves (Trajanoska, 2010).

Moreover, the results also showed similarities in three of the lecturers’ beliefs about creating mental pictures of what is being read and their practices. Hajer’s, Moneer’s and Ali’s interviews confirmed that they did not have any idea about this technique of teaching, and the data from the classroom observations showed that they did not use it in their classes. This is evidenced by Hajer’s contribution, when she said, *“I have no idea about this technique.”* The fact that lecturers did not know the above-mentioned technique and did not apply it in their classrooms, as Johnson (1994) pointed out, might be because teachers’ learning experiences during their time as students can have an influence on their later beliefs and practices.

In addition, the findings showed that there were similarities between the lecturers Omar, Huda, Ali and Moneer regarding asking students to consider what is highlighted in the text. These lecturers said that they believed this technique was important, and they were also seen to use it in class. For instance, Moneer said, *“I believe concentrating on some points during the reading lessons and asking students to highlight these points in their own way is essential as a summary of the important points.”* In other words, there were similarities between these lecturers’ beliefs and their practices regarding asking students to consider what is highlighted in the text. This means that congruence occurred between their thoughts and their behaviour. These lecturers thought that this technique was crucial to be used to summarise the important points. The aim of using this teaching technique in reading classes, as a result of lecturers’ beliefs, was to help their students calculate what had or had not been understood so far. As stated by Pressley (1998), this technique is useful because it involves efficient and fast processing and is closely related to a reader's working memory.

The findings gained from analysing the data revealed that there were similarities in Omar’s and Huda’s beliefs and practices in that they thought students would benefit from the technique of guessing the meaning from the context and, indeed, were observed applying this technique in their classes. The lecturers’ aim seemed to be to help learners to be more independent. For example, Huda asked students to scan an article to find specific words or phrases and to use contextual clues to complete a chart. She asked her class to guess the meaning from the context based on the underlined words or phrases in each sentence. In fact, there was congruence between these lecturers’ beliefs and their practices regarding using this teaching technique. These lecturers used that technique because it might help students to understand the meaning of some difficult words in the passages.

In conclusion, the analysis of the data revealed different types of relationships between beliefs and practice in the context of the use of comprehension techniques. Seven of these referred to similarities between beliefs and practices while the other six showed differences, as demonstrated in Table 5.3.2. The issues that have been analysed and discussed above make a contribution to understanding the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and practices in the field of L2 reading, because there has been relatively little research on the effect of teacher cognition in reading instruction in FL contexts (Borg, 2006: 166), especially in Libya.

Differences between beliefs and practices in using comprehension techniques

The literature showed that research regarding the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices in the classroom has given rise to controversial findings (see, for example, Johnson 1992; Borg, 2006; Andrews, 2007). Researchers have concluded that the majority of teachers have very clear beliefs that are demonstrated in their preferred approaches to teaching. In contrast, the present study has found both congruence and incongruence between the beliefs and practices of nine lecturers. This section reveals such differences with regard to using comprehension techniques.

The results showed that four lecturers, Moneer, Ali, Hajer and Abd Allah, were not observed using the technique of reading quickly in their classes, whereas they all mentioned the use of this technique in their interviews. This means that there were differences between what they said they believed and what they did in their classes. For instance, Ali said:

I can read every single word quickly in the text, but I read only the first sentence of each paragraph to get a general idea about its components, scanning to find specific information to know the general idea about the text.

According to the analysis of the data, the participants showed background knowledge about using the technique of reading quickly, but they did not apply this technique in their classes. As shown in the extract above, Ali would read only the first sentence of each paragraph in order to have a general idea about the content, and then would apply the scanning technique to find specific information. This can be interpreted as incongruence between beliefs and practices. Systematic reflection upon the possible congruence or incongruence between beliefs and practices can help lecturers develop their understanding not only of what they would like to achieve in their classrooms but also of the changes they feel they need to implement to improve their approaches to teaching and to learning (Farrell, 2013:14).

There were also differences between lecturers' beliefs about adopting the silent reading technique and their practices. These lecturers (Othman, Malak and Hassan) believed that the technique of reading silently is not necessary for students, but they applied it in their classes. This was confirmed by Hassan who said, "*I have no idea about it. However, I believe this technique is not important, and it will not help too much in understanding the text.*" Nonetheless, despite his comment, Hassan was observed asking the students to read the article silently for about five minutes and to find any difficult words, then in the subsequent step, he explained the

words to them. This shows incongruence between what the lecturers said they believed and what they did in the classroom. This finding goes against the viewpoint which says that “beliefs guide lecturers’ behaviour and inform lecturers’ practice by serving as a kind of interpretative framework through which they made sense of what they do in their classrooms” (Navarrete, 2014:172). These lecturers expressed different points of view; some stated they were unaware of the technique, whereas others believed it was not an important technique for teaching reading. What is interesting is that, despite their claims, all these lecturers were observed using this technique in their classes. Their behaviour seemed to be based on the situations that arose when they were teaching and probably that made it necessary to apply this technique. It can be argued that reading silently is a useful technique for teaching reading because it gives students a chance to think or prepare themselves to understand what their lecturers will say related to the lesson.

It is worth noting that, in this study, it was found that some lecturers (Moneer, Ali, Huda and Abd Allah) believed that the technique of reading silently is good for students, but they were never seen to apply it in practice. This means that there were differences between lecturers’ stated beliefs and their practices in their classes. For example, Ali said that “*the reading silently technique is useful for students.*” However, the analysis of data from classroom observations indicated that he did not use this technique while he was teaching his students. This confirms that there was incongruence between stated beliefs and practices regarding using reading silently as a teaching technique. This relationship has not been examined in previous studies in terms of the teaching of reading. It is possible that these lecturers did not apply this technique because certain factors made it impossible for them to do so. These factors might be related to the lecturers themselves or to other factors in the context of the teaching of reading in universities in Libya. This finding confirms the view of Erkmen (2010: 22), who stated that “beliefs do not require a condition of truth, they are episodic, affective, built on presumptions and have an adaptive function.” These lecturers seemed not to “use their previous experiences, background knowledge, and predictions for understanding the reading text in the top-down approach to reading” (Richards et al., 1987: 296). It can also be argued that these relationships might have occurred as a result of the mismatch between lecturers’ techniques and their beliefs.

Furthermore, the findings revealed that some of the lecturers (Hassan, Omar, Abd Allah and Huda) were not aware of the technique of creating mental pictures of what is being read, but they applied it. In the observation data, there is a very clear example of this when Omar asked students to think of some questions about the text. Then he asked them to discuss these questions

with their classmates. Furthermore, Abd Allah said, *“I have no idea about it and it would be very difficult to apply.”* This shows that another case of incongruence was recorded in the findings in terms of creating mental pictures of what is being read. These lecturers apparently aimed to check the text by going backwards and forwards through it in order to identify the most important ideas, thus allowing students to engage with the information throughout the text and make links between the information found in the text and their own previous experience. In this way, they are able to help students make inferences about the meaning of the text (Kolić-Vehovec & Bajšanski, 2007: 199). Moreover, it can be argued that these lecturers probably used their own previous experience. Borg (2003: 81) also made this point, when he stated that there was a significant amount of evidence to demonstrate that the experiences teachers have as learners can influence their subsequent perceptions regarding the teaching and learning processes.

Another incongruence found in the results was when some lecturers (Othman and Malak) were aware of the technique of creating mental pictures of what is being read, but they were not observed to apply the technique in their classes. For instance, Malak stated, *“I ask my students to create mental pictures of what is being read to make the reading task more interesting and the text more understandable.”* This means that lecturers do not always put into practice what they say they believe. It can be argued that contextual factors might be the reason why these lecturers did not apply what they said they believed to be right for their students. For example, lecturers’ classroom practice can be affected by decisions about curriculum materials and instructional time, resources, student abilities, class size and other contextual factors, as has been discussed in several studies (Graden, 1996; Gebel & Schrier, 2002; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Feryok, 2008 and Borg, 2003, 2006). The current findings are in line with the findings of Kennedy (1996), Carless (2003) and Chaves de Castro (2005), who demonstrated that though there may be changes in teachers’ beliefs, this does not necessarily mean there will be any corresponding changes in their practices. However, none of these studies has examined such a relationship in terms of teaching reading.

The data obtained from the semi-structured interviews and classroom observations showed that the lecturers Hajer, Hassan, Abd Allah, Othman and Malak believed that asking students to consider what is highlighted in the text is important, but they did not apply the technique in their reading classes. For instance, Hassan stated that *“highlighting certain points in the text is good for students to understand the text more quickly.”* However, there was no evidence during the

observations of this technique being used. This confirms that incongruence existed between the lecturers' stated beliefs and what they did in the classroom. A comparable type of incongruence was also obvious here when particular lecturers did not put into practice what they said they believed regarding asking students to consider the importance of what is highlighted in the text. This relationship has not been mentioned before in previous studies in terms of lecturers beliefs' and their classroom practices (see section 3.7). Highlighting as a technique can help students to concentrate more when reading passages.

Interestingly, the findings revealed that most of the lecturers (Hajer, Othman, Ali, Malak, Hassan, Abd Allah and Moneer) believed that guessing the meaning from the context will help students to understand the text quickly, but they did not use this technique in their classes. Othman, for instance, said, "*I support using this technique of teaching because it helps to get the whole meaning very fast.*" However, the data from the classroom observations showed that he did not apply this technique in his class. In theory, lecturers should apply the techniques they believe will benefit their students. These lecturers supported using this technique theoretically, as they claimed they thought that such a technique would help the students to obtain the whole meanings rapidly; however, none of them was seen applying this technique in their reading classes. This might be due to certain constraints, such as student speculations and the requirement to prepare students for exams, which might have prevented lecturers from applying the technique (Urihara & Samimy, 2007).

In brief, the data analysis identified thirteen types of relationships between beliefs about and practices in using comprehension techniques. Six of the relationships showed similarities between beliefs and practices while the other seven showed differences, as illustrated in Table 5.3.2.

5.3.3. Significance of the Relationship between Lecturers' Beliefs about and Their Practices in Employing Interpretation Techniques

The analysis revealed different kinds of relationship between the lecturers' beliefs and their practice in terms of using interpretation techniques. Lecturers used the L1 because they had to when students could not understand and follow the aims of the lesson. There could be many reasons why lecturers felt forced to do this. However, some lecturers supported the idea of using it while others did not. The relationships discovered are illustrated below.

Table 5.3.3. Relationship between lecturers' beliefs about and their practice in employing interpretation techniques

Lecturers										Relationships	
N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Similarities	Differences
	Othman	Moneer	Ali	Hajer	Huda	Abd Allah	Malak	Hassan	Omar	✓	✗
1	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	<i>Lecturers believed translating new words and sentences into the L1 is useful, and they applied it.</i>	
2	✗	-	-	-	-	-	✗	-	-	<i>Lecturers did not have good knowledge about translating new words and sentences into the L1, but they applied it.</i>	
3	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	-	✓	✓	-	<i>Lecturers advocated using an English-English dictionary, and they applied it.</i>	
4	-	-	-	✗	-	✗	-	-	✗	<i>Lecturers advocated using an English-English dictionary, but they did not apply it.</i>	
5	-	-	-	✓	✓	-	-	-	-	<i>Lecturers advocated using an English-Arabic dictionary, and they applied it.</i>	
6	-	-	✗	-	-	-	✗	✗	-	<i>Lecturers advocated using an English-Arabic dictionary, but they did not apply it.</i>	
7	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	-	✗	<i>Lecturers supported using an electronic dictionary, but they did not apply it.</i>	
8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	✓	-	<i>Lecturers supported using an electronic dictionary, and they applied it.</i>	

Beliefs and Practices: Similarities in Relationships of employing interpretation techniques

The data obtained from the interviews and observations showed many similarities between what the lecturers said they believed and what they did in their classes about using the L1 to translate some words and sentences for students. The use of this technique was observed in almost all of the lecturers' classes. Omar, Ali, Hajer, Huda, Abd Allah and Moneer said that they used the L1 in the English classroom, and each lecturer had their own reasons to justify this. For example, Omar said, "*It will help students because it will be easier for them to find the right translation of the words, and they will learn the meaning of the words very quickly.*" Moneer had a similar point of view, stating that "*when the lecturer uses Arabic, his students like the lesson more than when he speaks English, and his students find it more interesting than using English.*" These lecturers advocated using the L1 in L2 reading classes, as they thought using this teaching technique would help students to learn the meaning of the words very quickly, while others thought students would prefer using Arabic more than English in some situations. In terms of classroom practice, this finding is in line with the argument of Atkinson and Schweers (1999) that the L1 should be used more in the L2 classroom. This is justifiable, as if students do not understand certain words they might find it difficult to follow the lesson and achieve the learning objectives. Similarly, Atkinson (1987) revealed that some students were concerned that unless the target language input had been translated into their L1, they would not be able to understand it. However, some researchers discourage using the L1 in students' L2 classes. Also, Phillipson (1992: 187) discovered that those applying the L1 often feel ashamed about doing something they perceive as wrong. Atkinson (1987) found that using students' L1 helps the lecturer to check if the learners have understood or not, and helps the lecturers to give instructions to their students.

Congruence was also found between the lecturers' beliefs and their practice in that Othman, Ali, Huda, Moneer, Malak and Hassan disagreed with using English-English dictionaries, and none of them were observed encouraging students to use this kind of dictionary. They had different reasons for their preference. For instance, Moneer stated, "*It is difficult for them to grasp the meaning of new words from monolingual dictionaries.*" However, Gonzalez (1999) argues that, although dictionary work might be arduous, it is still essential and important for ESL students to be taught how to use the monolingual dictionary. Luppescu and Day (1993) studied the use of dictionaries among 293 Japanese EFL university students, some of whom were using electronic monolingual dictionaries or printed bilingual dictionaries while the remainder used no dictionaries. They devised a five-page narrative that had been edited in such a way that it had enhanced content, and target words were repeated to assist students in predicting the meanings of

the target words. They then made a comparison between both groups regarding vocabulary acquisition and the time required to read the passage. The group using monolingual dictionaries took twice as long to read the passage, but nonetheless, their score on a multiple choice vocabulary quiz was 50% greater than the mean score. In contrast, with regard to certain items that had a range of dictionary definitions, the group without dictionaries performed better than the group using dictionaries. To conclude, it can be argued that exploring monolingual dictionary entries can be an important and an effective component of achieving a more in-depth understanding of a word's meaning.

Moreover, the findings show that there were similarities between what the lecturers said they believed and what they did in terms of using an English-Arabic dictionary. Six lecturers from the nine were observed using an English-Arabic dictionary when their students encountered difficulties in understanding the topic. Omar, Moneer, Abd Allah, Othman, Huda and Hajer used this kind of dictionary to clarify further new words and phrases. This was obvious, for example, when Huda asked students to read the article three times and highlight the new words they did not know. She then told them to look for the new words in the English-Arabic dictionary. In another example, Abd Allah said, *"The usage of L1 and English-Arabic dictionary is important for all reading learners because in some texts, it is quite hard to understand the general meaning of the text without using students' L1 and an English-Arabic dictionary."* Thus, it can be stated that there was congruence between these lecturers' beliefs and their practices in terms of using this technique. This finding is in line with Koren's (2000) findings, which show that bilingual dictionaries are frequently preferred by lecturers; Bilingual dictionaries, however, can cause problems for some students, who tend to focus on translating each word individually rather than looking to capture the broader sense of the passage, and thus the use of a bilingual dictionary has a negative impact on students' ability to comprehend the overall sense of the passage.

In this study, only one lecturer supported using an electronic dictionary, and he applied this technique. This confirmed congruence between his beliefs and his practices. During the classes observed, he was seen encouraging students to use an electronic dictionary. This was apparent when the lecturer asked students to use their electronic dictionaries after he had read a passage; and he told them to check in the dictionary to find the meanings of new words. One of his reasons for using this technique of teaching reading was his students' need to gain more exposure to the target language from the definitions of new words provided by the electronic dictionary. It can be argued that using this kind of dictionary saves time, and it is easy to use

such dictionaries inside the classroom; therefore, it is preferred by some lecturers as well as by students. Weschler and Pitts (2000) have argued that modern electronic dictionaries allow students to find definitions far more rapidly than would be possible with conventional dictionaries. Nonetheless, it should be noted that less in-depth processing of the words could reduce the level of vocabulary learning (Stirling, 2003).

Differences between beliefs and practices in employing interpretation techniques

From the interviews and observations, differences were identified between what Malak and Othman did in their classes and their beliefs about translating new words and sentences into the L1. The two lecturers were observed using this technique in their classes in different ways. For example, Othman used the students' L1 when he started asking questions to check whether the students had any problems in understanding the meaning of new words. Nonetheless, both Malak and Othman stated that they avoided using the students' L1 when possible because they believed using it in the classroom would not encourage lecturers to teach reading effectively.

It can be argued that these lecturers used the students' L1 to explain reading as a probable result of the weakness of their students' level in English. This is in line with Cook's (2001) finding that lecturers use the L1 as this helps to minimise the interference which occurs due to differences between the two languages. Different opinions have been expressed in previous studies about using students' L1 in L2 classes, but none of them discussed this issue with regard to the teaching of reading (see literature review in Chapter One). Lecturers can give students the opportunity to think more about any difficult words or sentences because using their "linguistic resources can be beneficial at all levels of ESL" (Auerbach, 1993: 1).

There were also differences between lecturers' thoughts and what they did in their classes regarding the use of an English-English dictionary. Abd Allah, Hajer, and Omar agreed that students should use an English-English dictionary, saying that it would enrich their vocabulary and enable them to paraphrase words in cases where they pronounced them wrongly when they engaged in communication with other people. For example, Omar said, "*Using the L2 and English-English dictionary helps both advanced and weaker learners to recall more newly learned words.*" However, use of this technique was not observed in these lecturers' classes.

