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**The Effect of Remedial Instruction on Reading Strategies on the Students'
Motivation to Read in English**

**The Case of First Year Students of English at the 'Higher School of
Education' of Constantine (Ecole Normale Supérieure de Constantine)**

**Thesis Submitted to the Department of Letters and English of the University 'des Frères
Mentouri' Constantine to fulfil the requirements of the Degree of "Doctorat Es-Sciences"
in Applied Linguistics**

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To the memory of my father

To my dear mother

To my sunshine, my daughter Maysoune

To all my family

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List of Abbreviations

CALLA: The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

IL: Interlanguage

L2: Second Language

LAD: Language Acquisition Device

LLSs: Language Learning Strategies

MBTI: Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

SBI: Strategy-Based Instruction

SILL: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

TL: Target Language

UG: Universal Grammar

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INTRODUCTION

1. Statement of the Problem
2. Aim of the Study
3. Hypotheses
4. Means of Research
5. Structure of the Thesis

1. Statement of the Problem

An old proverb says: ‘give a man a fish and he will eat for a day. Teach him how to fish and he eats for a lifetime’. Indeed, this proverb illustrates the importance of language learning strategies. Considering its application to the field of language teaching and learning, it means that learners should be made able to manage their own learning by themselves on the long run instead of being given ready-made solutions to immediate problems.

In fact, there is an increasing interest in strategy use in language learning among researchers, and reading comprehension strategies instruction has occupied an important place in the body of literature on learning strategies. However, research in that field has exerted little influence on actual practises of teaching reading comprehension in foreign language classes. Much more focus is placed on testing reading comprehension rather than teaching it. There is no real attempt to train students to become self-efficient by indulging in a serious training in the use of reading comprehension strategies, knowing the possible influence of self-efficacy on learners’ motivation to learn a foreign language in general and to read in that language in particular.

‘Reading Techniques’ is a subject taught at the Higher School of Education of Constantine. Its objectives are to instil in the students the habit of reading and to teach them reading comprehension strategies. However, throughout the many years they have been teaching this subject, teachers have found out that students do not read unless they are required to do so. The researcher, who herself has been teaching this subject for many years, has realised this as a personal experience with her students. Discussions with colleagues teaching the same subject have revealed that this is quite common among students. This is understandable enough knowing that in Algeria reading, on the whole is a rare activity among students and people in general. Indeed, a large number of students lack motivation to read.

On the other hand, teachers are only provided with some general guidelines about what they are supposed to do in teaching this subject. The first year reading syllabus consists of two major headings, namely, types of reading and reading activities (see appendix 1). The first heading refers to 'listen read', 'practice read', 'skim read', 'scan read' and 'reflective reading', and the second one refers only to 'reading activities' without stating which reading strategies are to be taught to the students in order to deal with these activities. The only reading strategies mentioned in the present syllabus are skimming and scanning, knowing that there is a much wider range of such strategies from which a selection can be made to teach this subject in such a way as to motivate students to make good use of them to become efficient readers.

2. Aim of the Study

The study aims first of all at identifying the possible cause (s) of students' lack of motivation to read in English. It also aims at investigating the possible effect of training in the use of effective reading comprehension strategies on learners' motivation to read in that language. To do so, a category of effective reading strategies to be taught by 'Reading Techniques' teachers to first year students of English at the Teacher Training School of Constantine will be identified. The present study will attempt to demonstrate that the employment of these strategies would enable students to process texts better so as to motivate them to be better readers. An important aim of the present study will then be to provide teachers of 'Reading Techniques' with a reading syllabus that would first increase their own awareness of important reading strategies and help them in their task as strategy trainers.

3. Hypotheses

The present study is based on two research hypotheses:

1. We hypothesise that if students employ ineffective reading strategies which do not help them in text comprehension, they will resent reading in English and will have no motivation to do so.
2. We also hypothesise that that if the non-motivated students are trained to use effective reading comprehension strategies that will help them deal with texts better in such a way as to make sense of them, their motivation to read in English will considerably be enhanced.

4. Means of the Research

The present thesis attempts to test the effectiveness of providing non-motivated readers with remedial instruction on specific reading strategies in such a way as to create in them motivation to read in English. The population of the study is 92 first year students from the Department of English at the Higher School of Education of Constantine. The sample of the students who were administered the first questionnaire is composed of 80 students from whom a focus group will be selected to receive a remedial instruction on reading strategies. A focus group is a research technique that began to be used by social scientists, evaluators, planners and educators in the seventies and eighties of the last century to gather information about different topics. It consists of informal discussions, among a group of between 6 and 12 or 14 members, carried out in a comfortable environment in order to illicit different opinions, attitudes or feelings about a certain topic. The results obtained from a focus group constitute a form of qualitative data about how people react to an experience. To ensure this, the focus group should consist of members who share some common characteristics related to the issue that is focused upon (Anderson 1998).

The population for the present study has been selected because this is the first time they receive a course in reading in English and they are unlikely to possess reading strategies to deal with texts in English. The investigation will be carried out by using two means of research: two questionnaires and a remedial instruction.

The questionnaire as a means of research is a good technique for collecting data about the students' motivation and about what either energises or inhibits it. Therefore, the first part of the study consists of administering a questionnaire to the whole population in order to identify those students who lack motivation to read in English in addition to the cause(s) of this. The first hypothesis that underlies this study is that if students employ ineffective reading strategies which do not help them in text comprehension, they will resent reading in English and will have no motivation to do so. If this is confirmed, the findings will be used as a basis of selection of reading strategies that will constitute the core of the instruction. A focus group consisting of a limited number of students will be selected among the non-motivated students to receive this instruction. This will constitute the second part of the study. The third part of the investigation will take the form of a second questionnaire administered to the students constituting the focus group in order to check whether the instruction has enhanced their motivation to read in English or not.

5. Structure of the Thesis

The thesis consists of seven chapters. The first three chapters are theoretical, the next three ones are practical and the seventh one is about some pedagogical implications. The first theoretical chapter presents a review of the literature on language learning strategies in general and reading strategies in particular. It specifically deals with the development of language learning strategies research, the importance of language learning strategies, their features, factors influencing them and their different taxonomies. It also provides an account

of reading strategies, namely some lists of reading strategies suggested by different researchers and also a distinction between successful and unsuccessful readers. The second chapter tackles the issue of language learning strategy training by explaining its importance, principles and types. Four approaches to this training are listed along with steps for designing strategy training. The third chapter presents an overview of the development of research on motivation for language learning in addition to the implications of this research on second or foreign language learning. In the fourth chapter, there is an attempt to identify the students' motivation to read in English through the analysis of the results of the first questionnaire administered to them. The fifth chapter provides a description of the remedial instruction on reading strategies and of its steps. The sixth chapter attempts to find out to what extent the remedial instruction on reading strategies has enhanced in the students' motivation to read in English by analysing the second students' questionnaire. On the light of the results obtained, the last chapter of this research work suggests some pedagogical implications that would help teachers of Reading Techniques at the Higher School of Education of Constantine enhance their students' motivation to read in English.

CHAPTER ONE

LANGUAGE LEARNING/ READING STRATEGIES

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Introduction

Over the past few decades, research in second language education has largely focused on learner-centered approaches to foreign language teaching in an attempt to enable learners to become autonomous and independent language learners (for the sake of the present study the expression ‘second language’ or L2 is used to refer both to second and foreign language). At the same time, a shift of attention has taken place in second language acquisition research from the products of language learning to the processes through which learning takes place. As a result of this change in emphasis, language learning/reading strategies have emerged, not only as integral components of various theoretical models of language proficiency, but also as a means of achieving learners’ autonomy in the process of language learning.

1.1. Definition of Language Learning Strategies

Research on learning strategies in second language acquisition was the result of a general preoccupation with identifying the characteristics of successful learners. Focus on the ‘good language learner’ by researchers in the field has made it possible to identify strategies reported by students or observed in language learning studies that seem to be conducive to effective learning. Efforts made in this respect have shown that students make use of learning strategies in the process of second language learning and have made it possible to describe and clarify these learning strategies. (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990). The pioneering work in the field of language learning strategies was carried out in the mid-seventies by many researchers such as Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975).

The pioneering work carried out in the mid-seventies for instance by Rubin (1975), Stern (1975) has raised awareness that language learning strategies are potentially ‘an extremely powerful learning tool’ (O’Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo & Küpper, 1985, p. 34). However, neither this awareness nor the extensive amount of research

carried out in this field have managed to dissipate the confusion and noconsensus that have hovered around language learning strategies (O'Malley, et al., 1985, p. 22). In her Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), Oxford (1990, p. 17) states that there is 'no complete agreement on exactly what strategies are; how many strategies exist; how they should be defined, demarcated and categorised ...' and that 'classification conflicts were inevitable'. Ellis (1994, p. 529) even refers to this concept as being 'fuzzy'. In an attempt to settle down this lack of consensus and fuzziness, basic terminology needs to be established.

It is useful to go back to the origin of the word 'strategy' to better understand the meaning of 'learning strategy'. This word has a Greek origin 'strategia' meaning *generalship* or *the art of war* (Oxford, 1990). 'Tactics' is another word that is related to strategies: tactics are tools to achieve the success of strategies. These two words are sometimes used interchangeably. They share some basic characteristics: planning, competition, conscious manipulations and movement towards a goal. Wenden (1987) notes that the strategies have been labelled differently in the literature and goes on to list the following: techniques, tactics, potentially conscious plans, consciously employed operations, learning skills, basic skills, functional skills, cognitive abilities, language processing strategies and problem-solving procedures.

The word strategy has become very influential in the field of education where it has renounced its aggressive and competitive nature and where it has taken on a new shape: 'learning strategies'. Oxford (1990, p. 8) states that 'learning strategies are operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information'. She further expands this definition by saying that 'learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations' (p. 8). Cohen, on the other hand, specifies that language learning strategies are 'those processes which are consciously selected by learners

and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language' (1998, p. 4). Brown (2007, p. 119) defines strategies as the 'specific methods of approaching a problem or task, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information.'

Learning strategies aim at facilitating learning and are intentional on the part of the learner. The goal of strategy use is 'to affect the learner's motivational or affective state, or the way in which the learner selects, acquires, organizes or integrates new knowledge'. (Weinstein & Mayer 1986, P. 315). This general description may apply to the following operations: centring one's attention on specific elements in the new information, analyzing and controlling information during the process of language acquisition, organizing and elaborating on the new information during the encoding process, evaluating the learning after its completion or convincing oneself of the success of learning in order to overcome anxiety. (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). On the basis of this description, one can say that language learning strategies have both an affective and conceptual basis, and they may affect the learning of simple tasks such as learning vocabulary, or complex tasks such as comprehension or language production.

Learning strategies play an important role in developing communicative competence as they are used as tools for active involvement. In this respect, Oxford (1990, p. 1) states that language learning strategies '... are especially important for language because they are tools for active, self-directed movement, which is essential for developing communicative competence.' Students use them as steps that enhance their learning. Thus, if they are appropriately used, they will lead to improved proficiency and greater self-confidence.

In a language classroom, learners are exposed to and have to process a high amount of language. Therefore, they make use of language learning strategies to accomplish the tasks

they are assigned. Language learning strategies indicate how well learners cope with tasks or problems they face during the learning process. It is clear then that such strategies inform teachers about the manner in which their students assess the situation, plan, select appropriate skills so as to understand, learn or remember new input introduced in the language classroom. The result is that language learners who are able to use a large panoply of language learning strategies effectively will end up by having a better language proficiency. On the other hand, Lessard-Clouston (1997, p. 3) claims that language learning strategies play a major role in developing the learners' communicative competence. In fact, communicative strategies are one type of language learning strategies. Therefore, it is important for teachers who want to help their students to develop communicative competence to be familiar with language learning strategies. Teachers who train their students to use language learning strategies will not only help them develop communicative competence, but also to become better language learners.

There are a number of positive language learning strategies highlighted by research about good learning strategies which can be used by unsuccessful learners willing to improve their learning of the language. However, learners' failure cannot always be attributed to the use of learning strategies because it is possible that unsuccessful learners may use the same good language learning strategies used by good learners, and so their failure can be explained by other factors. Therefore, it would be cautious to claim that the use of good language strategies does not make unsuccessful learners good ones as there are many factors that contribute to success in learning a language. (Hismanoglu on The Internet TESL Journal)

1.2. Language Learning Strategies in the Major Approaches/Methods

The field of second language learning and teaching has been marked by a proliferation of teaching approaches and methods which have come and gone in and out of fashion. Each of these approaches/methods was based on theoretical assumptions such as the Grammar-Translation Method, the Audiolingual Method and Communicative Language Learning. Some of them appeared as a reaction to the shortcomings of the preceding ones.

Language learning strategies have attracted the interest of contemporary educators because of their immeasurable values for enhancing learning. To illustrate this importance, it would be interesting to discuss the theory underlying language learning strategies which emerged from and alongside other theories, methods and approaches to language learning and teaching.

1.2.1. The Grammar-Translation Method

This method, as indicated by its name was based on an extensive teaching of grammar rules along with translation from and into the foreign language, which were the main teaching activities. Reading and writing were focused on at the expense of speaking and listening which were completely neglected. Long lists of vocabulary were given to learners to learn them by heart. Accuracy and the ability to construct grammatically correct sentences were given priority over fluency and the ability to express oneself for communication purposes. Teaching was carried out in the learners' mother tongue. Therefore, the learners' role in the method was limited to memorising endless lists of grammar rules and vocabulary items and to translating from and into the foreign language. There was no creativity on their part. Considering the characteristics of this method, there seemed to be no concern with encouraging the learners to promote their own learning by resorting to language learning strategies. Tarone and Yule (1989, p. 133; cited in Griffiths 2004, p. 6) point out that

‘relatively little attention seems to have been paid, in any consistent way, to considerations of the whole process from the learners’ point of view’. The proponents of this method assumed that it was sufficient for a learner to learn a language only by following the Grammar-Translation Method. However, some common practices that were used, for example, to remember vocabulary lists (mnemonics, groupings, repetitions) might indicate an early consciousness about the importance of the learners’ involvement in their own learning process.

1.2.2. The Audio-Lingual Method

Among the reasons that led to the appearance of the Audio-Lingual Method was the widespread dissatisfaction with the Grammar-Translation Method, and the concern with world-wide communication. During the Second World War, there was an urgent need to train fluent military personnel in languages such as German, Italian and Japanese. But after the war, many linguists who were already looking for an alternative for the Grammar-Translation Method, were attracted by this method.

Contrary to the Grammar-Translation Method, the Audio-Lingual Method gave priority to listening and speaking which were considered the basic skills, while reading and writing were postponed to later stages. Richards, Platt and Platt (1992; cited in Griffiths, 2004). The Audio- Lingual Method is based on the Skinnerian Behaviourist theory which is based on the stimulus, response and reinforcement pattern which according to behaviourists control all human behaviour including language learning. Therefore in this method, there was an extensive reliance on repetition drills that aimed at an automatic patterning of behaviour. Consequently, there was little or no awareness of the importance of the learners’ contribution to their own learning process. According to Richards and Rogers (1986; cited in Griffiths: 2004), for fear that the learners might make mistakes, they were discouraged from taking

initiative in the learning process. So, except for some exercising of memory and cognitive strategies through repetition and substitution drills, there was less room for the use of language learning strategies in the Audio-Lingual Method than in the Grammar-Translation Method.

The Audio-Lingual Method was certainly considered a revolutionary teaching method in its early years. However, by the end of the sixties, its limitations became more and more obvious. Practice went contrary to the Audio-Lingual Theory. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1990; cited in Griffiths, 2004) learners did not go along audio-lingual principles in that they still preferred translation and grammar rules and were not led to mastery of the language through endless repetition.

1.2.3. Communicative Language Teaching

Prominent linguists contributed to laying down the foundations of Communicative Language Teaching. The first of these was Noam Chomsky. In the mid to late sixties, Chomsky (for example Chomsky, 1965, 1968) begins to make a great contribution to linguistic theory. He put forward his notion of LAD (Language Acquisition Device) with which all human beings are born and by which they can develop languages on the basis of an innate Universal Grammar (UG). Through his theory of Transformational Generative Grammar, Chomsky tried to account for the way a language user can generate original utterances from his underlying competence. According to Chomsky, the complexity of generative grammar cannot be accounted for by the behaviourist theory. In fact, he claimed that it was inadequate to assume that notions of habit and generalisation could determine behaviour or knowledge. (Chomsky, 1968; cited in Griffiths, 2004). Chomsky's theories which relate directly to how mother tongue speakers generate rules about their language were later adopted by Corder (1967; cited in Griffiths, 2004). The latter maintains that the errors made by second or foreign languages revealed that there was an underlying linguistic

competence that was being developed and that reflected the learners' attempt to organize the language they received. Later Selinker (1972; cited in Griffiths, 2004) called the intermediate language that the learner created while he attempted to learn the target language 'interlanguage' (IL). Indeed, Selinker claimed that the errors made by the learners in this process were indicators of positive efforts to learn the new language. This view of language learning suggested that learners made deliberate and conscious attempts to control their own learning. It contributed with theories of cognitive processes in language learning put forward by writers such as McLaughlin (1978; cited in Griffiths, 2004) and Bialystock (1978; cited in Griffiths, 2004) to the development of a trend of research in the mid to late seventies that attempted to discover the manner in which learners used learning strategies to learn a language (for instance Rubin 1975, Stern 1975, Naiman, Frohlich, Stern and Tarone, 1978). A revolutionary idea emerged then which stipulated that teachers should not focus only on finding the best method or on getting the best answer, but should also help their students to lead them to learn by themselves (Rubin, 1975, p. 45).

While some researchers such as Rubin (1975), Stern (1975) and Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco (1978) were laying the foundation for the field of language learning strategies, Krashen (1976; cited in Griffiths, 2004) proposed his five hypotheses which went against the Grammar-Translation theories based on learning rules, the Audio-Lingual theories based on the idea that language is a set of habits and also against the idea that learners are consciously able to control their own learning. These hypotheses consisted of the following:

- The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis (conscious learning is an effective way of developing language which is better acquired through natural communication)
- The Natural Order Hypothesis (grammatical structures of a language are acquired in a predictable order)

- The Monitor Hypothesis (conscious learning is of very little value to an adult language learner, and can only be useful under certain conditions as a monitor or editor)
- The Input Hypothesis (language is acquired by understanding input which is a little beyond the current level of competence (comprehensible input))
- The Affective Filter Hypothesis (a learner's emotions and attitudes can act as a filter which slows down the acquisition of language).

Krashen's hypotheses imply that conscious learning has little value and therefore conscious language learning strategies have no contribution to make in the language learning process. The ideas expressed in Krashen's hypotheses have been criticised over the years. For example, to counter the ideas held by the Monitor Hypothesis, McLaughlin (1978; cited in Griffiths, 2004) suggests an information-processing approach to language development which stipulates that students acquire knowledge of a language by thinking through the rules until they become automatic. Pienemann (1985, 1989; cited in Griffiths, 2004) also criticizes the ideas claimed in the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis by maintaining that language can be taught and learnt when the learner is ready (teachability hypothesis). In spite of the many criticisms directed towards Krashen's views, he is considered one of the influential figures in the communicative language teaching movement due to his claim that language develops through natural communication.

Hymes (1972) coins the term communicative competence which is an important theoretical principle underlying the communicative language teaching movement. This term refers to the ability to use language to convey and interpret meaning. Canale and Swain (1980) later divide it into four separate components:

- Grammatical competence which is related to the learner's knowledge of the vocabulary, phonology and rules of the language.
- Discourse competence which is related to the learner's ability to connect utterances into a meaningful whole.
- Sociolinguistic competence which is related to the learner's ability to use language appropriately.
- Strategic competence which is related to a learner's ability to employ strategies to compensate for imperfect knowledge.

Another important principle underlying communicative language teaching is that the way language functions are used is more important than form or structure. According to Griffiths (2004), many contemporary language learning programmes and textbooks have been influenced by the notion of communicative functions of language promoted first by Wilkins (1976) and later by other writers such as Brumfit and Finnochiaro (1983) and Van Ek (1979). The theories of communicative language teaching have been further reinforced by many other writers such as Widdowson (1978) who claims that language can be developed as a by-product of using the communicative approach and that it is only through practising a language that it can be learned. On the other hand, Littlewood (1981) maintains that learners need to be given opportunities to use the target language for communication because according to him, it is more important for the learner to communicate effectively than to master the language perfectly.

But in spite of the fact that learners in communicative language teaching are encouraged to take great responsibility for their own learning, Griffiths (2004) claims that, like previous methods and approaches, the communicative language movement places emphasis on how teachers teach rather than on how learners learn. She further claims that it is very rare for textbooks of second language teaching to include learning strategies in their

material. On the rare occasions when this is done, the space allocated to learning strategies is extremely limited: ‘the space dedicated to learning strategies consists of no more than a paragraph at the end of each section’ (Griffiths, 2004, p. 9).

It has to be noted that the field of contemporary language learning and teaching has been widely influenced by this wide array of methods and approaches. It would be fair to mention that this field has recently drifted away from extreme positions of right or wrong and become more inclined towards eclecticism through recognition of the potential merits of different methods and approaches. The emergence of this new penchant towards eclecticism has gone hand in hand with the emergence of a new concern by educators with the necessity of making the learners contribute to the teaching/learning process. Educators have gradually become aware that ‘any learning is an active process’ (Rivers, 1983, p. 134). Therefore, many educators such as Oxford (1990), O’Malley and Chamot (1991), Byalistok (1991), Cohen (1991), Wenden (1991) and Green and Oxford (1995) have researched and promoted the idea that learners can take responsibility for their own learning and achieve autonomy by the use of learning strategies.

1.3. Features of Language Learning Strategies

In order to illustrate the importance of language learning strategies, it is possible to describe a number of their features (Oxford, 1990, pp. 8-13). First of all, all appropriate language learning strategies have a major aim which is to achieve communicative competence. The achievement of this aim certainly requires the use of meaningful and contextualized language by learners to carry out realistic interaction. The effective use of learning strategies will enable the learners to participate actively in such authentic and realistic communication. A number of different language learning strategies interact and contribute to the achievement of communicative competence. To illustrate, Metacognitive

(beyond the cognitive) strategies are useful in that they enable learners to control their cognition and to focus, plan, and evaluate their progress towards the achievement of communicative competence. Affective strategies help learners develop self-confidence and perseverance to involve themselves actually in language learning. This is a condition for the attainment of communicative competence. Social strategies ensure more interaction and positive understanding which constitute important qualities that help achieve communicative competence. In addition, a learner is helped to be competent in using a language by the use of certain cognitive strategies such as analysing and some memory strategies such as key word technique. Compensation strategies contribute to the development of communicative competence because they help learners to overcome knowledge gaps and to carry on authentic communication.

Another feature of language learning strategies is that their use fosters self-direction in learners. Since learners have to use the language they are learning outside the classroom and since the teacher is not always present to provide guidance, self-direction proves to be of great importance. It is also vital for the development of ability in a new language. Many learners in different cultures, however, have been conditioned to be passive and to be spoonfed. They prefer to receive instructions as to what to do and how to do it with little or no involvement on their part. They learn only for the sake of getting good grades, and so they cannot develop useful skills along their learning process. In front of such behaviours and attitudes, it is of great importance to train learners to really want to take greater responsibility for their own learning. In the opposite case, all efforts that teachers can make to train learners to rely on themselves or to use effective strategies will fail. In fact, learners grow self-directed as they accept being responsible for their own learning. Self directed learners will eventually be more self confident, involved and proficient. The fact that learners take more responsibility for their own learning thanks to the use of language learning strategies implies

that the teacher's roles will subsequently change. The teacher, thus, is no more an authority figure who controls everything that goes on in the classroom because such an attitude will hamper communication in any classroom, especially the language classroom. The teacher is rather a facilitator, a helper, a guide, a consultant, an advisor, a coordinator and a co-communicator.

Problem orientation illustrates another major feature of language learning strategies in that they are tools that are used by the learner to solve a problem, to accomplish a task, to achieve an objective. For example, in order to better process a reading passage in a foreign language, learners can use reasoning or guessing strategies. In order to remember something that needs to be remembered, they can use memory strategies. In order to relax or gain more self confidence, they may resort to affective strategies. In all these cases, the end result is profitable learning.

Language learning strategies are also based on action and this is clearly related to problem orientation. They are in fact specific actions or behaviours that learners perform to increase their learning. Taking notes, planning for a language task, self- evaluating and guessing intelligently are examples of such actions. Learners' personality traits, for example, motivation, learning styles, aptitude influence such actions without being confused with them.

Another feature of language learning strategies is that they are not related only to cognitive functions. They also involve metacognitive functions such as planning, evaluating and arranging one's own learning; and emotional (affective), social and other functions as well.

Language learning strategies also provide both direct and indirect support to learning. A type of learning strategies is called direct strategies and they consist of direct learning and use of the subject matter, namely a new language. On the other hand, such strategies as

metacognitive, affective and social strategies are indirectly involved in learning. They are known as indirect strategies. Both direct and indirect strategies are equally important for language learning and they support each other.

Degree of observability constitutes another feature of language learning strategies. In fact, it is not always easy to observe learning strategies. Some strategies, as cooperating where learners work together to accomplish a certain task are observable, but other strategies as the act of making mental associations are not. Indeed, it is hard for teachers to observe an important number of strategies either because they are mental operations or because they are used outside the classroom in informal naturalistic situations far from the teachers' eyes.

Another feature is level of consciousness. Some researchers suggest that learning strategies reflect conscious efforts by learners to take control of their learning. However, learning strategies can become automatic, in other words, unconscious, after much practice and use because making them unconscious is a desirable thing when it comes to foreign language learning (Oxford, 1990). However, Oxford (1990) suggests that some learners use learning strategies instinctively, unthinkingly and uncritically. So, it is possible to help learners become more aware of the strategies they use and to assess their utility through strategy assessment and training.

Teachability is also a feature of language learning strategies. Contrary to some learner characteristics such as learning styles or personality traits, learning strategies are easy to teach and modify through strategy training which is an important aspect of language education. Such training enables learners to grow more conscious of how to employ strategies and how to use appropriate ones. It also helps them know why and when specific strategies are important, how to use these strategies and how to transfer them to new situations. To be effective, strategy training must take into consideration teachers' and learners' attitude

towards learner self-direction, language learning and the particular language and culture being taught.

Language learning strategies are also flexible. The way learners choose, combine and sequence strategies is subject to much individuality and is dependent on many factors that influence the choice of strategies.

1.4. Factors Influencing Strategy Choice

Research in the field of language learning strategies has revealed that not all learners use learning strategies in the same way. Many factors, in fact, are believed to affect the choice, type and frequency of strategies used in L2 contexts. Researchers in the field have identified a large number of such factors which, for the sake of the present study, are grouped under four major categories; personality characteristics, affective factors, factors related to language learning and factors related to language teaching.

1.4.1. Personality Characteristics

Such characteristics include aptitude, gender, age, learning style, general personality type, personality characteristics, national origin, degree of awareness. Aptitude has not been thoroughly researched as a predictor of learning strategy choice. But one study that aimed at investigating this relationship was carried out by Bialystok (1981; cited in Oxford, 1989) who discovered that aptitude was not as influential as attitudes in the choice of strategies by high school language learners. Politzer (1983; cited in Oxford, 1989), on the other hand, proposed that general aptitude is probably related to language learning strategies as well as language achievement. Leino (1982; cited on Oxford, 1989) who researched language learning strategies found that learners with high conceptual levels (which reflect high intelligence or

aptitude) were much more able to give descriptions of their strategies than learners with low conceptual levels.

Gender has also been reported to exert a significant influence on strategy use. Many studies such as the one carried out by Ehrman and Oxford (1989) have shown that females use strategies more than males in four categories: general study strategies, functional practice (authentic language use) strategies, strategies for researching and communicating meaning, and self-management strategies. Oxford and Nyikos (1989) discovered that contrary to males, females used language learning strategies significantly more often in three of five possible strategy factors: formal rule-based practice strategies, general study strategies, and conversational/input elicitation strategies. The differences revealed in both studies could be explained by women's greater social orientation, stronger verbal skills (including proper rule usage), and greater conformity to norms, both linguistic and academic (Oxford, 1989). Another study carried out by Politzer (1983; cited in Oxford, 1989) revealed that females used social learning strategies significantly more often than males. This might be explained by the fact that women showed a stronger social orientation. In short, the findings on differences in strategy use between women and men indicate that women use significantly more learning strategies than men and use them more often. However, after strategy training, distinct strategy strengths are shown by both men and women (Oxford, 1989).

The effects of age on strategy choice have not been explored as often as other factors. Ehrman and Oxford (1989) investigated strategy use by adult language learners and found that these subjects used more sophisticated learning strategies than did younger learners in other studies. Oxford explains that this could be explained by the adults' greater motivational orientation which might have been greater than the factor of age.

Learning style is another factor that shows a significant correlation with strategy use, and it has been thoroughly investigated. Studies in relation to this factor have shown that the type of LLSs used is influenced by the individual's learning style preferences (Ehrman and Oxford, 1990). For instance, while introverts opt for a more frequent use of metacognitive strategies, extroverts show a strong inclination towards social strategies. In addition, analytic style learners show a tendency to use contrastive analysis, rule learning and analysing words and phrases. Globally oriented students use global strategies such as guessing, scanning, predicating and they engage in discussions without knowing the exact word by using such strategies as paraphrasing and gesturing. Visual students use strategies based on vision like taking notes and writing word groups. Auditory students use tapes and practice the language aloud (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989).

Many studies have demonstrated that national origin or ethnicity exerts a great influence on the types of strategies used by language learners. In a synthesis of research findings on this factor, Oxford (1989) maintains that oriental students show a preference to strategies involving rote memorisation and language rules rather than more communicative strategies, compared with Hispanics, they respond less positively to strategy training. Hispanics, on the other hand, show a tendency to use more social strategies than do other ethnic groups (Oxford, 1990). Differences in learning strategy use by national origin caused Politzer and McGroarty (1985; cited in Oxford, 1989) to claim that one's conception of what good language strategies is probably ethnocentrically biased. This could depend on the goal of learning. So if the latter is to achieve social communication, certain strategies which lead to that goal are viewed as 'good' strategies, and if the goal is geared to other purposes then other strategies might be considered as good ones.

Strategy use is also influenced by metacognitive awareness. What learners know about themselves and about their own learning process, namely types of language used,

proficiency level, the outcomes of learning, and learners' own proficiency, feelings, aptitude, physical state, age, learning style, social role, character, and personal theory of language learning, can affect their use of language learning strategies (Wenden, 1986; cited in Oxford, 1989). Researchers found varying results as to the learners' level of strategy awareness. For example, Nyikos (1987; cited in Oxford, 1989) have arrived at results which show that learners use only a limited number of learning strategies and are on the whole unaware of the strategies they use. Chamot and her colleagues (1987; cited Oxford, 1989), on the other hand have found out that even unsuccessful learners show awareness of and use a number of learning strategies. It has been discovered that the only difference between successful and unsuccessful learners is that the former use more strategies and more frequently than the former.

1.4.2. Affective Factors

Choice of language learning strategies depends on many affective variables; namely, motivational level/intensity, language learning goals reflecting motivational orientation, attitudes, specific personality traits, and general personality type. Attitudes as well as motivation play a major role in determining the extent to which an individual is actively engaged in learning a language. Oxford and Nyikos (1989), who have investigated the relationship between LLSs use and a number of other factors including motivation, have found the latter to be the most important factor influencing strategy use. In this study, learners' tendency to use or not use strategies in four out of five fields is significantly affected by motivational level. These fields are formal rule-related practice strategies, functional practice (authentic language use) strategies, general study strategies and conversational/input elicitation strategies. These strategies are more often used by highly motivated learners than less motivated ones. In a study of university learners of Spanish,

McGroarty (1987; cited in Oxford, 1989) have found out that low motivation can explain why communication-oriented strategies are rejected by these students even when they are encouraged to use them. These learners who are taught by communicative methods and who are provided with a lot of naturalistic practice opportunities, stick to very traditional language learning strategies such as using the dictionary to learn new words and avoid authentic practice.

McIntyre and Noels (1996) have also conducted an investigation to determine the relationship between LLSs and motivational level among undergraduate L2 learners. The findings have shown that more motivated learners show a tendency to use more learning strategies and use them more frequently than less motivated learners. Tamada (1996) has examined the effect of motivational orientation, namely the instrumental and the integrative ones on strategy use of 24 Japanese ESL college students in England. The results obtained have revealed that both motivational orientations significantly influence the choice of LLSs by learners. Chang and Huang (1999) have investigated the correlation between instrumental and integrative motivations on the use of LLSs by 48 Taiwanese graduate and undergraduate students at a public university in the USA. The results obtained have shown that the total number of learning strategies positively correlate with motivational level. However, the least used strategies by the participants in the study are the social strategies which are the only ones associated with extrinsic motivation. Yang (1999) has also examined the link between the learners' self-perceived motivation and their use of LLSs. The results obtained point at a positive link between the level of motivation and the use of LLSs. MacLeod (2002) however, has obtained results which indicate that strategy use is influenced by motivational level, not by the participants' particular motivational orientation (whether instrumental or integrative).

One of the affective factors affecting strategy choice is language learning goals reflecting motivational orientation. In their study, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) have discovered that the most preferred strategies are formal rule-related practice strategies and general study strategies while the least preferred ones are the functional practice (authentic language use) strategies. The latter involve a greater personal involvement in the foreign language culture and require more extracurricular effort in finding naturalistic opportunities to practice the language. The results are explained by the fact that the students have a purely instrumental motivation to learn the foreign language and so developing communicative competence is not the goal of most of the students.

Another study conducted by Ehrman and Oxford (1989) has found that functional practice (authentic language use) strategies are more often used among two groups of adult foreign language learners who are learning foreign languages for career purposes. Although these learners display an instrumental motivation to learn a new language, their instrumental motivational orientation leads them to use communication-oriented strategies.

Attitudes have a considerable impact on language learning on general and choice of language learning strategies in particular. In this respect, Wenden (1987; cited in Oxford, 1989) has argued that it is necessary to change negative attitudes towards learner self-direction in order to guarantee that training in better learning strategies can succeed in affecting positively learning strategy use.

Some personality characteristics are long-term traits while others depend much more on the demands and pressures of given language learning circumstances. Lack of inhibition has often been said to be a personality characteristic of good language learners. The good learners studied by Rubin (1975) are described as being uninhibited and willing to appear foolish and make mistakes in order to communicate and learn. In another study, Bailey (1983; cited in Oxford, 1989) has used learner diaries to investigate personality characteristics of

anxiety and competitiveness. The findings have revealed that these personality features affect language learning behaviours. For example, strong competitiveness causes some learners to abandon active efforts to learn the language but cause others to study harder.

General Personality Type can also affect strategy choice. Ehrman and Oxford (1989) have studied the effect of personality type, as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), on adults' language learning strategies. The results they have obtained reveal that extroverts make greater use of affective strategies and visualisation strategies than do introverts, but introverts use strategies involving searching for and communicating meaning more frequently. In comparison to sensing people, intuitive people use significantly more strategies in four categories: affective, formal model-building, functional practice (authentic language use), and searching for and communicating meaning. Compared with thinkers, feeling-type people make a greater use of general study strategies. Perceivers, that is, those who do not need to come to closure rapidly, make a greater use of strategies for searching and communicating meaning than do judgers who need more rapid closure. On the other hand, judgers use more general study strategies than do perceivers.

1.4.3. Language Learning Factors

Factors related to language learning may also influence language learning strategy choice. These factors include language being learned, proficiency level, course duration and task requirements. Strategy use and choice is affected by the language being studied. For example, in a study by Chamot et. al. (1987; cited in Oxford, 1989) students of Russian have shown a greater use of learning strategies than students of Spanish. Similarly, in investigating the learning strategies of students of French, Spanish, and German, Politzer (1983; cited in Oxford, 1989) has found out that students of Spanish use fewer positive strategies than do the learners of other languages. However, Oxford (1989) explains that this might be the result of

the interaction of many variables. For example, more successful learners or better strategy users might choose to study a difficult language like Russian for example, rather than Spanish which is easier to learn for English speakers. Teachers of different languages might use different strategies which is likely to affect students' learning strategies. Students' goals for learning a language might also influence their strategy use.

Many studies have found associations between a high level of proficiency and use of both direct and indirect strategies and more particularly cognitive and metacognitive strategies. O'Malley et al. (1985), for example, have investigated the range, type and frequency of LLSs used by beginning and intermediate high school L2 learners. The results obtained have shown that both groups use more cognitive than metacognitive strategies. However, intermediate students use more metacognitive strategies than beginners. The study has also shown that while beginners use translation strategy, intermediate level students tend to use contextualisation.

Chen (1990) has carried out a research to investigate the correlation between communication strategies and proficiency level of L2 learners. The results obtained have revealed that low proficiency students employ more communication strategies than high proficiency ones. In fact, high proficiency students use linguistic-based communication strategies, such as the use of synonyms more often than low proficiency learners. On the other hand, the latter rely primarily on knowledge-based strategies.

Peacock and Ho (2003) have researched the link between LLSs use and the proficiency level of 1006 English for Academic Purposes students in Hong Kong. The results obtained have shown a strong relationship between strategy use and proficiency level. Strong correlations are proved to exist between the proficiency level of the participants and cognitive and metacognitive strategies which are used by high-proficiency learners. On the other hand,

it is proved that both high- and low-proficiency students favour compensation strategies, though low-proficiency students use such strategies more than high-proficiency ones.

Course Duration also affects strategy choice. Duration involves both the level of the course and number of years of language study. Many researchers have found out that different strategies tend to be used by learners as they progress to higher course levels. For example, Politzer (1983; cited in Oxford, 1989) has discovered that higher-level students use more positive learning strategies. Chamot et al. (1987; cited in Oxford, 1989) have found that as the level of the foreign language increases, the use of cognitive strategies decreases and the use of metacognitive strategies rises, while the use of social-affective strategies remains very low whatever the course level.