Moreover, the analysis of the data gained from the interviews and observations confirmed that there were differences between what Ali, Malak and Hassan believed and what they did in terms of using an English-Arabic dictionary. These lecturers supported using this technique for teaching reading during their classes. For example, Ali said, *“I believe using this technique is beneficial for students to learn very quickly, especially when used to highlight new words or write them down on a sheet of paper to check them in an Arabic–English dictionary later.”* However, these lecturers did not apply this technique in class. Their beliefs are not supported by some studies which have been unable to provide evidence that consistent use of a dictionary leads to improvements in reading comprehension. Bensoussan et al. (1984) used a sample of EFL university students to determine the effect on reading comprehension of using bilingual and monolingual dictionaries compared with not using any dictionary. They did this by evaluating students’ performance by using multiple-choice questions to assess the students’ understanding of a range of text passages. However, no major differences were identified between the control group and the group using dictionaries regarding students’ understanding of the passage or the time required to read it. They found that the majority of the students did not use the dictionary frequently. Bensoussan et al. (1984) concluded that “less proficient students lack the language skills to benefit from a dictionary, whereas more proficient students know enough to do without it (ibid.: 271).

The findings gained from the analysis of data also revealed that there were differences between the lecturers’ beliefs and their practices in terms of using an electronic dictionary. The analysis shows that almost all of the lecturers, namely Ali, Hajer, Huda, Abd Allah, Moneer, Omar, Malak and Othman, had similar beliefs about using electronic dictionaries: they all believed that using this kind of dictionary helps students to increase their English vocabulary and improve their pronunciation. They had various reasons for this belief. For example, Huda stated, *“I ask students to use electronic dictionaries in order to be able to listen to how new words are pronounced.”* However, none of these lecturers was seen to use this kind of dictionary, despite being aware of the importance of using it to help students to save time and to know the meaning of new words quickly. Using electronic dictionaries tends to give better results for comprehension and vocabulary assessments than does the use of printed dictionaries (Flynn, 2007).

To sum up, the data analysis identified eight types of relationships between beliefs about and practices in employing interpretation techniques. Four of the relationships showed similarities

between beliefs and practices while the other four showed differences, as illustrated in Table 5.3.3. The findings confirmed that all of the lecturers used interpretation techniques, but in different ways, and different types of dictionaries were used and recommended. The use of the students' L1 in some lecturers' classes was also observed.

5.3.4. Significance of the Relationship between Lecturers' Beliefs about and Their Practices in Adopting Classroom Interaction Techniques

Interaction has been defined as “reciprocal events that require at least two objects and two actions. Interaction occurs when these objects and events naturally influence one another” (Wagner, 1994:8). Thus, clearly, interactions cannot occur in isolation; to achieve communication, there must be a giving and receiving of messages. Several researchers, for example, Mackey (2007) and Ellis (2003), have suggested that interaction has been shown to assist in language development overall; however, there is no evidence to show that interaction is beneficial for developing all the skills involved in second language learning. The reason for this is that a particular skill may be developed in a variety of ways. The findings of my research differ from those of previous studies in showing different relationships of similarity and difference between lecturers' beliefs and their practices in terms of adopting classroom interaction in teaching reading. The main findings related to this issue are presented in Table 5.3.4.

Table 5.3.4. Relationship between lecturers' beliefs about and their practice in adopting classroom interaction techniques

Lecturers										Relationships	
N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Similarities	Differences
	Othman	Moneer	Ali	Hajer	Huda	Abd Allah	Malak	Hassan	Omar	✓	✗
1	-	-	-	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	<i>Lecturers knew about assigning students to work in pairs, and they applied it.</i>	
2	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗		✗	-	-	<i>Lecturers knew about assigning students to work in pairs, but they did not apply it.</i>	

3	-	-	✓	-	✓	-	-	✓	✓	Lecturers believed that encouraging students to work in groups is good for students, and they applied it.
4	✗	✗	-	✗	-	✗	✗	-	-	Lecturers believed that encouraging students to work in groups is good for students, but they did not apply it.
5	✗	✗	-	✗	-	✗	✗	-	-	Lecturers believed that discussing ambiguous expressions with students is good for students, and they applied it.
6	-	-	✓	-	✓	-	-	✓	✓	Lecturers believed that discussing ambiguous items with students is good for students, but they did not apply it.

Similarities between beliefs and practices in adopting classroom interaction techniques

The data showed that only three lecturers encouraged students to work in pairs, while the others did not. The former lecturers (Abd Allah, Omar and Hassan) knew about the technique of assigning students to work in pairs, and they applied it. For instance, Abd Allah said, *“I use this technique and divide students into pairs to complete the activity as a competition between them.”* This technique was used by other lecturers in different ways. Omar, in his class, divided students into pairs and asked them to start answering the questions while he was walking around the class and conducting discussions with each group individually. It seemed that these lecturers encouraged students to interact to increase their understanding of the reading texts. Nunan’s (1995:140-141) findings revealed that out of a selection of nine language learning activities, lecturers considered pair work to be essential, but students considered it to have little importance. Orafi and Borg (2009: 247) also reported how three Libyan EFL lecturers merged pair work activities into a question and answer session, as they failed to understand that their role in such activities was as facilitators.

The analysis of the data also confirmed that there were no differences between Huda's, Omar's, Hassan's and Ali's beliefs and their practices. They encouraged the students to work in groups in classes, and they all thought that this teaching technique was useful. For instance, Omar said, "*I divided students into groups because this technique helps students to share their knowledge.*" Omar was also observed in one of his classes writing some sentences on the board. He told the class that sharing a common interest can often bring different groups together, and then said, "*This web page describes how two groups gained friendship and understanding through song.*" Subsequently, he asked the students to discuss what he had written. Ali applied the same technique but used a different method when he asked students to work in small groups. He said, "*Imagine you are moving to a new town. What do you hope to find there? What do you hope not to find there? Use the chart below to categorize the following situations. Then add your ideas.*" These activities were assumed to be helpful for learners because they would give them a chance to share their thoughts. Lindsay and Knight (2006) emphasised the benefits of bringing students together and allowing them to work in pairs or in groups to practise speaking in the L2. Richards and Lockhart (1996: 152) supported this view:

Students can be provided with the opportunity to employ the range of linguistic resources at their disposal in a situation of safety and relaxation by interacting with other students during either pair work or group work. This gives students the opportunity to employ a range of different types of linguistic interaction. Furthermore, researchers believe that such interaction allows students to develop many aspects of both their linguistic and their communicative competence.

In this case, lecturers can assume a variety of roles; rather than always being the instructor, they can also assume the role of a consultant or a co-communicator. The classroom can also be adapted to accommodate one-to-one or group-work and so facilitate peer interaction.

In addition, the findings showed similarities between the lecturers' beliefs and practices concerning discussing ambiguous expressions with students, although this depended on the objective of the lesson. Lecturers Hajer, Hassan, Ali, Huda, Omar, Malak and Moneer used different techniques for teaching reading when their students did not understand certain expressions or sentences. All of these lecturers supported using this technique for teaching and were all observed discussing ambiguous expressions with students. For instance, Hajer started her lecture by answering questions about the previous two texts. The lecturer started writing the ambiguous expressions from the texts on the board and asked students to think about them in

order to answer questions, and then the students followed her instructions by writing the meanings of the ambiguous expressions in their notebooks. Harmer (2009) states that lecturers should focus on three things when they talk with their students. Firstly, they must make the language comprehensible to the students, and should provide output that is accessible to students. Secondly, as the lecturer's speech is viewed as a resource for learners, it is important that the lecturers plan what they are going to say to their students. Finally, it is also important for lecturers to be aware of how they will speak, focusing on elements like the voice, the tone, and the intonation. The abovementioned interactional activity seemed to have positive effects on students because teachers shared their knowledge with students in discussing ambiguous expressions, and the students entered discussions with their lecturers.

Differences between beliefs and practices in adopting classroom interaction techniques

The findings obtained from the analysis of interview and observation data show that there were differences between the beliefs of Othman, Moneer, Ali, Hajer, Huda and Malak and their practices related to assigning students to work in pairs. For example, Huda stated, *"I tried to push learners to interact in pairs or groups but they could not. When I asked the students to make a dialogue by using the words in the box, the students could not do it."* These lecturers were never observed applying this teaching technique in their classes. Johnson (1995) argued that well-structured and managed learner-learner interaction can significantly aid students' cognitive development and their educational achievement. Naegle (2002: 128) adds that "students talking with their peers about the content of the course is a powerful way for them to reinforce what they have learned." Thus, it is important for the teachers to encourage such interaction between learners because this technique can lead to rapid and effective learning, and can help learners to be active rather than passive participants in their learning. Harmer (2001) asserts that pair work increases the amount of time each student can dedicate to practising their oral skills; in addition, students can work and interact to develop their independence.

Furthermore, there were differences between some of the lecturers' beliefs and their practices in terms of encouraging students to work in groups in the cases of Othman, Moneer, Hajer, Abd Allah and Malak. For instance, Othman said, *"I asked students to read the text first, and then I asked them to work in groups in order to understand the whole meaning of the text, but this technique did not work for them in many cases."* This lecturer had a reasonable justification because he could not apply this technique if the students' level of English was too low or if there

was any other reason which might hinder its use. However, group work can increase the amount of talking time for individual students and get a greater variety of ideas and opinions (Khadidja, 2010).

Lecturers should identify the more able learners and form a group so that they can offer it some kind of challenge, which will lead to a high level of negotiation among them during their reading class. Lecturers might also focus on participation as a basis for streaming (ibid, 2010). If lecturers identify those students who tend to participate less than the rest of the class, they might put them together in a group or to work in pairs so that they have no option but to contribute in the smaller groups, even if they do not do so in the class. In other words, different strategies can be applied to facilitate classroom interaction and help students communicate (Harmer, 2001).

The analysis of interviews and observations showed incongruence between Abd Allah's and Othman's beliefs and their practices. These two lecturers thought that discussing ambiguous expressions with students is essential for students, but they did not use this technique in their classes during the teaching of reading. For example, Othman said, *"I can push students to discuss ambiguous expressions or sentences with other students in groups."* However, the observation data confirmed that this lecturer was never seen to use this teaching technique in class. In the interview data Abd Allah gave some reasons for not applying this technique in some situations; he said, *"I believe apply this technique is important and sometimes there are some reasons that prevent me from applying this technique as time-consuming for the level of the students."* Having obtained a significant amount of data from lecturers across a variety of disciplines, Coulthard (1977) pointed out that lecturers play an important role by discussing with the learners the content of the course, asking questions, using students' ideas, giving guidance, and critiquing students' responses.

In brief, the data analysis identified six types of relationships between beliefs about and practices in adopting classroom interaction techniques. Three of these relationships showed similarities between beliefs and practices while the other three showed differences, as illustrated in Table 5.3.4.

5.3.5. Significance of the Relationship between Lecturers' Beliefs about and Their Practice in Error Correction and Giving Feedback

The analysis of the interview and classroom observation data showed various relationships between the lecturers' beliefs and practices regarding error correction and giving feedback. These are illustrated in Table 5.3.5.

Table 5.3.5. Relationship between lecturers' beliefs about and their practices in error correction and giving feedback

Lecturers										Relationships	
N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Similarities	Differences
	Othman	Moneer	Ali	Hajer	Huda	Abd Allah	Malak	Hassan	Omar	✓	✗
1	✓	-	-	-	-	✓	✓	✓	-	<i>Lecturers supported giving correction directly, and they did it.</i>	
2	-	-	✓	-	-	-	-	-	✓	<i>Lecturers did not support giving correction directly, and they did not do it.</i>	
3	-	✗	-	✗	✗	-	-	-	-	<i>Lecturers supported giving correction directly, and they did not do it.</i>	
4	-	✓	-	✓	-	-	-	-	✓	<i>Lecturers supported correcting errors while students are reading, and they used it.</i>	
5	✗	-	✗	-	✗	✗	✗	✗	-	<i>Lecturers supported correcting errors while students are reading, and they did not use it.</i>	
6	-	-	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	<i>Lecturer encouraged correcting students' errors after finishing reading, and they did it.</i>	

7	⊗	⊗	-	-	-	⊗	-	-	-	Lecturer encouraged correcting students' errors after finishing reading, and they did not do it.
8	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	-	-	✓	Lecturers believed motivating students to participate is a useful technique, and they applied it.
9	⊗	⊗	-	⊗	-	-	⊗	⊗	-	Lecturers believed motivating students to participate is a useful technique, and they did not apply it.
10	-	-	-	✓	-	-	✓	-	-	Lecturers understood the effects of rejecting students' answers and they did it.
11	⊗	⊗	⊗	-	⊗	⊗	-	⊗	⊗	Lecturers understood the effects of rejecting students' answers, and they did not do it.

Similarities between beliefs and practice in error correction and giving feedback

There were similarities between the lecturers' beliefs and their practice in the use of immediate correction, particularly in the cases of Abd Allah, Othman, Hassan and Malak. All of these lecturers said they believed that applying this type of correction may help students to learn reading. These lecturers were also observed providing students with the correct answers immediately. An example of this can be seen in Othman's practice when he started writing on the board all of the answers for the two texts in the book and told the students to follow him and correct their mistakes immediately. He also gave the right answer immediately to one of his students during his third session. Such techniques for correction have become popular in foreign language teaching/learning classes (Fang & Xue-mei, 2007). However, it can be argued that using this technique may not allow students to participate in activity or that they will hesitate to do so. Lochtmann's (2002) findings show that it is preferable for lecturers to avoid using techniques that involve direct correction, as it can reduce students' confidence.

Moreover, the data also showed similarities between what Ali and Omar said they believed and what they did in their classes in terms of giving correction immediately. These lecturers had negative attitudes about correcting errors immediately. For example, Ali said, "*I believe it is not beneficial to correct students' errors immediately.*" The lecturer justified his point of view by saying that this was "because misunderstandings might occur. At the same time, students are not able to correct errors by themselves, sometimes because of their level of English, which is difficult for lecturers." Here, the lecturer seemed to suggest that he had the idea of applying this technique in class, but that his reason for not utilising this method of teaching was the students' level of English. The data also show that neither of these lecturers corrected students immediately in their reading classes. McDonough and Shaw (2003) found that it was the lecturer's attitude and the type of the error made which determined the techniques employed for error correction. This also supported the findings by Johnson (2001), who said that no great importance or significance should be attached to students making errors. However, Nunan and Lamb (1996) pointed out that correcting errors may result in students becoming more aware of their mistakes; this is because the other students can make a student aware of when they have committed an error, and therefore, the student eventually increases their awareness of their errors. This relationship may lead to negative educational effects because no development can occur unless teachers apply what they believe.

Interestingly, there were apparent similarities between some of the lecturers' beliefs and practices about correcting learners' errors while they are reading, particularly in the data gained from Omar, Hajer and Moneer. These lecturers believed that correcting students' errors while they are reading is necessary. They were all conscious of the significance of using this method. This was noticed during the classroom observations, when all three lecturers were seen to correct their students' errors. This kind of correction may lead students to not to want to read out loud again or break down the flow of communication; however, it can be argued that this technique helps other students to learn from the correction while reading the text. In Pazaver and Wangs' study (2009), it is shown that this technique of correcting errors is helpful and useful for students while learning a language.

Hajer, Huda, Omar, Ali, Malak and Hassan said they believed that correcting students' errors afterwards is better than correcting their errors while they are reading. For instance, Hassan said, "*I do not like to interrupt my students or bother them when they are reading.*" This lecturer thought that learners should be given the correct answers at the end of each activity.

Furthermore, this technique of teaching was seen in these lecturers' practices. For example, Ali asked one student to read the article and he let him finish his reading. The lecturer did not interrupt the student when he was reading. These lecturers thought that they should not interrupt their students when they are reading, as reading without interruption could give the students confidence (Lochtman, 2002). Correcting students' errors after they have finished reading might work better than correction at other times because the students feel free to read without interruption; however, Harmer (2001) argues that correction of students' errors should vary according to the type and the aim of the activity (Harmer 2001:104). Harmer (2001: 105) continues, "There are times during communicative activities when lecturers may want to offer correction or suggest alternatives because the students' communication is at risk, or because this might be just the right moment to draw the students' attention to the problem."

In addition, the analysis of the semi-structured interviews and the classroom observations revealed that there were similarities between some of the lecturers' beliefs and their practices in providing positive feedback. Ali, Abd Allah, Huda and Omar believed that it is important to encourage learners to be more communicative as a positive technique. They all agreed that learners will engage more if they are positively encouraged by their lecturers. For instance, Huda stated that a "*good lecturer encourages students by saying praising words.*" This was observed in all of these lecturers' classes. For example, Huda encouraged her students to create new sentences based on particular activities. In order to provide more assistance to her students, she divided them into groups to find out more about the text. It can be argued that providing positive feedback through encouraging students to participate is helpful during teaching because it can help students to be more confident. This is in line with the findings of several researchers (Bernard, 2010; Ahmad, 2004; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Dörnyei, 2001) who have argued that without encouragement and motivation to help learners to sustain their level of attention in a course or learning task, the opportunities for positive results are seriously reduced. Moreover, positive feedback as encouragement can be viewed as an extrinsic incentive, as the teachers ask the students to take a more active role in their learning (Yule, 2006). In addition, it is possible that motivating students in this way gives them a sense of satisfaction and success in developing their learning and in their response to teaching (Macaro, 1997). Cook (2001) confirmed this when he claimed that a crucial element in successful language teaching is the teacher's ability to motivate the students. Therefore, it can be said that the feedback teachers give to their students during classes can be an essential element in their success or failure to learn.

There were similarities between two lecturers' beliefs and practices concerning rejecting students' answers and giving negative feedback. Hajer and Malak were in agreement that rejecting student answers is a form of negative feedback. For instance, Hajer said, "*Although I know rejecting students' answers is not good, sometimes I am forced to do it.*" This means that the lecturer was aware of how this behaviour may negatively affect students' achievement. The use of this technique was observed only in Hajer and Malak's practices. For example, when a student answered wrongly, Malak said, "*Students, look! Is that right?*" Some of them said it was, and others said it was wrong. The lecturer said, "*It is wrong,*" and added, "*Who knows the right answer?*" One student said the right answer and the lecturer said, "*Thanks, Ahmed.*" Thus, it seemed that these lecturers felt obliged to use this technique in some cases. Johns (2007) points out that some behaviours are intended to bring about certain internally rewarding consequences, such as a feeling of competence or of self-confidence. Here, it can be argued that rejecting students' answers may negatively affect their achievements and their confidence.