Oxford (1989) maintains, however, that progress in course level or number of years does not always mean learners' use of better strategies in every instance. She mentions that in a study carried out by Cohen and Apeh (1981) about English speakers who are learning Hebrew, it has been found that both good and bad learning strategies appear across course levels. Nevertheless, most of the studies have revealed that in general, the more advanced the language learner, the better the strategies used. At least three possible explanations are provided to account for this. First, it is possible that new and better learning strategies are spontaneously developed by language learners as they progress in course level. Second, the task requirements might change in nature in higher-level courses and students might respond with strategies tailored to the task requirements. Third, students who use bad strategies might do worse than students who use better strategies and therefore give up language study before they reach higher level course (Oxford, 1989, p. 237).

Different task requirements also call for the use of different strategies. Conversation versus letter writing, listening for details versus for listening for the main idea require different strategies on the part of the learners. Bialystok (1981; cited in Oxford, 1993) reports

that some strategies are useful only for certain kinds of tasks; for example, monitoring one's errors is more useful for writing tasks than for reading or speaking tasks.

1.4.4. Language Teaching Factors

Factors related to language teaching include teachers' expectations, language teaching methods, and career orientation. Learners' strategies are determined by teachers' expectations revealed through methods of instruction and testing. For example, classroom instruction based on grammar learning of discrete grammar points causes learners to use strategies like analysis and reasoning, instead of communication strategies (Oxford, 1990).

Language teaching methods frequently affect the use of language learning strategies. Sutter (1988; cited in Oxford, 1989) maintains that students who are instructed through a language programme for a long period tend to show a preference for the language learning programme embedded in that programme's instructional methods. Politzer (1983; cited in Oxford, 1989) suggests that there is a complex interaction between language teaching methods and learning strategies used by learners of French, Spanish and German. Another study carried out by Ehrman and Oxford (1989) has discovered that adult individuals who learn languages for later use on the job and whose teachers use more communicative instructional methods tend to use more communicative-oriented strategies. Leaver (1989; cited in Oxford, 1989) reveals that students' language learning strategies are influenced by the methods used to develop the language skills, either analytical classroom work or naturalistic acquisition. Oxford suggests that since teaching methods have proved to influence how learners learn, teachers are advised to show more awareness of the learning strategies used by their learners so as to orient teaching methods more appropriately.

Career orientation refers either to field of specialisation (usually university major) or current career position. Many investigations have revealed that career orientation influences choice of language learning strategies. Oxford and Nyikos (1989) who have studied foreign language learners have found that students' university major has a direct influence on strategy use. Students majoring in humanities, social science and education use independent strategies and functional practice (authentic language use) more often than do students majoring in other fields. In addition to that, Ehrman and Oxford (1989) have discovered that current career position directly affects language learning strategy choice. Professional linguists use a wider range of strategies than adult language learners and native-speaking language teachers not trained in linguistics. Professional linguists use significantly more of the following general categories of strategies: functional practice, (authentic language use), searching for and communicating meaning, formal model-building, and affective strategies.

1.5. Investigating Second Language Learning Strategies

There are a number of techniques used to investigate learning strategies used by L2 learners. These techniques include informal observation, formal observational rating scales, informal or formal interviews, group discussions, think-aloud procedures, language learning diaries, dialogue journals between student and teacher, open-ended narrative-type surveys, and structured surveys of strategy frequency. Each of these techniques has strengths and weaknesses (Oxford, 1993, p. 176).

Observational methods which are useful for some types of learning strategies such as asking questions or working with others, may occasionally prove to be difficult. It is not possible to observe some internal operations as analysing or reasoning. Other methods of investigation which offer an interpersonal touch such as interviews and group discussions are more often employed. Though such methods produce results which are difficult to summarise

objectively, they encourage the emergence of important strategies while students are engaged in discussion about their typical learning behaviours. Think- aloud procedures are a kind of oral interviews and they give way to students to describe exactly what they do while performing a learning task. These procedures make it possible to gather an abundant amount of details but they are costly and time-consuming. Language diaries are very widely used by educators and researchers because they offer students the opportunity to report freely and in their own words the strategies that they use. However, they are so personal that it is hard to summarise clearly group behaviours. Dialogue journals are another tool of investigation which resembles language learning diaries with the difference that they incorporate a response from the teacher in such a way that turns a diary- type monologue into a dialogue. Like diaries and dialogue journals, open-ended strategy surveys offer students an important amount of freedom of expression to report the strategies they use, but they also do not make it possible to generalize results. Although structured strategy surveys are a very useful tool for statistical treatment and group summaries, they do not give opportunities to individual students to make creative responses.

The majority of these assessment procedures are based on learner self-report, either retrospectively (asking learners to describe strategies they have used previously to perform different tasks) or concurrently (asking the learners to describe strategies while performing a given task). Therefore, much of the research on language learning strategies depends on learners' willingness and ability to describe their internal behaviours, both cognitive and affective/emotional (Galloway & Labarca 1990, Harlow, 1988; cited in Oxford, 1993). This casts doubt on the reliability of findings of research on language learning strategies which are based on self-reporting. However, researchers, anxious for obtaining more objective results, have conducted studies with clear instructions in nonthreatening circumstances, without

influencing course grades. Under such conditions, it was found that most L2 learners can identify and describe precisely the learning strategies they use (Oxford, 1993).

1.6. Taxonomies of Language Learning Strategies

Progress in cognitive psychology greatly influenced the research studies on language learning strategies (Williams & Burden, 1997). Most of the research studies in the area of language learning strategies have focused on the identification of the behaviours demonstrated by good learners to learn a second or foreign language. Learning strategies used by language learners in the process of learning a new language have been identified, described, and then categorized by professional researchers in the field of language learning. However, it must be noted that most of these attempts to categorize language learning strategies reflect relatively the same categorizations without any fundamental changes. Researchers have developed their own taxonomies of strategies according to their research findings by applying different methods of data collection. For that reason, it might not be appropriate to compare them and assess their influence on the teaching/learning process. But, studying them will most probably help both language teachers and language learners to understand language learning strategies and different methods which are involved in strategy use. In what follows, taxonomies of language learning strategies will be demonstrated, namely Tarone's (1981), O'Malley et al's (1985), Rubin's (1987), Willing's (1989) Oxford's (1990), and Stern's (1992) classifications.

1.6.1. Tarone's Classification (1981)

Tarone (1981; cited in O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) classifies language learning strategies into learning, production and communication strategies. According to Tarone, research on learning strategies has focused on language acquisition whereas research on

production and communication strategies has rather focused on language use. In this respect, she maintains that learning, communication and production strategies have different aims.

- **Learning Strategies:** these strategies aim at developing linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language. Use of these strategies is motivated by the desire to learn the target language rather than the desire to communicate.

- **Production Strategies:** these strategies aim at achieving communication goals. They are motivated by the desire to use the language system efficiently and clearly but without much effort such as the use of readymade patterns.

- **Communication Strategies:** these strategies aim at catering for the failure in realizing a language production goal. They are therefore useful in that they help the learner negotiate meaning with others, especially when linguistic structures or sociolinguistic rules are not shared between an L2 learner and a native speaker of that language (for example, circumlocution, mime, or message abandonment). Although communication strategies are believed to be the result of a failure to realize a language production goal, they may also include a psycholinguistic solution to the communication problem other than a mere negotiation of meaning. Such psycholinguistic solutions could be the reduction of language complexity to avoid errors, and expressions of the communication goal differently while keeping the same level of complexity (Faerch and Kasper (1984; cited in O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

1.6.2. O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, and Kupper's classification (1985)

In this classification, O'Malley et. al. divide language learning strategies into three main subcategories: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and socioaffective strategies.

- **Metacognitive strategies:** the term metacognitive is used to refer to executive function, strategies which require planning for learning, thinking about the learning process while it is taking place, monitoring one's production or comprehension, and evaluating learning after an activity is completed. There are many metacognitive strategies, and they include advance organizers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, functional planning, self-monitoring, delayed production, self-evaluation.

- **Cognitive strategies:** These strategies involve a more direct manipulation of the learning material itself. Among the most important cognitive strategies are: repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, contextualization, elaboration, transfer, inferencing are among the most important cognitive strategies.

- **Socioaffective Strategies:** these strategies are related with social-mediating activity and transacting with others. The most important strategies under this category are cooperation and asking for clarification. (Brown, 1987, pp. 93-94).

1.6.3. Rubin's classification (1987)

Rubin (1987), who was the pioneer in the field of language learning strategies, offered a classification that distinguishes between strategies that directly contribute to language learning and those that do so in an indirect way. These strategies are of three types, learning strategies, communication strategies and social strategies.

- **Learning strategies** are of two main types, and they directly contribute to the construction of the language system by the learner. These two types are cognitive learning strategies and metacognitive learning strategies.

- **Cognitive Learning Strategies** are the steps or operations taken by the learner in order to learn or solve problems. They require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials. Six major cognitive learning strategies that contribute directly to language learning are identified by Rubin. These are clarification/verification, guessing /inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization, and monitoring.

- **Metacognitive Learning Strategies** are strategies used to oversee, regulate or self-direct language learning. Many processes such as planning, prioritising, setting goals, and self-management are involved in this type of strategies.

- **Communication Strategies** are indirectly related to language learning because they are mainly concerned with the process of participating in a conversation, understanding the meaning or clarifying the intention of the speaker. Communication strategies are used when the speakers face difficulties due to the fact that their communication ends outrun their communication means or when they are misunderstood by a co-speaker.

- **Social Strategies:** these strategies are used in activities which offer the learners opportunities to be exposed to and practise their knowledge. These strategies provide exposure to the foreign language but they contribute only indirectly to learning because they do not lead directly to obtaining, storing, retrieving and using the language. (Rubin 1987).

1.6.4. Willing's Classification (1988)

Willing (1988; cited in Wong & Nunan, 2011, p. 145) also provides a strategy categorisation based on the individual learning styles which are thought to have an impact on the strategy choice of the learner. Thus there are communicative, analytical, authority-oriented and concrete learners.

- **Communicative:** These learners are defined by the following learning strategies: they like to learn by watching, listening to native speakers, talking to friends in English, watching television in English, using English out of class, learning new words by hearing them, and learning by conversation.
- **Analytical:** These learners like studying grammar, studying English books and newspapers, studying alone, finding their own mistakes, and working on problems set by the teacher.
- **Authority-oriented:** These learners prefer the teacher to explain everything, having their own textbook, writing everything in a notebook, studying grammar, learning by reading, and learning new words by seeing them.
- **Concrete:** These learners tend to like games, pictures, film, video, using cassettes, talking in pairs, and practicing English outside class.

1.6.5. Oxford's Taxonomy of Learning Strategies (1990)

Oxford's classification is not greatly different from Rubin's, but it is more elaborate, and one of the most well-known taxonomies is Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). The SILL is a self-report measure of strategy use, breaking LLSs into six broad categories. As Oxford notes, these six categories naturally include a 'large overlap' (1990, p. 16), that is, one strategy can be 'placed' into multiple strategy categories. According to Oxford (1990), language learning strategies fall into direct and indirect strategies. Each of these two categories consists of a group of strategies: (pp. 18-21)

- **Direct Strategies** (memory, cognitive and compensation) operate specifically and directly on the L2 material to facilitate its storage and recall from memory, but each one of them operates differently.

Memory strategies help students store and retrieve new information.

- A. Creating mental images, through grouping, associating/elaborating or placing new words into a context.
- B. Applying images and sounds by using imagery, semantic mapping, using key words or representing sounds in memory.
- C. Reviewing well structured reviewing.
- D. Employing action through using physical response or sensation or using mechanical techniques.

Cognitive strategies help students understand and produce new language by many different means.

- A. Practicing through repeating, formally practicing with sounds and writing systems, recognizing and using formulas and patterns, recombining or practicing naturalistically.
- B. Receiving and sending messages through getting the idea quickly or using resources for receiving and sending messages.
- C. Analysing and reasoning through reasoning deductively, analysing expressions, analysing contrastively (across languages), translating or transferring.
- D. Creating structure for input and output through taking notes, summarising or highlighting.

Compensation strategies allow learners to use the language despite their frequent large gaps in knowledge.

- A. Guessing intelligently through using linguistic clues or using other clues.
- B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing through switching to the mother tongue, getting help, using mime or gesture, avoiding communication partially or

totally, selecting the topic, adjusting or approximating the message, coining words, or using circumlocution or synonym.

- **Indirect strategies** are very important to language learning though they do not operate on the second language itself. They are used by students in order to place themselves in positive situations. They include attempts to structure the learning process, create positive affect and seek social support. Examples of activities included in this group are keeping a diary, seeking practice opportunities, asking for error correction...etc. These strategies are metacognitive or affective or social strategies.

Metacognitive Strategies help learners control their own cognition; that is, to coordinate the learning process by using the following functions:

- A. Centering your learning by overviewing and linking with already known material, paying attention or delaying speech production to focus on listening.
- B. Arranging and planning your learning through finding out about language learning, organizing, setting goals and objectives, identifying the purpose of a language task (purposeful/ listening /reading/ speaking/ writing), planning for a language task or seeking practice opportunities.
- C. Evaluating your learning through self-monitoring or self-evaluation.

Affective strategies help to regulate emotions, motivations and attitudes.

- A. Lowering your anxiety through using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation; using music; or using laughter.
- B. Encouraging yourself through making positive statements, taking risks wisely, or rewarding yourself.
- C. Taking your emotional temperature through listening to your body, using a checklist, writing a language learning diary or discussing your feelings with someone else.

Social strategies help students learn through interaction with others.

- A. Asking questions by asking for clarification or verification or asking for correction.
- B. Cooperating with others, namely peers or proficient users of the new language.
- C. Empathising with others through developing cultural understanding or becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings.

Both direct and indirect strategies are believed to be useful for language learning because they engage the learner with the material at hand at a deep cognitive level which improves verbal learning (Anderson, 1980; cited in Gardner & McIntyre, 1992). This is clearly true for direct strategies whose purpose is to improve memory and comprehension processes, but this is also equally applicable to indirect strategies. In this respect, it has been proved that language anxiety negatively affects cognitive resources that might otherwise be applicable to the task of language learning. Therefore, when a strategy reduces anxiety, it gives more opportunities to the learners to efficiently use their existing cognitive resources.

In addition to that, the SILL categories view language learning strategies as constructs that can be used in all the skills that a student uses while learning a second language, thus acknowledging the possibility of specific language learning skills such as listening strategies or writing strategies. To this end, there is a separate skill-specific body of literature for reading, writing, listening, communicative, and vocabulary strategies.

1.6.6. Stern's Classification (1992)

Stern (1992, p. 262-266) identifies five main language learning strategies. They are management and planning strategies, cognitive strategies, communicative - experiential strategies, interpersonal strategies, and affective strategies

- **Management and Planning Strategies:** Such strategies have to do with the learners' desire to control their own learning. When teachers act as an advisor and resource person, they can help their learners to take charge of the development of their own programme. This means that the learners have to decide what commitment to make to language learning, set themselves reasonable goals, decide on an appropriate methodology, select appropriate resources, and monitor progress, evaluate their achievement in the light of previously determined goals and expectations (Stern, 1992, p. 263).

- **Cognitive Strategies:** They refer to strategies that a learner uses in learning or problem solving. They require direct analysis, transformation or synthesis of learning materials. Some cognitive strategies are Clarification/ Verification, Guessing/Inductive Inferencing, Deductive Reasoning, Practice, Memorization, Monitoring.

- **Communicative-Experiential Strategies:** learners use such strategies as circumlocution, gesturing, paraphrase, or asking for repetition and explanation to keep a conversation going. The use of these strategies aims at avoiding interrupting the flow of communication (Stern, 1992, p. 265).

- **Interpersonal Strategies:** by using these strategies, learners monitor their own development and evaluate their own performance, make contact with native speakers and cooperate with them, and become acquainted with the target culture. (Stern, 1992, pp. 265-266).

- **Affective Strategies:** Good language learners tend to use affective strategies to deal with the many emotional problems they may encounter while learning a L2. Indeed, a second language may cause a feeling of strangeness, or L2 learners may experience negative feelings towards the speakers of that language. Good language learners tend to create associations of positive affect towards the L2 and its speakers as well as towards the learning activities involved (Stern, 1992, p. 266).

These detailed taxonomies being made, it is worthwhile to explain that strategies can be categorized as either language learning or language use strategies. Language learning strategies are conscious thoughts and behaviours used by learners with the explicit goal of improving their knowledge and understanding of a target language. They include cognitive strategies for memorizing and manipulating target language structures, metacognitive strategies for managing and supervising strategy use, affective strategies for gauging emotional reactions to learning and for lowering anxieties, and social strategies for enhancing learning, such as cooperating with other learners and seeking to interact with native speakers.

Language use strategies come into play once the language material is already accessible, even in some preliminary form. Their focus is to help students utilize the language they have already learned. Language use strategies include strategies for retrieving information about the language already stored in memory, rehearsing target language structures, and communicating in the language despite gaps in target language knowledge (Cohen, 1998).

1.7. Reading Strategies

Many scholars, such as Harris (1997) and Oxford (1990), have made a classification of learning strategies according to the four language skills suggesting that each of these skills can be developed by the use of a set of learning strategies. Therefore, there are listening strategies, speaking strategies, reading strategies and writing strategies. However, since the present study is concerned with the promotion of reading strategies among non-motivated readers, the present section will be devoted solely to them. Reading is an essential skill in the learning process of any language and even outside of academic contexts. Many requirements are needed in the reading process, namely an adequate mastery of vocabulary and grammar as well as some reading strategies which contribute to improving the reading ability. Reading is

described as a psycholinguistic guessing game (Goodman, 1979) in which the reader makes predictions by relying on general knowledge of the world to make intelligent guesses about what might come next in the text and then samples just enough of the text to confirm or reject these guesses. This guessing game is a complex activity especially when reading in a foreign or a second language. Reading is in fact a complex skill because four factors are involved in reading comprehension (King, 2008): the reader, the text, the strategies, and the goal. Among all these factors, reading strategies are the most important ones, as King has emphasised.

1.7.1. What Reading Strategies Are

Reading strategies are defined as ‘the mental operations involved when readers approach a text effectively to make sense of what they read... Good readers apply more strategies more frequently ...and more effectively than poor readers.’ (Pani, 2004, p. 355). According to Barnett (1988, p. 66), reading strategies are the mental operations that readers use to process a text effectively and to give it sense. Another definition is provided by Karami (2008) who claims that reading strategies are the conscious, internally variable psychological techniques aimed at improving the effectiveness of or compensating for the breakdowns in reading comprehension, on specific reading tasks and in specific contexts. On the basis of this definition, Karami goes on to highlight some aspects of reading strategies. They are conscious, they change from moment to moment, they are regarded as tactics (for attacking a problem), their use depends on the specific reading tasks, context is a determinant factor, they are aimed at improving performance and they make up for the breakdowns in comprehension.

The metacognitive and cognitive strategies are the most relevant ones to reading among the learning strategies cited in the literature. Metacognition is concerned with monitoring, or watching, and evaluating the success of the learning process. Metacognitive strategies are indirect strategies used to monitor the self while engaged in an activity such as reading. For Swaffar, Arens and Byrnes (1991) metacognitive awareness of reading is mainly an exchange of

ideas between text and reader'. Cognitive strategies, on the other hand, relate to the specific contexts and learning tasks. They are direct strategies used to orchestrate the mental processing of a target language. They are the 'specific "attacks" that learners employ' when faced with a learning or comprehension problem (Brantmeier, 2002; cited in Gascoigne, 2008, p.73). According to Gascoigne (2008), cognitive strategies can be either local (data-driven), global (reader-driven) or interactive in nature. Metacognitive and cognitive strategies are part of our overall capacity in dealing with problems and difficult situations. This capacity is called strategic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980).

1.7.2. Lists of Reading Strategies

Many lists of reading strategies have been investigated and suggested by many researchers. For instance, Ahmad and Asraf (2004, p. 35) have offered five reading comprehension strategies that should be taught to L2 readers and that can be applied to any reading environment: 'determining importance, summarising information, drawing inferences, generating questions, and monitoring comprehension'.

Gascoigne (2008) also suggests that the most commonly-cited reading strategies include skimming, scanning, identifying cognates or word families, guessing, reading for meaning, predicting, questioning, rereading words, sentences or entire passages, activating general or background knowledge, making inferences, following references, separating main ideas from detail, and summarising.

Brown (2001, p. 306), who claims that 'reading comprehension is a matter of developing appropriate, efficient comprehension strategies', proposes ten such strategies.

They are:

- identifying the purpose in reading,
- using graphemic rules and patterns to aid in bottom-up reading,

- using different silent reading techniques for relatively rapid reading, skimming the text for main ideas,
- scanning the text for specific information,
- using semantic mapping or clustering,
- guessing when one is not certain,
- analyzing vocabulary,
- distinguishing between literal and implied meanings,
- capitalizing on discourse markers to process relationships.

Harris (1997, p. 7) proposes the following list:

- Recognizing the type of text; whether it is a poem, newspaper article, or brochure;
- Examining pictures, the title, etc for clues;
- Going for gist,
- Skipping inessential words;
- Saying the text outloud and identifying ‘chunk boundaries’, how a sentence breaks down and which parts of it to work on at one time;
- Using knowledge of the world to make sensible guesses;
- Picking out cognates;
- Substituting English words, for example, ‘she *something* on his head’;
- Analysing unknown words, breaking a word/phrase down and associating parts of it to familiar words;
- Identifying the grammatical category of words;
- Using punctuation for clues; question marks, capital letters, etc.

On the other hand, Kennedy (2003) maintains that there are five major strategies that can help learners read more quickly and effectively. These strategies are:

- Previewing titles, section headings, and photo captions to get a sense of the structure and content of a reading selection.
- Predicting which implies using knowledge of the subject matter to make predictions about content and vocabulary and check comprehension; using knowledge of the text type and purpose to make predictions about discourse structure; using knowledge about the author to make predictions about writing style, vocabulary, and content.
- Skimming and scanning, i.e., using a quick survey of the text to get the main idea, identify text structure, confirm or question predictions.
- Guessing from context: using prior knowledge of the subject and the ideas in the text as clues to the meanings of unknown words, instead of stopping to look them up.
- Paraphrasing, that is to say, stopping at the end of a section to check comprehension by restating the information and ideas in the text.

Abita (2006, on the net) classifies the most important reading strategies as follows:

- Activating prior knowledge, i.e., making connections between new knowledge and what is known.
- Key words, i.e., determining the organizational structure and content focus of the written text.
- Predicting, i.e., deciding what will happen next- confirm as they read. Q.A.R, i.e., (Question Answer Relationship) identifying whether an answer will be found in the text through Q.A.R.
- Setting a purpose, i.e., providing a purpose for reading.
- Surveying, i.e., guessing the general idea about text so as to be able to anticipate information and structure.

- Thinking aloud, i.e., the reader is engaged in a metacognitive dialogue about his/her comprehension of text and the use of reading strategies.
- Clarifying, i.e., making the meaning of text clear.
- Context clues, i.e., using words surrounding unknown word to determine its meaning.
- Evaluating, i.e., forming opinions, making judgements and developing ideas from reading.
- Fix-up, i.e., self-monitoring and checking for understanding.
- Inferring, i.e., finding a logical guess based on the facts or evidence presented using prior knowledge to read between the lines.
- Rereading, i.e., reading many times to make sense of a challenging text. Restating, i.e., retelling, shortening, or summarizing the meaning of a passage orally or in written form.
- Skimming/scanning, i.e., getting specific information from the text. Skimming is reading quickly to get the gist of a section. Scanning is reading quickly to locate specific information.
- Summarizing, i.e., organizing and restating information, usually in written form.
- Visualizing, i.e., using mental images that emerge from reading the text to aid in understanding.
- Drawing conclusions, i.e., using written or visual cues to figure out something that is not directly stated.

1.7.3. Difference between Successful and Unsuccessful Readers

Reading strategies exert a major impact on any act of reading. In this context, King (2008) who agrees with Pani's (2004) definition stated above has emphasised that reading strategies are what makes the difference between poor and good readers. In this respect, Pearson and Gallagher (1983) claim that better readers are those who have a better ability to summarize and make effective use of background knowledge. In addition to that, they employ the structure

of the text, make inferences, and are aware of the strategies they use. Generally, they monitor and adjust better the strategies they use and therefore, the better readers are more strategic. This means that they have purposes for their reading and adjust their reading to each purpose and for each reading task. Strategic readers use a variety of strategies and skills as they construct meaning. For Hosenfeld (1977), a good reader is the one who attempts to keep the meaning of what he reads in mind, reads in chunks, ignores less important words, tries to guess the meaning of unknown words by relying on contextual clues, and has a good concept of himself/herself as a reader.

On the other hand, Lau (2006) claims that good readers are those who use better learning strategies while poor readers either give up easily when they face problems or they use inefficient strategies. He suggests that they display the following characteristics:

- They do not know how to construct the main ideas and macrostructure of the texts,
- They are not familiar with the text structure and do not make use of the text structure to organize the main ideas,
- They have little prior knowledge and do not know how to activate their knowledge to facilitate text comprehension,
- They have difficulties in drawing inferences to achieve in-depth understanding of the texts,
- They lack metacognitive ability, and are not aware of the problems that emerge during reading and do not know how to monitor their reading process.

Similarly, Hosenfeld (1977) claims that the "unsuccessful" foreign language reader lose the meaning of sentences as soon as they are decoded, read in short phrases, seldom skip

words as unimportant, view words as equal in their contribution to total phrase meaning and have a negative self-concept as a reader.

In addition, studies of strategy use have yielded quite consistent descriptions of the tactics employed by L2 readers to interact successfully with target language texts. For example, Saricoban (2002) who has used a questionnaire to determine strategy use has found that successful readers engage in predicting and guessing, access background knowledge related to the topic of the text, guess the meaning of unknown words, reread the entire passage, identify main ideas and monitor comprehension. In short, successful readers employ global top-down strategies that are cognitive, metacognitive and compensatory in nature. Poor readers, on the other hand, tend to process texts on a word-for-word basis, focusing on grammatical structure, sound-letter correspondences, word meaning, and text detail. Barnett (1989) has found that less effective readers focus on meaning of individual words, pay attention to text structure, reread isolated sentences or passages, rather than the entire text, never or rarely hypothesise and resist skipping any unknown words. In other words, less skilled readers tend to employ local, bottom-up strategies, whereas more successful readers use global, interactive and metacognitive reading strategies. Block (1986) also has found that general comprehension strategies (anticipating content, recognising text structure, integrating information, questioning information, distinguishing main ideas from detail, monitoring comprehension, correcting behaviour, focusing on textual meaning as a whole and reacting to the text) are superior to local linguistic strategies (rereading words or sentences, questioning the meaning of words or sentences and solving vocabulary problems). Similarly, Ahmad and Asraf (2004) have found that good readers verbalise their comprehension strategies and believe that effective comprehension monitoring instruction is necessary.

1.7.4. Characteristics of Successful and Unsuccessful Learners

One way to cater for the difficulty of researching LLS is to gather data about good language learners in an attempt to account for the reasons which make them more successful than the unsuccessful learners. These reasons are the same that make readers successful or unsuccessful ones in regard to the use of reading strategies. In a research carried out by Rubin (1975), she has claimed that good learners have the tendency to use language to communicate, using their guessing skill, while performing different activities including reading, in case they are unsure. Such learners also pay attention to both form and meaning in the language they use though they do not feel ashamed of making errors or of looking foolish. Rubin has concluded that these strategies are employed depending on certain variables including target language proficiency, age, situation and cultural differences. Rubin (1987) has also identified strategies contributing to language learning success either directly or indirectly – namely, inductive inferencing, practice, memorisation or indirectly, such as creating practice opportunities, using production tricks. Wong-Fillmore (1982; cited in Griffiths, 2004, p.12) who has conducted a research into individual differences has arrived at conclusions which are consistent with those of Rubin. In fact, she has claimed that successful learners show a strong desire to socialise and to get involved in everyone's affairs in the classroom.

Stern (1975) has proposed a list of 10 strategies employed by good language learners. According to him, good language learners are characterised by a personal learning style or positive learning strategies, an active approach to the learning task, a tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language which is positive towards the speakers of the target language speakers, a technical know-how about how to tackle a language, use strategies of experimentation and planning with the object of developing the new language into an ordered system with progressive revision, constant searching for meaning, willingness to practice,

willingness to use the language in real communication, critically sensitive self-monitoring in language use and ability to develop the target language more and more as a separate reference system while learning to think.

This very early work by researchers such as Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) provided many valuable insights and formed the foundations for much subsequent work on language learning strategies. For example, building upon Stern's work, Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco (1978), gathered information about strategies used by successful and unsuccessful learners while learning languages by interviewing them. The study was eventually restricted to good language learners because of the researchers' inability to interview a wide range of unsuccessful learners. Five major strategies were identified on the basis of 35 interviews with successful language learners. Each of these strategies is associated with minor and more specific sub-strategies.

- **Active task approach:** good learners actively involve themselves in the language learning task by responding positively to the given learning opportunities or by identifying and seeking preferred learning environments and exploiting them. They also add related language learning activities to the regular programme and intensify their efforts. They engage in a number of practice activities and finally, change the purpose of an activity in order to focus on L2 learning. For example, a successful learner would have the tendency to read different materials as an extracurricular activity.

- **Realisation of language as a system:** good language learners develop or exploit an awareness of language as a system. When they deal with language as a system, good language learners refer back to their native language intelligently by translating into it and make effective cross-lingual comparisons at different stages of language learning. They also analyse the target language and make inferences about it. These strategies are typical to reading activities.

- **Realisation of language as a means of communication and interaction:** good language learners develop and exploit an awareness of language as a means of communication (i.e. conveying and receiving messages) both orally and in reading and interaction (i.e. behaving in a culturally appropriate manner). As a result of this strategy, good language learners, may emphasize fluency over accuracy, seek out situations in which they can communicate with members of the target language and show critical sensitivity to language use by trying to find socio-cultural meanings when reading different materials for instance.
- **Management of affective demands:** good language learners realise right from the beginning or gradually that they must adapt themselves with the affective demands of language learning and they succeed in doing so.
- **Monitoring of L2 performance:** good language learners regularly revise their L2 systems. They monitor the language they are learning by testing their inferences. They do this by searching for necessary adjustments while they are learning new material or by asking native informants whenever they feel the need to be corrected.

In a synthesis of earlier research on good language learning strategies, Oxford (1998) explains that the resulting strategy system suggests that good language learners use strategies that belong to six main groups: metacognitive, affective, social, memory, cognitive and compensatory. Metacognitive strategies, such as paying attention, self-evaluating and self-monitoring are used by good language learners to monitor their own learning process. Affective strategies such as anxiety reduction and self-encouragement are used by them to control their emotions and attitudes. Social strategies such as asking questions and becoming culturally aware are used by good learners when they work with others to learn the language. Memory strategies like grouping, imagery, and structured review are used to store information in memory and retrieve it when necessary. By using cognitive strategies such as

practicing naturalistically, analysing contrastively and summarising, these learners use the new language directly. Finally compensation strategies such as guessing meanings intelligently and using synonyms or other production tricks when the precise expression is unknown are used to overcome limitations in knowledge. All the above strategies are used in learning and practising the different language skills including the reading skill.

Conclusion

The importance of language learning strategies for learners is emphasised through research. In fact, interest in them has started from desire to comprehend what distinguishes successful learners from unsuccessful ones, and indeed the difference lies in the amount and quality of learning strategies used by both type of learners. Similarly, a distinction exists between good and poor readers, and it is accounted for by the reading strategies they employ. Investigating the strategies used by learners in general and readers in particular is the first step towards a deep understanding of how learning processes occur as a first step towards helping learners deal better with their learning. This will be the topic of the next chapter devoted to strategy training.

CHAPTER TWO
LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGY TRAINING

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Introduction

Students of foreign languages are being encouraged to learn and use a broad range of language learning strategies that can be incorporated in the learning process. This is based on the belief that learning will be facilitated by making students aware of the range of strategies from which they can choose during language learning and use. The most efficient way to heighten learner awareness is to provide strategy training, i.e., explicit instruction in how to apply language learning strategies, as part of the foreign language curriculum. Presently, an account of language learning strategy training in general is to be provided without referring to any particular language skill, such as the reading skill which is the concern of this work. In fact, language strategy training applies to all languages and language skills and this explains why there is no specific reference to training in the use of reading strategies in the present work.

2.1. Importance of Strategy Training

On the basis of the observation that some students are better learners than others, and of the hypothesis that this is in part due to the use of more effective learning strategies, it is assumed that less successful learners could be helped by teaching them to use the strategies employed by the more successful learners. In this respect, Grenfell and Harris (1999) argue that if successful learners possess a larger repertoire of strategies than the less successful ones, a judicious decision would be to intervene and offer them the chance to learn these tools. It could also be argued that explaining explicitly to students how to deal with the learning process is not only likely to increase such learners' range of strategies, it might also enhance their motivation. Recent developments in attribution theory (Dickinson 1995; cited in Grenfell & Harris, 1999) claim that when learners believe that their lack of success is the result of fixed and unchangeable causes, like their own lack of aptitude or the difficulty of the

task, they become readily discouraged. However, when they believe that the outcome of their learning is not predetermined and that they have control over it, they tend to persist. Strategies, therefore, could provide learners with one such means of control.

But, without considering the differences between successful and less successful learners, there may simply be a need for all learners to exchange with each other the strategies that are effective for them. Low (1993; cited in Grenfeld & Harris, 1999) who investigated the learning of modern languages by Scottish primary school pupils noted that, whereas the class as a whole identified a large number of strategies, each individual pupil mentioned only a small number. Therefore, it is assumed that teachers can enhance the learning process by increasing learners' awareness of learning strategies and encouraging their use. (Griffiths & Parr, 2001). This teachability aspect of language learning strategies implies that educators and researchers in this field are conscious of the potential which language learning strategies seem to have for enhancing an individual's ability to learn a language.

Learners need to learn how to learn, and teachers need to learn how to facilitate the process. This also illustrates the importance of learning strategies. In this respect, Oxford (1990) suggests that even though learning is a natural human behaviour, conscious skill in strategy use and self-directed learning must be heightened through training. The importance of strategy training is much felt when learning an L2. In fact, if learners are to attain an acceptable level of communicative competence, they cannot be spoonfed; rather they should be active and self-directed. Strategy training provides a considerable support for sharing experiences on what people know and how they learn. According to Oxford, research shows that students who receive strategy training generally learn better than those who do not, and that certain techniques used in this training may prove to be more beneficial than others.

In addition to that, Cohen (1998, pp. 66-67) claims that strategy training aims to provide learners with the tools to self-diagnose their strengths and weaknesses in language learning, become aware of what helps them to learn the target language most efficiently, develop a broad range of problem-solving skills, experiment with familiar and unfamiliar learning strategies, make decisions about how to approach a language task, monitor and self-evaluate their performance and transfer successful strategies to new learning contexts

2.2. Principles of Strategy Training

Many studies have been conducted to investigate the ways through which it is possible to improve the use of L2 learning strategies. A number of such studies have indeed reported that attempts to teach students to use learning strategies have produced good results. However, according to Oxford (1993), not all strategy training studies have been uniformly successful, strategy training has, in fact, proved to be effective in some skill areas and not in others, even within the same study.

To explain this, Oxford (1993, p. 181) claims that after carefully examining the different researches where training in the use of language learning strategies was ineffective, it was found that some methodological problems were held responsible for this. Such problems include too short a period for L2 strategy training, a disproportionate ease or difficulty of the task, an overemphasis on the more purely intellectual aspects of language learning, lack of attention to affective and social strategies that are potentially important to language learning, lack of integration of the training into normal language class work and the perceived irrelevance of the training, and an inadequate pre-training assessment of learners' current strategy use, learning styles, and needs. Oxford goes on to demonstrate that less formal studies on L2 strategy training offer a more positive approach to strategy training. These studies have given equal focus on cognitive, metacognitive, affective, and social

strategies and have demonstrated how the ‘whole learner’ can be taken into account during learning strategy training.

On the basis of research on training in the use of learning strategies, Oxford (1990) could establish five principles that need to be respected to ensure the effectiveness of the results:

- First, strategy training should start from a consideration of learners’ attitudes, beliefs and needs, i.e., affective factors need to be accounted for in strategy training. In the same token, affective factors such as motivation, anxiety, and interests need to be taken into consideration in L2 strategy training.
- Second, strategies that are subject of instruction should be carefully chosen so that they support each other. These groups of strategies should also match the requirements of the language task, the learners' goals, and the learners' styles of learning. It should be made possible for students to perceive clearly how strategies can support one another and also serve specific learning goals.
- Third, whenever possible, strategy training should be incorporated with regular L2 activities over a long period of time (for example, a semester or a year) rather than introduced separately over a short period.
- Fourth, training in the use of strategies should be done explicitly, overtly and it should offer a sufficient amount of practice with different L2 activities involving authentic materials. It is crucial that students should be trained in transfer of strategies to new contexts, and as this is a difficult task, explicit training, practice and authentic contexts will aid in this transfer.
- Fifth, L2 learners should be involved in strategy training by giving them the possibility to evaluate the success of the training and the value of the strategies in multiple tasks.

This process raises learner-awareness and improves motivation to continue effective strategy use.

2.3. Types of Strategy Training

There are three types of language learning strategy training through which strategies can be presented: Awareness Training, One-Time Strategy Training, and Long-Term Strategy Training (Oxford, 1990, pp. 202-203).

- Awareness Training, also known as consciousness-raising or familiarisation training, consists of making the participants aware of and familiar with the general idea of language learning strategies and how these strategies enable them to carry out different learning tasks. Nevertheless, in awareness training, participants are not supposed to employ the strategies in actual, on-the-spot language tasks. This type of training which, very often, represents the participants' introduction to the concept of learning strategies, is a crucial one. In order to entice the participants to generalise their knowledge of strategies in the future, it should be appealing and motivating and so the lecture format should better be avoided. Participants in this training could be teachers, students or anyone with particular interest in language learning processes, with no requirement of any special background in learning theory or strategies.
- One-Time Strategy Training, is based on learning and practising one or more strategies with actual language tasks taken usually from regular language learning programmes. In this training, learners are provided with information on the value of the strategy, when it can be used, how to use it, and how to evaluate the success of the strategy. Nevertheless, as its name indicates, one time training does not consist of a long-term sequence of strategy training. It is rather suitable for learners who need to learn particular, identifiable

and very targeted strategies that can be instructed in one or just a few sessions. Oxford claims that this training is not as valuable as long-term training.

- Long-Term Strategy Training, like the previous type of training, involves learning and practising strategies with actual language tasks. It allows students to learn the importance of certain strategies, when and how to use them and how to monitor and evaluate their own performance. Similarly to one-time training, it should be related to the activities and objectives of the language programme. But in contrast, it runs over a longer time and covers a larger number of strategies and therefore, it is likely to be more effective than one-time training.

In addition to the types of strategy training described above, many instructional models for foreign language strategy training have been developed and applied in different educational settings. These models differ according to the level of explicitness of the training, the level of student awareness of the practical applications and transferability of the strategies, and the level of integration into the foreign language curriculum. Seven of these models are described below (Cohen, 1998).

- **General Study Skills Courses:** these courses are sometimes intended for students with academic difficulties but can also target successful students who want to improve their study habits. Many general academic skills can be transferred to the process of learning a foreign language, such as using flash cards, overcoming anxiety, and learning good note-taking skills. These courses sometimes include language learning as a specific topic to highlight how learning a foreign language may differ from learning other academic subjects. Foreign language students can be encouraged to participate in order to develop general learning strategies.

- **Awareness Training:** also known as consciousness-raising or familiarization training, consists most often of isolated lectures and discussions and is usually separate from regular classroom instruction. This approach provides students with a general introduction to strategy applications. Oxford (1990) describes awareness training as ‘a program in which participants become aware of and familiar with the general idea of language learning strategies and the way such strategies can help them accomplish various language tasks’ (p. 202).
- **Strategy Workshops:** short workshops are another, usually more intensive, approach to increasing learner awareness of strategies through various consciousness-raising and strategy-assessment activities. They may help to improve specific language skills or present ideas for learning certain aspects of a particular foreign language. These workshops may be offered as non-credit courses or required as part of a language or academic skills course. They often combine lectures, hands-on practice with specific strategies, and discussions about the effectiveness of strategy use.
- **Peer Tutoring programs** began in the 1970s in Europe and are flourishing in many universities across the United States. Holec (1988; cited in Cohen, 1998) describes this system as ‘a direct language exchange’ program that pairs students of different native language backgrounds for mutual tutoring sessions (for example, an English-speaking student studying Italian and a native-Italian-speaking student learning English). Requirements of the tutoring sessions are that students have regular meetings, alternate roles of learner and teacher, practise the two languages separately, and devote equal amounts of time to each language. Students often exchange suggestions about the language learning strategies they use, thus providing a form of strategy training. Another approach to peer sessions is to encourage students who are studying the same language to organize regular target-language study groups. Students who have already completed the language course may also be invited to these meetings. Less proficient students can benefit from the language skills of more

proficient students, and more proficient students may yield better insights into the particular difficulties of the target language than a teacher.

- **Strategies in Language Textbooks:** many foreign language textbooks have begun to embed strategies into their curricula. However, unless the strategies are explained, modeled, or reinforced by the classroom teacher, students may not be aware that they are using strategies at all. A few language textbooks provide strategy-embedded activities and explicit explanations of the benefits and applications of the strategies they address. Because the focus of the activities is contextualized language learning, learners can develop their learning strategy repertoires while learning the target language. One advantage of using textbooks with explicit strategy training is that students do not need extracurricular training; the textbooks reinforce strategy use across both tasks and skills, encouraging students to continue applying them on their own.

- **Videotaped Mini-Courses:** Rubin (1996; cited in Cohen, 1998) developed an interactive videodisc program and accompanying instructional guide aimed at raising students' awareness of learning strategies and of the learning process in general, to show students how to transfer strategies to new tasks and to help them take charge of their own progress while learning the language. Using authentic language situations, the instructional program includes 20 foreign languages and offers the opportunity to select the language, topic, and difficulty level. Materials are structured to expose students to various strategies for use in many different contexts.

- **Strategies-Based Instruction (SBI):** SBI is a learner-centered approach to teaching that extends classroom strategy training to include both implicit and explicit integration of strategies into the course content. Students experience the advantages of systematically applying the strategies to the learning and use of the language they are studying. In addition, they have opportunities to share their preferred strategies with other students and to increase

their strategy use in the typical language tasks they are asked to perform. Teachers can individualize strategy training, suggest language-specific strategies, and reinforce strategies while presenting the regular course content. In a typical SBI classroom, teachers describe, model, and give examples of potentially useful strategies, elicit additional examples from students, based on students' own learning experiences, lead small-group and whole-class discussions about strategies, encourage students to experiment with a broad range of strategies, integrate strategies into everyday class materials, explicitly and implicitly embedding them into the language tasks to provide for contextualized strategy practice. Teachers may conduct SBI instruction by starting with established course materials, then determining which strategies to insert and where, starting with a set of strategies they wish to focus on and design activities around them. They may also insert strategies spontaneously into the lessons whenever it seems appropriate (for example, to help students overcome problems with difficult material or to speed up the lesson).

2.4. Steps for Designing Strategy Training

The models described above offer options for providing strategy training to a large number of learners. Based on the needs, resources, and time available to an institution, the next step is to plan the instruction students will receive. The following seven steps are based largely on suggestions of strategy training by Oxford (1990); the model is especially useful because it can be adapted to the needs of various groups of learners, the resources available to a particular institution, and the length of the strategy training. The seven steps are:

2.4.1. Determine Learners' Needs and the Resources Available for Training

This is a very important step in designing a course based on strategy training. Many factors are involved in determining the learners' needs, namely their current and intended levels of proficiency, their experience with foreign language strategy use or with learning

other languages, their learning style preferences and personality characteristics, their beliefs and attitudes about language learning, their expectations regarding the roles of both the classroom teacher and the individual language learner, and the reasons why the students have chosen to study a particular foreign language.

A very important component of the training to be taken into account is the time allocated for it. It is important to specify whether the programme is based on short term or long term strategy training, the number of hours needed, whether the training is embedded within the course content or separated from it. The time at which the training will be scheduled should also be determined. Other resources to be specified are the funding available, whether the training is language specific or more general in nature, whether it will be offered only once a year or throughout the year, and who will be responsible for conducting the training.

2.4.2. Select the Strategies to be Taught

It is first necessary to determine which strategies are already being used by the learners and then select strategies which suit the learners' needs and characteristics. Many language and culture groups around the world have employed an instrument that is used for this purpose, namely Oxford's (1990) *Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)*. Teachers and administrators can also design their own instruments to determine the strategies used to perform tasks specific to their curriculum.

There are a number of learner characteristics that need to be taken into consideration when identifying strategies to be used in strategy training. These are learning style preferences, personality characteristics, cultural or educational background, age, gender, career orientation, previous language study, and levels and types of motivation. It is also necessary to consider the transferability of the strategies to other language learning skills and

tasks. There are strategies which can be used across language tasks and those that are specific to a particular language skill. In addition, it is important to decide whether the training would focus on multiple clusters of learning strategies or will include only a few. Finally the focus of instruction has also to be determined. The types of strategies chosen and introduced should reflect the skills that are emphasised so that there is a good fit between the two.

2.4.3. Consider the Benefits of Integrated Strategy Training

Integrating strategy training with regular class curriculum has considerable benefits. SBI described above is by its very nature contextualised, can be personalised to meet the needs of a particular group of learners, and provides practice and reinforcement of the strategies during authentic language learning tasks. Wenden (1987) maintains that integrated strategy training ‘enables the learner to perceive the relevance of the task, enhances comprehension, and facilitates retention’. However, Wenden goes on to warn that it is possible that autonomous learners may not be produced, and application of strategies by individual learners may not be spontaneous when using fully integrated strategy training. So, it is very important to be fully informed of what worked and what did not work to make improvements if necessary.

2.4.4. Consider Motivational Issues

Student’s interest in participating in strategy training will be heightened if teachers explain to them how using good strategies will make learning easier. However, it will be increased even more if students receive extra credit for their participation whether the strategy training is integrated in the daily activities or not. It is also possible to include strategy training in the students’ regular language coursework, using special grading systems. Motivation will also be enhanced if the learners are able to exert some control over the

strategies they will learn. The learners could be involved in choosing the strategies that will be included in the training programme. The fact that learners can select their own strategies when performing language tasks can facilitate the transition from explicit instruction and guided practice to self-directed strategy use.

2.4.5. Prepare the Materials and Activities

Before materials are prepared, it must first be determined whether teachers will use training materials readily prepared from a textbook, curriculum coordinator, or researcher or produce their own materials. It should also be determined if the learners themselves will contribute to the development and collection of materials, or if this should remain the only responsibility of the trainer (teacher, coordinator, or researcher). The next decision to make is whether the strategy training will be flexible allowing for the spontaneous introduction of new strategies whenever necessary or fixed. But in both cases, teachers need to undergo some in-service training. In addition to that, it is very important to decide what kinds of activities teachers should present during the classroom sessions and assign for homework. Strategies-based materials have to reflect the kinds of learning tasks that are included in the curriculum. Moreover, as Oxford et.al. (1990) maintained, ‘activities must be interesting, varied, and meaningful, and they should deal not just with intellectual aspects of language learning, but with the affective side as well’. These materials can include awareness-raising activities, as well as strategy training, practice, and reinforcement activities.

2.4.6. Conduct Explicit Strategy Training

Teachers need to explain explicitly to their learners what strategies they are being taught, the value and the reason for using these strategies and how they can transfer these strategies to other learning tasks. It is also very important to train learners explicitly to select, monitor and evaluate the strategies they use. This is based on the assumption that the more learners are aware that they are practising certain strategies through a given activity, the more likely they will use them spontaneously in other contexts. In order to train students to use strategies, Rubin (1997; cited in Cohen, 1998, p. 94) proposed two techniques that can be used by teachers. The first consists of raising the learners' consciousness by adopting certain means, namely to use questionnaires, like style and strategy inventories, and to use diaries and dialogue journals, focus groups and verbal reporting. The second technique consists of providing the learners with practice in the following activities:

- drawing their attention to the necessity of using strategies to accomplish certain goals,
- taking notes of emerging problems so that they pay attention to areas where systematic use of strategies may be beneficial,
- using a checklist in order to have a view of the possible strategies to use from,
- comparing the possible contributions of strategies on the list and learning to distinguish different strategies,
- selecting among possible strategies to carry out the same task,
- acquiring experience in recording the strategies that they use , in which contexts they use them, when and how they use them, and to what extent they are effectively used in these contexts,
- asking themselves questions about their general progress through this more systematic use of strategies.

After students have become aware of and can control their pattern of strategy use, implicitly introduced strategies based activities may also be appropriate in the classroom. This means that new strategies can be introduced and practised explicitly; afterwards, they can be reinforced through the use of activities that implicitly embed the strategies to encourage learner autonomy.

2.4.7. Evaluate and Revise the Strategy Training

To ensure the success of the training programme, it is important to carry out continuous evaluation and revision. The learners themselves can be involved in this evaluation by providing feedback for the teacher or teacher trainer. Cohen (1998, p. 95) proposes some criteria which can be used to evaluate the program, namely improved student performance across language tasks and skills, general learning skill improvement, maintenance of the new strategies over time, effective transfer of strategies to other learning tasks, and a positive change in learner attitudes toward the learning programme and the language course itself. Tarone and Yule (1989; cited in Cohen, 1998) maintain that an important component of any language programme is continuous needs assessment.

The steps outlined above by Cohen (1998, pp. 69-73) offer administrators wishing to implement foreign language learning strategy training programmes many choices in regard to tailoring the training to meet the needs of a large number of students, as well as the needs of the individual institution or language programme. The design of any strategy training programme needs to take into account a number of extremely important criteria, namely students' needs, the available resources (including time, the costs associated with developing a training programme, materials and the availability of teacher trainers), and finally, the feasibility of providing this kind of instruction. Any strategy training programme aims at helping learners become more successful in learning a foreign language. Therefore, it is

important to choose an instructional programme that introduces the strategies to the learners and raises their awareness of their learning preferences, teaches them to identify, practice, evaluate, and transfer strategies to new learning situation; and finally promotes learner autonomy so that students can continue their learning on their own outside the classroom.

2.5. Approaches to Strategy Training

Although no empirical evidence has yet been provided to determine a single best approach for conducting strategy training, at least four different teaching approaches have been identified. Each has been designed to raise students' awareness of the purpose of strategy use, give students opportunities to practise the strategies they are being taught, and help them use the strategies in new learning contexts (Cohen, 1998).

2.5.1. Pearson and Dole's Approach (1987)

Pearson and Dole (1987) proposed an approach with reference to first language learning but applicable to the study of an L2 as well, which targets isolated strategies by including explicit explanation of the benefits of applying a specific strategy, extensive practice with the strategy, and an opportunity to transfer the strategy to new learning contexts. Learners are likely to understand better application of different strategies if they are first modelled by the teacher, then put into practice individually. After the learners have sufficiently practised the strategies introduced, further independent strategy use and promotion of learner autonomy can be encouraged so that learners can take responsibility for the selection, use and evaluation of the different strategies they have been trained in. The sequence includes initial modeling of the strategy by the teacher, with direct explanation of the strategy's use and importance, guided practice with the strategy, consolidation where

teachers help students identify the strategy and decide when it might be used, independent practice with the strategy, and application of the strategy to new tasks.

2.5.2. Oxford, Crookall, Cohen, Lavine, Nyikos, and Sutter's Approach (1990)

In the second approach, Oxford et al. (1990) describe a useful sequence for the introduction of strategies that is based on explicit strategy awareness, discussion of the benefits of strategy use, functional and contextualized practice with the strategies, self-evaluation and monitoring of language performance, and suggestions for or demonstrations of the transferability of the strategies to new tasks. This sequence is not prescriptive of strategies that the learners are supposed to use, but rather descriptive of the various strategies that they could use for a broad range of learning tasks. This sequence is built upon the following steps:

- Learners are asked to perform a language activity without receiving any strategy training.
- They are asked to discuss how they performed it. Teachers are asked to praise them for the use of any useful strategies or self-directed attitudes that they describe, and then to ask them to explain how the strategies they have selected have facilitated their learning process.
- Teachers are asked to suggest other useful strategies, to explain that greater self-direction and expected benefits are needed, and to make sure that students understand clearly the reason for using strategies.
- Plenty of time should be allowed to practise the new strategies in performing language tasks.
- It is necessary to show how the strategies practised can be transferred to other contexts.
- Practice should be provided using the strategies with new activities, and students should be allowed to choose the strategies they want to use to complete the language learning task.

- Students should be helped to understand and to evaluate their strategy use as well as their progress towards more responsible and self-directed learning.

2.5.3. Chamot and O'Malley's Approach (CALLA) (1994)

The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), is a language learning strategy training approach that was created by Chamot and O'Malley in 1986 (Chamot and O'Malley, 1994). The CALLA is a highly interactive strategies based curriculum designed for English language learners, in which explicit strategy training and language building activities are integrated into content area instruction. It is particularly effective after students have already had practice in applying a large number of learning strategies in different contexts. The approach which aims at enabling students to carry out language learning tasks, focuses on making language learning meaningful and giving students the tools to be successful learners through strategy training. Since their first proposal of this approach in 1986, Chamot and O'Malley have continuously been working on the model, enlarging and refining it. The *CALLA Handbook* (1994) is the latest outcome of this continued effort. The CALLA is learner-centered and the teacher aims to help students recognize the value of their prior knowledge. It includes five non-linear steps which can be reviewed and used as the need arises.

1. **Preparation:** In this stage, the teacher helps students make an explicit link between what they already know and what they are to learn so that students understand that they are building on knowledge frameworks acquired through prior schooling and life experiences, even if these were acquired through another language and a different cultural context.
2. **Planning:** The teacher introduces the learners to a language task and explains the rationale underlying it. Students are then required to plan their own ways to approach the

learning task, choosing by themselves the strategies that are more likely to help them carry it out.

3. **Monitoring:** While performing the task, the learners are asked to self-monitor their own performance by paying attention to their strategy use and checking comprehension.
4. **Problem Solving:** If they face problems, learners are supposed to find solutions on their own.
5. **Evaluation:** After the task has been completed, students are then given time to evaluate the effectiveness of the strategy they have used in dealing with the task. They can also be given time to check their predictions, assess their attainment of their initial objectives and reflect on how they could possibly transfer their strategies to similar language tasks or across language skills.

2.5.4. Grenfeld and Harris's Model (1999)

A number of types of strategy instruction programmes are presented above which share some consensus concerning the methodology to be used. Based on similar principles, Grenfeld and Harris (1999) offer a possible framework or sequence of steps in the form of a cycle for strategy training along with some practical examples. Their cycle can be applied to a range of strategies and across a range of levels of instructional steps and it covers reading strategies, listening strategies, memorisation strategies, strategies for checking written work, and communication strategies. As the focus of the present work is on strategies used in developing the reading skill, discussion will be limited to the training steps in using reading strategies.

- **Step 1 Consciousness Raising:** This step aims at inciting learners to reflect on their learning process. They are assigned a task and then asked to explain how they dealt with it, sharing the strategies they used with the class through brainstorming. Concerning the teaching of reading strategies, therefore, the teacher might start by giving pupils a short

illustrated book of their choice to read, perhaps for homework. The next day, the teacher asks them to describe the strategies they used to understand its meaning and what they did when they came to words or phrases they did not understand. An initial checklist of strategies is drawn up on the board. At this moment, the rationale for the strategy instruction that is going to take place will be explained. Low achievers in particular need to be convinced of the importance of instruction. Indeed, although they are the learners for whom the training may be the most valuable they may be the least willing to try out new strategies out of a feeling of frustration they will never be able to do well in learning foreign languages. In order to improve their motivation, it is worth convincing them that the difficulties they have experienced so far may be due to lack of strategies, rather than lack of ability.

- **Step 2 Modelling:** Through the class brainstorming practiced in the first step, learners are already given the chance to begin to share the strategies that are effective for them. But in the present step, the teacher may need to model other strategies with which learners are less familiar. An example provided by Grenfeld and Harris (1999) is about translating a Dutch poem which may offer the learners a context where they can collectively try to translate what they can, and the teacher illustrates how other strategies can be brought into play to make sense out of the rest. The translation of the poem is likely to engage the class in discussing at least some of the following strategies. Additions may be made to the initial checklist (p. 76):

- recognising the type of text (a poem) and therefore having some expectations of what it might be about;
- going for gist—skipping non-essential words;
- using the title and the pictures that accompany the poem for clues;

- identifying ‘chunk boundaries’ —how a text breaks down and which parts of it to work on at any one time;
- using common sense and knowledge of the world (earth is not blue);
- looking for cognates;
- saying the text out loud;
- using the pattern of sentences to make sensible guesses (‘a something is + colour’);
- breaking down an unknown word/phrase and associating parts of it with familiar words;
- using punctuation for clues; questions marks, capital letters, etc.;
- identifying the grammatical category of words.

The extent to which the last strategy is explored will depend on the level of the class and the need for the particular strategy in establishing comprehension of the text. For some tasks, identifying the tense marker may be essential for comprehension; for others, spotting adverbs such as ‘yesterday’, ‘tomorrow’ may be sufficient.

- **Step 3 General Practice:** Grenfeld and Harris (1999) contend that it is unrealistic to assume that learners will grasp the possible fruitfulness of strategies and use them automatically simply by being told about them. To promote the use of reading strategies to carry out tasks and materials, learners need explicit reminders of their use. Learners can first be presented with materials which make explicit the relationship between sections of the text and the particular strategies that could be used. In reading subsequent texts, learners may still need a focused reminder to use the strategies. Learners should be encouraged to practise different strategies since it is the ability to use a combination of strategies that characterises the successful learner.

- **Step 4 Action Planning, Goal Setting and Monitoring:** Donato and McCormick (1994; cited in Grenfeld and Harris, 1999) carried out a project in which learners had to keep a portfolio in which they recorded concrete self-selected evidence of their growing language abilities. Learners based their thinking about performance, planning future courses of action and monitoring their accomplishments on this portfolio. It helped them to identify their own targets, the particular strategies that will help to achieve them and the means by which they will measure success. However, according to Grenfeld and Harris, since different types of text require the use of different strategies and since learners cannot be assumed to perceive the most appropriate strategies to deal with each type of strategies, it is necessary to help learners identify which strategies are most appropriate to their goals and their level. A study carried out by Thompson and Rubin (1996; cited in Grenfeld & Harris, 1999) to investigate the effects of teaching listening strategies has revealed the importance of the type of listening text. Similar considerations may well apply for reading. For example, pictures may offer useful clues for reading magazine articles, cartoons or recipes, but they are not always available in other types of texts. ‘Using your common sense’ may be a useful strategy when reading a story but might be harder when trying to follow a scientific explanation. Making explicit the links between strategies and tasks may be the first step in arriving at appropriate, personal goals.

- **Step 5 Focused Practice and Fading out the Reminders:** After learners have drawn up their own individual action plan, they are provided with opportunities to realise it. Learners can be grouped together in pairs or groups to read types of text of common interest, and they can be assigned further texts as homework. Gradually, explicit instructions to employ certain strategies, in the form of checklists or worksheets, are faded out until students reach the point when they are simply reminded to use the strategies they have previously identified. The aim is that they should reach a stage where they have successfully internalised

the strategies and can call for their use automatically, without prompting from the teacher. It is up to the teacher's skill to decide how and when these reminders can be progressively faded out.

- **Step 6 Evaluating Strategy Acquisition and Recommencing the Cycle:** The most appropriate moment at which the teacher can withdraw the support provided by the reminders and decide whether the strategies have been assimilated and automatically and effectively used will vary from learner to learner and will depend on the teacher's professional judgement. The learners too will be provided with an opportunity to play an active role in this process by using an action plan in which they will discuss if the anticipated progress has been made. If it has not, then teacher and learner can point at what is going wrong and decide together on possible solutions on which the next action plan will be based. If it has, they can devise a new action plan, and the cycle recommences with a new focus. This may include expanding the range of reading of different types of text (poetry, newspaper articles, short stories, etc.), or simply a more detailed understanding of the existing type of text. It is for the teacher to determine the scope of the goals adopted by learners in the action-planning step and to direct them accordingly. Teachers may choose to limit the focus of an action plan to:

- the attainment of the learners, moving, for example, from simply memorising the meaning of words to also remembering their spelling and gender;
- the problems learners face in a particular skill area, some learners may have different communication difficulties from other learners;
- varying the type of text;
- varying the type of task;

- helping learners to select the most appropriate strategies for the text or task. (p 81)

Examination of the four approaches described herein shows that they all include a preparation phase where the instructor helps learners discover their current strategy use before any instruction on learning strategies is made. This enables the trainer to discover what strategies the learners already possess so that they can design their own instruction. All approaches also include a presentation phase in which other useful strategies are explained to the students, explaining to them their value and potential benefits. A third common phase among all approaches is practice where the instructor offers the learners plenty of opportunities to practise the newly presented strategies. Finally, all approaches end their training by evaluation where the learners are given an opportunity both to evaluate their own use of strategies and their progress towards more self-directed learning and the success of the strategy programme.

Although the different strategy training approaches described above differ in their details, they are intended to achieve basically similar objectives: to raise the learners' awareness about learning strategies and model strategies overtly along with the task, to encourage strategy use and explain its utility, to provide learners with a wide range of relevant strategies from which they can choose, to offer controlled practice in the use of some strategies, and to provide a kind of post-task evaluation which permits learners to analyse and reflect on their strategy use. According to Dornyei (2005), the most inspiring and instructive parts of strategy training is the 'sharing session,' which gives students the opportunity to share their learning experiences and the strategies which they have discovered by themselves as a regular part of class. Students who are direct participants in their own learning process are very likely to have fresh insights that they can share with their co-

learners in more simplified ways. Personal learning strategies are also usually entertaining and this makes it fun for the students to talk about them.

Conclusion

Strategy instruction is in fact a complex process. Many variables come into play when implementing it, such as learner characteristics, the subject taught, and the type of strategies that constitute the core of instruction. The extent to which strategy instruction is effective for particular learners will consequently largely depend on who they are, why they need to receive instruction on learning strategies, the particular strategies taught and the manner in which they are taught. This implies whether or not students are offered opportunities to internalise the strategies and helped to reach the point where they are able to choose the most relevant and appropriate ones to deal with a particular task. In addition, a number of attitudinal and motivational factors that come into play when learning a language may also intervene either positively or negatively in strategy instruction

CHAPTER THREE

MOTIVATION TO LANGUAGE LEARNING

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Introduction

Motivation is at the origin of any human behaviour, of every act of learning in general and of learning another language in particular. One always needs an incentive to act and to learn something new. In the absence of any incentive, learning will either not take place or inadequately do so. Attitudes held towards the target language, the course and the different activities related to it are also of paramount importance. To illustrate the importance of the existence of incentives and attitudes for the act of learning, students will read materials in a foreign language, appreciate them and learn different aspects of knowledge from them without being obliged to do so by a teacher only if they have a certain amount of motivation and positive attitudes towards this act. Because learning another implies learning the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), it is clear that motivation to learn this language implies learning these skills as well. A learner may be motivated to learn all the skills on equal terms or may have a preference for one or some skill(s) over the others. Therefore the discussion of the issue of motivation to learn a second or foreign language also implies motivation to learn and to practise the four language skills, including the reading skill.

3.1. Motivation

Motivation is at the same time a very important and complex human characteristic. Generally, this word is used to refer to the causes and origins of action, and a major concern in motivational psychology is to discover what these causes and origins are. According to Dornyei (2001), motivation is concerned with both direction and magnitude (intensity) which are both underlying dimensions of human behaviour. It determines the choice of a given action, the effort devoted to it and the persistence with it. Therefore, motivation accounts for the reason why people decide to do something, how hard they are going to pursue it and how

long they are willing to sustain the activity. All motivation theories in the past have been established for the sake of giving answers to these three questions, but since human behaviour is very complex and affected by many different factors such as basic physical needs, well-being needs and higher level values and beliefs, none of these theories has completely succeeded in doing so.

Different schools of psychology in fact, have attempted to account for why humans behave and think as they do, and there have been historical changes in peoples' understanding of motivation, with different periods attaching importance to different aspects. However, in the 1960's, many psychologists motivated by the desire to counter react to mechanistic views of behaviourism have claimed that human motives to engage in a particular activity are based on underlying needs. Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow, who were humanistic psychologists, maintain that the main motivating force in humans' lives (unlike in rats and dogs) is the self-actualising tendency which is driven by the desire to achieve personal growth and to fully develop the capacities people are born with. In his famous 'Hierarchy of Needs', Maslow (1970) assumes the existence of a hierarchy of human needs ascending from the basic physiological needs which are present at birth to higher psychological needs. Maslow's theory is important in that it constitutes the basis on which trends in the area of motivation for L2 learning have been developed. The steps in Maslow's hierarchy of needs are traced as follows:

- Physiological needs: those which are basic for survival such as the need for air, food, and water.
- Needs for security: The need for shelter, stability, protection, and freedom from fear.
- Needs for belonging: The need for a sense of identity, to be able to occupy a respected place within a group.

- Needs for esteem: The need to feel adequate, independent, to be appreciated and valued by others.
- Needs for self-actualisation: The need of each individual to realise his or her intellectual and creative potential, and achieve human relations and vocational goals.

These needs are essential components of human motivation. Motives which are based on physiological needs are called biological motives and are largely innate. Those which are based on the higher needs listed above are called psychological motives and are influenced by learning and environmental factors. The higher needs come into play only when lower ones have been satisfied. As far as language learning is concerned, the implication of Maslow's theory is that a person cannot feel an urgent need to learn another language if he/she feels hungry or cold. Likewise, the other needs in the hierarchy must be gratified before an individual is willing to devote efforts to realise his/her potential through educational programs.

However, the current spirit in motivational psychology (and in psychology in general) is characterised by the cognitive approach. This approach which was led by Weiner and Jung in the 1970's maintains that it is possible to understand action only in relation to cognitive factors. So instead of focusing on the observable, as it is the case of behaviourism, this approach focuses on that which cannot be seen, that is, how the individuals' conscious attitudes, thoughts, beliefs, and interpretation of events influence their behaviour, or in other words, how mental processes are transformed into action. In this view, the individual is a purposeful, goal-directed actor, who is in a constant mental balancing act to coordinate a range of personal desires and goals in the light of his/her perceived possibilities; that is his/her perceived competence and environmental support. In other words, people decide to act on the basis of the values they attribute to the action and of their evaluation of whether

they are up to the challenge and whether they will receive sufficient support from their surrounding environment (Chambers, 2001).

The overall current cognitive view of motivation encompasses a large number of alternative and competing sub-theories. This diversity of views is explained by the variety of motives that are likely to influence human behaviour. In this respect, Dornyei (2001, p. 9) claims that motivation is an umbrella-term that involves many different factors. For this reason, motivational psychologists, have attempted to limit the number of the factors that are likely to determine human behaviour by identifying a few most important motives. Many competing theories have been created which are distinguished in terms of the most important motives they have determined. These theories are Expectancy-value theories, Achievement motivation theory, Self-efficacy theory, Attribution theory, Self-worth theory, Goal-setting theory, Goal-orientation theory, Self determination theory, Social motivation theory and Theory of planned behaviour (Dornyei, 2001, p. 10-11).

Each of these theories, in fact, largely contributes to establishing the nature of motivation, but taken alone, none of them is satisfactory. In fact, according to Dornyei (2001), each of them is very sensible and convincing in itself but there has been no attempt at achieving any synthesis among these theories which have largely ignored one another. An ideal definition of motivation would, then, be an eclectic one, bearing in mind that the same action undertaken by the same person or different people under different occasions may be based on different motives. One may be incited to do something by different motives. This makes it difficult to identify one's motivation (Chambers, 2001).

3.1.1. Definition of Motivation

It is not easy to define motivation because any definition may be subject to disagreement and /or used in an inconsistent manner where its meaning differs to suit differing contexts (Chambers, 2001). So the meaning of motivation may differ according to the users' purposes. Confusion, thus, cannot be dissipated unless clear understanding is established. According to Chambers, what makes the definition of motivation so difficult is that this concept is based on a number of different factors which contribute to its driving force and people are not aware of all these factors. In this respect, he states that 'Motivation is so multifaceted that it is almost impossible to articulate a definition which covers all facets satisfactorily and with any conciseness' (p. 2).

The multitude of theories underlying the notion of motivation, as it has been exposed above, has not made it possible to arrive at a consensus concerning the definition of this term (Ellis; cited in Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). As a result, the term motivation has been used 'as a general cover term –dustbin- to include a number of possibly distinct concepts, each of which may have different origins and different effects and require different classroom treatment' (McDonough, 1981; cited in Crookes and Schmidt, 1991, p. 471)

Another definition is the one provided by Brown (1994, p. 152) who observes that 'motivation is probably the most frequently used catch-all term for explaining the success or failure of virtually any complex task'. Motivation is regarded as an inner drive, impulse, emotion or desire that incites one to perform a particular action. It refers to what experiences or goals a person decides to approach or avoid, and to what extent he will exert an effort in that direction.

Nevertheless, Dornyei and Otto (1998, p. 65) have provided a definition which acknowledges most appropriately the multidimensional and changing nature of motivation:

The dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out.

3.1.2. Motivation for Learning a Second Language

Most language teachers and writers in the field of psychology of learning agree that motivation is a prerequisite for success in language learning. In this respect, Corder (1967, p. 164) says, 'Let's say that, given motivation, it is inevitable that a human being will learn a second language if he is exposed to the language data'. So, if learners are highly motivated, they can always achieve something meaningful even if other factors in the learning process are less than ideal. But if motivational levels are low, teaching will be a difficult struggle and achievement levels will be disappointing. New pedagogical and methodological orientations attribute great importance to motivation as being the surest basis for every learning activity in general, and a greater importance as far as language learning is concerned, in particular, because it involves communicating with others.

On the other hand, Jacobovits (1970) stresses the importance of centring language teaching on the learners' personality, needs, motivations, attitudes towards the foreign country and the socio-cultural content transmitted by the language. He contends that teaching and learning must be adapted to all these. According to him, motivation plays a role as important as that of aptitude, which is the natural disposition to learn another language, and a more important one than that of intelligence. It could be said, therefore, that whatever the efficiency of the method or formal knowledge of the linguistic code, a learner will not adequately learn a foreign language unless he/she wants to learn it.

People with the same opportunity and exposure may show variation in the extent to which they learn an L2. Some people learn the language quickly and thoroughly, while others fail to do so. The question why this is so is a major one in the field of FL learning. The explanation of why a language is learned successfully or unsuccessfully may lie in the individual's motivation to learn it or to his/her attitudes towards the speakers of that language.

A large scale of studies has been carried out on the role of motivation and attitudes in L2 learning and both teachers and researchers have long recognised the importance of these two affective factors in the process of acquiring another language. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) claim that the major approaches to the study of the role of motivation in learning an L2 are social psychological and they are based to some different degrees, on two common features: motivation and attitudes. In this line of research, motivation has always been linked to attitudes towards the speakers of the target language, to the desire to interact with these speakers, and to a certain level to self-identification with the target language community. The underpinnings to research in this field were provided by Gardner and Lambert and their associates in Canada in the 1950's. Their work stipulated that interest in learning another language often develops as a result of emotional involvement with the other language community or because of a direct interest in the language itself. The line of inquiry that continues until nowadays has had a significant effect on the understanding of foreign language learning.

At this level, it is worthwhile to introduce a definition of motivation to learn an L2. Gardner (1985; cited in Dornyei, 1998, p. 122), for instance, defines it as 'the extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity'. This subsumes that motivation is underlied by three

components: motivational intensity, desire to learn the language and an attitude toward the act of learning the language. Therefore, Gardner's theory suggests that motivation is somehow a mental engine that subsumes effort, want/will (cognition) and task-enjoyment (affect). According to him, the three components are necessarily bound together to form the true sense of motivation.

Motivation is an important factor in L2 learning because as Littlewood (1991, p. 53) puts it, it is 'the crucial force which determines whether a learner embarks on a task at all, how much energy he devotes to it, and how long he perseveres'. Individual's drive, need for achievement and success, curiosity, desire for stimulation and new experience are all components included in the complex phenomenon of motivation, and they play an important role in every kind of learning situation.

Motivation to learn an L2 is a complex and unique issue because of the diversity of the nature and roles of language itself. Dornyei (1998) explains that language is many things at the same time: it is a communication coding system that can be taught as a school subject, an integral part of the individual's identity involved in almost all mental activities, and the most important channel of social organisation embedded in the culture of the community where it is used. Because of that, unlike any other school subject, learning an L2 leads to some kind of L2 identity and the adoption of aspects from the L2 culture. So, in addition to the environmental and cognitive factors present in any act of learning and which are the concern of educational psychology, motivation to learn an L2 incorporates also personality and social dimensions. It seems normal then that most research on L2 motivation between the 1960s and 1990s is mainly concerned with explaining how students' perception of the L2, the L2 speakers and the L2 culture influence their desire to learn the language.

3.1.3. The Socio-Educational Model of Motivation

The most extensive and significant research on the role of motivation in L2 learning was carried out by Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert and their associates in Canada, a country where two bilingual communities, French and English speaking, live together. Robert Gardner and his colleagues stipulated that knowledge of the other community's language could serve as a mediating force between the two speech communities. This suggests that the motivation to learn the language of the other community can play a major role in enhancing or hindering communication and a sense of belonging within Canada. Over a period of twelve years they extensively studied L2 learners in Canada, several parts of the United States and the Philippines in an effort to determine how attitudinal and motivational factors affect language learning success. However, since the early studies of L2 motivation were based on social psychology, and approached the motivational paradigm by viewing L2 learning as a social phenomenon rather than an educational one, a model of L2 motivation known as Socio-Educational Model was constructed by Gardner in 1979, then revised by him in 1985, which immensely contributed to clarifying the relationship between motivation and L2 learning. This model, which has attracted the attention of researchers since its development, considers L2 motivation as an important social factor that, along with learning aptitude, contributes to the success or failure in L2 acquisition. A major principle of the social educational approach in Canada is that attitudes towards the L2 community strongly influence one's L2 learning. The model also assumes that learners' goals fall into two broad categories, Integrative Motivation and Instrumental Motivation (Dorney, 2005).

3.1.3.1. Integrative Motivation

This type of motivation refers to ‘a high level of drive on the part of the individual to acquire the language of a valued L2 community in order to facilitate communication with that group.’ Gardner, Smythe, Clement and Glikzman (1976, p. 199). The learner is also said to have integrative motivation when he wishes to identify with the culture and speakers of the target language. This type of motivation is drawn from Mowrer’s (1960; cited Gardner et. al., 1976) account of motivation in first language learning. Mowrer claims that the child seeks to identify with his parents by learning their language because he associates the language he hears with the satisfaction provided by the parents’ presence. Similarly, the second or foreign language learner seeks to identify with the target language speakers by learning their language.