Differences between beliefs and practices in error correction and giving feedback

Comparing the data from the semi-structured interviews and the classroom observations, differences were found between Hajer's, Huda's and Moneer's beliefs and their practices in terms of correcting students' errors immediately. These lecturers thought that using this kind of correction saved time and helped students to learn reading quickly. For example, Moneer said, "*The best way of correcting students' errors is by giving the correct answer immediately to the students, because it helps all students in the class to get the right answers without making them unsure of their answers.*" None of these lecturers were observed using this technique of teaching. It might be that, as Lochman (2002) argues, if students' errors are corrected immediately, their self-confidence might be negatively affected. The mismatch between beliefs and practices here may show that these lecturers may have been unprepared for the practical experience of teaching reading. It might also be that the methods and techniques lecturers are obliged to use may have prevented them from correcting students while they are reading.

Another interesting incongruence between beliefs and practices appeared when some lecturers supported correcting students' errors while they were teaching reading, but they did not apply this technique. The data showed that Abd Allah, Othman, Hassan, Malak, Ali and Omar said that they knew about this technique. For example, Abd Allah said, "*I normally correct my students' errors while teaching reading.*" However, none of them were observed correcting learners'

errors while they were reading. It is an essential technique because if no students in the class know the correct answer, the lecturer has to provide the correct answer for the whole class. Learners are sometimes unable to correct themselves, particularly when they lack sufficient knowledge to be able to identify the error and provide the correct answer. Thus, they need the lecturer to assist them in learning the correct answer (Gower, Philips & Walters, 1995:167). For example, Gower, Phillips, and Walters (1995: 167) said that, “Students have more faith in their teachers and therefore, teacher correction helps the learners to correct their errors without any doubt.”

The results reveal that there were also differences between lecturers’ beliefs and practices regarding correcting students’ errors after they have finished reading. Moneer, Abd Allah and Othman all said that they had knowledge about this technique. For example, Othman said that “*correcting students’ errors after they have finished reading helps other students not to repeat their classmate’s error.*” However, none of them were observed applying this technique.

Differences also became apparent between the practices of Hajer, Othman, Moneer, Malak and Hassan and their beliefs about motivating students to participate. For example, Othman stated that “*motivating students to learn reading is useful for learners suffering from a low level of English.*” However, the data also confirmed that none of these lecturers were observed using this technique in their lessons. These lectures said motivation was important and believed that all lecturers should motivate students to learn well and, showed great interest in motivating students to participate in classroom activities; however, they did not apply this technique in practice. Learners who are more motivated and involved in reading are expected to administer their learning work better than are those who are not sufficiently or appropriately encouraged (Wei, 2009; Baker & Wigfield, 1999).

In contrast, a relationship of congruence was registered from the analysis of data when Moneer, Hassan Ali, Abd Allah, Huda, Omar and Othman understood the effects of rejecting students’ answers and they did not do it. These lecturers agreed that rejecting students’ answers is not helpful for learning; for example, Othman stated, “*I do not use a negative attitude, but I use my previous knowledge when I politely reject the student’s answer.*” During the classroom observations, no instance of rejecting students’ answers was observed in these lecturers’ classes. These lecturers apparently supported providing students with positive rather than negative feedback. Coon and Mitterer (2007) said that “punishing students is a mistake for the teachers as












students learn nothing by being punished. Most of the time, it is seen that students are repeating the same thing again and again” (p. 241). In addition, Harmer (2001: 99) pointed out that “feedback encompasses not only correcting students, but also offering them an assessment of how well they have done, whether during a drill or after a longer language production exercise.”

In summary, the data revealed eleven relationships between beliefs and practices concerning error correction and giving feedback, including six similarities and five differences, as illustrated in Table 5.3.5. Both congruence and incongruence were found between the beliefs and practices of the nine lecturers regarding error corrections and feedback in teaching reading.

5.3.6. Significance of the Relationship between Lecturers’ Beliefs about and Their Practice in Teaching Vocabulary

The findings gained from the nine interviews and classroom observations revealed various relationships between the lecturers’ beliefs and their practices in teaching vocabulary. The findings are presented in Table 5.3.6.

Table 5.3.6. Relationship between lecturers’ beliefs about and their practices in teaching vocabulary

Lecturers										Relationships	
N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Similarities	Differences
	Othman	Moncer	Ali	Hajer	Huda	Abd Allah	Malak	Hassan	Omar		
1	-	-	-	-	-	-		-		<i>Lecturers thought encouraging students to understand the meaning of new words through context is a good technique, and they applied it.</i>	
2							-		-	<i>Lecturers thought encouraging students to understand the meaning of new words through context is a good technique, but they did not apply it.</i>	

3	✓	-	-	-	-	✓	✓	✓	-	Lecturers supported using an image of a word's meaning, and they applied it.
4	-	✗	✗	✗	✗	-	-	-	✗	Lecturers supported using an image of a word's meaning, but they did not apply it.

Similarities between beliefs and practices in teaching vocabulary

The findings revealed that there were similarities between what two lecturers said they believed and what they did regarding encouraging students to understand the meanings of new words from the context. Omar and Malak believed that lecturers should tell their students to understand the meaning of the new words from the context, and students should repeat them as a strategy to help them to understand the meanings of new words from the context properly. For instance, Omar stated, *“I let students write any new word several times to learn the spelling and the meaning of the new words.”* These lecturers were observed using this technique, especially when Omar explained an exercise to the students and encouraged them to spend some time with their classmates to discover the meaning of some new words. In this case, this means that there was congruence between what the lecturers believed and what they did regarding encouraging students to understand the meaning of new words through context. Carter-McCarthy (1991: 43) pointed out that “knowing a word involves knowing its spoken and written context of use; its patterns with words of related meaning as well as with its collocation partners; its syntactic, pragmatic and discourse patterns; it means knowing it actively and productively as well as receptively.” Indeed, Read (2000: 74-75) claimed there was a “well-documented association between good vocabulary knowledge and the ability to read well.”

Another area of congruence was also found in the analysis of data when certain teachers, namely Abd Allah, Malak, Hassan and Othman, stated that they talked about using images of a word's meaning as a technique, and they applied it in class. They believed that this kind of technique is used in order to increase students' vocabulary and to improve their reading skills. For instance, Malak said, *“I make links between words and their images. This can only take place with concrete words. Imagination, according to those students, facilitates learning and the memorisation of concrete words.”* My observations showed that this led to students finding the meaning of new vocabulary in the passage quickly and easily. This technique has the advantage

of being highly flexible which, in turn, leads to various other advantages, such as those, listed by Wright and Haleem (1996) when they stated that “[t]exts and pictures can grow in front of the class [...] can be erased, added to or substituted quickly” (Wright and Haleem, 1996: 5). Pictures are useful aids. They bring “images of reality into the unnatural world of the language classroom” (Hill, 1990: 1). Indeed, they not only bring images of reality, but in addition, they can introduce an element of fun into the class. It is sometimes surprising the extent to which pictures can transform a lesson, whether employed only in additional exercises or simply used to create an atmosphere.

Differences between beliefs and practice in teaching vocabulary

The analysis of data also shows that there were differences between some lecturers’ beliefs and their practices regarding encouraging students to understand the meaning of new words from the context. Othman, Moneer, Huda, Ali, Hajer, Hassan and Abd Allah were not observed encouraging their students in this way, but they stated that they believed applying this technique was useful in teaching reading. For example, Abd Allah said, “*I analyse affixes, add or omit prefixes or suffixes to show the meanings of new words in the context.*” This incongruence was confirmed when none of the lecturers were observed encouraging their students to use the context of new words to understand their meaning. However, Stahl (2005: 12) stated that, “Vocabulary knowledge is knowledge; the knowledge of a word not only implies a definition, but also implies how that word fits into the world.” Central to vocabulary teaching is the establishment of an interesting and plausible context, as such a context both makes it easier to capture the learners’ attention and helps in generating the target vocabulary naturally. Moreover, Nation (2001: 232) emphasised the importance of using context to guess the meaning of new words. In the past two decades, this strategy has been favoured given the popularity and effectiveness of the communicative approach compared with discovery strategies (Schmitt 1997: 209). However, the study by Liu and Nation (1985, cited Nation 2001) showed that this guessing technique is effective only if the learner is already familiar with at least 95% of the words.

Furthermore, there was incongruence here between the beliefs and the practices of Moneer, Huda, Ali, Hajer and Omar. For example, Huda said, “*I never use such a technique of teaching in my class, but it seems useful because it enables the students to be aware of the use of words.*” The observation data also revealed that none of these lecturers used this technique in their classes. When this happens, learners sometimes attempt to manipulate their interpretation of the























context so that it supports their incorrect guess. Thus, the crucial element of the guessing strategy is to ensure that learners use the contextual information before attempting to use word form clues (Nation 2001).

In brief, various relationships were identified between lecturers' beliefs and practices concerning adopting classroom interaction techniques, including two similarities and two differences, as illustrated in Table 5.3.6.

5.3.7. Significance of the Relationship between Lecturers' Beliefs about and Their Practice in Evaluating the Teaching Techniques Used

The analysis here focuses on the lecturers' beliefs and practices concerning the evaluation of teaching techniques in order to improve or overcome weaknesses in teaching during reading classes. Different relationships between beliefs and practices were found in the data. The main findings obtained from the semi-structured interviews and classroom observations are presented in Table 5.3.7.

Table 5.3.7. Relationship between lecturers' beliefs about and their practice in evaluating teaching techniques used

Lecturers										Relationships	
N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Similarities	Differences
	Othman	Moneer	Ali	Hajer	Huda	Abd Allah	Malak	Hassen	Omar		
1											<i>Lecturers believed checking students understanding is beneficial, and they used it.</i>
2			-	-						-	<i>Lecturers supported summarising the text, and they applied it.</i>
3	-	-			-	-	-	-	-		<i>Lecturers supported summarising the text, but they did not apply it.</i>

Similarities between beliefs and practices in evaluating teaching techniques used

The analysis of the interview and observation data showed that there were many similarities between the lecturers' beliefs and their practices. They all believed that checking students' understanding is an essential aspect of the teaching of reading, and the data showed that the lecturers used certain techniques for checking learners' understanding. For example, Abd Allah stated, "*Using this technique helped me to know if the students understood what we have done or not*" while Hajer added that "*checking students' understanding gives an indication of whether to move to a new activity or repeat the old one.*" The classroom observations of all lecturers' sessions confirmed the similarities between their beliefs and practices in terms of checking students' understanding. Hedge (2000) demonstrated that teachers may employ any information that they have obtained regarding the progress of their students as a foundation for future procedures that are intended to support students' learning. This was also supported by Harris and McCann (1994), who said that this teaching technique is considered a method that is useful for gathering data regarding a pupil's progress while not under examination conditions. Similarly, Harlen (1994) also emphasised that using this kind of procedure will help lecturers employ suitable techniques with their students in order to enhance their learning capacity. Sutton (1992:3) added that, without checking understanding, teachers could not function effectively.

Furthermore, it is interesting to find similarities between what the lecturers said they believed and what they did concerning the summarising of texts. Moneer, Malak, Hassan, Abd Allah, Huda and Othman stated that they believed that summarising the text is important as a technique to increase learners' understanding in reading. For example, Malak said,

I usually summarise texts for students and help them when I ask them to do the same. I consider it as proof to show me what they have understood from the text. This technique helps students to understand more about the lesson.

There was an apparent congruence between what these lecturers said and what they did. For example, Hassan asked the students if anyone could remember what they had learnt the previous day. Some of them raised their hands. He said, "*Salem, can you tell us about what you learnt from our lesson yesterday?*" The student summarised some points, and the lecturer who seemed pleased with their response, commented, "*Yes, that is fine. Thanks, Salem, for that.*" These lecturers thought that summarising the text is essential as a technique to increase learners' understanding of reading.

Differences between beliefs and practices in evaluating teaching techniques used

Three lecturers in this investigation, namely Omar, Ali and Hajer, were not observed using the technique of summarising the text to check their students' understanding, although they had mentioned during their interviews that they supported using this technique. For instance, Ali commented that:

To be honest, I used to use this technique in my old classes although it might be useful in order to assess students' understanding during the class. I think it is better to use it with students with a higher level of English.

The lecturer seemed to have reasons for not applying this technique, and none of these lecturers were observed using it in their classes. However, summarising the text is an important technique because "such techniques enable students to understand the best way to approach a text" (Yusuf, 2003:1452).

In brief, various relationships were identified between lecturers' beliefs and practices concerning evaluating the teaching techniques used, including two similarities and one difference, as illustrated in Table 5.3.7.

5.4. Summary

The chapter has explained the findings of this investigation that were derived from the analysis of the qualitative data with regard to each of the research questions. It has presented and discussed the relationships between lecturers' beliefs and their practices. Various congruent and incongruent relationships were found during the data analysis, which offer new contributions to knowledge as such relationships have not been examined in previous studies in the literature (see chapters three). Lecturers' beliefs and practices about the main themes derived from the findings are discussed in more detail. As stated earlier, these themes were presenting reading and comprehension techniques, employing interpretation techniques, adopting interactive activities, using error correction and providing feedback, teaching vocabulary, and evaluating the teaching techniques used.

The following chapter concludes the thesis. It presents the main findings of the study, its contributions to knowledge and the implications not only for theory and research, but also for teacher education. It also acknowledges the limitations of the research and suggests possible directions for future research.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

6.1. Introduction

The previous chapter has discussed the results of the analysis of classroom observation and semi-structured interview data gathered from nine Libyan university lecturers in terms of their beliefs about the teaching of English language reading, the purposes of teaching reading, and their actual classroom practices. This chapter provides a summary of the main findings of this research, and discusses in greater detail the contributions this research makes to the field of teacher cognition and the teaching of reading. Next, the chapter describes the pedagogical implications of the findings and acknowledges the limitations of the research. Finally, the chapter concludes by offering suggestions for further research.

6.2. Summary of Findings

The findings of the research are summarised and outlined in this section of the chapter according to the sequence of the research questions. The first research question concerned the practices of lecturers of English in Libyan universities in their classrooms regarding the teaching of English reading. The second research question was formulated to examine what teachers of English in Libyan universities believe about the teaching of English reading and what factors and constraints are responsible for shaping lecturers' beliefs, while the aim of the third research question is to obtain an understanding of the influence of teachers' beliefs on their classroom practice, and vice versa, with regard to the teaching of English reading.

6.2.1. Lecturers' Practices in Teaching Reading

The findings of the study revealed that almost all of the lecturers applied comparable techniques for presenting reading, and all adopted top-down processes during their teaching at least some of the time. However, some of these lecturers were seen to use bottom-up approaches. The analysis of data also confirmed that most of the lecturers seemed to be teaching reading interactively, although some of them stated during the interviews that they did not know much about this process. In their teaching, these lecturers regularly shifted from one focus to another, initially

adopting a top-down approach to predict a probable meaning, then moving on to the bottom-up approach. (For more details see section 5.2.2.1, p. 141.)

Furthermore, the study revealed that the lecturers utilised different techniques regarding comprehension. Some lecturers asked the students to read the passage out loud to get an idea about the text and to identify difficult words. However, other lecturers were not observed using this technique of teaching reading. Reading silently as a technique of teaching was also recorded and most lecturers were observed using it in their classes. In contrast, some lecturers did not use the silent reading technique in their classes. Another technique of teaching was observed in some lecturers' classes, which can be called creating mental pictures of what is being read. The findings also revealed that the lecturers highlighted some words and sentences in the text to increase levels of concentration as a technique of teaching reading. Another comprehension technique which was observed was guessing meaning from the context, but only two lecturers were observed to ask students to guess meaning from the context. These lecturers seemed to be trying to help students to be independent, and probably to enhance their confidence. (For more details, see section 5.2.2.2, p. 145.)

Moreover, the findings gained from the classroom observations confirmed that the lecturers employed interpretation techniques to different extents. These lecturers utilised the L1 (Arabic) with varying degrees of frequency to further clarify their explanations. Some lecturers translated everything from English into Arabic for the students in order to help them understand sentences. However, the findings revealed that some other lecturers did not use the L1 in the classroom, maybe because they wished to make students independent. The lecturers also had different preferences regarding the techniques they used. This was obvious when they asked students to use different types of dictionaries. The data showed that only three out of the nine lecturers focused on using an English-English dictionary in their classes, whereas two of the lecturers were observed to suggest that their students use an English-Arabic dictionary when they found that they did not understand the meanings of the words. Moreover, only one lecturer encouraged the students to use an electronic dictionary. This happened when he asked the students to use their electronic dictionaries to find the meanings of new words after he had read a passage to them. (For more details, see section 5.2.2.3, p. 148.)

The adoption of classroom interaction techniques was also observed in lecturers' classes. This was obvious when some lecturers encouraged students to share knowledge with each other. The

findings showed that four lecturers seemed to engage their students in the practice of sharing knowledge and ideas, and they did this in diverse ways. One way was to involve the students in discussions about their ideas and thoughts. Moreover, some of lecturers were observed discussing ambiguous expressions with students as a technique of teaching reading. The results of the data analysis suggest that some of the lecturers discussed unclear expressions with students to check their understanding. In addition, encouraging students to work in groups was observed as well. This was clear when some lecturers asked students to work in groups in their reading classes. However, the findings revealed that the other lecturers did not apply this technique of teaching. Furthermore, the findings revealed that only three lecturers encouraged students to work in pairs during their classes as a technique of teaching reading. This technique was applied in different ways, though. (For more details, see section 5.2.2.4, p. 150.)

In addition, the data obtained from the observation of the lecturers' practice showed two main sets of findings concerning correcting errors and providing students with feedback. The lecturers' methods of correcting students' errors and giving feedback were observed to be similar in some cases but different in others. Applying direct correction immediately was observed during some lecturers' classes. This led to the students being helped to find the right answer without them having to make much of an effort. However, the other lecturers were not seen to correct their students' errors immediately. Furthermore, the findings revealed that some of the lecturers corrected students' errors while they were reading aloud, whereas most of them were not seen to employ this technique of correction. In addition, the data revealed that the technique of correcting students' errors after reading was sometimes observed in some of the lecturers' classes. Meanwhile, other lecturers were not observed correcting students' errors after reading.

The final finding in this regard is that some lecturers applied different techniques to encourage students to participate in classroom activities. On the other hand, other lecturers were not observed trying to motivate their students when they taught reading. This may have had a negative effect on their students' learning to read (for more details, see section 5.2.2.5, p. 153.)