Integrativeness is particularly important as a source of motivation because it is deeply rooted in the personality of the learner. Consequently, it is likely to have a great influence over an extended period of time and to sustain learning efforts over the necessary time required to achieve success in language learning. The fact that integrative motivation facilitates L2 acquisition can be explained by the fact that attitudes serve as a foundation of motivation, so they influence the individual’s level of motivation and differences in motivation affect the degree of an individual’s success in learning another language. The argument goes that since L2 learning is a long and difficult process, an individual needs a stable attitudinal base to maintain motivation for this long period in the form of an integrative motive. These implications require that the ultimate goal of language learning should not be only the acquisition of the second language, but should involve the other cultural community since acquiring the language involves acquiring aspects of that culture. Because of that Gardner, Glikzman and Smythe (1978, p. 182) state that ‘the concept of integrative motive

emphasises this ultimate goal in that it bases in a desire or willingness to become closer psychologically to the other language community’.

Integrativeness has also a positive effect on the individual’s learning behaviour in that students having this type of motivation seize every opportunity to learn and to work. A study conducted by Glikzman (1976; cited in Gardner et al., 1978) shows that integratively motivated learners volunteer more frequently in class, give more correct answers, appear to be more interested and receive more positive reinforcement than those not so motivated. This has an important effect on maintaining the student’s positive attitudes towards the learning situation. In addition to that, integrative motivation is a clear indicator of the extent to which a student attempts to use the L2 outside the classroom. The assumption here is that the active learners will achieve more than passive learners. One possible definition of an active learner given by Ellis (1994) is one who participates frequently in classroom activities. The higher the learners’ integrative motivation, the more evident are the classroom behaviours that show the learners are totally active.

3.1.3.2. Instrumental Motivation

Contrary to the integratively motivated learner who is oriented towards members of the target language community for the sake of developing personal ties with them, the instrumentally motivated one has few signs of interest in members of the other cultural group, but is mainly willing to use them and their language as an instrument for personal satisfaction. A learner is said to have instrumental motivation when he needs the language for functional reasons as passing an examination, increasing job opportunities or facilitating the study of other subjects through the medium of the target language.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) hypothesise that instrumentality is less effective than integrativeness because it is not based in the personality of the learner. It largely depends on external pressures, and as a result the learner lacks the willingness to achieve progress in his language learning. In addition to that, since instrumental motivation is closely related to a specific goal, its influence ends when that goal is achieved. Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) consider this as a major disadvantage of instrumental motivation. However, if the goal to be achieved is continuous, this type of motivation will continue to be effective.

Different researchers arrived at different conclusions as to which type of motivation is more effective for second of foreign language achievement. The diversity of the results shows that neither instrumentality nor integrativeness can be claimed to be the unique motivator for learning another language. Different learners in different contexts show a preference towards one or the other, but this does not mean that the two types of motivation are mutually exclusive. Many learners give reasons for learning another language which overlap the two categories even if one category seems to be more important than the other. Burstall (1975), for instance, found that the achievement of a group of primary school pupils learning French as a foreign language was due to both types of motivation. Pupils' success was due to both a desire to do well in French as a school subject and by an interest in French people and their culture.

The importance of integrative or instrumental motivation varies according to the context in which the language is being learned. In this respect, Gardner and Lambert (1972) contend that while strong motivation is significant for L2 learning, the type (instrumental or integrative) will vary depending on the cultural setting. Therefore, whereas instrumental motivation has been found to be only a weak predictor of L2 achievement in several Canadian studies, it appears to be much more powerful in other contexts where learners have

little or no interest in the target language culture and few or no opportunities to interact with its members. For example, Gardner and Lambert (1972) found that instrumentality was a better motivating force than integrativeness for the French-American students in Maine and for the Filipino students. This led them to claim that in settings where there is an urgency about mastering a second language- as in the Philippines and in North America for members of linguistic minority groups- the instrumental approach to language study is extremely effective.

Similarly, Lukmani (1972) arrived at the conclusion that non-westernised female learners in Bombay were instrumentally rather than integratively motivated. Thus, the social context is an important factor that contributes to determining both what kind of orientation learners have and what kind is most effective for language learning.

3.1.3.3. Alternative Motivational Orientations

Although integrative and instrumental motivations have received the greatest amount of interest and research, it is possible that there are other motivational orientations for language study. This has been investigated by Clement and Cruidenier (1983) who compared orientations to language acquisition in French and English high school students who were studying Spanish, English, and French in unicultural and multicultural milieus. They provided their subjects with 37 reasons for learning the target language and factor-analysed the ratings of the different reasons. The research produced four factors which were interpreted as differing orientations for language study, but it failed to find any evidence of an integrative motive. One of the factors was labelled instrumental and the additional three factors, which were common to all groups, were friendship, travel and knowledge or understanding but Dornyei later on (1990) has suggested that travel and friendship orientations are part of a general integrative motivation. Clement and Cruidenier (1983)

acknowledged that the ‘relative status of learner and target groups as well as the availability of (or at least familiarity with) the latter in the immediate environment are important determinants of the emergence of orientations’ (p. 288). The challenge was to look not at the universality of integrative and instrumental orientations, but to look more at ‘who learns what in what milieu’ (p. 288).

In order to investigate the possibility that the integrative/instrumental dichotomy did not capture the full spectrum of student motivation, Ely (1986) carried out a research work with learners of Spanish in Northern California. To his surprise, there were clusterings of motivation that resembled instrumental and integrative orientations, even though the survey was not formed on the basis of that prior theory.

Crookes and Schmidt (1991) also worked to move beyond the instrumental and integrative orientations, specifically looking at how motivation includes both internal and external factors. They identified four internal and attitudinal factors:

1. interest in the language based on existing attitudes, experience and background knowledge
2. relevance (some needs being met by language learning)
3. expectancy of success or failure
4. outcomes (extrinsic/intrinsic rewards)

They also specified three internal characteristics: the language learner decides to engage in language learning, the language learner persists over time and interruptions, and the language learner maintains a high activity level.

According to Dornyei (1991), the integrative and instrumental dichotomy, which have become well known concepts in the L2 field, are not the most elaborate and researched

aspects of Gardner's theory, but rather the integrative motive. Three major components make up this complex construct:

- integrativeness: including integrative orientation, interest in foreign languages, and attitudes towards the L2 community.
- Attitudes towards the learning situation (including attitudes toward the teacher and the course).
- motivation (made up of motivational intensity, desire to learn the language and attitudes towards learning the language).

The Socio-Educational Model is based on the idea that languages are different from other school subjects because they involve learning aspects of behaviour that belong to another cultural group. Because of that, attitudes towards the target language community contribute to a certain extent in determining success in language learning. The model distinguishes among four variables that are interrelated when acquiring a language. The first of these variables is the **social milieu** which refers to the influence of the cultural context in which the L2 is being learned. If the cultural milieu assumes that to learn an L2 is a difficult task, then it is very likely that the general level of achievement will be low and vice versa. The second variable is **individual differences** which have a direct impact on achievement. They are intelligence (speed of learning), language aptitude (cognitive and verbal abilities), motivation (effort and desire) and situational anxiety (inhibitions). The third variable is **language acquisition**. Gardner mentions two components included in language acquisition. The first one is formal contexts such as the language classroom or any situation in which the individual receives training, explanations or drills. The second one is informal contexts, in other words, situations where instruction is not the primary aim, for example listening to the radio, watching television, conversation. **Learning outcomes** constitute the fourth variable.

These outcomes could be linguistic or non-linguistic. Linguistic outcomes are related to proficiency in the language/ grammar/ vocabulary/ pronunciation/ fluency. The non-linguistic outcomes involve the attitudes and values which derive from the experience (Gardner, 1979).

In 1985, Gardner modified the model that was constructed in 1979 by introducing the concept of integrative motive within the individual differences variable. It is divided in two components: attitudes toward the learning situation and integrativeness. Attitudes towards the language situation involve attitudes towards the school environment, reactions to the textbooks, evaluation of the language teacher and the language course. Clearly, the nature of the learning situation will influence a student's motivation. An interesting and skilled teacher with a good command of the language, an exciting curriculum, carefully constructed lesson plans, and meaningful evaluation procedures will promote higher levels of motivation than a teacher lacking in some of these attributes (Dorney, 2005).

The components of this model are all linked in a linear and causal relationship, both on theoretical and empirical grounds. The cultural beliefs of the social milieu exert an influence on the individual differences of intelligence, language aptitude, motivation and situational anxiety which are all constituent components of any context of L2 acquisition, whether it be formal language training or informal language experience. Finally the outcomes of either type of context are both linguistic and non-linguistic.

The model has, in fact, received much criticism which focused mainly on the integrative motive hypothesis and the causality hypothesis. Indeed, contradictory results were obtained from different studies that aimed at testing the superiority of the integrative motive. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) have explained that such disparity in the results obtained could be explained by the fact that the relationship between affective factors and motivation, on the

one hand, and language learning, on the other hand, could be unstable and it varies greatly according to individuals, contexts and learning tasks.

3.1.3.4. Motivation and Attitudes of Language Learners

In their early work, Gardner and Lambert did not distinguish between motivation and attitudes. In their 1959 study on Anglophone Canadian students of French, they identified two factors responsible for French proficiency. The first was aptitude and the second was a constellation of attitudes towards French Canadians, motivational intensity and an integrative motivation. It was not until two decades later that the relationship among the three variables in the second factor was redefined. Thus, Gardner, Smythe, Clement and Glikzman (1976) argued that there exists a linear relationship between these variables which is that attitudes affect motivation, which in turn affects L2 learning. Therefore, attitudes have an important but indirect effect on L2 learning.

There are a number of different attitudes that are associated with the motivation to learn another language. Gardner, Glikzman and (1978) claim that the elaboration of the concept of the integrative motive involves the identification of interrelated attitudinal variables which are consistent with the ultimate goal of psychological integration. They identified two classes of attitude variables. One class involves attitudes related to integrativeness such as attitudes towards the target community and the people who speak the L2, i.e. 'group specific attitudes', attitudes towards becoming closer to the other language community and other more general attitudes involving attitudes towards foreign languages in general. The second class involves attitudes towards the learning situation such as attitudes towards the course and the teacher. These attitudes can be influenced by several factors, namely the type of personality of the learner, for example, whether he is ethnocentric or authoritarian, and the social milieu in which learning takes place, for example, attitudes may

be different according to whether the language is learned in monolingual or bilingual contexts.

Of all possible attitudes which may have an influence on L2 learning, attitudes towards the target language and its speakers have been the most thoroughly investigated. Most of the studies carried out by Gardner and his colleagues show that positive attitudes towards the target language group lead to an integrative motivation to learn their language, which in turn leads to successful L2 learning in the Canadian bilingual cultural setting.

Although most of the research in the area of attitudes and L2 achievement has focused on learners' attitudes towards the target language and its speakers, there are other attitudinal factors which control the learners' motivation to acquire the language. To illustrate this, Spolsky (1969, p. 273) maintains that:

In a typical language learning situation, there are a number of people whose attitudes to each other can be significant: the learner, the teacher, the learners' peers and parents, and the speakers of the language. Each relationship might well be shown to be a factor controlling the learners' motivation to acquire the language.

How these factors may influence attitudes are explained by Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991):

Parents: Parents have a role in developing attitudes towards speakers of the target language in that students may hold the same attitudes as their parents towards speakers of another language. Moreover, parental encouragement is considered by Gardner et al. (1976) as an important component of the integrative motive.

Peers: Peers' attitudes towards the target language and its speakers also affect the students' acquisition of a second language.

Learning situation: Learners' attitudes towards the learning situation and the course of instruction affect their degree of success.

Teachers: Teachers' attitudes towards the learners can affect the quality of the learning that actually takes place. Teachers' attitudes can even be more important than parental or community attitudes in influencing the learners' L2 achievement.

However, despite the claim that there is a positive relationship between attitudes and language proficiency, some studies failed to find any existence of such a relationship. For example, Oller and Perkins (1978) suggest that some learners may be motivated to be proficient in their language learning because of negative attitudes towards the target language community. In this case, negative feelings may lead to a desire to manipulate and overcome the people of the target language. They refer to this phenomenon as 'Machiavellian Motivation'.

Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) suggest that attitudes are among the important attributes, along with integrativeness and instrumental motivation that play an important role in supporting levels of motivation which in turn plays an important role in learning the target language. They maintain that: '...language attitudes are shown as having a causal influence on motivation (...). The point is, that motivation needs an affective basis to be maintained, and it seems reasonable to argue that attitudes serve this purpose' (p. 9).

Thus attitudes should be regarded as motivational supports and not as factors which have a direct effect on L2 learning. In addition to that, van Els et al. (1984) suggest that motivation to learn another language is determined not only by attitudes but also by other motivational supports such as the desire to please teachers and parents, promise of a reward, or experience of a success... etc. They also maintain that the relationship of attitude to

motivation is dependent on the type of motivation. Integratively motivated learners have a positive attitude towards the target language speakers and their culture. However, instrumentally motivated learners do not necessarily have this type of attitude. Some attitudes, such as attitudes towards the language, the teacher and the course may be related to both types of motivation.

On the whole, it can be said that although Gardner has offered work of great value to teachers of foreign languages, and although he has claimed that his work has focused on ‘the context of the student acquiring a second language in the school setting, often in environments where immediate access to the second language community is limited, if not virtually non-existent’ (cited in Chambers, 2001, p. 06) he has received some criticism. Chambers (2001) states that Gardner’s research often takes place in contexts where the target language learner has either immediate or near access to the target language community like learning French in Canada. Learners may have a formal leaning context of the classroom, and once outside the classroom they will have an informal learning context where they will have contact with the target language in authentic situations. However, the situation is totally different for foreign language learners in other countries in the world where the informal learning context is not available and where learners may construct opinions about the target language community only through some sources like television programmes, holidays, or newspaper and magazine articles.

For more than three decades, Gardner’s theory has been the dominant motivation model in the L2 field. Dornyei (2001) claims however that this theory has remained unchanged as it contained all its fundamental elements since its inception in 1979. This stagnation did not match the considerable changes that occurred in mainstream motivation research since the 1980’s following the cognitive revolution in psychology. This has created

an immense gap between motivational thinking in the second language field and in educational psychology by the beginning of the 1990's. It was therefore felt necessary to initiate a new era in L2 motivation research.

3.1.4. Dornyei's Framework of Educational Motivation (1998)

Since the late 1990's, a large number of studies have attempted to reform the motivational research movement by bringing in a new wave of educational focus. This movement did not, in fact, reject the relevance of the social dimension of L2 motivation, but rather believed that it is not the only important one neither the most important one in certain educational contexts. Because of that, the reform movement explicitly called for 'a more pragmatic education-centered approach to motivation research which would be more relevant for classroom application' (Dornyei, 1998, p. 125). The approach consists of identifying what factors in language education affect learner motivation and at which stage in the long process of L2 learning. As a result, some different approaches from Gardner's Socio-Educational Model have been developed to account for the L2 learning motivation. One of such approaches is Dornyei's Framework of Educational Motivation.

In order to examine motivation in a context where the social dimension is not present, Clement, Dornyei and Noels (1994; cited in Dornyei, 1998) carried out a study on Hungarian EFL students learning English in a school context and having no contact with L2 community members. The results obtained revealed the existence of three motivational constructs among these learners which are integrativeness, linguistic self-confidence, and the appraisal of the classroom environment. The first two components were consistent with findings in earlier researches in a foreign language context. The third component related to classroom environment and which subsumed the evaluation of the teacher and the course as well as the cohesiveness of the learner group corresponded to the attitudes towards the learning situation

factor in Gardner's integrative motive construct. It also empirically supported the validity of the pedagogical extension of research on motivation. On the basis of this tripartite framework, Dornyei (1994) who was concerned with expanding the model of motivation beyond the instrumental/integrative orientations, specifically in a foreign language setting and who believed that 'the exact nature of the social and pragmatic dimensions of second language motivation is always dependent on who learns what languages where' (p. 275), developed a more general framework of L2 learning motivation in which he attempted to account for and include some of the expanding views of motivation. This framework, which is a good example of 'educational approach' because it focuses on motivation from a classroom perspective (Dornyei, 2001, p. 18), includes a range of motivational components categorized into three main dimensions which not only allowed for the inclusion of motivational orientations but also for specific situations that involved the learner and the surrounding context. The three levels are language, learner, and learning situation levels and each one includes affecting factors relevant to it (Dorney, 1994).

3.1.4.1. The Language Level

This level includes different elements linked to aspects of the L2, such as the culture and the community, as well as the intellectual and pragmatic values and benefits associated with it. It encompasses both integrative and instrumental motivational subsystems focusing on reactions and attitudes toward the target language. In other words, this level relates to motivational factors such as the cultural dimension, perceptions of the target language community, the potential usefulness of competence in the TL. To enhance the learners' integrative and instrumental motivation at the language level, Dörnyei recommends the inclusion of a sociocultural component through the use of video, music and TL visitors. He also recommends the systematic development of learners' cross-cultural awareness and the

focus on similarities as well as differences. He also suggests the promotion of student contact with TL speakers through exchanges, pen friends, class links and the development of learners' instrumental motivation by discussing the roles of the TL in the world, its usefulness to the pupils and to the community.

3.1.4.2. The Learner Level

This level focuses on the individual's reaction to the language and the learning situation and is related to individual characteristics that the learner brings to the learning process. The most important of these is self-confidence. In addition to this, different cognitive theories of motivation are included. Cognitive theories of motivation view motivation as a function of someone's thoughts, not as an instinct, need, drive, or state. The source of action, then, is when information is encoded and transformed into a belief (Dörnyei, 1994, p. 276). Different factors of cognitive theories, such as learned helplessness a resigned, pessimistic state which develops when someone feels success is impossible, could be added to this model.

This level relates to the learner's self-appraisal of strengths and weaknesses and how this appraisal affects their learning: this may include factors such as anxiety, perceived TL competence, perceptions of past experiences, and self esteem. In this respect, Dörnyei suggests that it is necessary for educators to render learners' thoughts positive towards learning by adopting different strategies. For example, students' self confidence should be developed through praise, encouragement, reinforcement and success. Students' self efficacy with regard to achieving learning goals should also be promoted by teaching them learning and communication strategies, information processing, problem-solving strategies, and helping them develop realistic expectations. It is equally important to promote in the students' favourable self-perceptions of competence in the target language by focusing on

what they can do rather than what they cannot do, and by explaining to them that mistakes are not bad but rather a necessary part of learning. Anxiety should also be decreased by creating a supportive, accepting and non-punitive learning environment. In addition to that, attributions that enhance motivation have to be promoted by helping students see the link between effort and outcome, and helping them see real reasons for past failure such as lack of effort, failure to understand instructions, implementation of inappropriate strategies, rather than lack of ability. Finally, students need to be encouraged to set attainable sub-goals, for example, to learn five words each day may be part of personalised learning plan.

3.1.4.3. The Learning Situation Level

This level takes into account specific motivational factors connected with the teacher, the course, and the group of language learners with which an individual interacts. It consists of extrinsic and intrinsic motives in different areas. Extrinsic motivation consists of doing ‘something because of an external reward that may be obtained, while intrinsic motivation is demonstrated when we do something because we get rewards enough from the activity itself’ (Schmidt, Boraie and Kassabgy, 1996:14). These two motives are not necessarily mutually antagonistic. However, extrinsic motivation can undermine intrinsic motivation. Traditional school settings often cultivate extrinsic motivation (Brown, 1990, p. 388), but under certain circumstances classroom rewards can be combined with or lead to intrinsic motivation.

The Learning Situation Level consists of three components. The first one is course specific-motivational components which relate to the motivational influence of the syllabus, teaching materials, teaching methods and learning activities. In order for this motivational influence to be effective, the syllabus should be relevant, the course content should be attractive by selecting authentic, accessible materials and varied media. It is also important to discuss the choice of teaching materials with the students and allowing them to identify their

strengths and weaknesses, and to arouse and sustain curiosity and attention by introducing the unexpected, breaking up routine, changing seating and making students move around the room from time to time. Increasing students' interest and involvement in the tasks is also suggested by creating challenge, and using games, puzzles, competition, pair- and group-work. It is also important to match difficulty of tasks with students' abilities and to increase the latter's expectancy of task-fulfilment thanks to an appropriate preparation for the task, transparency of assessment methods and marking criteria.

The second component of the Learning Situation Level consists of teacher-specific motivational components. This is related to teacher-learner relationship, the teacher's approach to behaviour management, the promotion of sharing of ideas and views between pupils as well as teacher and pupils and the provision of motivating feedback. In order for such motivational components to be realised, teachers are advised to try to be empathetic, congruent and accepting; to be facilitators rather than 'drill sergeant'; to promote learner autonomy by providing real choices and sharing responsibility; to model student interest in learning the target language by explaining how the target language and its learning enrich the students' life and by showing enthusiasm and commitment. Teachers are also advised to introduce tasks in such a way as to stimulate intrinsic motivation and help internalise extrinsic motivation by presenting them as learning opportunities to be valued rather than imposed demands to be resisted, by pointing out the interesting, the exotic and by stressing the usefulness. Finally, they are advised to use motivating feedback, making it positive and informative and not to overreact to errors.

The third component of the Learning Situation Level is related to group-specific motivational components which consist of the promotion of collaboration, shared goals and shared norms of behaviour. These can be promoted by following a number of advice. The

group's goal-orientedness can be increased by encouraging discussion of group's goals and the extent to which they are being achieved. Internalisation of classroom norms is promoted by negotiating with students and agreeing on modes of behaviour which are acceptable and which promote learning. Internalised classroom norms are maintained if the teacher himself adheres to them and does not ignore any violations. The negative effect of evaluation on intrinsic motivation is reduced by encouraging each student to be the best of what she or he can be, avoiding comparison with other students, making evaluations private rather than public, and seeking students' opinions.

Dörnyei (1998) specified that each of these different levels, language, learner and learning situation are very different in nature and therefore cannot easily be empirically tested. In addition, his frame does not indicate any relationship between the different components. Finally, the integrative/instrumental dichotomy at the language level does not clearly account for the complex processes involved in the social dimension of L2 motivation.

3.1.5. The Process-Oriented Approach to Motivation

The cognitive-situated approach to motivation which appeared in the 1990's drew attention to a neglected aspect of motivation which is its dynamic character and temporal variation. Dörnyei (2005) claimed that it is necessary to adopt a process-oriented approach when motivation is studied in relation to specific learner behaviours and classroom processes. He justified this by the fact that in a prolonged learning activity, such as mastering an L2, learners' motivation to learn changes and goes through ups and downs. Language learning motivation may even change during a single L2 class. Such variation could be explained by a range of factors, such as the phase of the school year (e.g. motivation might decrease with time) or the type of activity that the students face (Dörnyei, 2001). So in the context of learning a language for several months or years, motivation goes through a number of

different phases. Because of that, Dornyei (2005, p. 83) explains that ‘motivation is not seen as a static attribute but rather as a dynamic factor that displays continuous fluctuation’.

Because language acquisition is particularly a lengthy process, many L2 researchers have drawn attention to the necessity of adopting a temporal perspective that is based on the division of motivation into distinct phases. In this respect, Williams and Burden (1997; cited in Dornyei, 2005, p. 83) have distinguished three separate phases of the motivational process: ‘reasons for doing something’, ‘deciding to do something’ and ‘sustaining the effort or persistence’. They explained that while the first two stages involved initiating motivation, the last one consisted of sustaining it. In the same vein, Ushioda (1996, 2001; cited in Dornyei, 2005, p. 83) also argued that the common experience that emerges in institutional learning is that motivation is fluctuating rather than stable. Finally, an investigation carried out by Manolopoulou-Sergi (2004; cited in Dornyei, 2005, p. 83) analysed motivational variation in relation to the three main phases of second language acquisition within an information-processing framework: Input, central processing, and output.

Because of this fluctuating nature of motivation, Dornyei (2001, p. 21) stated ‘it is my belief that it may be useful to include a time dimension - or a *temporal* axis - in a motivation model that is to be applied to school learning’. So in collaboration with Otto (Dornyei & Otto, 1998), they devised a general and elaborate model in L2 motivation research. The new element of the model is that it is based on a process-oriented approach that views motivation as a dynamic phenomenon and tries to describe some aspects of motivational evolution over time. This model:

broke down the motivational process into several discrete temporal segments, organized along the progression that describes how initial wishes and desires are first transformed into goals and then into operationalized intentions, and how these intentions are enacted, leading (hopefully) to the accomplishment

of the goal and concluded by the final evaluation of the process. (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 84).

Based on the assumption that this process- oriented approach consists of many different phases, three such phases are separated.

In the initial stage, the preactional stage, motivation needs to be generated. The motivational dimension related to this phase is called choice motivation, because the generated motivation leads to the selection of the goal or task to be pursued.

In the second stage, the actional stage, the motivation that has been generated needs to be maintained and protected as the particular action goes on. This motivational dimension is called executive motivation which is specifically important for sustained activities like learning an L2 especially in classroom settings where learners are likely to undergo the influence of different distracters such as off-task thoughts, irrelevant distracters form others, anxiety about the tasks, or physical conditions that impede the completion of the task.

The third stage, postactional stage, which follows the completion of the task, is also referred to as motivational retrospection. It is related to the learners' evaluation of how their learning has been carried out. The manner with which learners analyse their past experiences in this final phase will determine what type of activities they will be motivated to accomplish in the future.

Dörnyei has also listed the main motives that influence the learner's behaviour/thinking during the three phases. Each of the motivational phases is fuelled by different motives. For example, different considerations come into play when one decides to undertake an action, –that is to initiate motivation- from sustaining motivation.

3.1.6. Motivation: Cause or Effect

One possible influence on motivation might be success itself, with motivation as the result not the cause of achievement. This possibility has been supported by many researchers, namely Hermann (1980) who proposed the Resultative Hypothesis. She claimed that the act of learning another language may affect cultural attitudes rather than the opposite. She tested this hypothesis with two groups of German learners of English, one group from the fifth year of instruction and one group of beginners. She found that the five year group had more positive attitudes towards the target language community than the beginners, leading her to conclude that instruction itself caused this change. Consequently, she concluded that when learners feel satisfied with their achievement of the learning task, their attitude to the target language ethnolinguistic group will be influenced. Such attitudes may even change as a result.

This hypothesis was supported by Strong (1984) in a research on Spanish speaking children learning English in an American classroom. He found that the students' motivation increased relative to their English language proficiency. He explained this by the fact that motivation does not necessarily promote acquisition, but rather results from it.

The Resultative Hypothesis serves as an explanation for the fact that Savignon (1972) found no correlation between early attitudes and measures of final achievement of American college students in their first semester of French study at the University of Illinois. She reported, therefore, that students' desire to learn French increased with improvements in French proficiency as the course of study progressed.

The diversity of research findings in favour of one direction or the other led Ellis (1990) to say that one of the problems which remain unsolved in the available research is that

it is only possible to show the existence of a relationship not the direction of this relationship. Ellis (1994, p. 515) states, in the same respect, that there is an interactive relationship between motivation and achievement in that: ‘... a high level of motivation does stimulate learning, but perceived success in achieving L2 goals can help to maintain existing motivation and even create new types’.

3.1.7. Motivation as an Intrinsic Interest

The hypothesis of intrinsic motivation was developed as an alternative to goal oriented theories of motivation that emphasise the role of extrinsic rewards and punishments. One does not always learn an L2 because he or she wants to become part of the L2 community or because he wants to get a better job or increased salary. This implies that other types of motivation may underlie different actions. Alternative motivations to the integrative/instrumental dichotomy are the intrinsic/extrinsic orientations. Deci and Ryan (2000) claimed that people have both different amounts and different kinds of motivation. This means that they differ both in the level of motivation (i.e., how much motivation) and in the orientation of that motivation (i.e., what type of motivation). Orientation of motivation is related to the underlying attitudes and goals that cause an action to occur. As an example, a learner can be highly motivated to do homework because he is curious to discover new outcomes or is simply interested in doing this, or he could be driven by a desire to please a teacher or parent. A student could be motivated to learn a new set of skills because he or she understands their potential utility or value or because learning the skills will allow him or her to obtain good marks and to receive the privileges that accompany good marks. Such examples show that the amount of motivation does not necessarily vary, but the nature and focus of the motivation certainly does. In this respect, Ryan and Deci distinguished between two types of motivation based on the different reasons or goals that energize an action. These

are intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, and extrinsic motivation, which refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome. Research on this field has shown that the quality of experience and performance can be very different when one is behaving for intrinsic versus extrinsic reasons.

Interest is considered as a main element in both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. It is the positive response to stimuli in such a way that learners' curiosity is aroused and sustained. Teachers consider that it is very important to sustain their pupils' motivation by engaging their interest in classroom activities. Most teachers would agree that a motivated learner is the one who is productively engaged on learning tasks and who maintains that engagement without receiving any continual encouragement or direction.

3.1.8. Anxiety as a Hindrance to Learning

Language anxiety is the fear that an individual feels when he/she has to use a second or foreign language in which he/she is not fully proficient. It is characterised by derogatory self-related cognition, for example, a feeling that one cannot do a certain task. Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) define anxiety as 'the apprehension experienced when a situation requires the use of a second language with which the individual is not fully proficient'. They consider language anxiety as a stable personality trait related to the individual's tendency to react nervously when speaking, listening, reading or writing in the second language.

Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986, p. 128) view language anxiety as '... a distinct complex of self-perception, beliefs, feeling, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process.'

MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) propose a theory which holds that language develops as the result of repeated negative experiences with the second language. Once it is established

as a language learning behaviour, it influences negatively the performance of language learners and can even affect their future learning. But as proficiency increases and more positive experiences accumulate, the negative effects of language anxiety would diminish.

Anxious students have been shown to be less likely to volunteer answers in class to be hesitant in expressing personally relevant information in the target language as reported by Gardner and MacIntyre (1993). They have explained the negative effect of anxiety on second or foreign language learning by the fact that anxiety deviates attention and cognitive resources that could otherwise be effectively used to improve performance in the second language. Moreover, it is claimed that the more anxious the learners are, the less proficient in speech skills they are (Gardner et al., 1976)

The consideration that language anxiety has a negative effect on second or foreign language learning can lead to the generalisation that it also negatively affects the students' motivation to learn languages. MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) contend that language anxiety and motivation are two variables which tend to be negatively correlated. They claim that:

...it seems meaningful to argue, given our current state of knowledge, that not only might high levels of motivation tend to depress language anxiety but also that high levels of anxiety might decrease motivation (p. 9).

Therefore, since the detrimental effects of anxiety on achievement are evident, efforts should be made to lower levels of anxiety in the class. This can be done if teachers attempt to create a more relaxed atmosphere and to have a less authoritative attitude towards their students.

3.2. Implications of Motivation Research on Second Language Learning

A clear understanding of the link between motivation and L2 learning needs a clear consideration of language development. Lack of attention to classroom learning and shortage of long-term studies have, indeed, been limitations that characterised L2 research and theory. The approach adopted has been non-cognitive based on the belief that the L2 learning is unconscious and consequently not easily reconciled with the concept of motivation, which is basically related to conscious phenomena such as effort, choice and voluntary behaviour. In Crookes and Schmidt's (1991) view this is the reason which may account for the fact that the early models of motivational research have simply suggested a link between attitudes/affect and language learning outcomes without tackling any of the psychological processes of learning that may come into play in this link.

3.2.1. Crookes and Schmidt's Motivational Implications (1991)

Contrary to the positions taken in the early motivation models, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) contend that learning an L2 is a long process that often occurs inside and outside the classroom over a period of many years. In this process, the learner is a very active agent. Because of that these researchers have undertaken to examine the relationship between motivation and L2 learning in terms of four levels: the micro level which deals with motivational effects on the cognitive processing of L2 stimuli, the classroom level which deals with techniques and activities in motivational terms, the syllabus level where content decisions come into play, and finally considerations relevant to informal, out-of-class, and long-term factors. This examination aims at demonstrating that motivation is already considered an important element in learning an L2, even though it was ignored by L2 researchers.

3.2.1.1. The Micro Level

In learning an L2, input is provided when a learner takes part in a language learning activity. Attention is an external factor that is involved in L2 learning. Schmidt (1990; cited in Crookes & Schmidt, 1991) contended that a necessary condition for language learning to take place is attention to input, and that what becomes intake is what learners are attentive to. There is a close relationship between attention and motivation because definitions of motivation refer to attention and persistence as the behavioural manifestations of motivation. Crookes and Schmidt also claimed that in addition to the likely importance of attention in L2 learning, the link between motivation and attention in L2 learning has been demonstrated by research on learning strategies. They have, for example, referred to O'Malley et al. (1985) who had included directed attention and selective attention as two important metacognitive strategies.

3.2.1.2. The Classroom Level

According to Crookes and Schmidt (1991), the classroom level consists of a number of components, namely preliminaries, activities, feedback, effects of students' self-perception, and materials.

- **Preliminaries:** Classroom practice needs the presence of interest at the opening stage of a lesson. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) claim that teachers are likely to generate interest in learners if they give them an insight about the forthcoming activities. Brophy and Kheir (1986) claim that when teachers make no statements to help learners see some aspects of classroom learning as interesting and enjoyable, students are likely to display very little motivation.

- **Activities:** Activities need to be relevant not only to instrumental needs (determined through needs analysis) but also personal-motive needs such as our needs for power, affiliation, and achievement. In relation to the need for affiliation, Csikszentmihalyi and Nakamura (1989) claimed that intrinsic motivation results from an individual's estimation that his level of ability and the level of the challenge are both equal and both high. This justifies the selection of activities. The need for affiliation may be another criterion for the selection of classroom activities. Effort exerted in a collaborative work (group work) responds to the need of affiliation and facilitates the attainment of the feeling of achievement because it removes competitiveness, which discards the need for one individual's achievement to be attained at the expense of another's. Interest is also revived by curiosity which can be developed by using less orthodox teaching techniques and materials. Change is also very important in keeping levels of attention high.

- **Feedback:** A controversial issue in the area of motivation is the obvious weakness of intrinsic rewards. Mahr and Archer (1987) claimed that giving too much importance to external evaluation may momentarily enhance motivation, but in the long run, it may negatively affect continuing motivation by hindering the establishment of more intrinsic, task-related goals.

Another issue related to feedback and motivation concerns the impact of performance goals on behaviour. Research carried out by Dweck (1986; cited in Crookes and Schmidt, 1991) indicated that if the goal of learners is to receive positive judgements about their behaviour such as obtaining good grades, they will not show their ability until they are sure that it is high, otherwise they will display no behaviour that could subject them to evaluation. On the other hand, if the goal of learners is to learn, then they will not hesitate to take part in activities even if they are likely to make errors. Consequently, in L2 classrooms, teachers

should develop less concern with grades in order not to discourage participation and risk-taking.

Teacher feedback could be more effective if it is given not only at the end of an activity, but also at the beginning of a similar subsequent activity. It should also be informational, that is, it should draw the learners' attention to how their actions have led to success.

- **Effects of Student Self-Perception:** considerable motivational effects reside in student expectations of self and self-evaluation of probabilities of success. Some students develop the impression that they take control of events and that their effort will lead to success. Others have the impression that they cannot achieve success through their actions due to repeated failures. (These patterns are referred to as 'locus of control', 'self-efficacy' and 'learned helplessness' Bandura 1982, deCharms 1984, Weiner 1984; cited in Crookes and Schmidt, 1991). Learners who have experienced failure in learning an L2 are likely to explain this by their own weaknesses, not by problems with the course, and will therefore have a low estimate about their future success in learning an L2. This will lead to low risk-taking and low acceptance of ambiguity.

Teachers are advised to prevent this by using cooperative rather than competitive goal structures, so that there is a positive interdependence among students whereby all members have information to share and to achieve collaborative success. The reward or the grade for the work is also assigned on the basis of the overall group performance. In such a situation, it is possible for the unsuccessful L2 learner to modify his self-perception and develop the impression that success is in fact possible.

- **Materials:** Materials which are interesting are more likely to foster learning. In L2 learning, both the format and content of materials should be interesting to learners. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) noted that contrary to boring audio-lingual materials, those influenced by communicative approaches use different typographical layouts, colour illustrations, photographs and often page formats that resemble those used in newspapers. In addition to format, interest of content is also a major concern for materials writers. Both the age and the culture of the learners are considered in writing materials.

3.2.1.3. The Syllabus/Curriculum Level

Based on the assumption that programmes that meet students' needs (whether expressed by themselves or by their teachers) are very likely to be more motivating, more efficient and thus more successful. ESL course design has given considerable importance to needs analysis. The proponents of needs analysis take for granted the importance of motivational research for this area (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991). The results obtained from research on locus of control and the need to change insufficient self-perceptions suggest that some amount of flexibility should be permitted in the curriculum so as to allow students to aspire to a certain grade according to a particular level of performance. This could mean allowing students to approximate gradually a certain level of work by means of constant revision of initially ungraded assignments. L2 syllabus content can also include instructions in self-management strategies that contribute to motivational self-control and facilitate change in locus of control and other metacognitive strategies (McCombs, 1984; cited in Crookes and Schmidt, 1991).

3.2.1.4. Outside the Classroom (Long Term Learning)

Learning an L2 can possibly continue out of the classroom walls. In fact, even in situations where there is little or no contact with the native speakers of the language, learners do have each other. The role that motivation can play in informal setting has been investigated by many researchers, including Krashen (1982; cited in Crookes and Schmidt, 1991) and Gardner (1985). Krashen argued that subconscious acquisition of language requires motivation. Gardner, on the other hand, explained that the importance of motivation for learning in informal contexts resides in the importance of the possibility of opting to seize or not to seize opportunities to learn, which is not always possible in formal learning.