The data gained from observation also showed that the lecturers in this research taught English vocabulary in various ways using different techniques. One of these techniques was that most of the lecturers were seen encouraging students to guess the meaning of new words from context. However, some other lecturers were not seen using this technique in their classes. The second type of technique used for teaching English vocabulary was observed when some of lecturers

provided students with the meanings of new words immediately. This occurred after they had highlighted them, starting by writing each word on the board along with its meaning. One of the interesting techniques for learning vocabulary was letting students study vocabulary by themselves. This was observed in some lecturers' classes where students were provided with opportunities to study and think about the meaning of the new vocabulary. This technique led to more classroom participation. However, the other lecturers were not observed using this technique of teaching reading in class. The decisions taken by these lecturers seemed to depend on their students' level of English. The final technique observed was to use an image of a word's meaning. The lecturers used an image of a word's meaning to help students comprehend the meanings of new words. This led to students finding the meaning of new vocabulary items quickly and easily. Meanwhile, the other lecturers did not use this technique in their classes at all. (For more details, see section 5.2.2.6, p. 158.)

The final finding was that evaluating the teaching techniques used is important and was applied using different techniques in the lecturers' classes. These teaching techniques were applied in order to remedy any weaknesses in teaching that were observed during the reading classes. One of these techniques was checking students' understanding. The classroom observation data showed that almost all of the lecturers checked students' understanding, depending on the activity concerned. This was observed in almost all of the lecturers' sessions. This technique may lead to improving on any weaknesses in teaching noted during the reading classes. In addition, it is interesting that only three lecturers occasionally used the technique of summarising texts and whole lessons by asking students to summarise what they had read. The observation data revealed that the other lecturers did not use this technique for teaching reading in their classes. Some lecturers stated that they believed that summarising the text was important as an approach to increase learners' understanding but they did not use it because it was time-consuming. Meanwhile other lecturers believed that it is important to evaluate the teaching techniques used to see whether or not they are suitable. (For more details, see section 5.2.2.7, p. 162.)

6.2.2. Lecturers' Beliefs about Teaching Reading

The findings derived from the interviews revealed that the lecturers had different beliefs about how to present reading techniques. The data showed that not all of the lecturers were fully aware of the meaning of top-down, bottom-up, and interactive reading approaches as far as the terminology was concerned, even after clarification by the researcher. All of these lecturers

agreed with the importance of presenting reading techniques in the teaching of English reading. Moreover, the interview data revealed that these lecturers expressed different attitudes towards employing these methods of teaching reading. The lecturers believed that their presentation of reading techniques was affected by their previous teaching and learning experiences. (For more details, see section 5.2.1.1 p. 119.)

The findings showed that the lecturers had various beliefs about techniques of monitoring comprehension during the teaching of English reading. This was confirmed when the data analysis showed that there were some similarities and differences among the lecturers in their beliefs about reading quickly to get a general idea about the text. Most of the lecturers in this study believed that reading quickly is a useful strategy for understanding the meaning of the whole text from the context. The data showed that some of the lecturers opposed the use of the reading aloud technique. The lecturers' use of the monitoring technique of the teaching of reading techniques might be based on their prior experience of teaching and learning reading, as was noticed when Abd Allah said, *"I was influenced by my lecturer's way of teaching reading when I was a student. He always advised us to learn reading independently."* In contrast, similarities as well as differences in strategy use were again recorded among the research participants concerning the technique of reading silently. Overall, a majority of the lecturers emphasised that reading silently and practising the silent reading technique is important in learning English. These lecturers seemed to have a positive attitude about this reading technique. However, some lecturers believed that reading silently is not necessary for students.

Furthermore, the findings gained from the interviews with the lecturers illustrate that almost all of them were unaware of the technique of creating mental pictures of what is being read. The reasons lecturers held these techniques could be due to their beliefs and the way that the lecturers themselves were taught. This was further confirmed when Huda said, *"I have no idea about [this technique] and it would be very difficult to apply."* (For more details about this finding, see section 5.2.1.6., p.134). The data also showed there were similarities between lecturers in terms of considering what was highlighted in the text. The lecturers believed that it was important to encourage students to concentrate on what their lecturers focused on and to copy their notes into their notebooks. Such findings suggest that these lecturers encouraged students to be more focused throughout the process of constructing the meaning of texts. This means that these lecturers had positive attitudes towards students using the highlighting technique to understand

the important points or words in the text. (For more details about monitoring comprehension techniques, see section 5.2.1.2., p. 121.)

Findings from the analysis of the data obtained from the semi-structured interviews revealed that there were different beliefs concerning the employment of interpretation techniques. Regarding the use of the students' L1, the data revealed that almost all of the lecturers had different views about translating new words and sentences into Arabic. Almost all of the lecturers said that they used their L1 in the English classroom. Each lecturer had his or her own reasons to justify this. However, only three lecturers disagreed with the use of the students' first language to translate words or sentences. These lecturers seemed in agreement with those scholars who are against using the students' L1 during English lessons. These lecturers seemed to avoid using the L1 in their reading classes in order to increase their students' abilities to use English. This also indicates that these lecturers seemed to believe that translating every word from the L2 into the L1 is not good practice when it comes to teaching English reading. (See section 5.2.1.3., p. 124 for further illustration.)

In addition, similarities as well as differences were again recorded among lecturers regarding their beliefs about using English-English, English-Arabic and electronic dictionaries as a technique of interpretation. Most of the lecturers agreed that students should use these dictionaries, saying that they enrich students' vocabulary and enable them to paraphrase words when they engage in communication with other people. Certain lecturers considered that using an English-Arabic dictionary does not help students to improve their English vocabulary. This indicates that these lecturers probably valued using English-English dictionaries in learning to read. (See section 5.2.1.3, p. 124 for further illustration.) Moreover, all of these lecturers believed that using electronic dictionaries helps students to increase their English vocabulary and improve their pronunciation. On the other hand, some lecturers disagreed with using some of these dictionaries, and they cited various reasons for this. For example, some lecturers thought that it is difficult for students to grasp the meanings of new words from monolingual dictionaries. (See section 5.2.1.3, p. 124 for further illustration.)

Another finding demonstrated that the discussion of ambiguous items with students depended on the objectives of each particular lesson, according to the lecturers. (See section 5.2.1.4, p. 127 for further explanations) The lecturers stated that they used different techniques to help students to understand the meaning of new words and whole sentences (see section 5.2.1.4, p. 127).

Furthermore, the data gained from the interviews showed that all of the lecturers believed that involving the students in working in groups and in pairs were essential techniques for teaching reading. It is clear from the lecturers' interviews that they were aware of the significance of involving students in these ways, but some of the lecturers offered reasons as to why they did not apply such techniques in their own classes. For instance, one of the lecturers thought that, although he knew the importance of applying group work, he had failed to implement it successfully. (See section 5.2.1.4, p. 127 for more details.)

The study also offered findings regarding the correction of students' errors and providing them with feedback during the teaching of reading. This was clear throughout the explanations given by the lecturers in their interviews of the techniques that they used. The first finding was that the lecturers believed that applying direct correction immediately helps learners to learn to read effectively. This research confirmed that most of the lecturers were conscious of the significance of using direct correction and had a positive attitude about this technique. However, the data also showed that some lecturers had negative attitudes to correcting errors directly in some situations. The second finding was that some lecturers supported correcting students' errors while they are reading aloud. These lecturers believed that this technique is both necessary and important. They seemed to be conscious of the implications of correcting students' errors while they are reading in class as a feedback technique. The last finding regarding the timing of correcting students' errors and giving feedback was that some lecturers believed that correcting students' errors after reading activities is better than correcting errors while students are reading; they thought that it is not helpful to interrupt students or bother them when they are reading. In contrast, other lecturers stated that the technique of correcting students' errors after reading should not be applied and that lecturers should correct learners' errors directly or while reading to help students to recognise their errors and to take them into account in the future.

The analysis of data obtained from the interviews also offered two patterns of providing students with feedback during teaching reading. This occurred through motivating students when they answered lecturers' questions as positive feedback or when lecturers rejected their answers as negative feedback. The lecturers in this study thought that it was essential to encourage students to contribute, as this was a valuable technique for providing feedback. The data also indicated that all of the lecturers agreed that learners would engage more if they were stimulated by their lecturers. The lecturers took different positions concerning rejecting students' answers and

giving negative feedback. Some of these lecturers were in agreement that rejecting students' answers should be considered as a form of direct feedback, whereas others thought that rejecting students' answers is not helpful in the teaching and learning processes. (For more details, see section 5.2.1.5, p. 131.)

In addition, interesting differences regarding the teaching of vocabulary were found in the lecturers' interview data. These findings included the use of various techniques. One of these techniques was encouraging students to understand the meanings of new words in context. The lecturers had different points of view concerning using techniques to assist students in understanding the meanings of new words in their context. Some believed that understanding the meanings of new words in context is important, and other lecturers believed that in order to understand the meaning from the context, lecturers should paraphrase the word's meaning and teach the parts of speech and the affixes and roots of new words. Moreover, the lecturers thought that urging students to learn more vocabulary by themselves is important in becoming more independent learners. Furthermore, using an image showing the word's meaning as a technique of teaching vocabulary was also mentioned in the interview data. This technique was supported by some lectures and rejected by others. The lecturers who favoured using this technique believed that it is useful to increase students' vocabulary and to improve their reading skills. Similar points of view were held even by the other lecturers who said that they did not use this technique. (For more details, see section 5.2.1.6, p. 131.)

The last main group of findings gained from the lecturers' interviews were related to the evaluation of teaching techniques in order to improve teaching in reading classes. Only two patterns were recorded in this regard. The first concerned the lecturers' beliefs about checking students' understanding as a technique of teaching reading.

It was obvious that these lecturers had similar views about engaging learners when they wanted to verify their understanding of reading. They all believed that checking students' understanding is an essential part of the process of teaching and learning reading, although they had different reasons for this. Some of them said that they used this technique because it was simple and straightforward, and it helped learners to test their reading skills. Moreover, the second finding was registered when the lecturers mentioned two different views concerning summarising texts. Certain lecturers believed that summarising a text is important as an approach to increase

learners' understanding. On the other hand, some other lecturers stated that they did not apply this technique during their reading lessons.

6.2.3. The Relationship between Lecturers' Beliefs and Practices in Teaching Reading

This research has identified various types of relationship between the lecturers' beliefs and their practices in terms of teaching reading. Both similarities and differences were found between the beliefs and practices of the nine lecturers. Notwithstanding individual variety in the performance of their roles, the lecturers in the investigation as a whole presented a quite regular relationship between the practices applied in reading classes and the beliefs they expressed about their work during the interviews. The word 'similarities' itself does not necessarily refer to positive results, positions, and/or arguments concerning any situation. This was clearly noted in this study where it was found that not all relationships of similarity between lecturers' beliefs and classroom practices led to helpful outcomes. The correlation is based on the main themes that were identified from the data analysis sections. These themes are presenting reading techniques, using comprehension and interpretation techniques, correcting errors and providing feedback, using techniques for teaching vocabulary, and evaluating the teaching techniques used.

Similarities between beliefs and practices in presenting reading

Besides the differences between beliefs and practices in the nine teachers, similarities were also found in terms of presenting reading techniques. Speaking of their role, some lecturers reported that they preferred particular approaches to teaching reading and they were observed to apply them in their classes. However, it can be argued that lecturers' beliefs being translated into classroom practice does not always have a positive effect on student achievements, as the classroom observation data showed (see section 5.2.2.1., p. 141.)

Moreover, only one lecturer put into practice what he believed in his classes in terms of the interactive approach to teaching reading.

Differences between beliefs and practices in presenting reading

It was found that there were mismatches between what the lecturers believed and both their perceived and their actual pedagogical reading practice. This was particularly the case regarding

the lecturers' presentation of reading, when it became clear that certain lecturers, whose statements clearly indicated that they had the necessary knowledge about presenting reading techniques, were then not observed to apply what they believed in their classes. In this case, lecturers' beliefs might be considered useless because students will not benefit from the lecturer's belief or knowledge unless it is put into practice in the classroom. This relationship may have a negative effect on student achievements. Therefore, lecturers should apply what they believe in order to develop reading classroom practice.

Moreover, the most interesting finding showed that some lecturers were not aware of the top-down, bottom-up and interactive approaches to teaching reading, but they applied them in their classes. This means there was a mismatch between what they knew and what they did regarding these approaches to teaching reading. In this case, it can be argued that these lecturers seemed to need training sessions and to undergo professional development where they could be exposed to different approaches, become familiar with the terminology associated with such approaches, and to learn how to apply them. When lecturers became familiar with these terminology means that they apply these techniques according to what they have learned and knew about them and not applying them randomly and without any knowledge. However, their justification was that they were not familiar with the terminology concerned, although they were observed reading texts to students and applying various techniques in order to help learners to understand the text.

In addition, the analysis revealed that some lecturers believed that the top-down approach to teaching reading is the best, but they did not apply it. This means that there was incongruence between what some lecturers believed and what they did in their classes. (See section 5.2.2.1., p. 141-146.)

Similarities between beliefs and practices in using comprehension techniques

Congruence was apparent between some lecturers' thoughts and their practice in terms of applying the technique of reading quickly to get a general idea about the text. Those lecturers who supported using this technique of teaching were also observed using it in their classes. They thought that this type of technique helped learners to gain general information about the text based on experience. The findings obtained from the semi-structured interviews and the classroom observations indicated similarities between the beliefs and practices of two lecturers about adopting the technique of reading quickly. One situation that needs further attention is that

the findings show how some of the lecturers did not have any specific beliefs about reading quickly, and neither did they apply this technique in class. These lecturers justified their behaviour by saying that they had no idea about using this kind of technique for teaching reading.

Furthermore, congruence was also found when the findings also showed that some lecturers believed that the technique of reading silently is good for students, and they applied it in their classes. These lecturers thought that this technique is useful to help students to know more about the text in order to answer questions about a passage. Moreover, the results gained from the interviews and observation also showed that three of the lecturers were not aware of technique of creating mental pictures of what is being read and did not apply it.

In addition, the findings showed that there were similarities between beliefs and practice among some lecturers regarding asking students to consider what is highlighted in the text and guessing the meaning from the context as techniques of teaching reading. These lecturers said that they believed these techniques were important, and they were also seen to use them in class. The lecturers' aim seemed to be to help learners to be more independent.

Differences between beliefs and practices in using comprehension techniques

The results showed that four lecturers were not observed to use the technique of reading quickly in their classes, even though they all were aware of this technique. It was also interesting to find differences between some lecturers' beliefs about adopting the silent reading technique and their practices. These lecturers believed that the technique of reading silently is not necessary for students, but they applied it in their classes. They said that reading silently gave students a chance to focus on the text to get a general idea about the passage also to help learners to answer any comprehension questions about the text readily. Their behaviour seemed to be based on situations that arose when they were teaching and that made it necessary to apply this technique. It can be argued that reading silently is a useful technique in teaching reading because it gives students a chance to think or prepare themselves to understand what their lecturers will say in relation to the lesson.

Moreover, some lecturers believed that the technique of reading silently is good for students, but they were never seen to apply it in practice. It is possible that these lecturers did not apply this

technique because certain factors made it difficult for them to do so. They said that learners might not apply this technique when they were asked to read silently, particularly in large classes, and they also said that when learners read out loud, they can be assessed and corrected. These reasons might be related to the lecturers themselves or to other factors in the context of the teaching of reading English in universities in Libya, such as, the curriculum.

Furthermore, the findings revealed that some of the lecturers were not aware of the technique of creating mental pictures of what is being read, but they applied it in class. In the observation data, this was very clear when Omar asked students to think of some questions about the text. Then he asked them to discuss these questions with their classmates.

Another incongruence was found in the results when some lecturers were aware of the technique of creating mental pictures of what is being read, but they were not observed applying the technique in their classes. This means that those lecturers did not always put into practice what they believed. It can be argued that contextual factors might be a reason for these lecturers not applying what they believed to be right for their students.

In addition, according to the findings that emerged from analysis of the data from the semi-structured interviews and classroom observation, some lecturers believed that asking students to consider what is highlighted in the text is important, but they did not apply the technique in their reading classes. This confirms that incongruence existed between the lecturers' beliefs and what they did in the classroom. (See section 6.1.2, p. 211 for further information.)

Interestingly, the findings revealed that most of the lecturers believed that guessing the meaning from context will help students to understand the text quickly, but they did not use it in their classes. This belief but no evidence of the technique being practiced in the classes observed indicates incongruence between beliefs and practices. In theory, lecturers should apply the techniques they believe will benefit their students. The issue here is that these lecturers supported using this technique theoretically, as they claimed they thought that such a technique would help the students to obtain the overall meaning rapidly; however, none of them was seen applying this technique in their reading classes.

Similarities between beliefs and practices in employing interpretation techniques

The data obtained from interviews and observation showed some similarities between what the lecturers believed and what they did in their classes concerning the use of the L1 to translate words and sentences for students. These lecturers supported the use of their students' L1. Moreover, the use of this technique was observed in almost all of the lecturers' classes.

Further congruence was found between the lecturers' beliefs and their practice in that some lecturers disagreed with using English-English dictionaries, and none of them were observed encouraging students to use this kind of dictionary. They had different reasons for their preference. In general, it can be argued that exploring dictionary entries can be an important and effective component of achieving a more in-depth understanding of a word's meaning.

Moreover, the findings show that there were similarities between what the lecturers believed and what they did in terms of using English-Arabic dictionaries. Most of the lecturers supported using this technique and they were observed using an English-Arabic dictionary when their students encountered difficulties in understanding the topic. They used this kind of dictionary to further clarify new words and phrases.

In this study, only one lecturer supported the use of electronic dictionaries, and he applied this belief in class. During the classes observed, he was seen encouraging students to use an electronic dictionary, thus confirming congruence between his beliefs and practices. One of his reasons for using this technique of teaching reading was that his students needed to gain more exposure to the target language from the definitions of new words provided by the electronic dictionary. According to the lecturer, this kind of dictionary saves time, and it is easy to use in class; therefore, it was preferred by him.

Differences between beliefs and practices in employing interpretation techniques

The findings also included differences between what some lecturers did in their classes and their beliefs about translating new words and sentences into the L1. These lecturers were observed using this technique in their classes in different ways. Nonetheless, they stated that they avoided using the students' L1 when possible because they believed using it in the classroom would not encourage lecturers to explain reading effectively.

Moreover, another incongruence was found between lecturers' thoughts and what they did in their classes regarding the use of English-English, English-Arabic and electronic dictionaries. The lecturers agreed that students should use these dictionaries, saying that it would enrich their vocabulary and enable them to paraphrase words in cases where they pronounced them wrongly when they engaged in communication with other people. According to the lecturers, these dictionaries can help students to save time and to discover the meaning of new words quickly. However, not all of these lecturers used this technique.

Similarities between beliefs and practices in adopting classroom interaction techniques

The findings revealed that some lecturers encouraged students to work in pairs and in groups, while others did not. The former lecturers knew about the importance of assigning students to work in pairs and they applied it, which means that congruence between beliefs and practices was identified in this regard. These lecturers supported this type of interaction in order to encourage students to communicate. The lecturers acted as consultants or advisers, being there to offer help when it was required. In this case, lecturers assumed a variety of roles; rather than always being the instructor, they also assumed the role of a co-communicator.

Furthermore, the findings showed similarities between the lecturers' beliefs and practices concerning discussing ambiguous expressions with students, although this depended on the objective of the lesson. All of these lecturers supported using this technique for teaching. At the same time, they were all observed discussing ambiguous expressions with students. This seemed to have positive effects on students' achievements in terms of teaching reading because the lecturers shared their knowledge with students and discussed ambiguous expressions with them which made the expressions clear to the students.

Differences between beliefs and practices in adopting classroom interaction techniques

There was also incongruence between some of the lecturers' beliefs and practices in relation to the use of classroom interaction techniques. The findings showed there were differences between the beliefs of some of the lecturers and their practices related to assigning students to work in pairs and in groups. These lecturers were never observed to apply this teaching technique in their classes. In this case, it can be argued that these lecturers seemed not to agree with the view which states that group work increases the amount of talking time for individual students as, in contrast

to pair work, more students will make a contribution to the discussion and they will express a greater variety of ideas and opinions (Khadidja, 2010). (See section 5.3.4, p. 192 for further illustration of this.)

Furthermore, there were differences between some of the lecturers' beliefs and their practices in terms of discussing ambiguous expressions with students. These lecturers thought that this technique is essential for students, but they did not use in their classes during the teaching of reading.

Similarities between beliefs and practices in adopting techniques for error correction and giving feedback

The findings revealed that there were similarities between the lecturers' beliefs and their practices in the use of direct correction, particularly in the cases of four lecturers. All of these lecturers believed that applying this type of correction may help students to learn reading. These lecturers were also observed providing students with the correct answers directly.

Moreover, the data also showed congruence between what Ali and Omar believed and what they did in their classes in terms of giving correction directly. These lecturers had negative attitudes about correcting errors directly and they never practised it.

The findings point to another area of congruence between the lecturers' thoughts and their practices in terms of correcting learners' errors while they were reading. There were similarities between three of the lecturers' beliefs and practices about this, as they believed that correcting students' errors in this way is necessary and they applied it in their classes. They were all conscious of the significance of using this method, and during classroom observations, all three lecturers were seen to correct their learners' errors while students were speaking.

The findings revealed another area of congruence when other lecturers supported the technique of correcting students' errors after they had finishing reading as a form of feedback, and they applied this technique in their classes. These lecturers believed that correcting students' errors afterwards is better than correcting their errors while they are reading. Their reason was to avoid rejecting student answers while they are reading.

In addition, analysis of the semi-structured interviews and the classroom observations revealed that there were similarities between some of the lecturers' beliefs and their practices in providing positive feedback. Particular lecturers believed that it is important to encourage learners to be more communicative. They agreed that learners will engage more if they are positively encouraged by their lecturers. These lecturers were observed using this technique of teaching in their classes.

Another relationship of congruence was recorded as the findings show that there were similarities between two lecturers' beliefs and practices concerning rejecting students' answers and giving negative feedback. These lecturers were also observed using this technique of teaching although they were presumably aware that rejecting student answers was a form of negative feedback. It can be argued that providing negative feedback during teaching is not always helpful because it might discourage students from contributing and might damage their confidence.

Differences between beliefs and practices in adopting techniques for error correction and giving feedback

The findings confirmed that there were mismatches between what lecturers thought about correcting students' errors directly as a form of feedback and what they did in their classes. Some lecturers thought that using this kind of correction would save time and help students to learn reading more quickly, but they did not use this technique in their classes.

Another area of incongruence between beliefs and practice appeared when some lecturers supported correcting students' errors while they were reading, but were not observed to apply this in class. These lecturers can be considered to have been conscious of the importance of correcting students' errors while they are reading as a feedback technique, but for some reason did not practise this technique. (See section 5.3.2., p. 177 for more details.)

Furthermore, the findings showed apparent differences between lecturers' beliefs and practices regarding correcting students' errors after they had finished reading. Some lecturers stated that they had knowledge about teaching reading using this technique. However, they were not observed applying this technique. (See section 5.3.5., p. 197 for more details.)

A surprising finding was also recorded from the analysis of the data, when differences between the practices of particular lecturers and their beliefs about motivating students to participate were apparent. The data confirmed that none of these lecturers was observed using such techniques in their lessons, whereas these lecturers said motivation was important and believed that all lecturers should motivate students to learn well.

A relationship of congruence also existed between what some lecturers believed and what they did in terms of rejecting students' answers as a form of negative feedback. These lecturers agreed that rejecting students' answers was not helpful for learning, and moreover no instances of rejecting students' answers were observed in these lecturers' classes.

Similarities between beliefs and practices in adopting vocabulary teaching techniques

The data revealed congruence between what two lecturers believed and what they did regarding encouraging students to understand the meanings of new words from their context. These lecturers believed that lecturers should encourage their students to understand the meaning of new words, and students should learn how such strategies help them to understand the meanings of new words properly.

Another area of congruence was also recorded when certain lecturers knew about the use of images of a word's meaning as a technique, and they applied it in class. They believed that this kind of technique can be used in order to increase students' vocabulary and to improve their reading skills.

Differences between beliefs and practices in adopting vocabulary teaching techniques

The findings from the analysis of data show a mismatch between some lecturers' beliefs and their practices regarding encouraging students to understand the meaning of new words from the context. These particular lecturers were not observed encouraging their students in this way, but they stated that they believed that applying this technique was useful in teaching reading. (See section 5.3.6, p. 204 for further information.)

Furthermore, there was incongruence between lecturers' beliefs and their practices regarding the use of the imaging technique to teach English vocabulary. These lecturers believed that this

technique could be important and helpful in learning new vocabulary. The observation data, however, revealed that none of these lecturers used this technique in their classes.

Similarities between beliefs and practices in evaluating teaching techniques used

The interview and observation data showed that there were similarities between the lecturers' beliefs and their practice in terms of checking students' understanding. They all believed that this technique is an essential aspect of the teaching of reading, and the data showed that the lecturers used certain techniques for checking learners' understanding, using similar strategies with different texts and summarising the text.

In addition, it is interesting to find similarities between what some lecturers believed and what they did concerning the summarising of texts. These lecturers stated that they believed that summarising the text by students is important as a technique to increase learners' understanding of reading material. This seemed to have positive effects on students' achievements because summarising what students understood led to increase their understanding of reading comprehension, as I observed.

Differences between beliefs and practices in evaluating teaching techniques used

Only three lecturers in this investigation were not observed use to the technique of summarising the text to check their students' understanding, although they had mentioned during their interviews that they supported the use of this technique. The lecturers seemed to have reasons for not applying this technique. (See section 6.3.7, p. 207 for further illustration of this.)

6.3. Contributions of the Study

According to previous studies (such as Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Pressley, 2006; Grabe, 2009; Small & Arnone, 2011; Ahmadi & Hairul, 2012), reading is considered an important component of the language learning process for both native and non-native learners. Reading is one of the most complicated activities in language learning, as it requires both lexical and textual skills and is recognised as being interactive and discursive. However, "the teaching methods applied in many reading classes do not support learners in deducing meaning from context" (Kazemian et al., 2015:49). English language lecturers are thus required to use their knowledge and awareness of the language, language teaching and language learning to help their students to be more

independent and skilled readers. Reading can improve the ability of students to enhance their own learning in different areas, such as in writing, spelling, and general knowledge (Ahmadi & Hairul, 2012: 55). Furthermore, researchers (such as Lamb, 1995; Breen et al., 2001; Phipps, 2007, 2010; Feryok, 2008; Borg, 2009, 2011; Orafi & Borg, 2009; Lin, 2010 and Kuzborska, 2011) give varying explanations for the relationship between lecturers' beliefs and practices. Barnard and Scampton (2008:75) state that "more fruitful research would seek to identify, and explore, the extent of the convergence and divergence between attitudes, assumptions, and knowledge expressed by teachers and their actual classroom behaviour." Thus, the present study contributes to knowledge in the following respects:

- The results and recommendations of the study may provide lecturers with insights into the untaught techniques used by other lecturers. The study also adds important value by contributing to the issue of how little, in relative terms, is known about many of the approaches used for teaching reading skills. Although there is a substantial body of research available on the teaching of reading skills, little attention has been devoted to how and why certain approaches are deployed.
- It is hoped that the insights gained from this study may contribute to a more complete picture of L2 lecturers' classroom practices and their beliefs concerning the teaching of reading.
- While significant contributions have been made to understanding the relationship between lecturers' beliefs and what they do in their classes in the field of L2 reading, there is little research into lecturer cognition and the teaching of reading in FL contexts. Therefore, as Borg (2006:166) contends, "L2 reading instruction is thus clearly an area where a gap exists between our understanding of methodological and theoretical principles on the one hand, and what we know about teachers' actual practices and cognitions in teaching reading on the other."
- This research was conducted in a location, Libya, which to the best of the present researcher's knowledge has not yet been explored as far as teaching English reading is concerned. Therefore, this study could be very helpful as a starting point for additional explorations in this and other similar contexts.
- With regard to the methodological contributions of research into the beliefs and practices of lecturers in teaching reading, this study confirms the validity of the use of a qualitative approach with data triangulated from more than one source such as, here, observations and semi-structured interviews. The advantage of a qualitative study is that it enables researchers to obtain a more in-

depth understanding of what teachers and lecturers think and of the motivation for their behaviours, in addition to giving an insight into why they behave that way within their own teaching context.

The relationships found between beliefs and practice in this study deserve deeper investigation, as they could potentially have pedagogical implications in the field of teacher cognition and the teaching of reading (see section 6.4. for further information). Systematic reflection upon the possible congruence or incongruence between beliefs and practices can help lecturers develop their understanding not only of what they would like to achieve in their classrooms but also of the changes they may feel they need to implement so as to improve their approaches to teaching and learning (Farrell, 2013:14).

Despite the increasing emphasis on language learning techniques in general and reading techniques in particular, little research has directly addressed the issue of reading techniques with respect to lecturers' beliefs and practice. The effect of lecturers' beliefs and practice on their use of techniques is therefore not well understood. This study, therefore, contributes to knowledge of L2 reading techniques by investigating the possible relationships between lecturers' beliefs about and practice in the teaching and learning of English reading in Libyan universities.

This research, therefore, investigates the possible relationships between university lecturers' beliefs and practice while they are teaching reading and consequently provides insights in this area. By investigating how and why reading techniques were used, a more detailed picture of the impact of lecturers' beliefs and practice on the use of techniques is also developed.

In addition, this investigation contributes to the pedagogical literature which can be utilized by educationalists and lecturers through: (1) suggesting insights and implications for more effective EFL teaching; (2) providing information needed to enhance teaching pedagogy and improve learning conditions; (3) improving the understanding of reading difficulties and evaluating improvements as learners progress through university study; (4) providing empirical data to allow the comparison of the use of reading techniques by Libyan TEFL university students with that of other students in other countries; (5) utilizing the findings in designing a curriculum for reading techniques to be introduced to EFL students across their university study.

This study is the first to address the use of reading techniques at the university stage in the Libyan context. The findings obtained, therefore, will be a cornerstone for further such research.

6.4. Pedagogical Implications and Applications

The results of this study have a number of implications for teaching English as a foreign language in general and the teaching of reading in particular. This research provides practical evidence that it is essential to understand the cognitions of teachers, and particularly the beliefs about reading underlying instructional practices, in order to fully understand how teachers teach in the classroom and why they teach the way they do (Brickhouse, 1990; Fang, 1996; King & Wiseman, 2001; Freeman, 2002; Gebel & Schrier, 2002; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Borg, 2006; Feryok, 2008). As demonstrated in this study, the lecturers involved rarely used any technical language to express either their beliefs or the rationales behind their teaching of reading.

Teachers should use different approaches and techniques in providing activities that students find enjoyable and so that they are better able to maintain their concentration. Using a variety of activities and techniques for teaching reading can also help students to have a better understanding because it takes into account the range of proficiency levels, motivations, and abilities. Therefore, it is important for lecturers to include a range of activities to attract and then maintain students' attention; in turn, this will make the teaching task both more interesting and more beneficial.

This study also offers implications concerning the fact that some lecturers were not aware of certain approaches and techniques for the teaching of reading. It appears that these lecturers did not seem to have full awareness of the terminology associated with these approaches. It was surprising to discover that lecturers stated that they lacked any idea about how to use some reading techniques; nonetheless, they were observed applying them in their classes, hence some awareness-raising training might be helpful for these lecturers.

A further implication was that, during observations, it was seen that some of the lecturers in this study did not translate their beliefs about teaching into practice when they were presenting interactive reading tasks. For example, one lecturer often tried to help students to learn reading in an interactive way, but was frequently unsuccessful. This could be because the language teaching used in this case was not illustrated with objects, pictures, actions, gestures and the use of

computer. Therefore, lecturers, when they are teaching English reading, should be aware that, for the learners, the L2 is something new and some students find it difficult to learn unless they are given the most suitable teaching aids that will facilitate their understanding and will demonstrate what the lecturer wishes to convey. Lecturers should be aware of and know how to use interactive techniques so that the reading text can be further discussed and contextualised.

Another crucial implication which should be mentioned here is that some lecturers understood the importance of using students' L1 when they teach reading, but they did not use it as a technique for teaching reading. These lecturers believed that using the L1 in the classroom would not help them to explain reading effectively. It is necessary in the Libyan context to use the students' L1 during the teaching of reading in order to give students the opportunity to think more about any difficult words or sentences, because using their own "linguistic resources can be beneficial at all levels of ESL" learning (Auerbach, 1993: 1).

Another implication in terms of using interpretation techniques is that some lecturers advocated using English-English electronic dictionaries a technique of teaching reading, but they did not apply this belief in class. The problem is that these lecturers agreed that students should use these resources, saying that it would enrich their vocabulary and enable them to paraphrase words in cases where they pronounced them wrongly when they engaged in communication with other people. Allen (1983:82) viewed dictionaries as "a passport to independence" and considered them as an important element of any student-centred learning activities. Moreover, using electronic dictionaries tends to give better results in comprehension and vocabulary assessments than does the use of printed dictionaries (Flynn, 2007). Therefore, lecturers should use these kinds of dictionaries in order to make the reading process more efficient.

Moreover, another implication from the analysis of the data is that some lecturers believed that motivating students to participate is a useful technique, but they did not apply it. None of these lecturers was observed using this technique in their lessons. In this case, the beliefs of these lecturers contradicted their practice. It can be argued that lecturers' beliefs matched those of Wei (2009), who stated that learners who are more motivated and involved in reading are expected to administer their learning work better than are those who are not sufficiently or appropriately encouraged. Dörnyei (2001) argued that motivation affects human behaviour, and when someone manages to make positive progress, it is always said to be because he or she is motivated. Therefore, it can be argued that the problem here needs to be identified clearly, so that it can then

be resolved by encouraging lecturers to apply what they believe regarding this issue to assist students in improving their reading levels.

Finally, this study has a further implication in that the findings demonstrate that certain lecturers supported the technique of summarising a text as a technique for checking the students' understanding, but they did not apply it. They thought that using this technique is useful in order to assess students' understanding during the class. Summarising the text is an important technique because "such techniques enable students to understand the best way to approach a text" (Yusuf, 2003:1452). Moreover, this kind of technique may lead to an increase in learners' ability to read and it allows them to feel successful, to access information, and to orient themselves in the world of competing concepts (Trajanoska, 2010). Hence, it seems helpful to raise these lecturers' awareness about the fact that some of their beliefs are supported by research and could be helpful to students if put into practice.

6.5. Limitations of the Study

There are several limitations which were encountered in this investigation. Firstly, the qualitative data were gathered from three of the twelve major Libyan universities which were chosen because of their suitability in terms of distance and time, so that access to them was easier. The research findings could be more comprehensive if the data were collected from the other two provinces in the east and south of the country.

Secondly, an audio recorder was used instead of a video recorder in this investigation in interviews and observation. However, if several events happen simultaneously in the classroom, it may be difficult to elicit data about them all in sufficient detail, and therefore it could be more reliable if a video recorder was used.

Thirdly, this investigation focused on the relationships between lecturers' beliefs and practices concerning the teaching of English reading. Due to the shortage of investigations in the Libyan context, this investigation would be more comprehensive if other variables such as the aptitudes, proficiency, and learning styles of students were considered.

Finally, as Nazari (2017: 114) put it, “Interpretivism and qualitative research, while rigorous, inherently works with data that is subjective and contextual, which places limits on the extent to which findings can be generalised.”

6.6. Recommendations for Further Research

Given the current condition of the teaching of English reading in Libya, further research is required that might also help overcome certain problems that teachers of English reading encounter in EFL contexts. For example, future research dealing with these issues might investigate how official inspectors of English language teaching can assist teachers of reading in resolving problems in their teaching. Moreover, studies similar to this one but that concern teaching in areas other than language skills could be carried out using different methods to investigate to what extent different teaching beliefs influence different types of teaching.

In addition, this study’s findings could be used for designing training programmes to develop lecturers’ beliefs and to help them translate their beliefs into practice. This research could also serve as a resource for developing research tools that will explore the cognition and practice of EFL teachers. This study could provide useful guidelines to be used by other researchers to conduct new studies in other contexts.

This investigation only focused on EFL lecturers at universities in one region of Libya, and further explorations including EFL lecturers in the whole country are recommended.

Finally, as Libya is considered a relatively new geographical area for social and academic research, more investigations of lecturers’ beliefs about and use of techniques for teaching reading in this particular context would be beneficial to L2 teaching and learning research.