3.2.2. Dornyei's Motivational Implications (2005)

Similarly to the view held by Crookes and Schmidt (1991), Dornyei (2005) claimed that there is no integration of motivation research into the traditional domain of applied linguistics due to the difference in the scholarly backgrounds of the researchers working in the two fields. Research on motivation has been undertaken by social psychologists interested in second languages, while the study of SLA is the domain of linguists. In Dornyei's (2005) view, however, the heart of the problem resides in the fact that SLA research is based on the study of the development of language knowledge and skills, and so it examines different language processes from a process-oriented point of view. By contrast, traditional motivation research, especially the social-psychological approach has been product-oriented. The two perspectives are obviously incompatible.

To illustrate this, motivation researchers have strived to identify the motivational characteristics of the students who decide to study an L2, and to explain how L2 learning achievement is influenced by different types of motivation. In other words, this means

relating motivational conditions to learning outcomes. In contrast, SLA researchers have sought to explain how the acquisition of an L2 takes place. This means that they have been concerned with the process of language development in learners rather than what caused this process to take place. Thus, the two different researches did not communicate together in any fashion.

However, this state of affairs gradually changed and possibilities for the integration of motivational research and SLA research remarkably improved for at least two reasons. The first one is that the field of applied linguistics has grown more open to integrating psychological factors and processes into research paradigms. The second reason is that the introduction of the process-oriented approach to motivation research has integrated a research paradigm that shares similarities with the general approach of SLA. This permitted researchers belonging to the two schools to consider their targets from the same angle. However, according to Dornyei (2005), this change of perspective did not automatically guarantee integration. He goes on to explain that an indispensable condition that needs to be met to establish a real integration is for L2 motivation research to establish as a criterion of measure specific learning behaviours instead of general learning outcomes. In this respect, he says:

To exemplify this, instead of looking, for instance, at how the learners' various motivational attributes correlate with language proficiency measures in an L2 course (which would be a typical traditional design), researchers need to look at how various motivational features affect learners' specific learning behaviors during the course, such as their increased willingness to communicate in the L2, their engagement in learning tasks, or their use of certain learning/communication techniques and strategies. (p. 110)

The direct consequence of this integration is that second language motivation research has shifted the attention to those aspects of motivation that have a direct implication

for classroom practice. In fact, recent advances in motivational research have offered great contributions to the teaching of L2s by generating material that can make it more effective. Three areas have particularly benefited from these advances: the systematic development of motivational strategies that can be used by the teacher for the sake of generating and maintaining motivation in the learners, the formulation of self-motivating strategies that enable the learners to control personally the affective conditions and experiences that shape their subjective involvement in learning, and the study of teacher motivation. (Dornyei, 2005)

In this respect, Dornyei has devised a motivational approach based on the different phases of the process-oriented model described in a previous section (pp. 111-113). This is, in fact a comprehensive approach which was designed specifically for educational applications.

The first step of this approach consists of **creating the basic motivational conditions**. Such conditions include appropriate teacher behaviours, a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom and a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms.

The second step consists of **generating initial motivation**. This can be done by Enhancing the learners' L2-related values and attitudes, increasing the learners' expectancy of success, Increasing the learners' goal orientedness, making the teaching materials relevant for the learners and creating realistic learner beliefs.

The third step of this approach consists of **maintaining and protecting motivation**. This could be achieved by making learning stimulating and enjoyable, presenting tasks in a motivating way, setting specific learner goals, protecting the learners' self-esteem and

increasing their self-confidence, allowing learners to maintain a positive social image, creating learner autonomy and promoting self-motivating strategies.

The fourth step is about **Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation**. This can be realised by Promoting motivational attributions, providing motivational feedback, increasing learner satisfaction, and offering rewards and grades in a motivating manner.

Conclusion

Motivation to learn a language and positive attitudes towards the speakers of that language, the course and the teacher are important conditions for learning another language and performing all the activities related to it. When they are absent, learning will unlikely take place. Similarly, absence of motivation to perform an activity in a target language such as reading and negative attitudes towards it will certainly prevent the learners to read in this language. So, it is extremely important to understand the reason (s) for such lack of motivation and to seek solutions to this issue.

CHAPTER FOUR

IDENTIFICATION OF THE STUDENTS' MOTIVATION

TO READ IN ENGLISH

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Introduction

The population of the study is ninety two (92) first year students of the Teacher Training School of Constantine. These students are selected because this is the first time they are exposed to a reading course in English, and therefore they are unlikely to possess effective reading strategies. The sample is composed of eighty (80) students taught by other teachers than the researcher in order to guarantee that the students would answer all the questions objectively especially the questions related to the 'Reading Techniques' teacher.

The questionnaire is administered at the beginning of the second term in order to give sufficient time to the students to get acquainted with the reading techniques course, the teacher and reading in English. It aims at analysing the students' motivation to read in English. It is a pre-selection questionnaire, as not all the respondents will receive instruction in strategy use; only those who prove to be unmotivated to read will constitute a focus group. So, the subjects of this study are not randomly designed since our target is only students who are not motivated to read. The items of the questionnaire are adapted from Robert Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test battery (1985) which is a research tool widely used by researchers investigating learners' motivation and attitudes in L2 learning. The objectives of this questionnaire are to verify the first hypothesis, namely that if students employ ineffective reading strategies which do not help them in text comprehension; they will resent reading in English and will have no motivation to do so. We will identify the strategies which cause difficulties. On the basis of these results, more effective reading strategies will be selected to constitute the core of the remedial instruction. The researcher was present when the first questionnaire was administered and answered all the questions the students needed to ask.

4.1. Description of the Students' First Questionnaire

The questionnaire begins with a preliminary section entitled **General Information** that aims at identifying the students by requiring them to give their name, age, gender and group. The questionnaire consists of 8 sections containing 29 questions, 22 of them are 'Yes' or 'No' questions, 5 open questions and 2 Multiple Choice Questions.

The first section is entitled '**Interest in English as a Foreign Language**'; it asks students whether they like to learn English (Q1) and whether they think it is important for them to learn English (Q2).

The second section is '**Type of Orientation towards Reading in English**' and requires the students to choose from different options indicating instrumental orientation (Q 3) and to choose from different other options indicating integrative orientation (Q4).

The third section is entitled '**Attitudes towards Reading in English**' and asks the students to say if yes or no they hate reading in English (Q5), and if their answer is 'Yes', to justify it (Q6). Question 7 of the same section requires them to say if yes or no it is not important for them to learn to read in English, and Q8 to say if they think that reading in English is boring.

The fourth section which consists of seven questions is entitled '**Desire to Read in English**'. The first of these questions asks the students to say if they have a strong desire to read in English (Q9), the second one if they really enjoy reading in English (Q10), the third one if they tend to give up when they do not understand what they are reading (Q11) and if they say 'Yes', to justify their answer (Q12). The fifth question of this section asks them if they really work hard to learn to read in English (Q13) and to explain how they do that if

their answer is 'Yes' (Q14). Question 15 asks them if they would give up reading in English when they leave the training school because they are not interested in it.

The fifth section is entitled '**Attitude towards the Reading Course**' and consists of five questions. The first one requires the students to say if Reading Techniques is one of their favourite courses (Q16), the second if they think that their Reading Techniques class is boring (Q17), the third one if they would rather spend their time on subjects other than Reading Techniques (Q18), the fourth one if their reading class is really a waste of time (Q19) and the fifth one if honestly they do not like their reading class (Q20).

The sixth section is about '**Attitudes towards the Reading Teacher**', and consists of three questions. The first one requires the students to say if they look forward to going to class because their Reading Techniques teacher is so good (Q21), the second if their reading teacher has a dynamic and interesting teaching style (Q22) and the third if they really like their reading teacher (Q23).

The seventh section is about '**Reading Class Anxiety**' and consists of four questions; the first one requires the students to say if they get anxious when they have to answer questions in their Reading Techniques class (Q24), the second one requires them to justify their answer if it is 'Yes' (Q25). The third question asks them if they feel very much at ease when they have to read in English (Q26) and the fourth one to explain their answer if they say 'No' (Q 27).

The eighth section is the last one and is entitled '**Parental Encouragement**'. It consists of two questions, the first one asks the students if their parents think they should devote more time for reading in English (Q28), and the second one whether their parents encourage them to read in English as much as possible (Q29).

4.2. Analysis of the Results of the First Students' Questionnaire

General Information

The questionnaire requires the students to give their name, gender, age and group. It is not anonymous as students need to be identified for the future instruction on reading strategies. Only five students are males. This is quite normal, as the overwhelming majority of the students of the Teacher Training School of Constantine are females. Teaching, as well as foreign language learning, seem to be favourite majors among females. The age range of the respondents is between 18 years (one student), 19 years (74 students) and 20 years (five students).

Section One: Interest in English as a Foreign Language

1. I like to learn English.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	77	96.25
No	03	03.75
Total	80	100

Table 4.1. The Students' Attitude towards English

An overwhelming majority of the respondents claim that they like to learn English. This is understandable enough as almost all students who have chosen to enrol in the English Department of the Teacher Training School are genuinely interested in learning English and in becoming English teachers. This is confirmed by their responses during the entrance interviews they have to take before they enter the school (the writer of this dissertation has

been a member of selection commissions for many consecutive years) and by the high scores they obtained in English in the baccalaureate examinations. Very few students are exceptions to this fact, as they choose to study English for no other reason than the prospect of the future job or in compliance with their parents' or other influential people's desires. This may account for the fact that three students out of the total population of the study have declared that they do not like to learn English. This may negatively influence their attitudes towards the different courses in general and towards reading in English in particular. In this respect, Gardner et al. (1979) argued that there exists a linear relationship between attitudes, motivation and L2 learning in that attitudes affect motivation, which in turn affects L2 learning. Most of the studies carried out by Gardner and his colleagues show that positive attitudes towards the target language group lead to an integrative motivation to learn their language, which in turn leads to successful L2 learning. Obviously, the opposite case is also true.

2. It is important for me to learn English.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	77	96.25
No	03	03.75
Total	80	100

Table 4.2. Importance of Learning English to Students

The answers to this question have confirmed those obtained in the previous one. In fact, all the students have reproduced exactly the same answers to both questions. It is quite normal that students who have willingly chosen to major in English are aware of the importance of learning it for them. The three students who have provided a negative answer are an exception, and they would probably be the least motivated ones to learn that language and to read materials in it.

Section Two: Type of Orientation towards Reading in English

3. Instrumental Orientation: Reading in English is important for me because: (You may tick more than one box)

- a. I will need it for my future teaching career.
- b. It will allow me to acquire more knowledge about the world.
- c. It will make me more educated.
- d. None of them.

Options	N	%
a	1	01.25
b	5	06.25
c	1	01.25
d	7	08.75
ab	21	26.25
ac	09	11.25
bc	06	07.50
abc	30	37.50
Total	80	100

Table 4.3. Instrumental Reasons for Learning English

Options a, b, and c all express instrumental orientations towards reading in English. As the respondents to this questionnaire are future teachers of English, they seem to be aware of the importance of reading different types of materials in English for their future teaching career. Because of this, option (a) is present in the answers of 61 students either alone (1 student) or in combination with other options (with (b) and (c), 30 students, with (b), 21 students and with (c), 9 students). Indeed, it is through reading in general and reading in English in particular that English teachers can learn more about their subject and be abreast of new developments in related areas. This does not deny the importance of in-service training which is nonetheless always accompanied and supported with reading materials.

Teachers need also to be knowledgeable about the world both for personal enlightenment and for consolidation of professional knowledge, and one of the many ways through which this can be achieved is reading. The respondents to this questionnaire seem to be aware of this as an important number of them have opted for option (b) either alone (5 students) or in combination with other options as shown above in the discussion of option (a).

Acquiring knowledge about one's own profession and about the world in general through reading also helps one be more educated. Furthermore, the students who answered the questionnaire have revealed through their answers that they are conscious of this. The options are interrelated and overlapping, and this explains why most of the students have chosen more than one option.

However, seven students out of the total population have declared that reading in English has no importance for them, for they have chosen option (c), 'None of them'. An examination of the questionnaires filled by these students has revealed that they are among the least motivated ones for reading in English.

4. Integrative Orientation: Reading in English is important for me because: (You may tick more than one box)

- a. It will enable me to better understand and appreciate the English way of life.
- b. I will be able to know more about speakers of English.
- c. None of them.

Answers	N	%
A	15	18.75
B	21	26.25
C	11	13.75
Ab	33	41.25
Total	80	100

Table 4.4. Integrative reasons for learning English

Options a and b express integrative orientations for reading in English. Out of the total population of the study, 33 students think that reading in English is important for them because it will enable them to better understand and appreciate the English way of life as well as know more about speakers of English. They display an integrative desire to establish a sort of intellectual communication with the speakers of the target language, though this communication may be a virtual one taking place only through reading about English speaking communities.

The 15 students who have chosen option (a) alone seem to be more interested in understanding the English way of life than in the English speaking people themselves. But an extensive exposure to the former may eventually lead to interest in the latter. On the other hand, the 21 students who have selected option (b) alone are much more interested in the English speaking people than in reading about the English way of life. It seems obvious that while one reads about a certain group of people, one will automatically learn about, understand and probably even appreciate their way of life.

However, 11 students out of the total population have declared that reading in English is important for them for none of the reasons offered to them as they have chosen option (c): 'None of them'. Examination of the answers provided by these students has revealed that they belong to the category of those who are not motivated to read in English and three of them have selected option (d): 'None of them' in the previous answer. Lacking any kind of orientation, either instrumental or integrative, towards learning or reading in a foreign language may impede this process.

The results obtained for both questions 3 and 4 have indicated that the majority of the respondents display both types of orientations. As mentioned in the review of the literature, different learners in different contexts show a preference towards one or the other, but this does not mean that the two types of motivation are mutually exclusive. Many learners give reasons for learning another language which overlap the two categories even if one category seems to be more important than the other. Therefore, it is quite normal that the students under study seem to be both integratively and instrumentally motivated to read in English.

Section Three: Attitudes Towards Reading in English

5. I hate reading in English.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	28	35
No	52	65
Total	80	100

Table 4.5. Attitude towards Reading in English

The majority of the questionnaire respondents (52 students) have declared that they do not hate reading in English. In fact, attitudes towards the target language, the learning situation and the activities related to it, including reading, are part of the motivational construct. This result goes in accordance with the results of the two previous questions where a total of 73 students show varying instrumental reasons for reading in English (Q3) and the same 52 students display at least one of two integrative reasons for doing so (Q4). This confirms the importance of such motivational orientations, especially the integrative one, in enhancing learners' desire to learn a language and carry out language activities including reading and in fostering positive attitudes towards the target language, the course and the language activities.

However, 28 students out of the total population have declared that they hate reading in English. Among these students, there are those who have declared that they have no integrative or instrumental orientation towards reading in English. It is clear that there is an

increase in the number of students with a negative attitude towards reading in English in comparison to the number of those who have neither an instrumental (7 students) nor an integrative orientation (11 students) towards this activity. A possible explanation of this mismatch is that these students distinguish between an objective awareness of the importance of reading in English as an international language both for professional and personal reasons and a more personal act which is reading in that language.

6. If 'Yes', please justify your answer.

These students are required to explain why they hate English; however, only 14 of them have done so. Their answers are the following:

- a- I hate using the dictionary each time to see the meaning of difficult words. (4 students gave similar answers)
- b- Because sometimes it is difficult and I can't understand it. (2 students gave similar answers)
- c- Because sometimes I find many words that I can't understand, so I give up. (2 students gave similar answers)
- d- When I read and I don't understand a word I can't carry on. This really disturbs me. . (1 student)
- e- I find difficulties because they use difficult words. . (1 student)
- f- Because I feel afraid when the teacher asks me to read especially that I haven't enough self-confidence when I face unfamiliar words and I have always the idea that I will not read in a good way. . (1 student)
- g- It is boring because I spend a lot of time to understand every word. (3 students gave similar answers)

Examination of these answers reveals that such students hate to read in English mainly because of their inability to use adequate reading strategies. In fact, they show characteristics of poor readers. This is confirmed by Lau (2006) who contended that poor readers give up easily when they face problems or they use inefficient strategies. In addition, Hosenfeld (1977) claimed that poor foreign language readers lose the meaning of sentences as soon as they are decoded, read in short phrases, seldom skipped words as unimportant, viewed words as equal in their contribution to total phrase meaning and had a negative self-concept as readers. This is exactly what the unmotivated students in this study do. They give up easily because they find words difficult (answers a through e), lack self-confidence as readers (answer f) and get easily bored (answer g) probably as a result of inability to deal with the text appropriately.

7. It is not important for me to learn to read in English.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	05	06.25
No	75	93.75
Total	80	100

Table 4.6. Importance of Learning to Read in English for Students

As shown in the above table, almost all respondents to the questionnaire, except for five students, are aware of the importance of learning to read in English for them. This is understandable enough knowing that these students are future teachers who seem to be aware

of the importance of reading in English for the teaching profession and therefore of the importance of learning to do so. The results of this question have confirmed those obtained for question 3 where all students, except 7 have expressed a certain instrumental reason for learning English and those of question 4 where all students except 11 students have expressed some integrative reason for doing so. Examination of the questionnaires of the five students who have stated that it is not important for them to learn to read in English has shown that they are among those who did not show any instrumental or integrative reasons for reading in English. Because of that, they do not believe it is important to learn to do so. This examination has also shown that these students are among those who have claimed that they hate reading in English in question 5. At this point, it is worth to note that although 28 students have claimed that they hate reading in English (Q5), only five students have said that it is not important for them to learn to read in English. So, despite the fact that the 23 students who fall in this contradictory situation are quite aware of the importance of reading in English for them, they show negative attitudes towards this activity.

8. I think that reading in English is boring.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	25	31.25
No	55	68.75
Total	80	100

Table 4.7. Students' Boredom with Reading

Almost the same number of students who have declared that they hate to read in English in Q5 have stated that reading in English is boring. This may stand as the explanation for this negative attitude. This boredom could be the result of ineffective teaching techniques, unappealing reading materials and activities that do not respond to the learners' interests and needs. More specifically, it could be the result of the students' lack of appropriate reading strategies that would enable them to process reading materials in such a way as to make sense of them and appreciate them better. This is confirmed by the students' justification of their hatred to read in English (Q6) where they explained this by reasons that revealed employment of ineffective reading strategies. This has generated lack of motivation to read in English.

Section Four: Desire to Read in English

9. I have a strong desire to read in English.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	53	66.25
No	27	33.75
Total	80	100

Table 4.8. Students' Desire to Read in English

Twenty seven students out of 80 have declared that they do not have a strong desire to read in English. The results obtained for this question confirm those obtained for questions 5 and 8 as approximately the numbers of students who have provided negative answers are reproduced in all three questions. The students who hate to read in English and feel it is a

boring activity, show no desire to do so. Indeed, desire to learn a language and to perform activities related to it, in this case reading in English, is among the constructs which constitute motivational intensity along with attitudes towards learning that language. At this point, it is worthwhile to refer back to Ryan and Deci's (2000) distinction between intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, and extrinsic motivation, which refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome. The twenty seven students who have declared that they do not have a strong desire to read in English do not consider reading in English interesting for its own sake. Whether learners behave for extrinsic or intrinsic reasons can significantly affect their performance.

10. I really enjoy reading in English.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	52	65
No	28	35
Total	80	100

Table 4.9. Students' Enjoyment of Reading in English

The answers to this question strongly confirm those to the previous one, as almost the same number of students, and in fact the same students except for two have reiterated the answers they expressed in Q9. When one does not have a strong desire to perform an activity, one will certainly not enjoy doing it when one has to do so. At this point, it is worthwhile to refer back to Gardner's definition of motivation to learn an L2 (Gardner, 1985) in which he

claims that motivation determines how much an individual will exert an effort for the sake of learning a language because s/he is driven by a desire to do so and a satisfaction experienced in this activity. Therefore, desire to accomplish a task and the enjoyment felt while doing this are constituents of motivation according to this definition.

This question also shows that these 28 students have no intrinsic motivation to read in English since they do not consider this activity an interesting or an enjoyable one. This could be intensified by their lack of appropriate reading strategies that would help them deal with reading materials since most students who have stated that they hate reading in English (Q5), have justified this by difficulties encountered at the word level (Q6); i.e. their inability to understand difficult words causes them to lose sight of the whole meaning and eventually to give up reading.

11. I tend to give up and not pay attention when I don't understand what I am reading.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	21	26.25
No	59	73.75
Total	80	100

Table 4.10. Students' Persistence and Attention when Reading

Among the total population, 21 students have claimed that they tend to give up and not pay attention when they do not understand what they are reading. These students are among the non-motivated population of the study. Brown (1994) who maintains that motivation is regarded as an inner drive, impulse, emotion or desire that incites one to perform a particular action, has included an important aspect of motivation in his definition of this construct which is the effort exerted in the direction of the experiences or goals a person decides to approach or avoid. In relation to the factor of attention, Schmidt (1990; cited in Crookes and Schmidt, 1991) contended that a necessary condition for language learning to take place is attention to input, and that what becomes intake is what learners are attentive to. There is a close relationship between attention and motivation because definitions of motivation refer to attention and persistence as the behavioural manifestations of motivation. Therefore, it is obvious that absence of effort, attention and persistence are signs of absence of motivation.

12. If 'Yes', please justify your answer.

The students who admitted that they lacked persistence and attention while reading in English were required to justify their answers; however, only 12 of them have done so and their answers are reproduced in what follows:

- a. I would like to understand all what I am reading or it will be a waste of time. (1 student)
- b. I get tired of using the dictionary and looking for words. (1 student)
- c. I find difficulty to understand the meaning of many difficult words. (1 student)
- d. When I don't understand what the book is talking about, I feel like I am bored so I just give up and choose another one. (1 student)

- e. Because I feel bored when I have to use the dictionary when I find a difficult word. (1 student)
- f. Because when I can't read in a good way or don't understand the meaning of the content I feel bored and I give up. (1 student)
- g. I get bored. (1 student)
- h. I get bored and I feel that I am not good. (1 student)
- i. Because I feel that I have no level that enables me to carry on. (1 student)
- j. When I read historical or scientific texts. (1 student)
- k. Because I don't have time to read, I have other things to do. (1 student)
- l. Because I want to learn new vocabulary. (1 student)

Examination of these answers shows that they are similar to the justifications given by students who had declared that they hate reading in English (Q5). Reasons that account for students' lack of attention and persistence to read are related to the use of inappropriate strategies. The respondents tend to believe that all words are equally important for comprehension, do not skip unnecessary words and tend to rely heavily on the dictionary. They consequently feel bored and eventually give up. They also lack self confidence. In short, they display characteristics of unsuccessful readers (Hosenfeld, 1977).

13. I really work hard to learn to read in English.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	54	67.50
No	26	32.50
Total	80	100

Table 4.11. Effort to Learn to Read in English

The results obtained for this question confirm those obtained for questions 9, 10, and 11. Approximately the same students who provided negative answers to Q11 have also declared that they do not really work hard to learn to read in English. They are the non-motivated ones as effort spent in carrying out an activity is a significant aspect of motivated behaviour, as already explained above. It seems obvious that these students do not make use of effective reading strategies, if they ever do, to learn to read in English. Those who have claimed that they really work hard to learn to read in English are asked to explain how they do that. The purpose of this is to have an idea of the type of reading strategies are used by the motivated students.

14. If 'Yes', explain how you do that.

Among the 54 students who have stated that they really work hard to learn to read in English, 37 have explained how they do that. Their answers are summarised as follows:

- a. By keeping reading even if I don't understand what I am reading. (18 students)
- b. By regularly devoting time for reading books in English. (11 students)
- c. Rereading passages and texts to understand better. (03 students)
- d. I do that by reading many books and knowing strategies of reading. (01 students)
- e. Reading books and translating difficult words using the dictionary, then memorising them. (03 students)
- f. I want to, but I do not know instructions, steps to do that. (01 students)

Almost half of the students who have answered this question (18 out of 37) have explained that the efforts they make in order to learn to read in English consist of keeping reading even without understanding what they are reading. This is an effective strategy which demonstrates an ability to deal with uncertainty, skip unnecessary words and use global interactive reading strategies that focus on text comprehension rather than word-to-word analysis (Barnett, 1989). On the other hand, 11 students have stated that they regularly devote time for reading books in English. Although this is very useful, these students have made no specification of how they deal with the texts they read in terms of reading strategies. However, it seems sound to claim that since they regularly read books in English, they do not suffer from the type of problems of miscomprehension that cause the non-motivated students in this study to give up reading, namely constant resort to the dictionary to look up unknown words.

Three other students have explained that in order to learn to read in English, they reread passages and texts to understand better. Such students make use of an effective reading strategy that focuses on general text comprehension rather than comprehension of individual words or sentences. Saricoban (2002) who used a questionnaire to determine strategy use by

successful learners found that among the strategies such learners used was rereading whole passages and texts.

One student among the respondents to this questionnaire has explained that in order to learn to read in English s/he reads many books and learns reading strategies but s/he has not mentioned which ones s/he uses. Three students have, however, stated that in order to do so they read books and translate difficult words using the dictionary, then memorise them. These are in fact strategies used by unsuccessful readers who tend to use bottom-up strategies by focusing on meaning of individual words, instead of the general meaning, using the dictionary to explain words instead of guessing intelligently (Barnett,1989). One other student declared that s/he wants to learn to read in English but s/he does not know instructions or steps to that. S/he has explicitly stated a need to learn effective reading strategies.

Analysis of these answers has shown that different from the non-motivated students of this study, the motivated ones of the same study, except for those under categories e and f, use top-down rather than bottom up strategies, i.e. strategies that deal with general text compression rather than word to word comprehension. This probably accounts for the fact that they actually read books in English on a regular basis and do not give up in midway out of boredom.

15. When I leave the Teacher Training School, I give up reading in English because I am not interested in it.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	05	06.25
No	75	93.75
Total	80	100

Table 4.12. Giving Reading up after Leaving the Teacher Training School

Only 5 students out of the total population of the study have declared that they will give up reading in English when they leave the Teacher Training School because they are not interested in it. This is surprising enough considering the results obtained for questions 5, 8,9, 10, 11 and 13 where a larger number of students have shown negative attitudes toward reading . But, if we want to consider their answers to earlier questions of the questionnaire, it is possible to explain this contradiction. In question 3 for example, all students except 7 have declared that they have at least one instrumental reason for learning to read in English and in question 4, all students except 11 have indicated that they have one or more integrative reasons for doing so. In addition, in question 7, all students except 5 have declared that it is important for them to learn to read in English. Therefore, it could be explained that in spite of their negative attitude towards reading in English, these students, who – it should be reminded - are English teacher-trainees, are aware of its importance for their future careers.

Their interest then is not in the act of reading itself, but in its relevance for them as future teachers.

Section Five: Attitude towards the Reading Course

16. Reading Techniques is one of my favourite courses.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	47	58.75
No	33	41.25
Total	80	100

Table 4.13. Preference for ‘Reading Techniques’ Class

The aim of the questions in this section of the questionnaire is to find out what attitudes the students hold towards the ‘Reading Techniques’ course in order to confirm further or infirm the results obtained in the previous questions about motivation. The students’ answers to the present question show that 33 students out of the total population do not think that ‘Reading Techniques’ is one of their favourite courses. This is a very close number to that of the unmotivated students previously identified in questions 5, 9, 10 and 13 (28 students) Motivation to learn a language and its different skills (in the case of the present study, the reading skill) is directly affected by the students’ attitudes towards the language learning situation. According to Gardner (1985), attitudes towards the language learning situation which involve attitudes towards the school environment, reactions to the textbooks,

evaluation of the language teacher and the language course clearly influence a student's motivation.

However, this question is not really determinant of students' attitudes towards the reading course because it only places this course in relation to others in the curriculum. At this point, it is only possible to claim that the students who are not motivated to read in English also do not consider the 'Reading Techniques' course as their favourite one.

17. I think my 'Reading Techniques' class is boring.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	25	31.25
No	55	68.75
Total	80	100

Table 4.14. Boredom with 'Reading Techniques' Class

Out of the total population, 25 students think that their 'Reading Techniques' class is boring. This is an indicator of their lack of motivation because, as mentioned earlier in question 10, Gardner (1985) claims that enjoyment felt while doing a task is part of motivated behaviour. The results of this question correlate very significantly with those of questions 5 and 10. Students who hate reading in English and do not enjoy reading in English (28 students) have also claimed that they think the 'Reading Techniques' class is boring. It seems that their attitude towards the act of reading in this language has affected their attitude towards the reading course. This attitude towards the reading course can also be the result of teaching techniques or inadequate choice of reading materials and activities. It might also be

due to lack of teaching of effective reading strategies that help the students deal better with different materials.

18. I would rather spend my time on subjects other than ‘Reading Techniques’.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	31	38.75
No	49	61.25
Total	80	100

Table 4.15. Preference of ‘Reading Techniques’ over Other Courses

Out of the total population of the study, 31 students have declared that they would rather spend their time on subjects other than ‘Reading Techniques’. This is a very close number to that of the non-motivated students previously identified and of those who have declared that their ‘Reading Techniques’ class is boring in the previous question. The results of this question and the previous one, therefore, confirm each other. It is clear that when students feel bored in a certain class, they would prefer to study something else. Lack of enjoyment is a sign of lack of motivation. The reasons that are given to account for students’ boredom above may also very well apply in this context.

19. My ‘Reading Techniques’ class is really a waste of time.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	07	08.75
No	73	91.25
Total	80	100

Table 4.16. Considering the Reading Class as a Waste of Time

The results of this question show that a very small number of the students, only 5, believe that their ‘Reading Techniques’ class is a waste of time. With regard to the results obtained for the previous question where a larger number of students have claimed that the ‘Reading Techniques’ course is not their favourite one, it seems clear that the students distinguish between their attitudes towards the course and their perception of its importance. The students who constitute the population of the study have already revealed awareness of the importance of reading either for their professional career or personal enlightenment (questions 3 and 4). Therefore, though they do not specifically think of this course as their favourite one, they still value what they learn in it.

20. To be honest, I don't like my reading class.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	25	31.25
No	55	68.75
Total	80	100

Table 4.17. Attitude towards the Reading Class

Among all the previous questions of this section, this question is the one which most directly and overtly gives the students the possibility to express their attitudes towards the 'Reading Techniques' course. So, 21 of them clearly state that they do not like their 'Reading Techniques' class. As stated earlier, students' attitudes towards the instructional course clearly influence their motivation to learn it. Therefore, it can be claimed that this negative attitude toward the reading course could be held responsible for the students' lack of motivation to read in English. The opposite could also be true. But whatever the causality relationship, the analysis of the results of these questions has made it possible to claim that the students who have been identified as being non-motivated to read in English and to hold negative attitudes towards reading in English have also proved to hold negative attitudes towards the reading techniques course.

Section Six: Attitude towards the Reading Teacher

Through their behaviours, attitudes towards the students and the course, encouragement and feedback, teachers exert a major influence on the students' motivation (Dornyei, 2005). In addition, Gardner (1985) claimed that attitudes towards the language situation which are part of the integrative motive include attitudes towards the language situation which involve attitudes towards the school environment, reactions to the textbooks, evaluation of the language teacher and the language course. It is clear that the nature of the learning situation will influence a student's motivation. An interesting and skilled teacher with a good command of the language, an exciting curriculum, carefully constructed lesson plans, and meaningful evaluation procedures will promote higher levels of motivation than a teacher lacking in some of these attributes. The aim of the questions in this section is to determine the reading teachers' influence on the students' motivation to read English.

21. I look forward to going to class because my 'Reading Techniques' teacher is so good.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	64	80
No	16	20
Total	80	100

Table 4.18. Considering the 'Reading Techniques' Teacher a Good One

The results of the present question show that the majority of the students look forward to going to class because their ‘Reading Techniques’ teacher is so good and only 16 students claimed that they do not. The latter belong to the category of the non-motivated students already identified in the previous questions. They have already expressed negative attitudes towards the reading course in the previous question.

The fact that the majority of the respondents believe that their reading teachers are good and that only part of the non-motivated ones stated the opposite may suggest that the teachers are not to be blamed for their students’ negative attitudes towards the reading course or reading in English. In addition to that, none of the respondents to Q 6 has mentioned the teacher as a reason to explain why they hate to read in English. At this point, it has to be reminded that the researcher does not teach the students who constitute the population of the study and has clearly explained to them when the questionnaire was administered that she did not know who their teachers of ‘Reading Techniques’ were and that it was not important for her to know that in order to offer them secure conditions in which to answer the questions. It could be claimed therefore, that the students’ answers to these questions were objective and genuine.

22. My reading teacher has a dynamic and interesting teaching style.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	63	78.75
No	17	21.25
Total	80	100

Table 4.19. The Students’ Opinion about the Teacher’s Teaching Style

The results obtained for this question confirm those of the previous question. In fact, a great majority of students, including even 11 non-motivated ones, have declared that their ‘Reading Techniques’ teacher has a dynamic and interesting teaching style. Once again, it can be claimed that teachers are not responsible for some students’ lack of motivation to read in English. The problem may lie in the students’ inability to interact successfully with texts due to the use of ineffective reading strategies.

23. I really like my ‘Reading Techniques’ teacher.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	69	86.25
No	11	13.75
Total	80	100

Table 4.20. Attitude towards the ‘Reading Techniques’ Teacher

In the same vein as in the previous questions of this section, the overwhelming majority of the respondents (69 students) including an important number of non-motivated students have declared that they really like their Reading Techniques teachers. It is worth noting that only 11 students have stated the opposite when the initial number of the non-motivated students identified in this study is 28. So, many students hate to read in English, hold negative attitudes towards the reading course, but still positively value their ‘Reading Teachers’. This confirms what has already been suggested in the previous questions (21 and 22). It seems that students’ lack of desire to read in English is mainly due to their inability to

use effective reading strategies that help them comprehend what they read, rather than to course or teacher specific reasons.

Section Seven: Reading Class Anxiety

24. I get anxious when I have to answer questions in my ‘Reading Techniques’ class.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	34	42.50
No	46	57.50
Total	80	100

Table 4.21. Anxiety to Answer Questions in the Reading Techniques Class

In answering this question, 34 students have admitted that they get anxious when they have to answer questions in their ‘Reading Techniques’ class. Increased language anxiety which is the fear experienced by an individual who has to use another language which he/she does not fully master negatively affects motivation to learn a foreign language and to practice it. This number is only slightly higher than the number of the non-motivated students identified in the previous questions; this increase can be due to the combined stress of reading and speaking in front of the whole class.

25. If ‘Yes’, please explain why.

It can be claimed, therefore, that reading class anxiety is either the cause or effect of lack of motivation to read in English. The students who have provided this answer were required to explain it and only 19 students did so. Their answers are summarised as follows:

- a. Because reading in English is difficult. (8 students)
- b. Because of difficulties to understand. (5 students)
- c. Because of fear of making mistakes. (4 students)
- d. Because of the teacher. (2 students)

The answers given by the students reveal that their anxiety is due to lack of mastery of the reading skill in English (answers a and b), fear of making mistakes (answer c) or fear of the teacher's reaction (answer d). Analysis of earlier questions has already indicated that non-motivated students have developed negative attitudes towards reading in English mainly because of the difficulties they experienced with reading comprehension. They need to understand every single word using the dictionary and eventually give up reading, as this task, which is too demanding, obviously hampers their comprehension of the general meaning and reduces their ability to answer questions. This difficulty is mainly related to the use of inappropriate reading strategies and ignorance of more effective strategies. Fear of making mistakes (answer c) is another reason for feeling anxious that four students have given. The definition of language learning anxiety given above refers to the fear experienced when learners have to use a language which they do not fully master. So, students who have difficulties to understand reading materials develop anxiety to read and to answer questions in the reading class. It seems that these students are much more concerned with receiving positive judgements about their behaviour than with learning itself. In this respect, Dweck (1986; cited in Crookes and Schmidt, 1991) indicated that this type of students will not volunteer answers unless they are sure they are correct. On the other hand, students whose goal is to learn will not hesitate to take part in activities even if they are likely to make errors. Both behaviours are related to motivation or lack of it. In addition to that, it is also possible to claim that these students have developed the impression that they cannot achieve success in reading due to repeated failures. This is what Weiner (1984; cited in Crookes and Schmidt,

1991) referred to as learned helplessness. Learners who have experienced failure in reading in an L2 will attribute this to their own weaknesses (inability to understand) not to the course itself, and will therefore have a low estimate about their future success in reading in an L2. This will lead to low risk-taking and low acceptance of ambiguity.

Finally, two students have explained their anxiety by the fear of the teacher’s reaction. Obviously, when teachers do not adopt a supportive, encouraging and motivating attitude towards their students, or when they give more importance to correct performance than to learning itself, they might intimidate them and even hamper their motivation to learn and to practise the language. However, because of the results obtained in the previous section in relation to evaluation of the ‘Reading Techniques’ teachers, the above statement should be taken with caution. The majority of the respondents hold positive attitudes towards their teachers, and this may be due to these teachers’ positive treatment of them. So, students who are afraid of their teacher’s reactions may be driven to feel so by lack of self confidence due to lack of ability.

26. I feel very much at ease when I have to read in English.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	55	68.75
No	25	31.25
Total	80	100

Table 4.22. Ease Felt when Reading in English

The number of the students who have declared that they do not feel at ease when they have to read in English is inferior to the number of those who have already declared that they feel anxious when they have to answer questions in the reading techniques class. This might be attributed to the nature of reading as a solitary activity compared to answering questions in front of the whole class. Some students feel more at ease when reading alone than when they have to answer questions. But still this number (25 students) is close to the number of the non-motivated students already identified. It can be restated that these students' motivation is either the cause or effect of anxiety.