6.7. Summary

This chapter has summarised the findings of this investigation that were derived from the analysis of qualitative data with regard to each of the research questions. The chapter has also drawn on the contribution of the study in regard to exploring EFL teachers' beliefs about teaching English reading compared with what they actually did in their classes. The limitations of the work were highlighted and recommendations for further studies were also provided. A clear picture has been given of the implications and applications of the study's findings. The hope is that studies like this one will expand our knowledge and understanding of the teaching of English as a foreign language.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Observation Analysis Sample

Transcripts of Observations of Lectures	Open codes
<p style="text-align: center;">Lecturer 1 (Hassan)</p> <p>Observation A</p> <p>General comments</p> <p>University: U1</p> <p>Date: 12/03/2015</p> <p>Lecturer's name: Omer</p> <p>Age: 43</p> <p>Years of experience: 8</p> <p>Number of students: 56 (43 female and 13 male)</p> <p>Title of lesson: Getting Along</p> <p>Materials and teaching aids used: Textbook, board, mark point, and nothing else.</p> <p>The lesson was about how to get along in a diverse society. The lecturer instructed the students to read the passage to look for the difficult words in the passage. There were some short sentences in the text, and the lecturer asked the students to go through the passage clearly in order to extract its full meaning. The lecturer asked the students questions to check whether the students had any problems and queries in understanding the text of the passage. On enquiring, some of the students raised their hands and mentioned that they were unable to understand what the writer wanted to convey while the lecturer had succeeded in making some of them understand the meaning for the reader. Then, the lecturer asked the students to look around their classroom and think of ways in which the other students in the class</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pushing students to understand the text. • Checking students' previous vocabulary knowledge • Using inductive technique of

student did not reply to the question, so he chose another student, and that student replied to the lecturer's question with the correct answer. The lecturer did the same thing with the other practice example questions. After 20 minutes, the lecturer asked the students to read the following paragraph silently, paying attention to the underlined words. The students then had to guess which word or phrase was the best choice for each sentence below. "Check your guesses after you have read the article on pages 20 and 21."

The text was:

Many people in the United States respect and value diversity. They appreciate the benefits of living in a diverse society where they can learn from each other. They recognize that no one person is exactly like another person. They understand that individuals differ in many ways. American children are taught that it's wrong to prevent someone from having the same opportunities as others have, just because that person is different. That type of discrimination and prejudice is against the law in the United States.

1. When you respect people, you have a (low/high) opinion of them.
2. Benefits are the (positive/negative) effect of a situation.
3. When you recognize something as true, you (know/don't know) that is true.
4. People who differ (are /are not) not the same.
5. When you prevent something, you (stop /don't stop) it.
6. Prejudice is an opinion about a person or group that (is/isn't) based on facts.

For this kind of question, all the students participated in groups, and most of them not only answered the questions, but they also matched each word or phrase with the suitable sentence. This practice took about

- reading technique
- Using scanning and skimming techniques
- Using background knowledge to guess the meaning of new terms
- Using group work
- Presenting reading by students
- The lecturer used interactive technique by involving students to work together
- Using your English-English dictionary

<p>10 minutes.</p> <p>Then the lecturer moved to a new activity. It looked as if the lecturer wanted to develop some reading skills with practice while previewing some comprehension questions. The lecturer asked the students to preview the questions that followed the paragraph below. Then, after reading the paragraph, look for the answers and highlight them. Compare answers with your classmates. He said, “You can use your English-English dictionary.”</p> <p>New Text</p> <p>Diversity on college campuses is growing. Colleges recognize that differences among people help create a more interesting environment. They also know that, unfortunately, prejudice, or the hatred of certain groups, can occur when the student population is diverse. Several organizations, such as Stop the Hate, offer information and programs about how to prevent prejudice. They help students speak out against prejudice on campus.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1- Why is diversity good for the college environment? 2- What problem sometimes comes with diversity? 3- What is Stop the Hate? 4- What does Stop the Hate help students do? <p>The lecturer and students took about 20 minutes in answering and practising these exercises. The lecturer also gave the students some examples and asked them to compare their answers after they had finished answering the questions.</p> <p>In the last part of the class, it seemed as if the lecturer wanted the students to use their reading skills. The lecturer gave the students a long article about the sociology textbook, which described some of the ways that the United States is managing its diversity, and asked students to</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interaction between the lecturer and students • The lecturer in control • Using reading aloud techniques • Reminding and summarizing what they had last lecture. • Preparing students to be ready for new lesson • Checking students’ understanding
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read it out loud.

The questions were as follows:

- Answer these questions. Look back at the article on pages 20-21 to check your answers. There are 8 questions that belong to this.
- Choose the idea under each heading that does not appear in the article on pages 20-21. Look back at the article to check your answers.
- Think about these questions, then discuss them with your classmates.

Work with the vocabulary.

- Complete each sentence below with the correct word from the word family in the box.

The lecturer said, “All these questions are for homework and we will have to answer these questions next class.”

- Using their previous knowledge to answer the text questions

- Using student-student interaction

- Giving positive feedback

Observation B

General comments

University: U1

Date: 19/03/2015

Lecturer's name: Omer

Age: 43

Years of experience: 8

Number of students: 56 (43 female and 13 male)

Title of lesson: Getting Along

Materials and teaching aids used: Textbook, board, mark point, and nothing more.

The lecturer started with a revision of the previous lesson. He also gave students some refreshments and then continued the lesson. After warming up and helping students recall the lesson, he started questioning them about the long article from the sociology textbook, which had described some of the ways that the United States is managing its diversity.

Students were ready to answer the question because according to them, they had answered these questions at home. They all started with the first question: "Answer these questions. Look back at the article on pages 20-21 to check your answers. There are 8 questions belonging to this".

One of the students raised her hand and read the question aloud for the rest of the students, and then some other students raised their hand and wanted to answer the question.

The question was 'What is diversity?' Mohamed wanted to give the answer, and stated that there are many ways in which people differ from

- The lecturer is in control
- Giving positive feedback
- Interaction between lecturer and student
- Asking more questions to help student to understand the text

each other. The lecturer said, “Thank you, Mohamed. That is right.”

The lecturer went to the next question and read it to the students: “What are the three ways in which people are different?” Some students wanted to answer, but the lecturer chose Hana to answer. Hana replied, “Race, gender, age and ethnic backgrounds.” The lecturer said, “Brilliant! Good”. The lecturer asked one of the students at the back of the class to read and answer the third question. The student read the question: “What are the benefits of a diverse society?” And his answer was, “To use different languages with each other.” The lecturer said, “That is ok, and it makes the society more interesting.” He then moved to the fourth question: “What can happen when people cannot understand each other’s differences?” One of the students said, “They will hate each other”, and other students said loudly, “Prejudice and discrimination.” The lecturer said, “That is right,” and moved to the fifth question, and said, “How does U.S. government fight discrimination?” The majority of the students had not answered the question, so he asked them to go back to the passage and find the answer. After a while, Asma answered the question with the help of her lecturer; she said, “It makes laws against discrimination”, and the lecturer said, “Such as the Civil Right Act of 1964 or Title IX of the education Amendments of 1972.” The lecturer asked the students the sixth question: “What do college students learn in a diversity course?” He directly asked Tahani and asked if she could answer the question. Tahani said, “The history and traditions of various cultures in relation to their own.” The lecturer thanked Tahani and moved to another question: “What did the Ford Foundation poll show?” One of the students answered this question directly: “Two-thirds of participants said that it’s important to prepare students to live in a diverse society.” Then, the lecturer asked the last question: “What is the purpose of diversity training in business?” He chose one student who had not been participating in the class and asked him to answer the question, but the student was unable to answer. The lecturer helped him find the answer from the passage, and he replied that the purpose was to create a

- students did not know how to answer some questions
- monitoring reading aspects through asking and answer questions
- Giving positive feedback
- Involving students to participate and say their suggestions
- Encouraging students to participate
- monitoring reading aspects through asking and answering questions
- students to work

<p>workplace where everyone understands, respects, and values the differences of others.</p> <p>The lecturer moved to the next exercise. He asked the students to work in pairs, and once they had finished answering the question, they compared their answers with those of other groups.</p> <p>He divided them into pairs and asked them to start answering the questions while he was walking around the class and discussing with each group individually. He did exactly the same with two more exercises, which were ‘Choose the idea under each heading that does not appear in the article on pages 20-21. Look at the article to check your answers.</p> <p>(In this exercise, there are 4 headings.)’</p> <p>The other exercise was to “think about these questions then discuss them with your classmates.” In this exercise, students spent quite long time with each other in order to answer the questions. They discussed with their lecturer different points related to the topic. At the end, he enquired if they had any questions or queries related to the topic from the current or from the last class. He thanked them and told them, “We can carry on and can take next week to finish the rest of the exercises” and then said, “Good bye! See you next week.”</p>	<p>in pairs</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • students to work in groups • Check students’ understanding • Using inductive technique of teaching reading • Check students’ understanding • Using scanning and skimming techniques • Using silent reading technique
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Observation C

General comments

University: U1...

Date: 26/03/2015

Lecturer's name: Omer

Age: 43

Years of experience: 8

Number of students: 40 (40 female and 9 male)

Title of lesson: Getting Along

Materials and teaching aids used: Textbook, board, mark point, and nothing else.

The lecturer welcomed the students by saying, "Good morning"; he asked them to open their books at page 21 and started writing 'Get ready to read and share' on the board. When he had finished, he said, "Right, now I want you to read the paragraph about stereotypes silently and think about the words written on the board." After that, he explained the words to the students and shared their meanings with them. Next, he asked them to read the paragraph about the stereotypes and to use the information to decide whether the statements in the chart were facts or stereotypes: "Check the correct boxes."

Stereotypes

Sometimes people form opinions about groups of other people and make overly simple, general statements about them. These statements are called stereotypes. They are not true and they are not based on facts. Stereotyping people often causes discrimination.

- students using their knowledge through intensive and extensive reading

and tension.

The lecturer helped the students to know the meaning of these words and then he asked them to write the word next to each word.

The lecturer moved from this kind of exercise to another one. He asked the students to preview the key elements of the two texts on pages 28 - 30 and then answer the following questions.

1. What is the topic of text A?
2. What is the topic of text B?

When students had finished reading, they gave the key elements of these two questions. The topic first topic was “stereotypes of Native Americans” and the second one “gaining friendship and understanding through songs.”

The lecturer moved from this question to another one, which was chosen from a text for reading, and asked the students to “preview the focus questions for your article on page 31. Then answer these questions.”

1. What is the title of your text?
2. What do you already know about the topic?
3. Based on the focus questions, what do you predict you will learn?

The students took about 10 minutes to read the text silently, and then they started discussing and answering those questions together. Various answers were given by students, and they discussed these answers with their lecturer.

The lecturer said, “Now we have to move to the next page to read the passage and discuss it together.”

He wrote on the board ‘READ A.’

People from different communities often find it difficult to understand

- monitoring reading aspects through asking and answer questions

- encouraging students to work in pairs

- Using classroom interaction

<p>each other. This newspaper discusses one of the problems Native Americans face.</p> <p>The title of the text was ‘Fighting Braves’. Students read the text silently, and then they started discussing some new words and expressions they did not know. The lecturer gave the meaning of all the new words that students did not know and then explained the meaning of the new expressions to the students. The new words that the students did not know were ‘braves,’ ‘Indian,’ ‘chiefs,’ ‘encourage,’ ‘indigenous people’ and ‘passionate.’</p> <p>After explaining the meanings, the lecturer started writing the meaning of each word on the board, and the students followed him.</p> <p>He wrote on the board ‘READ B.’</p> <p>Sharing a common interest can often bring different groups together. This web page describes how two groups gained friendship and understanding through song.</p> <p>The lecturer did exactly the same as with the previous passage and discussed the text in the same way with the students as he had done previously.</p> <p>The lecturer moved to the next exercise, which said, ‘SHARE WHAT YOU LEARNED’, and wrote on the board:</p> <p>A. Work partner who has read the same article.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Read the focus questions of the article in the chart below. 2. Discuss the questions and write the answers. <p>Focus questions for text A</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Why do sports teams name themselves after Native Americans? 2. Why do Native Americans dislike the use of their names and symbols by teams? 3. What did the To males School Board decided to do? Do you 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Correcting students errors • encouraging students to work in pairs • Using dictionary • monitoring reading aspects through sharing the meaning of words
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think Native Americans were happy about the decision?

4. Why is it difficult to solve the conflict between Native Americans and sports teams that want to use Native American names and symbols?

Focus questions for text B

1. Why did Hampton Smilow form the Freedom Music Project?
2. Why are the freedom songs meaningful to all the singers?
3. What were some of the difficulties the choir members had?
4. What helped the young people communicate better with each other?

The lecturer divided the students into two groups: group A and group B. He started answering the questions with group A and writing the answers on the board, and the students follow him. He wrote the answers on the board like this:

Answers for text A:

1. To celebrate the strength and courage of the Native American people.
2. Because they believe it encourages stereotyping and discrimination.
3. To keep the name but change the mascot (answers vary)
4. Different answers were being given by students and the lecturer wrote down many of them.

After the students had finished answering the questions for text B, the lecturer wrote the answers on the board.

1. To bring people together from two different backgrounds who share common interests.
2. Because both African and American and Jewish people have

- monitoring reading aspects by giving some instructions to students
- Using silent technique of reading
- Student-student interaction
- Lecturer-student interaction
- Using top down method (lecturer in control)
- Using silent technique of reading
- Pushing students

<p>ancestors who were slaves.</p> <p>3. Learning unfamiliar music and learning their parts in different ways.</p> <p>4. The lecturer took different answers from the students and wrote them on the board.</p> <p>The lecturer said, “This is the last part of the lecture, and I want you to discuss these questions with your teammates. Then share your answers with the class.”</p> <p>He did not write the questions on the board, but he asked them to read them from the book. The questions were:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What can some people learn to get along with each other? 2. What do you think are the main causes of misunderstanding between people? Why? 3. What kind of things have you done to help you learn about other people or cultures? What can you do to learn more? <p>All the students participated in answering this question. Various answers were given; the students seemed to like the topic, and they were giving different answers and suggestions to all these questions.</p> <p>The lecturer said, “That’s enough for today” and wanted them to prepare the new lesson for the following week.</p> <p>The lecturer said, “Do you have any question or any enquiries?” The students said, “Thanks”, and the lecturer said, “Bye for now, and see you next week.”</p>	<p>to understand new terms</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • giving feedback • students to work in groups • students to work in groups • giving feedback • involving students to participate in pairs in during the activities • pushing students to use their knowledge to answer the questions • Check students understanding
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Appendix B: Semi-structured interview questions

Thank you very much for taking part in this interview. The purpose of this interview is to investigate the teacher's beliefs about teaching English reading. There are no right or wrong answers to any of the interview questions. So, please answer the questions as frankly as you can based on what you really do, not on how you think you should answer the questions. Your individual responses will remain anonymous and all information will be treated in the strictest confidence. The interview should take approximately 45 minutes.

Participant no:

Time and date of the interview:

Gender:

University

1. Can you please tell me what your own experience is of teaching English reading as a university teacher?
2. Do you think learning occurs best if learners discover techniques by themselves or if the techniques are presented by the teacher? Why?
3. To what extent do your 'beliefs' about learning affect your teaching of English reading? Why?
4. How important do you believe reading is for learning English as a foreign language? Is it possible not to teach reading? Why do you think that? Where do such beliefs come from?
5. Describe as specifically as possible the way you teach reading to your students? Why do you teach that way? Where does your idea of teaching reading come from? Give examples of the activities/steps you use in a reading lesson?
6. Do you teach English reading top-down, bottom up or interactively? Why?
7. Do you require your students to read intensively, extensively or both? Why?
8. Do you think teaching English reading techniques or metalanguage is important for learners seeking to learn English reading? Why?
9. Do you follow the textbook instructions or do you use some other way to teach reading? Why?
10. When and how do you correct your students' reading errors? Why?
11. When and how do you provide students with feedback on their English reading? Why?

12. When and how do you check students' understanding of the reading material? Why?
13. What are the factors that hinder teachers from teaching English reading?
14. Do you have any other information about teaching English reading that you want to add?

Thank you for your time and help

Appendix C: Interviews Analysis Sample

Lecturers' Interview Transcripts	Open codes
<p>Researcher: Can you please tell me what your own experience is of teaching English reading as a university lecturer?</p> <p>Hassan: Learning reading itself is not difficult, at least in some cases, but the problem is how to use the reading techniques that we have acquired in order to use the language. Anyway, my experience of learning reading started when we were first exposed to English reading techniques in school. In the first year of secondary school, our teacher wrote some techniques on the blackboard and began to explain them. He told us the meaning of the techniques in Arabic, and advised us how best to deal with these rules of reading in future. Having become a lecturer myself, I am sure that his meaning of the techniques in Arabic was wrong. I think the best way to learn reading is to let students discover the techniques by themselves. For that reason, I always try to encourage my students to do that first; if I find that they cannot manage to do so, I explain everything in English or Arabic, as many times as necessary.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • learning reading is not difficult • how to use the reading techniques • experience of learning reading • writing techniques on the board • explaining the meaning of the techniques in Arabic

Researcher: Do you think learning occurs best if learners discover techniques by themselves or if the techniques are presented by the lecturer? Why?

Hassan: Learning well, of course, best takes place if the learners discover the techniques for themselves, but it is impossible for students with a low level of English to find out the techniques on their own. In most cases, they find it difficult even when they are presented with the techniques by their lecturer. They always wait for me to explain the techniques, and often they do not ask when they do not understand although I have told them many times not to be shy: 'If you do not understand anything, please ask me!'

Researcher: To what extent do your 'beliefs' about learning affect your teaching of English reading? Why?

Hassan: Yes it does. All I have learned has helped me when I teach, because I can use both old and new information. Lecturers always prefer to supply useful and simple information to help students understand the rules better. I would also say that most of the knowledge that I use in the classroom

- The best way to learn reading is to let students discover the techniques by themselves.

- using preferred language

- Learning well, of course, best takes place if the learners discover the techniques by themselves.

comes from personal experience of when I was a learner. In this case, knowledge of learning and knowledge of teaching are strongly related and complement each other, and we cannot separate them.

Researcher: How important do you believe reading is for learning English as a foreign language? Is it possible not to teach reading? Why do you think that? Where do such beliefs come from?

Hassan: I don't think that learners can acquire a language without the help of reading structures, unless they live in countries where English is spoken by natives. I believe that students can learn best when they know the context of the other language. Students who think in their own language and transfer those ideas to the other will find it hard to make their language clear and like that of a native speaker. I do not think that it is possible not to teach English reading in the teaching curriculum because learners could not improve their English without reading whether it is intensively or extensively.

Researcher: Describe as specifically as possible the way you teach reading to your students. Why do you teach that way?

- using previous knowledge to teach English reading

- because I can use both old and new information

- Most of the knowledge that I use in the classroom comes from personal experience when I was a learner.

- Knowledge of learning and knowledge of teaching are strongly related and complement each other.

Where does your idea of teaching reading come from? Give examples of the activities/steps you use in a reading lesson?

Hassan: I have changed my teaching approach when it seemed necessary to do so. I think working through texts is better than directly presenting a lot of reading techniques in front of the class. I tried to encourage doing activities in small groups, but found that it was too difficult. I prefer to use reading techniques communicatively, because students need to practise if they are to understand reading techniques and use them when they work alone or with others. I teach in this way because it will help my students to learn other language skills. The idea of teaching reading communicatively comes from my experience when I was student. Normally, I give students some passages or texts about different topics and ask them to answer some questions and ask them what techniques they normally use and why they use them to understand the text.

Researcher: Do you teach English reading top-down, bottom up, or interactively? Why?

Hassan: I have not heard about these three approaches before, but I know that there are

- Learners cannot acquire a language without the help of reading structures unless they live in countries where English is spoken by natives.

- the context of the other language

- I do not think that it is possible not to teach English reading in the teaching curriculum.

- because learners could not improve their English without reading, whether it is intensively or extensively

- Using different teaching techniques if it is

different styles of teaching English reading. I will tell you what I do, and you can decide which method I am applying. I sometimes teach reading more explicitly because students today are more often in touch with English than before; they already know quite a lot without having to think about it. I have noticed that students make a lot of mistakes, so I do not think that changing the approach has led to better results. I sometimes present the reading techniques on the board with examples, before asking the students to write down those same examples. I prefer to teach by the method which best helps me to achieve my lesson aims. Normally, I begin with the largest unit and then move to the smallest one to understand the text, and I think that is the best way to teach reading.

Researcher: Do you require your students to read intensively, extensively, or both? Why?

Hassan: Before answering you, I want to confirm that this is an important topic, and I have noticed that it is a controversial issue for lecturers. There are some lecturers, including myself, who believe that it is not good for lecturers to teach reading extensively. This is because the students will base their ideas only for intensive reading

required.

- Presenting techniques through texts is better than presenting it directly.

- using methods of teaching

- Ask students what are the best technique they use.

and ignore the ideas for extensive reading. In other words, the students will not create new techniques through intensive reading; only the one applied by their lecturers.

Researcher: Do you think teaching English reading techniques or metalanguage is important for learners seeking to learn English reading? Why?

Hassan: In fact, I use a very high degree of metalanguage in all my explanations, because I think it is important; I agree that students will learn reading better if they understand reading techniques, although reading can be successfully taught without extensive terminology if the student's level of English is high. However, I expect that learners will use reading techniques only if they recognize and understand them.

Researcher: Do you follow the textbook instructions, or do you use some other way to teach reading? Why?

Hassan: For me as a lecturer, it is fine, but I think the textbook may be difficult and possibly not too exciting for the students. I would recommend all lecturers of reading to look for more exercises or better

- Lecturers did not know these techniques for teaching reading.

- ways of teaching reading according to lecturer's knowledge

- Lecturers use methods, and they do not know the name of the method.

explanations from other books, to make their reading lessons more active and interesting. Using other sources can help students to improve their knowledge of reading. I have often decided not to follow the textbook instructions because of the limited or difficult material the textbook contains.

Researcher: When and how do you correct your students' reading errors? Why?

Hassan: Ok, correcting students' errors is important when correction is given immediately to the students because students will not be thinking that they are correct and suddenly you tell them the opposite. I think this will give them negative attitude. Therefore, giving the corrections during the class is better for all students

Researcher: Why?

Hassan: Because they all benefit from it. On the other hand, and in some situations, I do not like to interrupt my students or bother them when they read. I disagree with those who correct student's errors without motivating them during the lesson. I never ever use any rejecting technique during my lesson.

- beliefs about teaching reading extensively

- beliefs about using metalanguage in the explanations

- the importance of metalanguage

- Learners should recognise and understand the technique.

- The textbook is useful and difficult.

- Lecturers should use more exercises and explanations to make their reading lessons more active and interesting.

- Direct correction is important but not always

- Giving the corrections during the class is

<p>Researcher: When and how do you check students' understanding of the reading material? Why?</p> <p>Hassan: I check students' understanding from time to time during the lesson, and make sure that they are keeping up with my explanations. I also check their understanding of the reading rules by asking questions, sometimes orally and sometimes in writing. This is done after explaining the lesson. I answer all the questions as feedback for the students at the end of the lesson.</p>	<p>better.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Correcting students' errors while speaking is interrupting their speech. • Technique of providing some solutions to their errors was helpful and useful for students • This technique gives clues that they have understood and that there is no need for repetition.
<p>Researcher: What do you believe about employing interpretation in teaching techniques including the use of student's L1?</p> <p>Hassan: I believe that it is not good for lecturers to use the students' first language when they are teaching reading. I agree to use it in the class only when the use of English and gestures has not been successful. I also do not recommend students to use an English-English dictionary; although students will increase their vocabulary and they will acquire some new words from the usage of an English-English dictionary, most of the time, they</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use of short quizzes as a strategy to check students' understanding. • Aware of engaging students in the process of checking their understanding of reading. • It is not good to use L1 when lecturers are teaching reading. • Using L1 in the class only when the use of English and gestures had not been successful. • English-English dictionary is not recommended • Using L1 to correct students' errors may

will not understand the exact meaning of the word or phrase. Using L2 may confuse students.

Researcher: What do you believe about adopting social techniques in your reading class?

Hassan: I believe that not all social techniques not work in our university. For example, lecturers feel shy about sharing knowledge. I believe that pushing students is the best way to reduce any ambiguity in the lesson, so interaction between students will do the job. I would say that classroom interaction is very important for lecturers and students to help each other to close the learning circle.

Researcher: Do you believe teaching vocabulary is an important part in teaching reading texts?

Hassan: I believe lecturers should ask their students to paraphrase new words even when they use their word lists. They get into the habit of writing the new word in combination with paraphrasing it in their word list. I believe doing so this facilitates memorization. I want to add that learning

confuse students when they interact.

- Social techniques do not work in our university.

- Classroom interaction is very important for lecturers and students.

- Using word list for the new words.

- Learning words independently better than from lecturers.

- Making link between words and their images in mind.

- Using the technique of image words never

words independently is better than lecturers teaching them. I normally make a link between words and their images in my mind. This link can occur only with concrete words. In my class, I have never used the technique of finding an image for the words, but it seems useful because it enables the students be aware of the use of the words.

Researcher: At the end of the reading class, what do you believe is the best way to evaluate the teaching techniques you have used?

Hassan: During and after teaching an English reading class, I can see if the students are happy with the technique or not. I normally use more than one technique in one class. It is necessary to change my lesson plan or the teaching techniques because this change may affect positively students' understanding because they are used to being exposed to this kind of teaching. Therefore, it is better and more helpful for the lecturer to use the same techniques. Also, the technique of summarising the text at the end of each class helps students to understand more about the lesson. I use the technique of paraphrasing texts used for teaching many times in order to increase and practise students' reading

used in my class.

- checking whether students are happy with the technique or not

- using different techniques in one class

- summarising the text at the end of each class

- paraphrasing texts of teaching

- technique of reading quickly

- preferred techniques used

- ignoring reading quickly to understand the general meaning

and writing skills.

Researcher: Do you have any other information about teaching English reading that you want to add?

Hassan: I want to refer quickly to the reading technique of understanding the whole text. I would say I never ask my students to read quickly to get a general idea about the text. I always focus on looking for the specific meaning in the text and ignore reading quickly to understand the general meaning, and also, I have no idea about this technique, and I always ask them to read slowly in order to understand the meaning word by word, sentence by sentence. Regarding reading silently, I believe this technique is not important, and it will not help the students too much to understand the text. The technique of creating mental pictures does not work in my class, and I have not got enough of an idea about it. I also believe that focussing on some points during the reading lessons and asking students to highlight some points using their own techniques is significant for providing a summary of the important points. Thanks for giving me time to add these points.

Researcher: Thank you for your help and time.

- technique of reading silently

- the technique creating mental pictures

- Asking students to highlight some points by their own ways is significant as a summary of the important points.

Appendix D: The Stage of Identifying Range of Responses

Lecturers' beliefs about presenting reading

Text: interview data from Hassan's interview

Code: not conscious about the approaches of top-down, bottom-up and interactive reading processes; present the reading techniques on the board with examples; asking the students to write down those same examples; start with the largest unit and then move to the smallest one to understand the text; using a very high degree of metalanguage in all my explanations; teaching reading extensively; the textbook is useful and difficult.

Lecturers' Beliefs about Comprehension Techniques

Text: interview data from Hassan's interview

Code: awareness about technique of reading quickly to understand the whole text; asking students to highlight some points in their own ways is significant as a summary of the important points; reading silently is not important and it will not help too much to understand the text; focus on looking for the specific meaning in the text and ignoring reading quickly to understand the general meaning; asking students to highlight some points in their own ways is significant as a summary of the important points.

Lecturers' Beliefs about Employing Interpretation Teaching Techniques

Text: interview data from Hassan's interview

Code: It is not good to use L1 when lecturers are teaching reading; not aware of using an English-English dictionary; not aware of using English-Arabic dictionaries; not aware of using electronic dictionaries.

Lecturers' beliefs about adopting activities

Text: interview data from Hassan's interview

Code: Social techniques do not work in our university; classroom interaction is very important for lecturers and students; not aware of sharing knowledge with other lecturers; not aware of discussing unclear expressions in the reading text with students; awareness of encouraging students to work in groups.

Lecturers' Beliefs about Correcting Errors and Giving Feedback

Text: interview data from Hassan's interview

Code: Direct correction is important but not always; giving the corrections during the class is better; correcting students' errors while reading is interrupting their speech; concerning about using direct correction immediately; awareness about correcting students' errors after reading; concern about motivating students to participate; awareness of rejecting students' answers.

Lecturers' Beliefs about Teaching Vocabulary

Text: interview data from Hassan's interview

Code: using word list for the new words; learning words independently better than from lecturers; making link between words and their images in the mind; encouraging students to understand the meanings of new words in their context; awareness of letting students study vocabulary by themselves; using the technique of images of words is never used in my class; awareness about increasing students' English vocabulary.

Lecturers' Beliefs about Evaluating the Teaching Techniques Used

Text: interview data from Hassan's interview

Code: checking whether students are happy with the technique or not, using different techniques in one class, summarising the text at the end of each class, awareness about paraphrasing texts of teaching.

Appendix E: Sample of Selecting Focused Codes

Lecturers' beliefs about teaching English reading techniques	Focused Codes
<p>❖ Presenting Reading Techniques</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Awareness of employing top-down, bottom-up and interactively reading processes • Teaching reading methods and lecturers' preferences • The effect of teaching and learning experience on presenting English reading • The effectiveness of knowledge of metalanguage in teaching English reading
<p>❖ Employing Interpretation Teaching Techniques</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lecturers' beliefs about translating into L1 • Lecturers' beliefs about using an English-English dictionary • Lecturers' beliefs about using an English-Arabic dictionary • Lecturers' beliefs about using an electronic dictionary

<p>❖ Adopting Interaction Activities</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lecturers' beliefs about sharing knowledge with other lecturers • Lecturers' beliefs about discussing unclear expressions in the reading text with students • Lecturers' beliefs about encouraging students to work in groups • Lecturers' beliefs about assigning students to work in pairs on an exercise
<p>❖ Correcting Errors and Giving Feedback</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lecturers' beliefs concerning using direct correction immediately • Lecturers' beliefs about correcting students' errors while they are reading • Lecturers' beliefs about correcting students' errors after reading • Lecturers' beliefs about motivating students to participate

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lecturers' beliefs about rejecting students' answers
<p>❖ Teaching Vocabulary</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lecturers' beliefs about encouraging students to understand the meanings of new words in their context • Lecturers' beliefs about letting students study vocabulary by themselves • Lecturers' beliefs about using images of word meanings • Lecturers' beliefs about increasing students' English vocabulary
<p>❖ Evaluating the Teaching Techniques Used</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lecturers' beliefs about checking students' understanding • Lecturers' beliefs about using similar/different strategies with different texts • Lecturers' beliefs about summarising the text

	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Lecturers' beliefs about paraphrasing the text
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Appendix F: The Selective Codes

N	Selective Codes
1	Lecturers' beliefs about presenting reading techniques
2	Lecturers' beliefs about comprehension techniques
3	Lecturers' beliefs about employing interpretation teaching techniques
4	Lecturers' beliefs about adopting interaction activities
5	Lecturers' beliefs about error correction and providing feedback
6	Lecturers' beliefs about teaching vocabulary
7	Lecturers' beliefs about evaluating teaching techniques used

Appendix G: Consent Form

London Metropolitan University

Consent Form

Your consent is requested to participate in this research project which is in fulfilment of the requirements of a PhD. You may withdraw from the project at any time.

The purpose of this research is to gain an insight into lecturers' classroom practices and their beliefs about teaching and learning the English language reading skills in Libyan universities.

It is hoped the findings can be used to develop their practices and beliefs about learning and teaching of reading skills.

Consent

I give permission for interview and classroom observation data to be collected and used for the purpose of this research. I understand that this is the only purpose for which they will be used, that confidentiality will be strictly observed, and that no identifying information will be made available regarding me.

I understand that the information provided by me will be held confidentially, such that only the main researcher can trace this information back to me individually. The information will be retained for up to 2 years when it will be deleted/destroyed.

I understand that this consent form will be stored separately from the data so that the data cannot be traced to me.

Name:

Signature:

Institute:

Date:

Thank you in advance for your time and help.

Ahmed Zraga, PhD student

Signature:

Email: arz0069@my.londonmet.ac.uk

Appendix H: Ethics Application Form

UNIVERSITY RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW FORM

In the case of postgraduate research student projects (i.e. MRes, MA by Project/Dissertation, MPhil, PhD and DProf), this form should be completed by the student concerned in full consultation with their supervisor.

In the case of staff research projects, this form should be completed by the member of staff responsible for the research project (i.e. as Principal Investigator and/or grant-holder) in full consultation with any co-investigators, research students and research staff.

Further guidance on the University's Research Ethics Policy and Procedures, along with links to relevant research ethics materials and advice, can be found on the Research & Postgraduate Office Research Ethics webpage:

<http://www.londonmet.ac.uk/research/the-research-and-postgraduate-office/current-students/research-ethics.cfm>

This form requires the completion of the following three sections –

SECTION A: APPLICANT DETAILS

SECTION B: THE PROJECT - ETHICAL ISSUES

SECTION C: THE PROJECT - RISKS AND BENEFITS

SECTION A: APPLICANT DETAILS

A1	Background information
	Research project title: An investigation into the relationships between EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers' classroom practices and their beliefs about teaching and learning reading as a second language in Libyan universities
	Date of submission for ethics approval: 5 th of May

	Proposed start date for project: September 2014
	Proposed end date for project: 12 th of December 2016
	Ethics ID no: * (to be completed by RERP)

A2	Applicant details, if for a research student project
	Name: Ahmed Rashed Ahmed Zraga
	London Met Email address: arz0069@my.londonmet.ac.uk

A3	Principal Researcher/Lead Supervisor
	Member of staff at London Metropolitan University who is responsible for the proposed research project either as Principal Investigator/grant-holder or, in the case of postgraduate research student projects, as Lead Supervisor
	Name: Dr. Ahmad Nazari
	Job title: Principal Lecturer for Languages
	London Met Email address: a.nazari@londonmet.ac.uk

SECTION B: THE PROJECT - ETHICAL ISSUES

B1	The Research Proposal
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Please attach a brief summary of the research project including:

- Background/rationale

An investigation of the relationships between Libyan EFL lecturers' beliefs about the teaching of reading in English and their classroom practices in Libyan universities

Introduction

This study aims to make a contribution by shedding light on lectures' beliefs and how they are related to the teaching of reading in Libyan universities. As a field of study, teacher cognition research tries to better understand how teachers' mental constructs are related to how they teach a language (Borg, 2009). Since this study deals with Libyan university lecturers, it is essential to provide a comprehensive background and context for the study. Brief definitions of reading and teachers' cognition and practices are also discussed. Furthermore, the significance and aims of the study are considered. An outline of the intended methodology, contribution to knowledge and references is also presented

- **Aims/objectives**

Aims of the study

Considering the previous research available, this study will be different since its main focus will be on the way reading is being taught to Libyan university students, as well as the university lecturers' beliefs about teaching and learning reading. I believe that such work has not been included in published studies yet. This study aims to investigate the following questions:

1. What beliefs are held by university English language lecturers in Libya concerning the learning of English language reading skills? Why do these beliefs develop and how do they affect the lecturers' practices in the classroom?

- What factors and constraints are responsible for shaping lecturers' beliefs regarding teaching English language reading skills?

B2

2. What are the main characteristics of university lecturers' practices during classroom instructions in teaching English reading skills in Libya?

3. How are the beliefs and classroom practices of lecturers of English in Libyan universities concerning the development of English language reading skills related?

- **Research methodology**

B3

Outline of the intended methodology

For the purpose of this study, a qualitative methods research design will be used. Consequently, two instruments of data collection, namely semi-structured interviews and unstructured observation will be used in this study in order to obtain a greater level of validity for the findings, according to the arguments proposed by Cohen et al. (2007). This research will be carried out in three universities in Libya where English is being taught as a foreign language and the amount of exposure to the target language is limited and restricted to classroom activities.

Three universities have been chosen in order to obtain an in-depth understanding of the teachers' views and practices. Their personal epistemology will show their epistemological beliefs towards knowledge and learning, according to the different universities' characteristics. The sequence of instrument use will start with the semi-structured interviews and then unstructured observation.

B4

Teacher interviews

Semi-structured interviews will be used in this study. Ten male and female teachers with different experiences, chosen randomly, will be interviewed individually. Cohen et al. (2007) consider an interview to be a conversation between an interviewer and an interviewee to obtain relevant information. The interviews aim to obtain the teachers' perspectives on the issues raised to gain a complete idea about their teaching environment, their beliefs, and the

types of techniques and activities they adopt for teaching reading.