27. If 'No', please explain your answer.

In this question the students are required to say why they do not feel very much at ease when they have to read in English and 13 of them gave the following answers: (each answer is given by one student)

- a. Because I will be obliged to understand every single word.
- b. Because I need to check the meaning of many words in the dictionary.
- c. Because of the difficult words.
- d. New difficult words.
- e. Because I can't benefit from any reading when I read something difficult.
- f. I can't understand everything that I am reading and sometimes I feel lost when I cannot understand every word.
- g. Because I find a lot of difficult words.
- h. I find some difficulties.
- i. Sometimes I need a lot of time to understand the meaning.
- j. I have some difficulties to understand some words and expressions.

- k. Most teachers asked us to read novels but I hate reading them, they seem boring and I prefer to read real topics but I don't know where to find them.
- l. I have some pronunciation problems.
- m. Because I have a slow reading rate.

The explanations given by the students to explain their answer to this question corroborate the ones they have given to explain the previous question. They also correlate with the students' complaints about their inability to deal effectively with vocabulary and felt need to understand every new word (questions 5 and 11). Most of the students who have answered this question have explained it by the difficulties they face vis à vis unfamiliar vocabulary. Their inability to use effective reading strategies in order to interact successfully with texts and their focus on word to word analysis is a problematic issue which has proved to cause the students to feel helpless and to give up reading. In the present question and the previous one, it has also proved to be the origin of the students' reading anxiety and therefore, the cause of their demotivation to read in English.

Section Eight: Parental Encouragement

28. My parents think I should devote more time for reading in English.

Yes

No

Q	N	%
Yes	59	73.75
No	21	26.25
Total	80	100

Table 4.23. Parents' View of Reading in English

In answering this question, the majority of the students (59 students) have declared that their parents think they should devote more time for reading in English. However, 21 students said that their parents do not. This number is only slightly inferior to that of the non-motivated students. It seems then that parents' attitudes influence their children's either positively or negatively. In fact, parental encouragement is an important component of the motivational construct in that students may hold the same attitudes as their parents towards the target language and its speakers (Gardner et al., 1976). Attitudes towards the target language involve also the language skills, including reading in that language. When parents do not think that their children should devote more time for reading in the language in which they are majoring, i.e., they do not care whether their children read or not in English, it is very likely that they will not encourage them to do so. The next question aims at checking this.

29. My parents encourage me to read in English as much as possible.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	57	71.25
No	23	28.75
Total	80	100

Table 4.24. Parental encouragement to read in English

The results of this question confirm those of the previous one. In fact, 23 students have declared that their parents do not encourage them to read in English as much as

possible; this is a very close number to that of those who have stated that their parents do not think that they should devote more time for reading in English (21 students). When parents are not aware of the importance of reading in English for their children who are English teacher trainees, they will certainly not encourage them to do so. If the students are not already motivated to read in general or to read in English in particular, they are deprived from a very important source of encouragement and motivation. It is worth to note at this point, that these students belong to the category of the non-motivated ones. However, because the number is inferior to that of those who constitute this category, it can be claimed that parental encouragement is helpful in creating a desire to read in English, but there are other factors that might exert a more powerful negative impact on the students' motivation, namely the use of ineffective reading strategies and reading anxiety.

4.3. Overall Analysis

The analysis of the results of the first questionnaire has revealed many aspects important for our study. The first one of these is that the majority of the students are motivated to learn English and to read in this language. The answers to questions 5, 8, 9 and 10 confirm this. This is not surprising regarding the quality of the Teacher Training School students who are among the top students graduating from Algerian secondary schools and the fact that most of them have enrolled in this institution out of a genuine interest in becoming teachers of English. Therefore, the majority of the respondents do not give up when they do not understand what they are reading (Q 11), work hard to learn to read in English (Q13), consider the reading course as one of their favourite courses (Q16), like their 'Reading Techniques' teacher (Q 23), feel very much at ease when they have to read in English (Q26), and finally receive parental encouragement to read in English (Q 28 and 29).

However, the analysis of the first questionnaire has also made it possible to identify a number of 28 students (out of 80) who lack motivation to read in English. These students in fact, hate to read in English though they are conscious of the importance of learning to read in English for them (Q7) and though, like almost all the rest of the population, they have shown that they possess both integrative and instrumental orientations towards reading in English (Q 3 and 4). A possible explanation of this mismatch is that these students distinguish between an objective awareness of the importance of reading in English as an international language both for professional and personal reasons and a more personal act which is reading in that language.

Through their answers, these 28 students have proved to lack any motivation to read in English. The first question that has been determinant in this respect is Q5 (I hate reading in English). All students who have answered this question by 'Yes' have been considered non motivated ones (28 students). They have reiterated the same attitude when answering Q9 (I have a strong desire to read in English: 27 students answered 'No'). In answering Q10 (I really enjoy reading in English) the same 28 students said 'No'. In answering Q8 (I think that reading in English is boring), 25 students said 'Yes'. In answering Q12 (I really work hard to learn to read in English) 26 students said 'No'. In answering Q18 (I would rather spend my time on subjects other than Reading Techniques) 28 students said 'Yes'. In answering Q20 (To be honest, I don't like my reading class, 21 students said 'Yes'. In answering Q24 (I get anxious when I have to answer questions in my reading class, 25 students said 'Yes'. Finally, in answering Q28 (my parents think I should devote more time for reading in English), 21 students said 'No'.

After examining the reasons underlying such a negative attitude towards reading in English, it was found out that they were mainly due to the employment of ineffective reading

strategies that lead to boredom and eventually to cause those students to abandon reading (Q6). Such ineffective reading strategies are mainly related to the desire to process texts at the word level rather than whole section level, leading the students to want to understand every new word using the dictionary. As this is obviously a tedious and boring act, the students eventually give up reading. This has further been confirmed by the non-motivated students' answers to Q 11 when they explained the reason why they tend to give up and not pay attention when they do not understand what they are reading by reasons related to the extensive use of the dictionary out of a need to understand the meaning of unfamiliar words and the ensuing boredom resulting from this. Such students have reiterated the same reasons to explain why they do not feel much at ease when they have to read in English (Q26).

As a consequence of such negative attitudes held against the reading act, the non-motivated students have also shown negative attitudes towards their reading class (Q20) though only few of them think it is a waste of time (Q19). However, only a few of them show negative attitudes towards the reading techniques teacher (Q23) which further confirms that their dislike of reading is mainly due to the ineffective reading strategies they employ rather than external factors such as the teacher. To confirm this, none of the respondents to Q6 has mentioned the teacher as a reason to explain why they hate to read in English.

The analysis of the first questionnaire has also revealed that the non-motivated students identified in this study feel anxious when they have to answer questions in the reading class (Q 24) and when they have to read in English (Q26). Most of those who had to justify their anxiety attributed it to difficulties encountered at the word level and a desire to understand every new vocabulary item.

A further conclusion to draw is that the non-motivated population does not receive any parental encouragement to read in English. However, because only 18 students out of the

non-motivated population have claimed that their parents do not encourage them to read as much as possible (Q 29), it can be suggested that though parental encouragement is helpful in creating a desire to read in English, there are other factors that might exert a more powerful negative impact on the students' motivation, namely the use of ineffective reading strategies and reading anxiety.

Since focus groups generally range from 6 to 12 or 14 participants, a focus group among this non-motivated students made up of 14 students has been selected to undergo the instruction on reading strategies. A careful examination of the students' answers has made it possible to select 14 students who have provided negative answers to all the previous answers discussed in this overall conclusion. It must be explained that an answer is negative when it indicates lack of motivation regardless of whether it is a 'Yes' or 'No' answer.

Conclusion

The results of the first questionnaire have allowed us to identify the students who lack motivation to read in English (28 students). The basis of this identification is their declaration that they hate to read in English, that they have no desire to read in English, that they do not enjoy reading in English, that reading in English is boring, that they do not like their reading class, that they feel anxious when they have to answer questions in their reading class, and that they receive no parental encouragement to read in English. The analysis of these students' answers has indicated that their lack of motivation is due to their employment of ineffective reading strategies that consist of processing texts on a word-to-word basis and to their extensive use of the dictionary out of a desire to comprehend every new word while reading which causes them to completely give up doing so. This information is going to be used as a basis for the selection of other more effective strategies for the instruction. Fourteen (14) students out of the non-motivated ones have been selected to constitute a focus

group that will undergo instruction on reading strategies. A second questionnaire will be handed in to these students at the end of the instruction to test its effectiveness in enhancing their motivation to read in English.

CHAPTER FIVE

REMEDIAL INSTRUCTION ON READING STRATEGIES

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Introduction

Introduction

The analysis of the results of the first students' questionnaire has made it possible to obtain important information concerning the identification the students who lack motivation to read in English in addition to the causes of this. Such causes are mainly due to the employment of ineffective reading strategies, which goes in conformity with the first research hypothesis on which the present study is based. To remedy this situation, a remedial instruction on more effective reading strategies will be offered to these students. This is the topic of the present chapter.

5.1. Description of the Instruction on Reading Strategies

The instruction on reading strategies received by the 14 students who have been identified as non-motivated ones extended from February, 5th to May 14th 2014, that is, 14 sessions of one hour and half each. The first two sessions were devoted to the preparation for the instruction, three strategies needed two sessions each and five strategies needed only one session each. Finally the evaluation step, i.e. the second students' questionnaire took place in the last session (chapter six).

Many models of strategy training are offered (Cohen, 1998) and described in the review of the literature. For the sake of the present study, the model of strategy instruction adopted is a combination of Awareness Training and Strategy Workshops. It consists of isolated lectures and discussions and is separate from regular classroom instruction. It provides the students with a general introduction to strategy application (Awareness Training). It is also presented in the form of intensive workshops that aim at increasing learner awareness of strategies through various consciousness raising activities. These workshops are offered as a non-credit course and combine lectures, hands-on practice with

specific strategies, and discussions about the effectiveness of strategy use (Strategy Workshops).

In addition, four strategy training approaches have been described in the review of the literature (Chapter 2), and it has been shown that they share many similarities: (Pearson and Dole's Approach (1987), Oxford et.al's Approach (1990), Chamot and O'Malley's Approach (1994) and Grenfeld and Harris's Model (1999). For the purpose of this study, the training approach used is an eclectic one borrowing from all four approaches. After the focus group has been selected, the training process, which will last for at least a semester, is launched and it consists of the following steps:

- In the first step, which constitutes a preparation phase, the students are assigned a reading task without any instruction on reading strategies. This is followed with a brainstorming in which the students will reflect on the strategies they have used to deal with this task.
- In the second step, which constitutes the presentation and practice phase, new strategies will be demonstrated, emphasising their value and drawing up a checklist of strategies for future use. Learners are then provided with opportunities to practice the new strategies. They are shown how the strategies can be transferred to other tasks. This step thus consists of a combination of two steps of the training described in the review of the literature namely presentation and practice.
- Students are finally guided to evaluate the success of their strategy use through the use of a questionnaire. This will constitute the core of the next chapter.

5.2. The Training Process

The training process of the reading strategies instruction consists of three stages, namely preparation for the instruction, presentation and practice of the new strategies and

finally evaluation of the use of the new strategies which will be the subject of the next chapter.

5.2.1. Preparation for the Instruction

This step needed two sessions of one hour and a half each to be realised.

- Session one

First of all, the objective of the instruction was explained to the students. They needed to know that they were selected to receive the instruction because their answers to the questionnaire had revealed that they were not motivated to read in English. They all intervened at this moment to explain that their major problem was lack of comprehension which causes them to feel upset or bored and to give up reading. They were then explained that the instruction they would receive would attempt to teach them useful strategies that would help them deal better with reading materials so as to increase their motivation to read in English. In order to improve their motivation to receive the instruction, an attempt was also made to convince them that the difficulties they have experienced so far may be due to lack of strategies, rather than lack of ability.

In this step, a text was given to the students to read without any prior instruction on reading strategies. The text is:

Text: The Enchanted Doll

Today is the anniversary of that afternoon in April a year ago that I first saw the strange and appealing doll in the window of Abe Sheftel's stationary and toy shop on third Avenue near Fifteenth Street, just around the corner from my office, where the plate on the door reads: Dr. Samuel Amory. I remember just how it was that day: the first hint of spring floated across the East River, mixing with the soft-coal smoke from the factories and the street smells of the poor neighbourhood. As I turned the corner on my way to work and came

to Sheftel's, I was made once more aware of the poor collection of toys in the dusty window, and I remembered the approaching birthday of a small niece of mine in Cleveland, to whom I was in the habit of sending modest gifts. Therefore, I stopped and examined the window to see if there might be anything appropriate, and looked at the confusing collection of unappealing objects – a red toy fire engine, some lead soldiers, cheap baseballs. Bottles of ink, pens, yellowed stationary, and garish cardboard advertisements for soft-drinks. And thus, it was that my eyes eventually came to rest upon the doll tucked away in one corner, a doll with the strangest, most charming expression on her face. I could not wholly make her out, due to the shadows and the film through which I was looking, but I was aware that a tremendous expression has been made upon me as though I had run into a person, as one does sometimes with a stranger, with whose personality one is deeply impressed.

(Source: Baudoin et.al. 1994:154)

The students were asked to read this text and to reflect on the strategies they had used in order to understand its content. They were encouraged to recall any useful strategies that they might have already acquired through previous schooling even if these strategies were used in reading in another language. They were also asked to explain how the strategies they had used had facilitated their reading comprehension. Any strategies or self-directed attitudes used are to be praised by the instructor for the sake of encouragement. After reading the text, the class engaged in a brainstorming session where the students declared they had used the following strategies:

1. Using the dictionary to explain difficult words, (mentioned 11 times)
2. Rereading sentences, (mentioned 9 times)
3. Rereading the introductory sentences to have a better idea of what the text was about, (mentioned only once)
4. Relying on the title of the text to predict its content, (mentioned only once)

5. Relying on context clues to guess the meaning of difficult words, (mentioned only once)
6. Skipping difficult words and continuing to read. (mentioned only once)

This brainstorming revealed that the students had made use of a very limited range of strategies and that, as was expected and already revealed through the first questionnaire results, the most recurrent strategy among most of the students was the use of the dictionary to explain difficult words (11 students among 14 declared that they had used it). One student said that checking the dictionary was necessary to her even if she could understand the general meaning. She did not feel secure enough if she could not understand every unknown word while reading. She added that she used an English-Arabic dictionary because an English-English dictionary would only add extra difficulty. Another student said that the unknown words had stopped her from moving. The first session of the preparation ended at this point because the instructor needed to draw the necessary conclusions from the students' brainstorming in order to arrive at a final decision about which strategies will constitute the core of the instruction.

- Conclusions drawn from the Brainstorming

First of all, it is worthwhile to refer back to the first students' questionnaire results, and more specifically to question 5 (I hate reading in English). Indeed, students who had claimed that they hated reading in English had explained this attitude by the fact that their inability to comprehend difficult words prevented them from moving forward while reading and that they consequently gave up. In addition, students who were asked to explain why they tended to give up and not pay attention when they were reading (Q10) did so by referring to their difficulties in dealing with difficult words and their boredom when having to use the dictionary. Even some of the students who had claimed that they really worked hard to learn

to read in English (Q11) mentioned the use of the dictionary to explain difficult words as a major reading strategy. Rereading sentences, is another strategy that focuses on local meaning of separate sentences rather than whole text meaning and it was mentioned by 9 students.

However, the students who mentioned relying on the title of the text to predict its content, relying on context clues to guess the meaning of difficult words and skipping difficult words and continuing to read (they are three) pointed at strategies that go beyond the word level to be rather concerned with general comprehension. Nonetheless, the fact that they mentioned only a very limited range of reading strategies (only one strategy for each student) does not allow one to consider them successful readers because a successful reader is the one who uses better strategies than the unsuccessful one both in terms of quantity and quality.

On the whole then, and disregarding the three strategies mentioned in the preceding paragraph, the type of strategies used by the students reveals that they are unsuccessful foreign language readers (which should not be mistaken for unsuccessful foreign language *learners*). That is, they tend to deal with texts on a word-for-word basis, focusing on sound-letter correspondences, word meaning, and text detail. They also reread isolated sentences or passages, rather than the entire text, and resist skipping any unknown words (except for one student). In other words, these students tend to employ local, bottom-up strategies. As mentioned in the review of the literature, Block (1986) found that general comprehension strategies are superior to local linguistic strategies (rereading words or sentences, questioning the meaning of words or sentences and solving vocabulary problems). On the other hand, Saricoban (2002) found that successful readers engaged in predicting and guessing, accessed background knowledge related to the topic of the text topic, guessed the meaning of unknown

words, reread the entire passage, identified main ideas and monitored comprehension. In short, successful readers employed global top-down strategies that are cognitive, metacognitive and compensatory in nature.

This discussion being made, it is possible then to sum up the criteria for the selection of reading strategies for the instruction:

1. The students' answers to the questionnaire that revealed that their dislike of reading in English is due to lack of comprehension of difficult vocabulary items and their useless struggle with explaining their meanings using the dictionary.
2. The students' declarations during the preliminary step of the instruction that corroborated the above statement.
3. The type of reading strategies they have used in dealing with the text during the preliminary session which confirmed their extensive use of the dictionary as a main strategy to get meaning through.
4. Reference to the review of the literature that maintains that bottom-up strategies that focus on questioning the meaning of words and on vocabulary problems rather than general meaning are used by unsuccessful readers.

On this basis, the strategies that are selected for the instruction will teach the students:

1. to deal with vocabulary without necessarily using the dictionary,
2. to approach global understanding of text,
3. to use a combination of effective strategies to comprehend texts.

- **Session Two**

On the second session, it was time to explain to the students that there were other useful strategies that might help them deal better with different texts and that the instruction they would receive would teach them how to use them.. The strategies suggested to them are:

1. skipping unnecessary words,
2. guessing the meaning of vocabulary from the context,
3. scanning and skimming
4. predicting
5. paraphrasing and restatement
6. distinguishing main ideas from detail
7. questioning
8. previewing

A brief explanation of these strategies and how they can help the students while reading was provided. In the same vein, since in order to guarantee the success of strategy training, due attention should be given to cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social strategies that positively affect language learning (Oxford 1990), the students received a detailed explanation of what these strategies were and how they could successfully be employed to help them in their learning overall or their reading tasks more particularly.

5.2.2. Presentation and Practice of New Strategies

This step consisted of a theoretical presentation followed with extensive practice of the newly presented reading strategies. For the sake of the present study, the two phases of presentation and practice are integrated as we judged it is not possible to separate the presentation of a new strategy from its practice. Since it cannot be assumed that students will make use of these strategies simply by being told about them, constant reminders to use certain strategies were made. Before a new strategy is introduced, review of the previous one is made and the students were constantly reminded that when dealing with every new activity it is necessary to integrate all the previously learned strategies. This step occupied the major part of the whole instruction.

Lesson 1: Skipping Unnecessary Words

- Presentation of the Strategy of Skipping Unnecessary Words

The students were explained that they should not feel obliged to understand or to look up the meaning of every new word when they read and that understanding the general meaning was more important. Unless the new word is used in the title of the text or the topic sentence or repeated many times in the text, they should simply skip it and continue reading. So going for gist, or skipping non-essential words was the first strategy to be practiced through a number of tasks. The purpose of this was to deliver the students of the burden of trying to understand every single new word using the dictionary, which may cause them to feel bored and to give up reading. The following activities were used to practise this strategy:

- Practice of the Strategy of Skipping Unnecessary Words

• Activity 1

The following article, ‘Amazing Machines’, is about special inventions. Read the first paragraph and underline any unknown words to you and keep reading as fluently as you can.

Text: The Deepest Diving Submarine

The Japanese research submarine Shinkai 6500 can dive deeper than any other submarine. On August 11, 1989, it plunged to a depth of 6,526 meters beneath the ocean’s surface. Three occupants can ride in the submarine, which is 9.5 meters long, 2.7 meters wide, and 3.2 meter high. It is used for ocean research all over the world (Anderson, 2007, p. 118).

- Description of the Students’ Performance

After reading this paragraph, the students were asked if they underlined any word more than once. If they did so, then this word could be an important one and it may be worthwhile to pause and think about its meaning. The majority of the students replied that they had underlined the word submarine which was repeated four times in the paragraph, and

they had to guess its meaning from the context. Other words were also underlined, namely *dive*, *plunged*, and *beneath*, but since each of them was used only once in the paragraph, they were simply skipped. The next part of this activity was to answer the following question:

What is **not** true about the submarine Shinkai 6500?

- a. It is used only in Japan.
- b. It can dive deeper than other submarines.
- c. Three people can ride in it.
- d. It is 9.5 meter long.

(Anderson, 2007, p. 119)

All the students correctly answered this question without looking up the meaning of the unknown word (s). They realised that they did not have to understand every word to understand the meaning of the passage.

- **Activity 2**

A second paragraph had to be read and the students were asked to follow the same previous instruction.

Text: The World's Most Famous Vacuum Cleaner

The Dyson DC06 vacuum cleaner can clean your floor by itself and save you valuable time. It contains three computers that make sure it doesn't tumble down stairs or clean the same place twice. The intelligent vacuum cleaner makes 16 decisions every second. (Anderson, 2007, p.118)

The students had to read the paragraph and to underline any new words without attempting to look them up in the dictionary. Most of them did not know the meaning of the word '*vacuum*' and they could understand what it referred to only from the context. Then, they were asked to answer this question:

Which statement was **not** true about the Dyson DC06 vacuum cleaner?

- a. It can save you time.
- c. It has more than one computer.

- b. It cleans the same place twice. d. it makes 16 decisions a second.

(Anderson, 2007, p.119)

They answered it correctly and by doing so, they could confirm the usefulness of the strategy of skipping unknown words.

- **Activity 3**

Instruction: The following poems describe something. Read them carefully to describe what is being described. While doing so, do not feel concerned if you do not understand the meaning of some vocabulary items:

Poem: Southbound on the Freeway

A tourist came in from Orbitville,

Parked in the air, and said:

The creatures of this star

Are made of metal and glass.

Through the transparent parts

You can see their guts.

Their feet are round and roll

On diagrams- or long

Measuring tapes- dark

With white lines.

They have four eyes.

The two in the back are red.

Sometimes you can see a 5-eyed

One, with a red eye turning

On the top of his head.

He must be special-

The others respect him,
And go slow,
when he passes, winding
among them from behind.
They all hiss as they glide,
like inches, down the marked
tapes. Those soft shapes,
shadowy inside
the hard bodies –are they
their guts or their brains?

May Swenson

What is it?-----

Baudoin et. al. (1994, p. 139)

- **Description of the Students' Performance**

While the students were reading this poem, they were reminded to skip any unknown words and to focus only on the general meaning in order to discover what the poem describes. They were asked not to reveal their answers to the whole class but only to the instructor so that all students have equal chances to think. After many minutes passed only one student could find the answer, while the others were encouraged to keep reading. They made several wrong attempts before most of them could arrive at the right guess. They explained that they were helped by such clues as *the round and roll feet, four eyes, the two in the back are red, a 5-eyed one, with a red eye turning, he must be special, the others respect him*. So without having to understand or explain any of the unknown words in the poem, the students could find out that it described *a police car*. They only relied on clues.

The students had to read a second poem following the same instruction:

Activity 4

Poem: By Morning

Some for everyone

plenty

and more coming

Fresh dainty airily arriving

everywhere at once

Transparent at first

each faint slice

slow soundlessly tumbling

then quickly thickly a gracious fleece

will spread like youth like wheat

over the city

Each building will be a hill

all shapes made round

dark worn noisy arrows made still

wide flat clean spaces

Streets will be fields

cars be fumbling sheep

A deep bright harvest will be seeded

in a night

By morning we'll be children

feeding on manna

a new loaf on every doorsill

May Swenson

What is it?-----

Baudoin et. al. (1994, p. 140)

- **Description of Students' Performance**

The students found this poem more difficult than the first one because it contained a larger number of unknown words. However, they were encouraged to keep reading in order to have a global sense of it disregarding details. After several readings, they started, one by one, making suggestions such as a storm, rain, but they were not the right answers. Finally two students working together said that the poem was describing snow and the rest of the class all realised that the answer was suddenly so clear and they wondered how they did not notice the right clues such as *Each building will be a hill, cars be fumbling sheep.*

Lesson 2: Guessing from Context

- **Revision of Previous Strategy**

The students needed to learn that reading strategies can be used effectively only if they are used in combination. Because of this, constant reminders about previous strategies and about the necessity of using them in combination were to be made before any new strategy was introduced. Therefore, this preliminary step was an indispensable one in every lesson. The new lesson, then, started with a revision of the previous strategy, skipping unnecessary words. The students were asked to define it, to explain its importance and they did so. They were also asked to state whether they found it useful to them or not. Their answers were positive. However, the usefulness of this activity would be demonstrated in more objective ways through performance of future activities when dealing with other strategies.

- **Presentation of the Strategy of Guessing Meaning from Context**

This strategy consists of guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words using context clues. The students were explained that this strategy is a useful one because it helps them develop self reliance instead of reliance on the dictionary and that, in fact, all language learning strategies including reading strategies aim at enhancing learners' autonomy and independence. They were also explained that guessing from context helps them develop thinking processes because it consists of using different types of information, namely prior knowledge of the topic in the text in which the unfamiliar word is used, knowledge of the meaning of words that precede and follow the unfamiliar word, and finally knowledge of the grammatical structure of the sentences in which the word is used. (Baudoin et.al., 1994)

- **Practice of the Strategy of Guessing Meaning from Context**

• **Activity**

Use the context provided to determine the meaning of the italicised words. Write a definition, synonym, or description of the italicised vocabulary items.

Text

Cigarette advertising can be very effective. The people we see advertising cigarettes sell attractive images. For example, we might be shown very attractive women and strong cowboys. These *sirens* and *brawny cowpokes* are *seductive* images, designed to make us desire cigarettes.

Some people believe that cigarette smoking is a moral weakness that affects individuals and society. They argue that this *vice* is *linked to* a good deal of illness every year. Cigarette smoking, they argue, can *sap* the strength of individuals and of the national economy.

Other people think discussions of the dangers of cigarette smoking *obscure* the real issue, hiding the fact that curbing smokers' rights makes them the *target* of discrimination.

Both sides of this debate can become very emotional, using very strong language. Some people believe that smoking in public is immoral. Others believe that curbing smokers' rights is equally *obscene* and *perverse*. Still others focus on the evil of smoking, believing that the act itself and its effects are *pernicious*.

In the end, people need a reason to stop smoking. This *incentive* to stop can be job-related. For example, we may be on the way to making non-smoking a *condition of employment*: smokers may have a hard time getting hired, and *personnel* who smoke may be fired.

It can be argued that making smoking a job-related issue is not fair. Whether or not you smoke does not make you a good employee. Some people will always waste time either smoking or talking. Does it matter if you *fritter away* your time *chattering* or smoking? Similarly, smokers do not necessarily create more dirt in the workplace. Not all smokers *flick* ashes on the floor while they talk, or press cigarette *butts* into the floor. People are individuals.

Baudoin et. al. (1997, p. 110)

- **Description of the Students' Performance**

The students were not familiar with this type of activity, as well as with all the words in it and they were unable to guess the meaning of any of them. Because of that, they needed guidance through questions that helped direct their attention to important clues. They were asked to reread carefully the sentence (s) that precede (s) the words to be explained, to pay attention to any repeated words and to the adjectives used with them, to find out what different pronouns refer to, etc. In the first paragraph, for example, the pronoun '*these*' is used before *sirens* and *brawny cowpokes*, and the students were asked to find out what it referred to. They could say that, as a rule, the demonstrative pronoun *these* refers to what

precedes and in that sentence it referred to *very attractive women* and *strong cowboys*. So they were helped to guess that *sirens* means *attractive women*, *brawny* means *strong* and *cowpokes* means *cowboys*. On the other hand, the word *images* is used twice in this paragraph, the first time with the adjective *attractive* and the second time with *seductive* whose meaning they had to guess, and so they did guess that *seductive* means *attractive*.

More time was given to the students to carry out the rest of the activity which they found very fun as it stimulated them to think and to challenge one another to make the right guesses. Students had also to explain which clues had helped them to make their guesses. It was a time consuming activity, and therefore it occupied all the time allocated for that session.

Lesson 3: Scanning and Skimming

- Revision of Previous Strategies

The students were reminded that the effectiveness of strategy training in general and of the present instruction in particular depends on the integration of varied strategies. Carrying out an activity for the sake of applying a newly introduced strategy requires the use of a combination of the strategies already dealt with. The students who seemed to respond very positively to the instruction declared that indeed this is exactly what they were already doing. They no more struggled with unfamiliar words; they simply skipped them when they were not important for comprehension of the whole meaning. They used context clues to guess the meaning of important words. They used the dictionary only occasionally as a last solution to explain the meaning of some key words. At this point, it should be mentioned that some students have already started reading for pleasure. One student said that she was encouraged by her classmate to read a novel, another one brought with her Jane Austin's *Sense and Sensibility* to class to show it to the instructor who encouraged her to read it. Still, a third student was actually reading a novel in Arabic (Ahlem Mostaghenmi's *Chaos of the*

Senses) while she was waiting for the instructor before the session begun. She said she was not yet ready to read in English and that she thought she would perhaps do that very soon. The instructor encouraged her to read in any language because when someone develops the desire to read one would be eager to read in different languages. Because this lesson is concerned with two related strategies, it needed two sessions to be carried out.

- **Presentation of the Strategies of Skimming and Scanning**

The presentation of this strategy was made in the form of brainstorming where the students were involved in defining skimming and scanning. These two strategies were included in the instruction because they would teach the students not to focus on the meanings of words but rather on the general meaning to find either a general idea (when skimming) or a particular detail (when scanning). To arrive to the definition of these strategies the students were asked how they would read if they were supposed to look for a general idea or, on the other hand, to find a particular piece of information. Their answers were correct and they revealed that they were already familiar to these two strategies because they were introduced to them in their regular reading techniques course. However, they added that when actually reading either to find a general idea or a specific detail, they couldn't help read every word with great attention and stop to explain every new one. It was only after they were exposed to the instruction on reading strategies that they had started to realise that this was not the right way of approaching texts. After this brainstorming was made the instructor had to present the two strategies.

The purpose for which people read determines the manner with which they read. For example, most people do not read a newspaper from the first page to the last one. They rather move their eyes quickly through headlines to find what they want to read. Then they choose only some sections of the newspaper to read to find out, for instance, who won a certain football match and at which score, or to discover when and where a music concert

will take place. In such cases, they read to locate a certain piece of information. This is called scanning. Scanning is a very useful reading strategy because it may save time as the reader will only read information which he needs. It may also help students when taking tests that consist of questions about reading passages or charts. There are a number of steps involved in scanning:

1. Make a clear decision of what information you want to search for and consider the form it may take. For instance, you would look for a date if you want to find when someone was born.
2. Make an exact decision of the placement of the information you want to find. For example, if you want to find the phone number of Jane Smith in the telephone directory, you know that you have to look under the letter S.
3. Once you have found the information you are looking for, stop reading.

On the other hand, people may practice a different strategy for a different purpose. This strategy is skimming. It consists of reading quickly for the sake of looking for the main idea (s) of the reading passage or obtaining a general impression of a book, article, or story before deciding to read them thoroughly or not. When skimming, there is no need to read every sentence or every word or look up unfamiliar words, but it is important to read only selected sentences to get the general idea. There is also a need to rely on textual clues such as italicised words or underlined words, headlines or subtitles, spacing or paragraphing. After the reader has obtained a general idea of the reading passage, he may decide to read it again carefully or not, or only to scan it for specific information that he may need (Baudoin et.al. 1997).

- **Practice of the Strategies of Skimming and Scanning**

- **Activity 1: Scanning** (Source: Anderson, 2007, pp. 16-18)

A. Scan the following reading passage to find the following information:

1. Find the list of things you need to make the pavlova. How many different things are needed?
2. How many steps are there in making a pavlova?

B. In which step is each of these things used? Scan the reading passage and write the number of the step.

1. Heavy cream Step-----
2. Vanilla Step-----
3. Mixed fruits Step-----
4. Baking sheet Step-----

C. Read the passage again and answer the questions that follow.

Text: Let's Make a Fruit Pavlova

The pavlova is a delicious dessert from New Zealand and Australia. It was first made in the 1930s for the visit of the great Russian dancer, Anna Pavlova.

Here's what you need:

4 eggs	A mixing bowl
1 milliliter of salt	20 milliliters of cornstarch
Mixed fruits	1 milliliters of white vinegar
230 grams of powdered sugar	A baking sheet
1 milliliter of vanilla	An electric mixer
½ liter of heavy cream	

- Description of the Students' Performance

As scanning consists of reading quickly to find particular information, the students had to answer the questions very rapidly. To guarantee that they do not stop at any unfamiliar words or reread any sentence for more understanding and that they focus only on the information they were required to locate, each question had to be read by one student and answered on the spot. Any wrong answer was corrected immediately by another student.

- **Activity 2: Skimming** (Source: Baudoin et al, 1997, p. 70)

In one minute, skim this passage and indicate if the selection should be read carefully.

Selection 1: Would you do more research on Jane Adams if you were interested in women's contribution to modern elementary education?

Adams Jane (1860-1935), American social worker who founded the Chicago social welfare center known as Hull House. She was born in Cedarville, Ill., on Sept. 6, 1860, the daughter of a prosperous merchant. She graduated from Rockford College (then Rockford Seminary) in 1881. Travelling in Europe, she was stirred by the social reform movement in England and especially by a visit to Toynbee Hall, the first university settlement. In 1889, with her college classmate Ellen Gates Scarr, she founded Hull House in the slums of Chicago.

Hull House grew rapidly and soon became the most famous settlement house in America. Many reformers came there, not so much to serve as to learn. Jane Adams was the leader and dominant personality. Hull house pioneered in child labour reform and in the fight for better housing, parks, and playgrounds. It initiated steps toward progressive education and attempts to acclimatise immigrants to America.

Jane Adams was a practical idealist and an activist. She favoured prohibition and women suffrage, and she campaigned for the Progressive party in 1912. She went beyond politics, however, for politics to her she was part of a larger movement to humanise the industrial city.

She has always been a pacifier, and when World War I broke out in 1914, she became chairman of the Woman's Peace party and president of the international Congress of Women. In 1915 she visited many countries in Europe, urging the end of the war through mediation. She remained a pacifist when the United States entered the war in 1917, and as a result she was denounced by many Americans. In 1931 she was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize (sharing the award with Nicholas Murray Butler)

Jane Adams continued to be in the vanguard of social reform movements until her death in Chicago on May 21, 1935. She wrote more than 400 articles. The influence that had begun at Hull House continued to spread around the world.

(Key: No)

Selection 2: Would you want more information about the Dionne Quintuplets if you were interested in social and governmental reaction to multiple births?

Dionne Quintuplets, the five daughters born in Callander, Ontario, on May 28, 1934, to Olivia and Elzire Dionne, who already has six children. The quintuplets, Annette, Emilie, Yvonne, Marie, and Cecile, were delivered at the Dionne farmhouse (now preserved and restored). They were cared for by Dr. Allan Roy Dafoe, a local general medical practitioner. The Canadian Red Cross provided them with incubators and nursing care, and the Dafoe Memorial Hospital was built nearby by public subscription as a nursery. In 1935

the Ontario legislature made them wards of the province to avoid exploitation by theatrical managers and show procedures; their father regained custody in 1941.

In 1943 a new family home was built, and the quintuplets were educated there until they entered Nicolet College in 1952. Marie (Mrs Florian Houle) dies in Montreal on Feb. 27, 1970. Emilie died of an epileptic seizure on Aug. 6, 1954, in Ste-Agathe-des-Monts, Quebec. Yvonne trained as a nurse and spent several years in convents. Annette married German Allard of Montreal, and Cecile married Philippe Langlois of Quebec.

(Key: Yes)

- **Description of the Students' Performance**

Because skimming is the act of reading quickly to grasp the general idea, only one minute was give to the students to read each text and to answer the question as was stated in the instruction. Not all students managed to do so and they could not answer the questions. A second reading was then, necessary and this time only two students gave a wrong answer about the second selection and another one could not give any answer as she did not manage to finish the reading. They said that they couldn't help to focus on every word and to want to make sense of it at the expense of the general meaning. They had then to be reminded of the first strategy they had learned in this course, ie, skipping unnecessary words which proved to be of great usefulness to the practice of skimming and scanning.

Lesson 4: Predicting

- **Revision of Previous Strategies**

As the instruction is still in its beginning and the students need to internalise the previously learned strategies for the sake of using them all in combination reminders of the strategies of skipping unnecessary words, guessing the meaning of words from context, scanning and skimming where made.

- **Presentation of the Strategy of Predicting**

While reading, readers are engaged in an active process. Their task consists of interacting with the text in order to decode meaning which is not found only on the page or his/her mind. A good reading strategy is to think about what is going to be read before beginning to read, and to think about what will follow while reading relying on general background knowledge and information in the text. This strategy is called predicting. The students were explained that making predictions about the reading material can improve their understanding and that being good readers involves asking oneself questions about what will be read. To employ this strategy, they need to use knowledge of the subject matter to make predictions about content and vocabulary and to check comprehension. They need also to use knowledge of the text type and purpose to make predictions about discourse structure and to use knowledge about the author to make predictions about writing style, vocabulary and content. (Anderson, 2007)

- **Practice of the Strategy of Predicting**

- **Activity 1:** (Anderson, 2007, pp. 12-13)

To practice this reading strategy, the students were assigned a text to read with instructions to follow step by step:

- A. Look at the title of the following article and the photograph. Try to guess Jamie Oliver's job. Read the first paragraph and see if you were right. Then read the second paragraph.
- B. Before you read the third paragraph, try to guess some of the junk food in school dinners. Read the third paragraph and see if you were right. Then read the fourth paragraph.
- C. Before you read the last paragraph, try to guess where Jamie sent the signatures. Then read the last paragraph and see if you were right.