Classroom observation

Stern (1996:493) stresses that in order to obtain authentic data about the teaching and learning process, you need to look at the actual practice of teaching in the classroom and this can only be done through classroom observation. This tool is planned to be used to observe and analyse how the reading skill is being approached by both teachers and students. About 20 male and female teachers' classes, chosen randomly, will be visited in the four different universities. This is intended to be repeated at least three times in order to ensure reliable and valid data. Cohen et al. (2007) argue that observation provides a rich description of a situation under investigation. Therefore, this kind of observation has been considered to be the most suitable for the study.

- **Review of the key literature in this field & conceptual framework for study**

Libyan context

Libya is one of the Arabic countries located in North Africa. It borders Chad and Niger to the south, Tunisia and Algeria on the west, and Egypt on the east. In terms of education, the Authority of Education in Libya emphasises that the future of the Libyan nation relies completely on the quality of educational systems. The process of modernisation forced the education authority to pay great attention to spreading education everywhere, in both urban and rural areas in the country (see Libyan National Commission for Education, Culture and Science Report 2001). Therefore, education in Libya exists in two forms, public and private. Public education starts at age six, whereas private education starts before six.

The English language is now introduced in Libyan schools from the first stage of basic education at level five, when students are about eleven years old, and it continues to university level (see Libyan National Commission for Education, Culture and Science Report 2004). English classes last for forty-five minutes and each level takes four classes a week in schools, where each subject is taught at least two hours a week. Teachers of English in the Libyan context are considered to be one of the main resources for learning the language. Richards (2001) comments on the importance of the teacher when he says that the teacher can “often compensate for the poor-quality resources and materials they have to work from”

(Richards, 2001:99).

Teachers of the English language in Libya, as non-native speakers, still suffer from a lack of support from the Libyan education system. The education system has faced many obstacles since formal education began in Libya. One of these obstacles was an extreme lack of qualified Libyan teachers at that time (see the Libyan National Commission for Education, Culture and Science Report 2004). The Libyan government, therefore, attracted non-Libyan teachers from other countries to teach, such as India and Egypt. However, the Libyan government was concerned about this issue so it established a number of teacher education institutions.

The source of qualified teachers is not only confined to the Ministry of Education, there are also educational institutions that belong to Libyan universities. English teachers at universities have a typical teaching load of four classes, with each class comprising between 35-40 students on average. The teachers' methods of teaching were described by a GPCE (2008) report as not being effective for teaching English, as Libyan students "need a teacher that uses the methods of thinking, analysis and building of a full logical model for application" (GPCE, 2008:26). Furthermore, "English language teachers in Libya typically graduate from university with undeveloped spoken communication skills in English" (Orafi & Borg, 2009:251). The reason for this might be related to the shortage of facilities, such as language laboratories, visual aids and other authentic sources like newspapers. The lack of these facilities affects the process of learning and teaching alike. Teachers may not be able to cope with the situation easily for many reasons. For instance, due to their limited experience they may follow the same methodology used by their teachers during their own previous education stages. When presented with new materials, for instance, it was revealed that teachers found it difficult to teach "because they required a high level of oral fluency in English and an English-only methodology that was difficult to implement in large classes" (Orafi & Borg, 2009:91).

Teachers in Libyan universities must carry out certain duties which are required by the policies of the education authority. First, teachers are given a subject syllabus for each day of the year, from its beginning to end, and they have a preparation book for each class in which the method of teaching is explained. The final important duty is that teachers have to keep a record of their students' marks for coursework and homework, their practice in class and their

exam results as part of their assessment. Naturally, they also attend university committee meetings to discuss any internal university issues.

Education policy in Libya is the main cornerstone of education in the country. The aim of such policy is to direct educational plans, curricula, teacher training, and evaluation systems. It covers the general principles of education, its purpose and general objectives, the objectives of the various stages of education, planning for each stage of education, special provisions (such as private schools), education facilities, growth of education, and financing of education. Education policy in Libya is basically guided by the principles of Islam. It could be said that the education policy aims to improve the education system, although there are many decisions and changes made with the aim of finding a suitable system to fulfil the needs of learners and the needs of the country which have affected the education system in Libya. The following section will describe how reading is an essential aspect of this system.

Reading

Reading is rather complex because it “requires rapid and automatic processing of words, strong skills in informing a general meaning representation of main ideas, and efficient coordination of many processes” (Grabe & Stoller, 2002:14). Researchers such as Clay (1991) and Paran (2003) indicate that reading is crucial in our lives, especially independent reading. This is why reading is one of the significant goals of foreign language learners for study purposes (Richards and Renandya, 2002). However, there is still very little reading comprehension instruction occurring in the classroom on a daily basis (Pressley, 2006; Pressley et al., 1998). Therefore, teaching reading will be explored in this study.

Reading helps readers to develop themselves in various situations, such as in general knowledge, writing skills and spelling (Ahmadi & Hairul, 2012). Reading is “a creative art, capturing the imagination of the reader in ways that result in creative thought and expression” (Small & Arnone, 2011:13). In terms of teaching, reading has been the skill most emphasised in traditional EFL teaching, and even today it is the mainstay of EFL instruction in many countries (Ahmadi & Hairul, 2012). Small and Arnone (2011:13) state that it is “often thought of as a skill, something to be learned and practiced”.

Reading can take different forms, such as scanning (reading for specific information), skimming (reading to obtain an overview of the text), reading for general comprehension, reading to learn, reading for pleasure, and reading to investigate and evaluate information

from text (Alderson, 2000; Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Pretorius, 2000). One of the common themes that has emerged from the literature review of this research is that there is no well-defined method for the teaching of reading. This may be due to the different points of view on reading in the language teaching field. Indeed, the various language teaching approaches that have emerged over the years have all placed different emphases on reading as part of language teaching.

Teacher cognition

Cognition is considered to be an umbrella term which includes “the store of beliefs, knowledge, assumptions, theories, and attitudes about all aspects of their work which teachers hold and which have a powerful impact on teachers’ classroom practices” (Borg, 1998:19). In other words, teacher cognition is “the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching what teachers know, believe, and think” (Borg, 2003:81). Understanding teacher cognition is important because it may lead to changes in teachers’ classroom practices (Borg, 2003). Literature shows that many researchers have found that teacher cognition affects their classroom practice, although some others have found it does not. Borg (2006) states that most of the research does not examine teacher cognition in relation to a specific curricular area, rather it focuses on more general processes such as knowledge growth and change or planning and decision-making. Thus, the present study will explore only one aspect of teacher cognition, namely teachers’ beliefs compared to their classroom practices in relation to reading. As Richards and Lockhart (1994) indicate, instructional teaching practices are often influenced by teachers’ beliefs and self-perceptions.

Teacher beliefs and practice

Teacher beliefs can be seen as part of teachers’ processes of understanding and how they perceive their teaching. Teacher beliefs are defined by Pajares (1992) as their attitudes, values, judgments, opinions, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles and perspectives (Pajares, 1992:309). However, “A considerable body of literature now exists documenting the role of context, and particularly constraints that can hinder teachers from implementing their stated beliefs” (Basturkmen et al., 2004: 246). Therefore, it is important to explore these areas to understand the underlying reasons for teachers’ pedagogical decisions in English language reading classrooms.

Teachers' classroom practices are also considered to be a main issue under investigation in this study. This is because research shows that teachers' practices are guided and affected by their beliefs in various different ways. This means that what teachers say and do in the classroom is influenced by their beliefs, as revealed in many different studies including Yim (1993), Woods (1996), and Ng and Farrell (2003). It is acknowledged that teachers possess theoretical beliefs about language teaching and learning and that such beliefs and theories tend to shape the nature of their instructional practices (Richardson et al., 1991; Johnson, 1994; Davis & Wilson, 1999). However, studies into teacher cognition have also revealed that the relationship between belief and practice is rather complex (Borg, 2006).

Contribution to knowledge

According to previous studies (such as Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Pressley, 2006; Grabe, 2009; Small & Arnone, 2011; Ahmadi & Hairul, 2012), reading is considered an important component of the learning process for both native and non-native learners. Reading is one of the most complicated activities in language learning, as it requires both lexical and textual skills and is recognised as being interactive and discursive. However, "the teaching methods applied in many reading classes do not support learners in deducing meaning from context" (Kazemian et al., 2015:49). English language lecturers are thus required to use their knowledge and awareness of the language, language teaching and language learning to help their students to be more independent and skilled readers. Reading can improve the ability of students to enhance their own learning in different areas, such as in writing, spelling and general knowledge (Ahmadi & Hairul, 2012. 55). Furthermore, researchers (such as Lamb, 1995; Breen et al., 2001; Phipps, 2007, 2010; Feryok, 2008; Borg, 2009, 2011; Orafi & Borg, 2009; Lin, 2010 and Kuzborska, 2011) give varying explanations for the relationship between lecturers' beliefs and practices. Barnard and Scampton (2008:75) state that "more fruitful research would seek to identify, and explore, the extent of the convergence and divergence between attitudes, assumptions and knowledge expressed by teachers and their actual classroom behaviour." Thus, the present study contributes to knowledge in the following respects:

- The results and recommendations of the study may provide lecturers with insights into the untaught techniques used by other lecturers. The study also adds important value by contributing to the issue of how little, in relative terms, is known about many of the approaches used for teaching reading skills. Although there is a substantial body of research

available on the teaching of reading skills, little attention has been devoted to how and why certain approaches are deployed.

- It is hoped that the insights gained from this study may contribute to a more complete picture of L2 lecturers' classroom practices and their beliefs concerning the teaching of reading.
- While significant contributions have been made to understanding the relationship between lecturers' beliefs and what they do in their classes in the field of L1 reading, there is little research into lecturer cognition and the teaching of reading in FL contexts. Therefore, as Borg (2006:166) contends, "L2 reading instruction is thus clearly an area where a gap exists between our understanding of methodological and theoretical principles on the one hand, and what we know about teachers' actual practices and cognitions in teaching reading on the other."
- This research is conducted in a location, Libya, which to the best of the present researcher's knowledge has not yet been explored as far as teaching English reading is concerned. Therefore, this study could be very helpful as a starting point for additional explorations in this and other similar contexts.
- With regard to the methodological contributions for research into the beliefs and practices of lecturers in teaching reading, this study confirms the validity of the use of a qualitative approach with data triangulated by more than one source, such as, here, semi-structured interviews and observations. The advantage of a qualitative study is that it enables researchers to obtain a more in-depth understanding of what teachers and lecturers think and of the motivation for their behaviours in addition to giving an insight into why they behave that way within their own teaching context.

The relationships found between beliefs and practices in this study deserve deeper investigation, as they could potentially have pedagogical implications in the field of teacher cognition and the teaching of reading (see section 7.4. for further information). Systematic reflection upon the possible congruence or incongruence between beliefs and practices can help lecturers develop their understanding not only of what they would like to achieve in their classrooms but also of the changes they may feel they need to implement so as to improve their approaches to teaching and learning (Farrell, 2013:14).

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Research Ethics

Please outline any ethical issues that might arise from this study and how they are to be addressed.

NB all research projects have ethical considerations. Please complete this section as fully as possible using the following pointers for guidance.

- Does the project involve potentially deceiving participants? No
- Will you be requiring the disclosure of confidential or private information? No
- Is the project likely to lead to the disclosure of illegal activity or incriminating information about participants? No

Will the proposed research be conducted in any country outside the UK? If so, are there independent research ethics regulations and procedures that either:

- Do not recognise research ethics review approval from UK-based research ethics services? No and/or
- Require more detailed applications for research ethics review than would ordinarily be conducted by the University's Research Ethics Review Panels and/or other UK-based research ethics services? No

If you answered yes to any of the points above, please explain.

Does the proposed research project involve:

- The analysis of existing data, artefacts or performances that are not already in the public domain (i.e. that are published, freely available or available by subscription)? No
- The production and/or analysis of physical data (including computer code, physical entities and/or chemical materials) that **might involve** potential risks to humans, the researcher(s) or the University? No
- The direct or indirect collection of **new data** from humans or animals? Yes/No

	<p>Does the proposed research involve:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The collection and/or analysis of body tissues or fluids from humans or animals? No • The administration of any drug, food substance, placebo or invasive procedure to humans or animals? No • Any participants lacking capacity (as defined by the UK Mental Capacity Act 2005)? No • Relationships with any external statutory-, voluntary-, or commercial-sector organisation(s) that require(s) research ethics approval to be obtained from an external research ethics committee or the UK National Research Ethics Service (this includes research
	<p>Does the proposed research involve:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The collection and/or analysis of body tissues or fluids from humans or animals? No • The administration of any drug, food substance, placebo or invasive procedure to humans or animals? No • Any participants lacking capacity (as defined by the UK Mental Capacity Act 2005)? No • Relationships with any external statutory-, voluntary-, or commercial-sector
	<p>If you answered yes to any of the points above, please contact your faculty's RERP chair for further guidance.</p>

SECTION C: THE PROJECT - RISKS AND BENEFITS

C1	Risk Assessment
	Please outline

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the risks posed by this project to both researcher and research participants No • the ways in which you intend to mitigate these risks N/A • the benefits of this project to the applicant, participants and any others N/A <p>This study will provide insight into teachers’ classroom practices, which could be used to develop their knowledge about learning and teaching reading. The whole impetus behind this study is the desire to explore Libyan teachers’ classroom practices and their beliefs about the teaching and learning of English reading skills in the interests of professional development.</p>
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Checklist to be completed by applicant prior to submission of the form

Section	Completed
Section A	Yes
Section B	Yes
Section C	Yes
Research Proposal attached	Yes

Please submit this Form as an email attachment to the Chair of your faculty’s Research Ethics Review Panel (RERP) and copy in all of the staff and students who will be involved in the proposed research.

See: <http://www.londonmet.ac.uk/research/the-research-and-postgraduate-office/current-students/research-ethics.cfm>

Please note that research ethics approval can be granted for a maximum of 4 years or for the duration of the proposed research on the condition that:

- The researcher must inform their faculty’s Research Ethics Review Panel (RERP) of any changes to the proposed research that may alter the answers given to the questions in this form or any related research ethics applications
- The researcher must apply for an extension to their ethics approval if the research project continues beyond 4 years.

Feedback from Ethics Panel

	<i>Approved</i>	<i>Feedback where further work required</i>
Section A		
Section B		
Section C		
Date of approval NB: Researcher to be notified of decision within two weeks of the submission of the application		23-06-2014

Appendix I: Letter Permission from Supervisor for collecting Data



Languages
Faculty of Social
Sciences and Humanities
160-220 Holloway Road
London N7 8DB
Switchboard 020 7421 0000
Facsimile 020 7421 2528

www.londonmet.ac.uk

To Whom It May Concern,

This is to confirm that my student, Mr Ahmed Rashed Zagra, is currently carrying out research on the Libyan university lecturers' beliefs and views on teaching English language reading to Libyan students in Libyan universities.

His research is significant in that it is one of the first studies looking into the beliefs and views of Libyan lecturers regarding teaching English language reading in the context of Libyan universities.

I hope that the universities in Libya provide him with access to collect data for his study.

He is currently in his second year and is expected to finish his studies in two to three years' time from now.

Should you require further information, please do not hesitate to contact me on a.nazari@londonmet.ac.uk

Kind regards,

A. Nazari
13.2.2015

Dr Ahmad Nazari

Principal Lecturer for Languages & Course Leader for MA TESOL and Applied Linguistics

Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities

London Metropolitan University

Tel: 02071332414



Faculty of Social Sciences & Humanities
London Metropolitan University
160-220 Holloway Road
London
N7 8DB

Appendix J: Permission Letter from Libyan cultural attaché in London

Libyan Embassy  **سفارة ليبيا**
Cultural Attaché - London **الملحقية الثقافية - لندن**

وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي
Ministry of Higher Education & Scientific Research

<p>التاريخ : 18-02-2015 الرقم الاشاري : 2015-02-13833 رقم الملف : 5799 رقم قرار الإفاد : 293/2013 بداية الصرف : 01/03/2014 نهاية الصرف : 28/02/2018 اشهر المنحة : 48</p>	<p>اسم الطالب : احمد راشد احمد زرقا الدرجة العلمية : دكتوراة التخصص : لغة انجليزية</p>
--	--

السيد / مدير إدارة البعثات الدراسية
بمعد التلية ،،،

الموضوع / دراسة حقلية

تقدم إلينا المعني بطلب موافقتكم على إجراء دراسة حقلية في ليبيا لجمع بعض البيانات والمعلومات المتعلقة بدراسته، وذلك حسب رسالة الاستاذ المشرف المرفقة.

الرجاء موافقتنا بالخصوص.

شاكرين حسن تعاونكم معنا.

والسلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ،،،

أ.م. ملامد الحسن أبوبكر
الملحق الأكاديمي



Printed On: 18-02-2015 Printed On: 18-02-2015

61-62 Ennismore Gardens, London, SW7 1NH T: +44(0)20 3006 9891 F: +44(0)20 7524 6951 W: culturalaffairs.libyanembassy.org

Appendix K: Translation of Permission Letter from Libyan cultural attaché in London

The director of Libyan cultural attaché in London

Field work

The student named above requested us to grant him permission to collect his main study data in Libya according to the permission letter issued to him by his supervisor.

Kindly requested to let us know if you require any further information

Kind regards

Prof.Dr Mohammed Hassan

The director of Libyan cultural attaché in London

Appendix L: Travel Permission



Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
Libyan Embassy – Cultural Attaché
United Kingdom - London



Travel Permission

For: MR Ahmed Rashed Zraga
Our Ref **: 5799

To whom it may concern

Dear Sir/ Madam,

I DR Ahmad Nazari confirms that the above named has been given permission to travel to Libya Start date: 1/3/2015 End date: 1/7/2015
Total of 120 Day(s). Also I confirm that the permitted period will not affect his progress of study. If you have any further enquires, please do not hesitate to contact me on:

Supervisor Email*: a.nazari@londonmat.ac.uk

Supervisor Office Telephone no*: 02071332414

Regards

Supervisor Signature: A. Nazari Date: 13/2/2015

Registration office Stamp:



Remarks:

* Compulsory information

** Our reference is the student file number within cultural Attaché' Please ask the student.
Please send this to : Fax: 02075812393 OR via email : travelpermission@libyanembassy.org