Text: Jamie Oliver's School Dinners

Jamie Oliver is a young British chef. He loves to teach us his secrets of cooking and eating. In his first television show, *The Naked Chef*, Oliver taught everyone to make simple but delicious food. In *Jamie's Kitchen*, he taught young people how to cook. His next show, *Jamie's School Dinners*, is about changing the foods that students eat.

Oliver saw that some schools in Britain were serving junk food-food that is easy to eat but unhealthy. Although it can be delicious, junk food is not very good for you, and it is sometimes harmful for your health.. junk food can also harm children, because it doesn't give them the power they need at school. They sometimes can't think well or feel down, and sometimes gain weight.

Some of the junk food that Oliver wants to change is canned spaghetti, chicken nuggets, French fries, soda, and muffins. He encourages schools to serve fresh and healthy meats, vegetables, and fruits. He helps the school cooks to make healthy dinners without junk food.

People liked Oliver's idea of bringing quality food to schools. Thousands enjoyed his television show. But, Oliver wanted them to do more than just watch. At his *Feed me Better* website, he collected over 270,000 signatures from people. They wanted to stop junk food and introduce healthy food in schools again.

Oliver sent the signatures to Prime Minister Tony Blair. Prime Minister Blair promised to help change the school kitchens, teach school chefs to cook healthy foods, and spend more on school dinners. Thanks to Jamie Oliver, students everywhere in Britain can enjoy more healthy dinners.

- **Description of the Students' Performance**

When the students were handed the activity in, some of them immediately recognised Chef Jamie Oliver saying that they had already watched his shows on a certain TV channel. So they predicted that the text would be about cooking. Therefore their prior knowledge about this person helped them to deal with the activity and this made the activity an authentic one.

• **Activity 2**

A. Discuss these activities with a partner:

1. Look at the title of the following text. What do you think 'The Age of Adulthood' means?
2. Look at the photograph of the Japanese girl. Why do you think she is dressed up so beautifully in a kimono?
3. The reading talks about important ages for young people in the United States, Latin America, and Japan. What do you think some of those important ages are?

B. Skim the reading to see if your ideas in A were correct.

Text: The Age of Adulthood



In the United States, sixteen, eighteen, and twenty are important ages in a person's life. There are no special celebrations for these birthdays, but each is a time when a person can do new things that show that he or she is no longer a child and has made the transition to adulthood.

In the United States, after turning sixteen a person can work, get a driver's license, and leave home. Many high school students learn to drive and get part-time jobs soon after celebrating their sixteenth birthday. Sometimes the laws don't seem to make sense: at eighteen people in the United States can vote in governmental elections and join the army, but they are prohibited from going into many nightclubs, buying drinks like beer and wine, or gambling until they are twenty-one.

In many Latin American countries, young woman's fifteenth birthday is important. At this age, she is no longer considered to be a girl, but rather a woman. To mark this special day, families with fifteen-year-old daughters have a celebration called a Quinceanera. The day begins with the young woman and her family going to church. Later, there is a party and many guests are invited.

In Japan, boys and girls are considered to be adults at the age of twenty. At this age, they are allowed by law to vote, drink alcohol, and smoke. The second Monday in January is a national holiday called ‘Coming of Age Day’. On this day, twenty-year-olds celebrate by first going to a shrine with their families. Later, they listen to speeches given by city and school leaders. After that, many celebrate with family or friends late into the night.

In some countries, birthday celebrations continue throughout adulthood. Some people celebrate their fortieth and fiftieth birthdays, or the year that they retire, with a big party.

- **Description of the Students’ Performance**

This text generated rich discussions as the students engaged in an active process of predictions. Opportunities were given to every individual student to make her guesses so they had all to think of what they believed would be the best predictions. Not all their guesses were right but this did not discourage them from trying. This activity created a kind of competition among the students and this made it a motivating one.

Lesson 5: Paraphrasing

- **Revision of Previous Strategies**

Revision of the previous strategies is particularly important when dealing with this strategy because when paraphrasing, the students need to consider the meaning of words while reading and to do this they have to use the context clues. They have also to skim through the text to find the main idea and supporting details to be used when paraphrasing. The use of reading strategies in combination here is inherent to the nature of paraphrasing itself.

- **Presentation of the Strategy of Paraphrasing**

Paraphrasing consists of expressing information read in a certain text using one's own words. It is a good reading strategy because it improves and checks understanding of different types of material, and permits the reader to get and remember the main idea as well as important information contained in the reading material. It can be practiced using a number of steps. First, students read a paragraph silently, and as they are doing so, they should think of the meanings of words. When they finish reading the paragraph, they will help themselves think of what they have been reading by asking themselves what were the main ideas and details of the paragraph. The students can also skim again through the paragraph to locate the main idea and the details used to support it. After they have done so, the last step then consists of putting the main ideas and the supporting details in their own words. This will help them remember the information. The acronym for these steps is RAP: Read, Ask and Paraphrase. There are also useful rules that may help the students find the main idea. They need to search for it in the first sentence of the paragraph, or look for a word or words that are repeated several times in the whole paragraph. (Bos and Vaughn, 2002)

- **Practice of Paraphrasing**

- **Activity 1:** Paraphrase the following paragraphs using the three steps outlined above (RAP).

Text: Changes in the Family

Changes in our society in recent years have weakened family life. First of all, today's mothers spend much less time with their children. A generation ago, most houses got by on Dad's paycheck, and Mom stayed home. Now many mothers work, and their children attend an after school program, stay with a neighbour, or go home

to an empty house. Another change is that families no longer eat together. In the past, Mom would be home and fix a full dinner—salad, pot roast, potatoes, and vegetables, with homemade cake or pie to top it off. Dinner today is more likely to be takeout food or TV dinners eaten at home, or fast food eaten out, with different members of the family eating at different times. Finally, television has taken the place of family conversation and togetherness. Back when there were meals together, family members would have a chance to eat together, talk with each other, and share event of the day in a leisurely manner. But now families are more likely to be looking at the TV set than talking to one another. Many homes even have several TV sets, which people watch in separate rooms. Clearly, modern life is a challenge to family life.

“English Skills” John Langan

http://homepage.smc.edu/diaz_jamie/Paragraph_OutlineExamples.pdf

Text: Cost of Making People Proud

Sometimes the cost of making people proud can be nerve racking, but it is usually worth it. After two and a half months of planning and three days of beautiful weather, I finished my boy scout Eagle project. It was the biggest project I had ever taken on; by myself I was in charge of getting a hold of permits, donations of food and paint, and organizing volunteers so that the underpass on first avenue north could be repainted. I sat on an old couch in an even older building waiting outside an office filled with a council of people that had the authority to say “this project wasn’t good enough” or “you didn’t show enough leadership”. Needless to say, it was a little intimidating. The environment alone had me stressing. There was a clock above the doors that separated me from the council, and every

time I looked at it, I could hear it stealing the precious time I needed to do last minute preparations, click after click after click. My heart was racing as tried to think of everything they could possibly ask in hopes of anticipating what was going to happen. Finally when the man opened the doors and told me that they were ready for me, I thought I was going to faint. I felt like I was a blind man entering a room I have never been in. I did not know what to think. When I got inside it wasn't what I thought. I had imagined in all my worrying that I was going to be interrogated. I would sit at the end of a long generic table with the only light in the room pointed at me while countless people threw questions at me all at once. I found myself instead in a formal setting. I was asked to sit down, and the questioning began. They didn't throw the questions at me, but gave them to me one at a time. During the session I realize that I had prepared well. To this day the only thing that made all the stressful anticipation worth it was the day of my award ceremony. All the people that helped me along the way were there to congratulate me. As I stood in front of them I could tell what they were thinking they were proud of me. No matter how old a person is, there is always someone that they want to make proud, and the sacrifices that are necessary are almost always worth the reward.

By Andrew White

(Source):<http://english120.pbworks.com/w/page/19006987/narrative%20paragraphs>

- **Description of the Students' Performance**

The students were given time to paraphrase all the paragraphs in the classroom, then sufficient time was given to them to read their paraphrased paragraphs. For the sake of organisation, one paragraph was read and discussed by the class at a time, then the second, then the third one. The instructor explained that though the mechanics of writing are

important whenever the students have to compose in English, what is more important in this particular activity is the respect of the RAP steps and of the content of the original paragraphs. Each reading was followed with peer-feedback, then teacher feedback. The students checked that their peers' paraphrased paragraphs contained the main ideas and the supporting details of the original ones. In addition, because asking oneself questions helps the reader to think about what he is reading, each student has to tell the class what questions she has asked herself in order to interact with the text for a better comprehension. In order to make the activity a challenging one, a vote was made to select the most successful paraphrases to be typed and handed in to the class by the instructor. As there are three paragraphs to deal with and fourteen students to paraphrase, read and explain how they dealt with them, one session was not sufficient to practice this strategy and therefore it stretched over two sessions.

Lesson 6: Distinguishing Main Ideas from Supporting Details

- Revision of Previous Strategies

The revision step gained more and more importance as the reading strategy instruction progressed because practicing the new strategies requires more and more the integration of the previous ones and the present strategy is a case in point. However, because there was a need at this level to fade out the reminders, the revision consisted of only asking the students to mention the previously learned strategies and to provide a brief explanation about them. The students were supposed to be able to use them in combination automatically without being asked to. This would be verified after the assignment of the activities.

- **Presentation of the Strategy of Distinguishing Main Ideas from Supporting Details**

A natural mental process is to create links between already acquired knowledge and newly presented one. Foreign language readers may find this activity a difficult one when reading unless they know the main idea of the material they are reading. Because of this, it is important to teach them how to identify main ideas. As stated above, paraphrasing can help them select the most important information in a material in addition to other effective strategies, mainly previewing, making predictions, activating prior knowledge, relying on textual clues such as the title and other headings and pre-reading other important sections like the introduction and the conclusion. In fact, it is very important to always remind the students to use a combination of strategies because this is a feature of good learners and effective readers. This combination of strategies will enable the students to understand better what they are reading because they enable them to identify the main ideas of the text. To be helped to find out the main idea, the students can ask themselves about the general message or argument stated in relation to the topic of the text being read. Usually, the main idea is found in the first or last sentence of a paragraph, but it can also be found in the middle of the paragraph. However, the main idea is not always explicitly stated, sometimes it is only inferred.

In addition, it is equally important to identify the details which support the main ideas because this clearly helps the reader to understand the writer's point (Anderson 2007).

- **Practice of the Strategy of Distinguishing Main Ideas from Supporting Details**

• **Activity One**

Read the following paragraph, then select the statement that best expresses the author's general message:

John Cabot was the first Englishman to land in North America. However, this man who legitimized England's claim to everything from Labrador to Florida, left no sea journal, no diary or log, not even a portrait or a signature. Until 1956 most learned encyclopaedias and histories indicated that Cabot's first landfall in America was Cape Breton, Nova Scotia. Then a letter was discovered in the Spanish archives, making it almost certain that he had touched first at the northernmost tip of Newfoundland, within five miles of the site of Leif Ericson's ill-fated settlement at L'Anse aux Meadows. Researchers studying the voyages of Columbus, Cartier, Frobisher, and other early explorers had a wealth of firsthand material with which to work. Those who seek to recreate the life and routes used by Cabot must make do with thirdhand accounts, the disloyal and untruthful boasts of his son, Sebastian, and a few hard dates in the maritime records of Bristol, England.

Select the statement that best expresses the main idea of the paragraph:

- a- John Cabot claimed all the land from Labrador to Florida for England.
- b- Much of what is known about Cabot is based on the words of his son, Sebastian, and on records in Bristol, England.
- c- The lack of firsthand accounts of Cabot's voyage has left historians confused about his voyages to North America.
- d- Historians interested in the life and routes used by Cabot recently discovered an error they made in describing his history of North America. (Baudoin et. al 1994: 64)

- **Activity Two**

Write a sentence that expresses the main ideas of the following paragraphs:

Paragraph 1

A summit is not any old summit between two heads of state. Potentates have been visiting each other since the beginning of time. The Queen of Sheba came to visit King Solomon and exchanged riddles with him. Mark Antony came to visit Queen Cleopatra and stayed on. Royalty, presidents and prime ministers and allied nations have sometimes got together after a victorious war to divide the spoils, as they did at the Congress of Vienna in 1814 and then at Paris after World War I. But a summit, in the sense in which Winston Churchill introduced the word into language when he called for one in 1950, is something different and quite specific: it is a meeting between the leaders of two or more rival or enemy Great Powers trying to satisfy their mutual demands and head off future conflict. (Baudoin et. al 1994: 68)

Paragraph 2

The ideals that the children hold have important implications for their school experiences. Children who believe in the value of hard work and responsibility and who attach importance to education are likely to have higher academic achievement and fewer disciplinary problems than those who do not have these ideals. They are also less likely to drop out of school. Such children are more likely to use their out-of-school time in ways that reinforce learning. For example, high school students who believe in hard work, responsibility and the value education spend about 3 more hours a week on homework than do other students. This is a significant difference since the average student spends only about 5 hours a week doing homework (Baudoin et. al 1994: 68).

- **Activity Three**

Read the following text to answer these questions: (Adapted from Anderson 2007: 102-103)

A. Give a title to the text.

B. Write the main idea of the first paragraph and the two missing details:

Main idea: -----

Supporting details:

1. -----
2. Speaking with voice training
3. -----

C. Now write the main idea and five supporting details for the second paragraph.

Main idea: -----

Supporting details:

1. -----
2. -----
3. -----
4. -----
5. -----

Because deaf people cannot hear, they have special ways of communicating. One way is lip reading. With training, people can learn to understand what someone is saying by looking at the mouth of the speaker. Speaking is possible but difficult for the deaf. Because they cannot hear their own voices, it takes a lot of training to be able to make the correct sounds, and not all people can get the hang of this skill. But, the way of communicating that deaf people all around the world seem to think is the most practical is sign language.

In many ways, sign language is similar to spoken language. The ‘words’ of sign language are its signs. The signs are formed with movements of the hands, face, and body. As

with words, each sign has a different meaning. Signs are combined to form sentences. The alphabet of sign language is hand signs that stand for letters; they make spelling possible. The signs combine to form a rich language that can express the same thoughts, feelings, and intentions as spoken language. And just as different countries usually speak different languages, most countries have their own variation of sign language.

In addition to knowing sign language, it is also helpful to know something about how deaf people communicate. Hand waving or hitting a table or the floor to get someone's attention is fine. Also, lots of eye contact is necessary. Hellos and goodbyes for deaf people are not formal; they are long and full of touching and joking. Lastly, it is good to remember that most deaf people do not think of themselves as different from other people, and you don't have to either!

- Description of the Students' Performance

At this level, reminders to use previously learned strategies had to fade out. In fact, the students were supposed to have reached the point when they should use them in combination unconsciously and automatically. In order to verify this, they were asked to describe how they would deal with the activities above. The instructor had to listen to them thinking aloud about the strategies used in the form of class brainstorming. They explained that they would read headings or topic sentences of paragraphs, to try to predict what they were about then verify their predictions while reading. While reading, they said, they would skip unnecessary difficult vocabulary items but try to understand important vocabulary relying on context clues. They also explained that they would first skim the texts to understand the gist, or in other words, the main ideas, then to paraphrase them in order to have a better understanding of what they have read. Finally, they said they would scan the last text to find out its supporting details. For the sake of encouragement and reinforcement,

the instructor praised them for these explanations that revealed that they had become conscious that a combination of different reading strategies has to be used to process texts and informed them that they were on their way to achieve the objectives of the instruction. The students were then asked to form groups for discussion of the main ideas of the different paragraphs in addition to the supporting details of the last text.

Lesson 7: Questioning

- Reviewing Previous Strategies

Like in the previous strategy and for the same reason, the revision step here consisted only of mentioning the previously learned strategies with a brief explanation of each one.

- Presentation of the Strategy of Reviewing

This reading strategy consists of asking questions about the content for better understanding and remembering. As a matter of fact, teachers ask students questions about their reading to direct them to a better understanding of its content and so that they can respond to it more fully. Students also can do the same thing and ask themselves questions when they need to comprehend and employ new information contained in a reading material. It could be very helpful to write the questions when reading a text for the first time. However, when students read more complex academic materials, it is preferable to write a question for every paragraph or short section. The questions should ask about main ideas of paragraphs and not about supporting details and they should be expressed in the students' own words. For the sake of the instruction, this strategy was practiced with the strategy of previewing and both strategies were introduced during the same session.

- **Practice of the Strategy of Questioning**

This strategy was practiced in combination with the previewing strategy. The students had to ask questions about the main idea of each paragraph and section of the short stories they had chosen to read for better understanding.

Lesson 8: Previewing

After the students had sufficiently practiced the strategies introduced, further independent strategy use and promotion of learner autonomy had to be encouraged at this level so that learners can take responsibility for the selection, use and evaluation of the different strategies they have been trained in. Practice should be provided using the strategies with new activities, and students should be allowed to choose the strategies they want to use to complete the language learning task. Previewing is the last strategy in this course and practising it requires the integration of all the previously learnt strategies and so it offers an opportunity to evaluate their assimilation by the students and their use in combination without the need for any reminders. This strategy needed two consecutive sessions to be practiced.

- **Review of the Previous Strategies**

The revision step of this strategy was a very brief one; it consisted of only mentioning the previously learnt strategies with a short description of each one. The purpose is to let the students realise the necessity of using them all in combination automatically without being reminded to.

- **Presentation of the Strategy of Previewing**

This strategy consists of learning about a text before really reading it. It gives the students the chance to have an idea of the content of the text and what type of rhetorical organisation it is developed along before indulging in reading it thoroughly. Previewing involves skimming through the title, the cover, book jacket information, graphic support,

chapter titles, section headings, margin information, and photo captions in order to have a general overview of the structure and content of the reading material (Anderson 2007). On the basis of this information, students can then decide whether the material is worth being read or not. When reading for their own pleasure students can use this strategy as the basis for the choice of only materials which they deem interesting.

- **Practice of the Strategy of Previewing**

Each student was asked in advance to borrow two or three short stories from the training school library and to bring them into the classroom. The instructor decided that students read short stories and not novels so that they could read them in a week time. They had to practise this strategy by considering the title, the information included in both the front and the back covers, graphic support if any, photo captions if any, chapter titles, section headings in order to have a general view of the stories contents. On the basis of this information, they had to choose the short story which interested them most in order to read it. To do so, they will have to practice all the strategies learned in this course.

- **Description of the Students' Performance**

To practice this activity, some students brought two short stories to the classroom, others brought three. After the previewing strategy had been presented to them, they were given sufficient time to practice it. When they finished, each one of them showed her books to the rest of the class and provided a detailed description of the information on both the back and front covers namely the title, the authors' names, the summaries, the pictures. They also showed to the class chapter titles and section headings. On the basis of this information, each student was asked to select the short story which they deemed most interesting to read it at home and to present a paraphrase of it the coming week. No reminders to use the learned strategies were made because the instructor wanted to check whether the students would do it automatically.

The next week, all the students brought their paraphrases to the class and before they started reading them they were given instructions to write on a paper that they would submit to the instructor a detailed description of how they proceeded in their reading. By asking them to do this in writing the instructor wanted to avoid their being influenced by one another if they had to answer orally. After reading the descriptions of their reading strategies, the instructor found out the following:

- All the students said they skipped unnecessary words and relied on the context to guess the meaning of new words.
- All the students said that since the activity was about paraphrasing, they used the RAP steps: Reading, then Asking themselves questions about the content of the stories, then Paraphrasing.
- All the students said that they skimmed through the stories to find out the main ideas.
- Nine students said they asked themselves questions about the content for better understanding and remembering.
- The same nine students said they scanned the stories to find answers to their own questions.
- Five students said they used predicting to improve their understanding.

Consideration of the students' answers shows that all the reading strategies practiced in this course were used by the students to varying degrees. All the students used skipping unnecessary words, guessing the meaning of words from the context, paraphrasing, and skimming. Nine students used scanning and questioning and five students used predicting. It can be claimed then that without using any reminders, the students were able to use a large number of reading strategies in combination automatically. The fact that the learners have

been able to select their own strategies when performing language tasks has therefore facilitated the transition from explicit instruction and guided practice to self-directed strategy use.

Conclusion

The analysis of the first students' questionnaire has identified the causes of the students' lack of motivation to read in English, and the preliminary session of the remedial instruction has confirmed these causes. The present instruction has attempted to train the students in the use of more effective reading strategies that help them deal with texts globally rather than locally in such a way that they may appreciate reading more. In addition, since strategy training requires that students should be helped to evaluate their strategy use as well as their progress towards more responsible and self-directed learning, the students who were concerned with the present instruction were given an opportunity to do this while they performed the last activity related to previewing. Another opportunity to evaluate the instruction and their own progress will be offered to them through answering the second questionnaire in the next chapter.

CHAPTER SIX

USE OF THE NEW READING STRATEGIES

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Introduction

At the end of the strategy training, a second questionnaire that aims at determining the success of the instruction in relation to the students' motivation and mastery of specific reading strategies is administered to the students. The last session of the training was devoted to the evaluation step when the students had to answer the second questionnaire. The results of the two questionnaires will be compared to check the stated hypothesis; i.e., whether or not the training has caused students' motivation to read to increase.

6.1. Description of the Second Students' Questionnaire

The second students' questionnaire consists of two parts, the first of which is about the effects of the reading strategies instruction on motivation to read in English, and the second one is about evaluation of the reading strategies instruction. The first part is made of three sections and the second one of two.

The first section entitled '**Attitudes towards Reading in English**' is made of three questions. The first one asks the students if yes or no they hate reading in English, and if their answer is 'yes' to explain why they feel so (Q2). The third question asks them to say if yes or no they think that reading in English is boring.

The second section is entitled '**Desire to Read in English**' and asks the students if they have a strong desire to read in English (Q4), if they really enjoy reading in English (Q5) and if they tend to give up and not pay attention when they do not understand what they are reading (Q6).

The third section is entitled '**Reading Class Anxiety**' and requires the students to say if they get anxious when they have to answer questions in their reading class (Q7), and if they feel very much at ease when they have to read in English (Q8).

The fourth section is entitled ‘**Attitudes towards the Reading Strategies Course**’ and asks the students if they enjoyed the reading strategies course (Q9), if the strategies training course was useful to them (Q10), if the activities used in the strategies training course were interesting (Q11), and if the activities used in the strategy training course helped them to practise the reading strategies (Q12).

The fifth section entitled ‘**Mastery of Reading Strategies**’ requires the students to say if they have read any novels or short stories since the beginning of the instruction (Q13). If their answer is ‘Yes’, it also requires them to say if they found them easy, somehow easy or difficult (Q14). If they found them easy or somehow easy, the students are supposed to say which strategy (ies) made them so (Q15). In this section, the students are also asked to say which strategy they used to choose a book or a story to read (Q16). In (Q17), they are supposed to say what they do when they encounter unfamiliar vocabulary items while reading. In (Q18), they are asked to say which kind of understanding is more important to them, the meaning of words, individual sentences or whole sections. In (Q19), they are asked to say which combination of strategies they use most while reading. Finally, in the last question of the questionnaire (Q20) they have to explain which strategy (ies) has (ve) particularly been useful to them, and to justify their answers.

Questions from 1 to 8 are exact reproductions of the first students’ questionnaire because they are the most directly relevant to measuring the students’ attitudes and motivation towards reading in English. They will give us an idea about any change or lack of it in this respect. The remaining questions are specific to the present questionnaire, as there is a necessity to evaluate the success of the instruction by the students themselves.

The present questionnaire does not include any questions about students’ attitudes towards the reading teacher for two main reasons. The first one is that the analysis of the first questionnaire revealed that the students’ negative attitudes towards reading and the reading

course are not specifically attributed to the teacher (only 17 students declared that their teacher does not have a dynamic and interesting teaching style (Q19) and only 11 out of the total population have declared that they do not like their reading teacher (Q20). The second reason is that the instructor wanted to avoid any subjectivity by not asking the students about their attitudes towards her. The present questionnaire does not also include any questions about parental encouragement because the instruction does not possess any means of control over this and therefore cannot enquire if it has changed or not. Instead, the instructor has attempted to replace absent parental encouragement by her own constant encouragement through demonstrating the importance of reading in English for would-be English teachers and the means that would facilitate it, i.e., the strategies selected for the purpose of this instruction.

6.2. Analysis of the Results of the Second Student Questionnaire

Part One: Effects of the Reading Strategies Instruction on Motivation to Read in English

Section One: Attitudes towards Reading in English

1. I hate reading in English.

Yes

No

All the students who were selected to undergo the instruction are those who have declared that they hated to read in English in the first questionnaire. After the instruction is over, it seems necessary to enquire whether it has positively affected their attitude towards this activity. Indeed, all the students who have answered the questionnaire have now claimed that they no more hate to read in English. It may be claimed, therefore, that the objective of the instruction has then been achieved.

2. Please, justify your answer.

The 14 students who have answered this question are required to justify their answers.

They have done so as follows:

- a- When I started using the activities especially the one of skipping difficult words, I found it really effective and helpful.
- b- The strategies I have learnt have helped me a lot especially the one of skipping unnecessary words.
- c- I enjoy reading now because I have learnt not stop when I find difficult words
- d- I have started to enjoy reading in English because after I learnt some strategies I do not feel bored anymore.
- e- Thanks to the strategies I learnt.
- f- Because of the strategies I learnt.
- g- I did not like to read in English but now I do thanks to the strategies I have learnt.
- h- I hated it before but now I love reading in English because I have learnt new strategies.
- i- I have started to like to read in English because now the difficult words do not stop me.
- j- I enjoy reading.
- k- I love English.
- l- I like to read in English because I enjoy it so much.
- m- I like to discover new words.
- n- I like to read simple English that I can understand and enjoy reading it.

The results of the first students' questionnaire (Q6 specifically) have shown that the non-motivated students identified for the purpose of this study do hold negative attitudes towards reading because of their comprehension difficulties due mainly to the fact that they

want to understand every word using the dictionary. As a consequence they feel bored and give up reading.

The instruction they have undergone has helped them in the sense that 9 students out of 14 (from a to i) have clearly explained that the change in their attitude was due to the strategies that have taught them to deal better with texts in such a way as not to feel bored or give up reading.

The 5 remaining students (from j to n) have simply stated that they like reading and enjoy it without any further justification. But since the instruction on reading strategies was meant to help the non motivated readers to hold more positive attitudes towards this activity, it can be claimed that it has succeeded in doing so.

3. I think that reading in English is boring.

Yes

No

Following the same line of the previous question, all the students concerned with the instruction have claimed that they do not think that reading in English is boring. As stated above, the reason that the students have given for feeling bored while reading (Q 6 of the first questionnaire) is their use of ineffective bottom-up reading strategies that focus on meaning of individual words rather than whole text. Readers who deal with texts in this way will lose sight of the whole meaning and therefore will perceive no or little purpose for reading and will ultimately give up. It seems then judicious to claim that the instruction on reading strategies that these students have received has helped them to process texts better so that they do not consider this activity boring anymore.

Section Two: Desire to Read in English

4. I have a strong desire to read in English.

Yes

No

All the students who have taken part in the instruction have claimed that they have a strong desire to read in English contrary to what they have already stated in answering the same question in the first questionnaire (Q9). In fact, desire to learn a language and carry out different activities in that language, namely reading in this particular case, is among the constructs that constitute motivational intensity along with attitudes towards learning that language. The results obtained for this question follow logically those obtained for the previous two questions. Indeed, the fact that the students do not hate to read in English anymore implies that they do not think of this activity as a boring one and this has certainly created in them a desire to read in this language.

5. I really enjoy reading in English.

Yes

No

Enjoyment in carrying out an activity is a sign of motivated behaviour. The results obtained for this question reiterate those of the previous one. Desire and enjoyment in doing activities in a foreign language both indicate the existence of intrinsic motivation which is driven by no external forces but only by internal pleasure felt in carrying an activity for its own sake. The students who have all declared that they did not enjoy reading in English in answering the same question in the first questionnaire have now claimed that they really enjoy it. The results obtained for the previous question and the present one, therefore, indicate that the students' motivation to read in English has significantly increased.

Therefore, it can be claimed that the instruction they have received on reading strategies has achieved its objectives.

6. I tend to give up and not pay attention when I don't understand what I am reading.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	01	28.57
No	13	71.43
Total	14	100

Table 6.1. Persistence and Attention when Reading in English

Contrary to their answers to this question in the first questionnaire where the students who were selected for this instruction declared that they tend to give up and not pay attention when they do not understand what they are reading, the majority of them (13 out of 14 students) have now claimed quite the opposite. Effort exerted in the direction of the experiences or goals a person decides to approach or avoid has been included as an important aspect of motivation in Brown's definition (1994). In addition to that, attention is a necessary condition for language learning to take place (Schmidt (1990, cited in Crookes and Schmidt, 1991). Attention and motivation are closely related because definitions of motivation refer to attention and persistence as the behavioural manifestations of motivation. Therefore, a behaviour that is characterised by effort, attention and persistence is an indicator of motivation.

The results obtained for this question, then, confirm those of the two previous ones as they all indicate that the students' motivation has significantly increased thanks to the instruction they have received.

Section Three: Reading Class Anxiety

7. I get anxious when I have to answer questions in my reading class.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	04	28.57
No	10	71.43
Total	14	100

Table 6.2. Anxiety to Answer Questions in the Reading Class

In answering the same question in the first questionnaire, the students who have participated to the instruction have all maintained that they get anxious when they have to answer questions in their reading class. However, in answering it in the present questionnaire, 10 out of 14 students have declared that they do not feel anxious anymore when they do so. Their decreased anxiety can be explained by their increased motivation (demonstrated in the previous questions). High levels of motivation can decrease language learning anxiety, but on the other hand, increased anxiety negatively affects motivation to learn a foreign language and to practice it. At this point, it can be restated that language anxiety is the fear experienced by an individual who has to use a second or foreign language which he/she does not fully master. It manifests itself in a nervous reaction when one has to speak, listen, read or write in the second language (Gardner & McIntyre, 1993).

The fact that 4 students still feel anxious can be attributed to a natural personality trait related to speaking in front of the class rather than to reading itself since even these students have provided answers that indicated an increase in motivation in the previous questions.

8. I feel very much at ease when I have to read in English.

Yes

No

In answering this question, all the students have declared that they feel very much at ease when they have to read in English, including the four students who have already positively answered the previous question. Concerning the latter, the explanation that can be given is related to the nature of reading itself as a solitary activity. So, shy students or those who lack self-confidence or who fear the teacher's reaction feel more at ease when reading alone than when they have to answer questions when all the class is listening. However, on the whole, the results of this question confirm those obtained in the previous ones as they all contradict the negative answers obtained for the same questions in the first questionnaire and point to a significant increase in the students' motivation to read in English.

Part Two: Evaluation of the Reading Strategies Instruction

Section Four: Attitudes Towards the Reading Strategies Course

9. I enjoyed the reading strategies course.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	12	85.72
No	02	14.28
Total	14	100

Table 6.3. Enjoyment of the Reading Strategies Course

Attitudes towards the course of instruction clearly influence a students' motivation. The students with which this instruction is concerned have already been asked about their attitudes towards their regular 'Reading Techniques' course in the first students' questionnaire, and they have shown negative attitudes towards it (questions 17, 18 and 20. In the present question they are asked to express their attitudes towards the special course designed for the instruction on reading strategies. Twelve of them (out of 14) have claimed that they had enjoyed it. This difference in the attitudes may be explained by the fact that the instruction on reading strategies has started with a clear explanation of its objectives that consisted mainly of helping students with reading difficulties to overcome them by learning new effective reading strategies and eventually leading them to liking it. The students were also told that the course was optional and that they were free to attend and that its only purpose was their own benefit. In addition, the small number of the students made it possible for positive interaction to take place and to examine the difficulties of individual learners.

The difference in the attitudes can be explained by a change in the students' motivation towards reading itself demonstrated through the previous questions, or vice versa. That is, motivation to read and positive attitudes towards the reading instruction have exerted a bidirectional influence on one another.

10. The strategies training course was useful to me.

Yes

No

All the students who took part to the instruction have declared that the instruction was useful to them. This is an indicator that the reading strategies instruction has been successful. In fact, an examination of the students' answers to the previous questions may confirm this. Indeed, the students do not hate to read in English anymore, they rather enjoy it; and they do not give up reading when they encounter difficulties anymore. Prior to the training course, the instructor has clearly explained to the participants that this is exactly the objective to be achieved. In addition, the usefulness of this instruction is revealed through whether the strategies learned have helped the students to process written texts effectively or not. This can be demonstrated by analysing the results of the forthcoming questions under the fifth section.

11. The activities used in the strategy training course were interesting.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	11	78.57
No	03	21.43
Total	14	100

Table 6.4. Interest of the Strategies Training Course

The majority of the students (11) have stated that the activities used in the strategy training course were interesting. In fact, performing activities because one thinks they are interesting or enjoyable is an indication that one is intrinsically motivated. In this respect, Ryan and Deci distinguished between two types of motivation based on the different reasons or goals that energize an action, and one of them is intrinsic motivation. That is one is performing these activities because of their interest value, not for the expectation of an external reward. In this particular case, the participants have been eager to perform the activities they were assigned because they have realised that they would help them become better readers so that they would enjoy reading.

12. The activities used in the strategy training course helped me to practice the reading strategies.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	13	92.85
No	01	07.15
Total	14	100

Table 6.5. The Usefulness of the Activities to Practicing Reading strategies

The activities used in the reading strategies instruction would have been of no value if they have not helped the participants to practise the reading strategies. In this respect, all of the students except for one have declared that the activities helped them to do so. The following section includes questions about specific reading strategies and to what extent they have been useful to the students.

Section Five: Mastery of Reading Strategies

13. Have you read any novels or short stories since the beginning of the instruction?

Yes

No

All the students who participated to the instruction have declared that they have read novels or short stories since the beginning of the instruction. Indeed these students have already claimed that thanks to the instruction they have started to like to read, that reading has become a joyful activity in which they persevere and that they no longer abandon it when

they encounter difficulties especially in relation to new vocabulary. All this is an indication that they have in fact started reading. It could be mentioned at this point that during the instruction, the students used to bring materials to class for the instructor to see what they were reading. One student showed the class a book in Arabic that she was reading, and the instructor encouraged her to continue doing so as that may constitute a good start for reading in English. In addition to that, the final strategy practised during the instruction, namely, previewing consisted of bringing short stories to class to preview them before actually reading, then paraphrasing them.

14. If ‘Yes’, did you find them

- a. Easy?**
- b. Somehow easy?**
- c. Difficult?**

Options	N	%
a. Easy	09	64.28
b. Somehow easy	04	28.57
c. Difficult	01	7.15
Total	14	100

Table 6.6. Degree of Easiness or Difficulty of the Materials Read

Among the participants to the instruction, nine students have stated that they found the materials they have read easy, and four of them somehow easy. Only one student has found them difficult. By reference to Q 5 of the first questionnaire, the students who have declared that they hated to read in English have mostly explained it by their difficulties in

dealing with meaning of vocabulary items. They used ineffective reading strategies like using the dictionary that resulted in boredom and in abandon of reading.

After the instruction that consisted of training them in dealing more effectively with texts by focusing on the whole meaning rather than on individual words, the majority of the students have become able to process materials with increased ease. This is also an indicator of the success of the instruction.

15. If you found reading them easy or somehow easy, which strategy (ies) made them so?

This question requires the 13 students who have declared in the previous question that they found the materials they read easy or somehow easy to determine which strategies have enabled them to deal with texts in such a way as to find them easier. The answers provided by these 13 students are displayed as follows:

- a. Skipping difficult words and predicting.
- b. Relying on the context, skipping unnecessary words.
- c. Relying on the context and summarising.
- d. Skimming.
- e. Using the context and skimming.
- f. Skimming.
- g. Guessing from the context, skipping difficult words and skimming.
- h. Skipping unnecessary words, predicting, using the context, questioning and previewing.
- i. Skipping unnecessary words.
- j. Guessing the meaning from the context.
- k. Skipping unnecessary words.

- l. Skipping unnecessary words and relying on the context.
- m. Skipping unnecessary words, relying on the context and skimming.

Examination of the students' answers to this question reveals the following results:

1. Eight students out of 13 have used a combination of at least 2 strategies to deal with reading materials.
2. The most commonly used reading strategies among the participants are skipping unnecessary words and using context clues (used by eight students out of 13). Indeed as mentioned above, and in the first questionnaire (Q6), the participants' major difficulty encountered while reading was due to their desire to understand every new vocabulary items and resulting rejection of reading as this is obviously a tedious and boring task. The instruction's first objective was to make it clear for them that this was an ineffective reading strategy and that the comprehension of every word was not necessary to make sense of the general meaning; some words can be skipped without affecting the general meaning. In addition, context clues can be used to understand words instead of using the dictionary. It seems that the participants have benefited from this instruction as most of them have made use of these two reading strategies to make their reading activity easier.
3. Five students have made use of skimming. By so doing, they have revealed a new tendency to process the general meaning rather than meaning of individual words. This strategy can be used only if the two previously mentioned ones (skipping unnecessary words and using context clues) have been mastered.
4. Two students have used prediction in combination with other strategies.
5. One student has used summarising.

6. One student has also used previewing and questioning in combination with other strategies.

On the whole, students' reading has been facilitated by the use of top-down rather than bottom-up strategies and this may indicate that the objective of the reading strategy instruction has been achieved.

16. Which strategy (ies) did you use to choose a book or a story to read?

This question is asked to check the students' mastery of specific reading strategies.

Strategy (ies) used	N	%
Skimming	06	42.86
Previewing	03	21.42
Skimming + Previewing	03	21.42
Previewing + Predicting	01	07.15
No answer	01	07.15
Total	14	100

Table 6.7. Strategies Used to Choose a Book or a Story to Read

The table above shows the strategies that the students have used as a basis of their choice of reading materials. Six students used skimming, three others used previewing, still three others used these two strategies in combination and one of them has used previewing and predicting. Skimming is quick reading in order to have a general idea of the text being read, while previewing involves skimming through the title, the cover, book jacket information, graphic support, chapter titles, section headings, margin information, and photo

captions in order to have a general overview of the structure and content of reading material. Predicting consists of thinking about what is going to be read before beginning to read, and about what will follow while reading relying on general background knowledge and information in the text. All these reading strategies can in fact be used to decide whether a material is interesting enough to be read. Therefore, the participants have shown mastery of the strategies that help in having an idea about a reading material before actually reading it. They have shifted from focus on individual vocabulary items to consideration of general ideas.

17. While reading, what do you do when you encounter unfamiliar vocabulary items?

Students' answers	N	%
Guess the meaning from the context	05	35.72
Guess the meaning from the context, if I can't I skip the word.	04	28.58
I guess the meaning from the context, if I can't I skip the word. If it is important I use the dictionary	03	21.42
I try to guess the meaning from the context, if I can't I use the dictionary.	02	14.28
Total	14	100

Table 6.8. Strategies Used to Deal with Unfamiliar Vocabulary

As clearly explained earlier in this work, the non motivated readers who have been selected for this instruction have expressed a reading difficulty due to their struggle with the desire to comprehend every new vocabulary item using the dictionary, and as a result giving up as this is a tedious and boring task. The instruction on reading strategies has thus

undertaken to help the participants get rid of this ineffective reading strategy and replace it with more effective ones. The first of these is to skip unnecessary words, then to use the context to check the meaning of important or key words. The dictionary would be left as a last resort to explain only difficult key words.

This question is asked to check the students' mastery of these strategies. Five of them have declared that when they encounter a new vocabulary item, they use the context to understand it. Four of them said that they try to understand it from the context and if they do not, they simply skip it. Three students do the same thing; however, they added that if the word is important they use the dictionary. So, twelve students out of the total number of the participants have shown good mastery of these strategies. Only two students have declared that when they can't guess the meaning from the context, they use the dictionary.

Consideration of the answers to this question allows one to say that mastery of these strategies has contributed to the increase of the students' motivation to read since as an answer to the first question of this questionnaire all the students have declared that they do not hate to read in English thanks to the new strategies they have learned including using context clues and skipping unnecessary words. To answer Q 6, they have also indicated that they do not tend to give up or lose attention when they don't understand what they are reading. These strategies have most probably helped them in this direction.

In answering Q 8, they have declared that they feel at ease when they read in English. Most importantly, in answering Q 15, eight students out of 13 have declared they found the materials they have read easy thanks to these two strategies. It can be stated, therefore, that the strategies practised in this course, specifically skipping unnecessary words and using context clues have relieved the students from the strain felt when they have to read any material in English.

18. Which kind of understanding is more important to you:

- a. Meaning of words?
- b. Individual sentences?
- c. Whole sections?

Options	N	%
a	00	00
b	02	14.28
c	12	85.72
Total	14	100

Table 6.9. What Students Consider of More Importance when Reading

Prior to the instruction, the participants considered words to be more important in reading than whole meaning. Because of this, they abandoned reading when they failed in making sense of words. Therefore, the instruction undertook to change this as a first step towards considering reading a pleasant activity in such a way as to increase motivation towards it. This seems to have worked since none of the students said that the most important thing for them is the understanding of the meaning of words. On the other hand however, twelve students out of 14 have declared that what is most important to them when reading is to understand whole sections and two of them declared that it is comprehension of individual sentences.

19. Which combination of strategies do you use most while reading?

Answers	N	%
Skipping unnecessary words, guessing from the context, skimming	04	28.58
Skipping unnecessary words, guessing from the context, skimming, scanning	02	14.28
Skipping unnecessary words, guessing from the context, skimming, scanning, predicting	05	35.72
Skipping unnecessary words, guessing from the context, skimming, scanning, questioning , previewing	03	21.42
Total	14	100

Table 6.10. Combinations of Strategies Used by the Students

Good readers demonstrate an ability to employ reading strategies that focus on top-down rather than bottom-up processes in combination in order to make sense of whole sections rather than individual words. The instruction which started from realisation that the participants did exactly the opposite while reading undertook to lead them to this orchestrated reading in such a way as to increase their motivation to read.

Consideration of the results to this question shows that four students out of 14 have employed three strategies in combination, namely skipping unnecessary words, guessing meaning from the context and skimming. Two students have used the same strategies in addition to scanning. Five other students have used predicting in addition to the same strategies. Finally, three students have used the greatest number of strategies by adding to the last strategies questioning and previewing. The results obtained indicate that all the

participants make use of skipping unnecessary words, guessing from the context and skimming. The students have thus been freed from the strain of the dictionary and the desire to understand every vocabulary item. The use of predicting, questioning and previewing also reveals a change in the learners' approach to reading from top-down to bottom up processing of reading materials. It may be claimed thus that the instruction on reading strategies has achieved its objectives.

20. Which strategy (ies) has (ve) particularly been useful to you? Please, justify your answers.

The students' answers are reproduced in what follows (14 answers, each one given by one student):

- a. Skimming because when I use this strategy I find everything easy to understand.
- b. Guessing the meaning because it saves time and effort. Skimming because it makes me read faster and concentrate only on general ideas.
- c. Skimming , scanning and questioning because when I ask questions I want to read to find answers to them.
- d. Skipping unfamiliar words and using the context because with these strategies I am motivated to read more than before because they help me to keep reading even if I face unfamiliar words which used to stop me. Previewing also was good
- e. Skipping because when I keep reading and not pay a lot of attention to difficult words I understand the meaning later. Also previewing.
- f. Using the context then skipping unnecessary words because I don't have to go back to the strategies I used before, i.e., using the dictionary that made me feel bored and stopped reading.
- g. Guessing the meaning because I gain time. I don't bother myself using the dictionary every time I face a new word.

- h. Most of the strategies I learnt especially skipping unnecessary words and making the dictionary my last resort because the less I use the dictionary the more I love to continue to read and the more I read without stopping to check the meaning of words the more I am attracted to the book I am reading.
- i. Skipping unnecessary words because it does not take time and helps concentrate on what I am reading. Also questioning, because I read to look for answers.
- j. Guessing the meaning from context because it helped me reading. I used to hate reading not only in English but now thanks to this strategy I tend to read more.
- k. Skimming and previewing because I use them to select what I want to read so that I will be motivated to read it. Also, using the context and skipping unnecessary words because they make my reading easier.
- l. Using the context, skipping unnecessary words, skimming because they help me read more easily. Also questioning because when I ask myself questions I feel I read for a purpose.
- m. Skipping unnecessary words, skimming because I want to focus on general ideas rather than details; they make my reading easier.
- n. Guessing from the context because it saves time, also focusing on general ideas by skimming. questioning and previewing.

The table below gives a summary of the most useful strategies to the students as indicated by their answers.

Answers	N
Using the context	08
Skipping unnecessary words	07
Skimming	07
Questioning	04
Previewing	04

Table 6.11. Most Useful Strategies to Students

The first comment to be made about the answers to this question is that all the respondents have confirmed the results of the previous question by stating that a combination of reading strategies has been particularly useful to them, not only one strategy.

A close consideration of their answers has revealed that the most useful strategy among the students is using the context clues to determine meaning of words (mentioned by 8 students among 14) followed by skipping unnecessary words (mentioned by 7 students). This shows that the participants to this instruction do not consider deciphering the meaning of words as the objective of reading anymore but rather general meaning as already confirmed by their answers to Q 18 above. This is very likely to make their reading easier and more joyful as it relieves them from the strain of having to look up words in the dictionary. Skimming has also been mentioned by 7 students. This is a useful strategy that enables the reader to grasp general ideas which is also a related reading strategy dealt with in the instruction. Three students have claimed that questioning has been useful to them. In fact asking oneself questions about the reading material before effectively engaging in it creates a

purpose for reading and generates motivation to pursue it. Previewing has also been mentioned as a useful strategy by 3 students because, according to them, they can use it to choose what material to read so that they will be motivated to read it.

6.3. Overall Analysis

Analysis of the second students' questionnaire has made it possible to obtain conclusive results about the reading strategy instruction. The first of these is that it has succeeded in changing the students' attitudes towards reading in English. Indeed, they do not hate to read in English anymore, and the majority of them have explained this change in attitude by the strategies they have learned during the special instruction (Q2). Consequently, they do not think of reading in English as a boring activity anymore (Q3).

In the same line, the students have claimed that after the instruction, they have developed desire to read in English (Q4), that they enjoy doing so (Q 5) and that they do not give up anymore when they do not understand what they are reading (Q6). Desire and enjoyment felt when doing activities in a foreign language both indicate the existence of intrinsic motivation which is driven by no external forces other than an external pleasure felt in carrying an activity for its own sake. On the other hand, persistence and attention are regarded as the behavioural manifestations of motivation.

Concerning reading class anxiety, the students have revealed through their answers to Q 7 and Q 8 that it has considerably decreased if not totally disappeared while reading in English. Language learning anxiety in general and reading anxiety in particular decrease as a result of the existence of high levels of motivation.

The students have also expressed positive attitudes towards the reading strategies course (Q 9). Research in the field of motivation has shown that attitudes towards the course of instruction clearly influence a students' motivation. The students have equally declared that they have enjoyed the instruction because they had found the activities interesting and

useful in that they had helped them to practice the reading strategies (Q 11 and 12). Interest is an indicator of the existence of intrinsic motivation.

At this point, therefore, it is possible to claim that the results obtained for all the above questions point to a considerable increase in levels of motivation due to the instruction received by the students on reading strategies.

All the students constituting the focus group have actually read novels or short stories in English since the beginning of the instruction and they have actually found reading them easy or somehow easy thanks to the employment of reading strategies that focus on general text comprehension rather than word comprehension (Q13,14,15). In this respect, the students do not regard understanding of the meaning of words as the most important thing for them as was the case before the instruction, but rather understanding of whole sections (Q18). A mark of change in this regard also is that the students use the context or simply skip unknown words instead of stopping at every new word to look it up in the dictionary (Q17). They have also shown ability in using top-down global reading strategies in combination which is a characteristic of good readers (Q 19 and 20). To conclude, it can be claimed that the instruction on reading strategies has achieved its objectives because it has enhanced in the students' motivation to read in English. This has been possible by teaching them effective reading strategies that focus on global meaning rather than on individual words.

The second hypothesis underlying the present study which is that if students are trained in the use of more effective strategies, their motivation to read in English will increase has then been confirmed.

Conclusion

The students' attitudes towards reading in English have positively been affected by the instruction on reading strategies. Indeed, the students who have participated to the instruction have declared that they do not hate to read in English, and that they do not think of reading in English as a boring activity anymore thanks to the instruction on reading strategies they have received. They have enjoyed reading in English and felt that their anxiety has disappeared while doing so. They have also expressed positive attitudes towards the reading course. In addition, the instruction has helped the students to get rid of bottom up reading strategies that cause them to feel bored and to give up reading, and to use global strategies instead. Therefore, it is possible to claim that the results obtained from the second students' questionnaire point at a considerable increase in the students' motivation to read in English due to the instruction on reading strategies.

CHAPTER SEVEN

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Introduction

In the light of the literature review and the results obtained by means of the field work conducted in this study, the present chapter offers some recommendations and pedagogical implications for teachers of 'Reading Techniques' to be used for the sake of creating in the students motivation to read in English.

7.1. A Reading Syllabus: Strategy Training

The present study has attempted to discover the causes of the students' lack of motivation as a first step towards addressing this issue by suggesting appropriate solutions. We judge that the most appropriate solution to be offered in this context is the provision of a reading syllabus that is based on the teaching of reading strategies that focus on general meaning rather than meaning of individual words and also the assignment of extensive reading activities to students. However, before this is done, it is also judged that it is necessary to lower levels of reading anxiety in students because this is the first step towards enhancing motivation.

7.1.1. Lowering the Level of Anxiety

The non motivated readers who have been identified for the sake of this study have shown that they feel anxious both when they have to answer questions in the reading techniques course and when they have to read in English. Anxiety acts as a hindrance to learning in general and to reading in English in this context in particular. There is a mutual influence between motivation and anxiety in that increased levels of anxiety decrease motivation and vice versa. The training on reading strategies which the non motivated students have received has increased their motivation and therefore decreased their anxiety. In fact, treating these students' problems with the use of reading strategies has immensely contributed to this.

A pedagogical implication of this is that it is necessary to diagnose the learners' problems with reading and if these are due to the use of inappropriate reading strategies, then they have to be treated by training the students to employ more effective ones, namely the reading strategies offered by the present study. New roles have to be adopted by teachers to help in the success of this process (these roles will be discussed in a coming section). In addition to these, teachers are advised to create a more relaxed and healthy atmosphere that makes the students feel confident enough to express their difficulties with their learning process to a teacher who has a less authoritative attitude towards them, is willing to lend an ear to them and who seeks to help them solve their problems.

7.1.2. Reading Strategies

One of the aims of this study is the selection of reading strategies that would enable non motivated readers to process English texts better in such a way as to enhance their motivation to read in English. Before doing this, it was necessary to identify the cause (s) of such lack of motivation. The analysis of the students' answers to the first questionnaire, and their declarations during the preparation step of the instruction made it possible to discover that the students' lack of motivation to read in English is mainly due to their use of local reading strategies that deal with texts on a word-to-word basis. Their need to understand every word using the dictionary causes them to feel upset, bored and subsequently leads them to give up reading.

The achievement of the first aim paves the way for the achievement of the second one which is the selection of a category of more effective reading strategies to be taught by 'Reading Techniques' teachers to first year students of English at the Teacher Training School of Constantine. The objective of teaching such strategies is to guarantee better levels of motivation because they would relieve the students from the strain of trying to explain every new word and rather teach them to focus on global comprehension. Specific details of

the reading material need to be processed only when the need arises using the appropriate type of strategies. Therefore, teachers who were initially provided with only some general guidelines about what they are supposed to do in this subject will be offered a reading syllabus that would point at the right reading comprehension strategies and at how to motivate students to make good use of them to become efficient readers. It is extremely important, then, that teachers of reading themselves be aware of effective reading strategies, their importance in helping learners process texts globally and the necessity of using them in combination for better understanding.

The reading syllabus suggested to the Teacher Training School teachers consists of training first year students to employ the reading strategies that have constituted the core of the instruction offered to the non motivated students identified for the sake of the present study. For instance, understanding every new word in a reading passage is not important in making sense of the general message. Many words can be skipped or ignored and the reader can still grasp the general meaning. Only key words or words that are repeated many times need to be explained. Then, the dictionary is not the only means of doing so. The students should be taught a more active reading strategy which is guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words using context clues. This strategy teaches the students to be self reliant and independent and helps them develop thinking processes because it depends on the use of different resources to be practiced.

The students need also to learn to skim and to scan depending on the purpose for which they are reading. Readers do not always have to read word by word. They may read quickly to locate particular information, i.e., scan through the text without considering every word or detail. They may also read quickly but this time to grasp the gist of what they are reading, i.e., skim through the text disregarding particular information. These two strategies

will teach the learners to approach texts globally which is a characteristic of successful readers.

Prediction is another strategy that requires readers to be engaged in an active process through which they interact with the text in such a way as to discover meaning which is not found on the page or their minds. To do so, readers should think about what is going to be read before beginning to read, and to think about what will follow while reading relying on general background knowledge and information in the text. When the non motivated readers learn to employ this strategy, they will certainly shift their focus from processing words to considering information that is beyond the text itself for better understanding.

Learners need extensive practice of paraphrasing and restatement. This reading strategy which consists of restating information read in a certain text using one's own words helps learners to improve and check their understanding of different types of reading materials and permits them to get and remember the main idea as well as important information contained in the reading material. Therefore, paraphrasing is of the type of strategies that help students who are much word-dependent to get away from this dependence to move to more global reading.

Non-motivated readers who lose interest in reading due to exaggerated focus on word meaning could be helped to read more purposefully if they are trained to read to identify main ideas instead. They can do this by, for example, asking themselves about the general statement or argument stated in relation to the topic of the text being read. Identifying the details which support the main ideas also helps the readers to grasp the writer's point. A combination of reading strategies can be used in order to do so, namely paraphrasing, previewing, making predictions, activating prior knowledge, relying on textual clues such as the title and other headings and pre-reading other important sections like the introduction and

the conclusion. In fact, it is always important to remind learners, whether motivated or not, to use reading strategies in combination.

Usually teachers ask students questions about what they are reading both to help them understand better and to check their understanding. However, it would be beneficial if students are trained to ask themselves questions about the content for better understanding and remembering. This can help them achieve more purposeful reading and take them away from the need to focus on meaning of vocabulary items.

7.1.3. Assigning Extensive Reading Tasks to Students

The strategies proposed to teachers in this work are to be integrated within the reading course rather than taught separately, and to be practised in a cyclic rather than a linear way. There is no one particular order of presentation of the different strategies and more than one of them could be presented and practised in one activity. More importantly, the students should always be reminded that a combination of strategies should be used in dealing with a particular reading task. The reminders need to be gradually faded away so that the use of the strategies becomes unconscious and automatic.

To guarantee that the students make use of all the strategies that have constituted the reading strategies course (and why not other strategies as well), it is important to assign extensive reading tasks to students. It has been stated in the introduction of this work that teachers have realised that students do not read unless they are required to do so. So, if the students are taught the right strategies that help them deal with reading materials in a better way for more global rather than local comprehension, they are very likely to start to appreciate reading and in the long run, this might become a habit. Choice of the books to be read should be left to the students, and using the strategy of previewing may help them in this choice since it helps them learn about the book before really reading it. They need to skim through the title, the cover, book jacket information, graphic support, chapter titles, section

headings, margin information, and photo captions in order to have a general overview of the structure and content of the book they may want to read. On the basis of this information, students can then decide whether the material is worth being read or not.

Reward is also very important if teachers want extensive reading activities to be successful. Since the present study was conducted by a teacher who is not the non motivated students' regular 'Reading Techniques' teacher, there was no possibility to offer them grades for their different efforts and for their extensive reading activity at the end of the instruction. The only form of reward that they received was in the form of constant encouragement and positive feedback that highlighted their progress. However, regular teachers of this course are encouraged to accompany motivational feedback that increases learner satisfaction with grades that would make this activity a more purposeful one.

7.2. The Role of Teachers in Strategy Training

To become fervent readers, young people need to be encouraged by their parents to read right from an early age. The present study has shown that the non motivated students have received no parental encouragement to read in English. We deem it is possible for teachers to replace parental encouragement by their own in order to help students to like this activity, especially regarding the fact that they are future teachers of English who need to be knowledgeable, not only about the English language, but also about the world in general. A very important way of possessing such knowledge is reading. In this respect, teachers need to adopt a supportive attitude towards their students and to become facilitators rather than directors since mastering learning strategies in general and reading strategies in particular assumes more independence and responsibility on the part of learners.

The effect of the implementation of foreign language learning strategy training is the production of learners who are more careful strategists who draw from their strategy options before, during and after performing language tasks. This new thrust for learners has

obviously an impact on the roles assumed by the teachers. In this respect, Cohen (1998, p.97) notes that:

*One potentially beneficial shift in teacher roles is from that of being exclusively the manager, controller, and instructor to that of being **a change agent**_ a facilitator of learning, whose role is to help their students to become more independent, more responsible for their own learning. In this role the teachers become partners in the learning process.*

It should be clarified that the fact that learners assume more responsibility for their own learning thanks to the use of learning strategies frees teachers to focus on supporting their learners' learning rather than puts them out of work. Teachers who are willing to act as change agents and shift the responsibility of learning more on the shoulders of learners are supposed to play a number of roles. However, before teachers assume any role in strategy training, they need first to be prepared to conduct such training.

7.2.1. Teacher Preparation for the New Roles

Two issues need to be taken into consideration in this preparation, teachers' knowledge of language learning strategies, and their attitudes about role changes. Oxford (1990) claims that the more teachers know about language learning strategies, the better trainers they will be. To acquire and expand this knowledge, she advises teachers to read about learning strategies, to attend language learning strategy sessions at professional conferences, to find or create in-service training activities that focus on language learning strategies and to ask their institution to sponsor such training for language teachers. She also explains that teachers do not have to wait until they become experts in learning strategies to start training their students in their use; in fact, any knowledge they have about learning strategies can be of great benefit to their learners.

The second issue related to teachers' preparation is the reconsideration of their attitudes about the roles of teachers and learners. In fact, these roles change in a considerable way when learners become more responsible for their own learning in the classroom as the result

of successful strategy use. Teachers are advised to deeply restructure their beliefs about roles of learners and teachers. Open-minded teachers have probably experienced classroom activities where they are more facilitators than directors. Other teachers who are willing to experiment with such activities but do not know what to do exactly are advised to have discussions with other teachers who are open to new ideas and roles. (Oxford 1990, p. 202).

7.2.2. Cohen's Identification of the Roles of Teachers in Strategy Training (1998)

Once teachers are prepared in the way described by Oxford (1990), they can assume the roles suggested by Cohen (1998, pp.98-102):

Teachers as diagnosticians: This role consists of identifying the learners' current learning strategies and increasing their awareness of them in order to increase the learners' choice and use of these and other strategies. When assuming this role, teachers can make learners more aware of how to learn best. Ideally, teachers serve as catalysts getting the process going for the learners to become ultimately diagnosticians of their own learning. In addition, they need to diagnose their learners' weaknesses and needs in order to gear their teaching activities into this direction. The present study has proposed to teach a number of reading strategies to non motivated readers whose reading problems have been diagnosed by means of a questionnaire. Other students in other contexts may have other difficulties, and it is the role of their teachers to find out what these are and how they are possibly remedied.

Teachers as learner trainers: In this role, teachers train the learners in the use of learning strategies either explicitly and implicitly. It is up to the teacher to decide whether and to what extent to present the strategies explicitly or implicitly. To illustrate this, a teacher may train learners explicitly in strategies for learning new vocabulary words rather than simply leaving it up to the learners to decide what strategies to choose. First, this may depend on teacher preference because explicit presentation of this strategy seems to produce the best results for that teacher. Second, this may depend on the complexity of demands put upon the

learner in processing the teaching material at hand. For example, explicitly drawing the learners' attention to a certain strategy may enhance the transfer of the use of that strategy in other situations. This may also depend on the nature of the strategy itself because some strategies are difficult to learn implicitly.

Teachers as coaches: This role implies that teachers work with individual learners to help them develop language learning strategies. In this case, teachers do not provide learners with strategy training, but rather coach them in areas where they have already received training or in areas where coaching alone could be sufficient in increasing their awareness of useful strategies to carry out certain tasks or of their efficiency at using these strategies. In playing this role, teachers provide learners with guidance in all important areas on a regular basis.

Teachers as coordinators: In this role, teachers oversee the learners' individual study programme and in doing so, they may support changes in this direction and allow a flexible syllabus with an appropriate amount of structure in it. This is an important change for teachers because it consists of a shift from coordinating the teaching to coordinating the learning, and it requires partnership between the teacher and the learner. To illustrate this, learners need to make a precise record of their individual study program: the homework assignments attempted and completed, the relative success encountered, the amount of time spent in studying the language, the problematic and non problematic areas and so on. So, the teacher as coordinator can propose some mid-course corrections that would enable the learner to adopt a study plan that works, one that is based on strategies that the learner can use effectively in the direction of his goals.

Teachers as language learners: Among all these roles, the most useful one for teachers is that of language learners. This is a role that would help teachers better empathise with the difficulties of being a language learner in a classroom. If teachers put themselves in

the role of language learner, they will most probably become more aware of the kinds of challenges and problems that learners are faced with, more sensitive to the learners' needs, and therefore better able to coach and/or train them. Another function that teachers can perform as language learners is that of being 'expert language learners', sharing their learning experiences with learners through introspection and retrospection, for example. Teachers who have mastered the language they are teaching could explain the strategies they have used in order to reach the level of proficiency they have now. Teachers then need to externalise their thinking processes in such a way that the students see how the strategy works.

Teachers as researchers: Finally, teachers can play the role of researchers in relation to all the previous roles. For instance, they can check if the diagnoses of learners' needs are on track and if the coordination of the learning process is working appropriately by making a close examination of learning strategy preferences, choice of activities and outcomes. Concerning the roles of learner trainer and coach, it is possible for the teachers to make a thorough analysis of the learning along with the learners. In addition, teachers can also analyse their own learning of the target language or other languages to find out where they are experiencing success and failure and why.

These new roles for teacher in foreign language learning strategy training do not imply that the need for a teacher is diminished; they roles rather imply that responsibility for learning is shared between learners and teachers.

Conclusion

Our investigation of the strategies that are likely to enhance learners' motivation to read in English has enabled us to provide teachers of 'Reading Techniques' at the Teacher Training School of Constantine with some suggestions that would help them in teaching this subject in such a way as to make of the reading act an interesting and motivating one. They could start first of all by lowering levels of anxiety in their students since this would positively influence their motivation to learn in general and to read in English in particular. A reading syllabus is also proposed to them. It consists of training the students in employing some useful reading strategies that would help them process texts globally rather than on a word to word basis since the present study has revealed that students' lack of motivation to read in English is mainly due to their tendency to understand every word they read. Since success in the use of learning strategies in general and reading strategies in particular is to use them in combination, students are assigned extensive reading tasks in which they are given freedom of choice of their reading materials. Equally important, when training students in reading strategy use, teachers need to be prepared to assume new roles that would change them from being controllers to being facilitators of learning in order to foster learners' independence and responsibility.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

Language learning strategies research departed from a need to find out what distinguished successful learners from unsuccessful ones, and the results obtained pointed at the type of strategies used by both type of learners. In the same vein, research also discovered that the extent to which a reader succeeded or failed in reading largely depended on the strategies employed.

Reading is an active process where readers need to interact successfully with the text to make sense of it by means of effective reading strategies. However, both the quality and the quantity of strategies used to process reading materials can largely affect the reader's desire to pursue this task. Successful reading requires that readers employ a large number of strategies that deal with global text comprehension in an orchestrated way, that is, in combination. Unsuccessful readers, on the other hand, struggle with local linguistic comprehension using ineffective reading strategies, which may hamper their motivation to read.

In this respect, language learning strategies training aims at teaching the strategies employed by successful learners to unsuccessful ones in order to assist them in their learning. This applies to teaching strategies related to all language skills, including the reading skill, which is the concern of the present thesis.

The present study has departed from the hypothesis that if students employ inadequate reading strategies, this will result in lack of motivation to read in English. The second hypothesis on which this study is based is that if the students are trained in the use of more effective reading strategies, their motivation to read in English will subsequently increase. In the light of these hypotheses, a review of the related literature has been made, covering typology and importance of the use of strategies in general, lists of reading

strategies, characteristics of successful readers, strategy training principles and approaches and finally an overview of research on motivation and attitudes to language learning.

The practical part of the thesis has aimed at verifying the already stated hypotheses by means of two questionnaires and instruction on reading strategies. The first students' questionnaire has made it possible to uncover the causes of some students' lack of motivation to read in English. This is mainly attributed to the employment of local word-to-word reading strategies _the use of the dictionary is a case in point_ that cause the students to feel fed up with such a tedious act and therefore to completely abandon reading. The preparation phase of the instruction, which the focus group constituted of 14 students has received, has corroborated such findings since these students have reiterated what they have already declared in the first questionnaire by describing the use of similar local strategies when they dealt with the activity they were assigned in this phase. The results obtained from the first questionnaire and the preparation phase of the instruction have therefore confirmed the first hypothesis on which this work is based which is that the students' lack of motivation to read in English is caused by their use of ineffective reading strategies, namely local, word to word strategies.

On the basis of the results obtained through the above means of the research, a number of reading strategies has been identified to constitute the instruction. The objective of the latter is to help the students get rid of their ineffective local, word-to-word reading strategies and substitute them with global top-down strategies so as to perceive the general message of what they are reading, rather than meaning of individual words in an attempt to lead them to like this activity more and to enhance their motivation to read. To evaluate the success of the instruction in achieving this objective, a second students' questionnaire was administered to the 14 students that constitute the focus group and who were provided with the instruction. The results obtained were positive; they have in fact confirmed the second

hypothesis which maintains that training non-motivated students to use more effective reading strategies will increase their motivation to read in English.

In the light of findings described above, the present study provides teachers of Reading Techniques at the Teacher Training School of Constantine with a description of some effective reading strategies they could use in teaching this subject. They are equally advised to attempt to lower levels of anxiety so as to positively influence the students' motivation and to assign extensive reading tasks to the students. Teachers are also supposed to adopt new roles and act as facilitators of learning rather than controllers in order to foster learners' independence and responsibility. If they do so, they will not only teach their students to read better but also make them realise that reading in a foreign language is not such a boring act, but rather an entertaining one.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: First Year Reading Techniques Syllabus at the Higher School Of Education of Constantine

Appendix II: The First Students' Questionnaire

Appendix III: The Second Students' Questionnaire

Appendix I

Appendix I: First Year Reading Techniques Syllabus at the Higher School Of Education of Constantine

Reading Techniques

(Volume Horaire Annuel 90 Hrs. Coefficient 2)

Types of Reading

-) Listen read.
-) Practice read.
-) Skim read.
-) Scan read.
-) Reflective reading.

Reading Activities.

Appendix II

The First Students' Questionnaire

Personal information

Name and surname

Group

Age

gender

Section One: Interest in English as a Foreign Language

1. I like to learn English.

Yes

No

2. It is important for me to learn English.

Yes

No

Section Two: Type of Orientation Towards Reading in English

3. Instrumental Orientation: Reading in English is important for me because: (You may tick more than one box)

a. I will need it for my future teaching career.

b. It will allow me to acquire more knowledge about the world.

c. It will make me more educated.

d. None of them.

4. Integrative Orientation: Reading in English is important for me because: (You may tick more than one box)

a. It will enable me to better understand and appreciate the English way of life.

b. I will be able to know more about speakers of English.

c. None of them.

Section Three: Attitudes Towards Reading in English

5. I hate reading in English.

Yes

No

6. If 'Yes', please justify your answer.

.....

7. It is not important for me to learn to read in English.

Yes

No

8. I think that reading in English is boring.

Yes

No

Section Four: Desire to Read in English

9. I have a strong desire to read in English.

Yes

No

10. I really enjoy reading in English.

Yes

No

11. I tend to give up and not pay attention when I don't understand what I am reading.

Yes

No

12. If 'Yes', please justify your answer.

.....

13. I really work hard to learn to read in English.

Yes

No

14. If 'Yes', please explain how you do that.

.....

15. When I leave the training school, I give up reading in English because I am not interested in it.

Yes

No

Section Five: Attitude towards the Reading Course

16. 'Reading Techniques' is one of my favourite courses.

Yes

No

17. I think my 'Reading Techniques' class is boring.

Yes

No

18. I would rather spend my time on subjects other than 'Reading Techniques'.

Yes

No

19. My 'Reading Techniques' class is really a waste of time.

Yes

No

20. To be honest, I don't like my reading class.

Yes

No

Section Six: Attitude towards the Reading Teacher

21. I look forward to going to class because my 'Reading Techniques' teacher is so good.

Yes

No

22. My reading teacher has a dynamic and interesting teaching style.

Yes

No

23. I really like my 'Reading Techniques' teacher.

Yes

No

Section Seven: Reading Class Anxiety

24. I get anxious when I have to answer questions in my 'Reading Techniques' class.

Yes

No

25. If 'Yes', please explain why.

.....
26. I feel very much at ease when I have to read in English.

Yes

No

27. If 'No', please explain your answer.
.....

Section Eight: Parental Encouragement

28. My parents think I should devote more time for reading in English.

Yes

No

29. My parents encourage me to read in English as much as possible.

Yes

No

Appendix III

The Second Students' Questionnaire

Part One: Effects of the Reading Strategies Instruction on Motivation to Read in English

Section One: Attitudes Towards Reading in English

1. I hate reading in English.

Yes

No

2. Please, justify your answer.

.....

3. I think that reading in English is boring.

Yes

No

Section Two: Desire to Read in English

4. I have a strong desire to read in English.

Yes

No

5. I really enjoy reading in English.

Yes

No

6. I tend to give up and not pay attention when I don't understand what I am reading.

Yes

No

Section Three: Reading Class Anxiety

7. I get anxious when I have to answer questions in my reading class.

Yes

No

8. I feel very much at ease when I have to read in English.

Yes

No

Part Two: Evaluation of the Reading Strategies Instruction

Section Four: Attitudes Towards the Reading Strategies Course

9. I enjoyed the reading strategies course.

Yes

No

10. The strategies training course was useful to me.

Yes

No

11. The activities used in the strategy training course were interesting.

Yes

No

12. The activities used in the strategy training course helped me to practise the reading strategies.

Yes

No

Section Five: Mastery of Reading Strategies

13. Have you read any novels or short stories since the beginning of the instruction?

Yes

No

14. If 'Yes', did you find them:

a. Easy?

b. Somehow easy?

c. Difficult?

15. If you found reading them easy or somehow easy, which strategy (ies) made them so?

.....

.....

.....

.....

16. Which strategy did you use to choose a book or a story to read?

.....

17. While reading, what do you do when you encounter unfamiliar vocabulary items?

.....

.....

18. Which kind of understanding is more important to you:

a. Meaning of words?

b. Individual sentences?

c. Whole sections?

19. Which combination of strategies do you use most while reading?

.....
.....

20. Which strategy (ies) has (ve) particularly been useful to you? Please, justify your answers.

.....
.....

ABSTRACT

The present study aims at investigating the effect of teaching reading strategies to non-motivated readers on their motivation to read in English. It is based on the hypotheses that some students lack motivation to read in English due to their employment of inadequate reading strategies, and that if they are trained in the use of more effective ones, then this motivation will subsequently increase. A review of the related literature on language learning/reading strategies, language learning strategy training and motivation to learn languages has been made before proceeding to testing the above hypotheses. To do so, a first questionnaire is administered to all first year students of English at the Teacher Training School of Constantine (80 students) in order to identify the non-motivated ones and the cause(s) of this lack of motivation. Analysis of this questionnaire results has made it possible to identify 28 students who lack motivation to read in English. It has also revealed that this lack of motivation is attributed to their use of ineffective reading strategies, namely the use of bottom up reading strategies that focus on word-to-word comprehension rather than whole text comprehension. Fourteen students have then been selected to constitute a focus group to receive instruction on more effective reading strategies that focus on global text comprehension. These reading strategies have been selected on the basis of the findings of the first questionnaire and the results of the brainstorming with the students that took place on the preparation session of the instruction. The presentation phase of the instruction consists of presentation and practice of the selected strategies. At the end of this instruction, a second questionnaire is administered to these students to determine its success in enhancing their motivation to read in English. This constitutes the third phase of the instruction, i.e. the evaluation. The results of the two questionnaire have made it possible to conform the hypotheses on which the present research work is based.

Key words

Language learning strategies, reading strategies, motivation, motivation for language learning, language learning strategy training .

Résumé

Le présent travail de recherche a comme objectif d'investiguer l'effet de l'enseignement des stratégies de lecture à des lecteurs non motivés sur leur motivation à lire en Anglais. Il est basé sur l'hypothèse que quelques étudiants manquent de motivation à lire en Anglais à cause de l'utilisation de stratégies de lectures inappropriées et que s'ils reçoivent un entraînement dans l'utilisation de stratégies plus efficaces, cette motivation sera par conséquent améliorée. Avant de commencer à tester ces deux hypothèses, une revue de la littérature reliée aux stratégies de l'apprentissage des langues et de la lecture, à l'enseignement des stratégies de l'apprentissage des langues et de la lecture et à la motivation de l'apprentissage des langues a été faite. Dans le but de tester les hypothèses sur lesquelles cette recherche est basée, un premier questionnaire est administré à tous les étudiants de première année au département d'Anglais de l'Ecole Normale Supérieure de Constantine (80 étudiants) afin d'identifier ceux qui sont non motivés ainsi que les causes de ce manque de motivation. L'analyse des résultats de ce questionnaire a pu identifier 28 étudiants qui manquent de motivation à lire en Anglais et a révélé que ce manque de motivation est attribué à l'utilisation de stratégies de lecture non efficace par ces étudiants, notamment, des stratégies qui se basent sur la compréhension locale du lexique au lieu de la compréhension globale du texte. Quatorze étudiants ont été sélectionnés pour recevoir une instruction de stratégies de lecture plus efficaces basées sur la compréhension globale des textes. Ces stratégies ont été sélectionnées sur la base des résultats de l'analyse du premier questionnaire et des résultats de la discussion avec les étudiants durant la phase de préparation de l'instruction. La phase de la présentation de l'instruction consiste à présenter et pratiquer les stratégies sélectionnées. A la fin de l'instruction, un deuxième questionnaire est administré à ces étudiants pour déterminer son succès à améliorer leur motivation à lire en anglais. Ceci constitue la troisième phase de l'instruction qui est l'évaluation. Les résultats des deux questionnaires ont permis de confirmer les deux hypothèses sur lesquelles le présent travail de recherche est basé.

Mots clés

Les stratégies de l'apprentissage de langues, les stratégies de lecture, la motivation, la motivation pour l'apprentissage des langues, instruction des stratégies de l'apprentissage des langues

:

تهدف هذه الرسالة إلى بحث تأثير تدريس استراتيجيات القراءة لطلبة غير متحفزين على تحفزهم للقراءة باللغة الإنجليزية. هذه الدراسة مبنية على فرضيتين، الأولى هي أن بعض الطلبة غير متحفزين للقراءة باللغة الإنجليزية بسبب استعمالهم لإستراتيجيات غير فعالة والثانية أنه إذا ما تلقوا تدريباً على استعمال استراتيجيات للقراءة أكثر فعالية فإن تحفيزهم سيتحسن بقدر ملحوظ. قبل الشروع في اختبار هاتين الفرضيتين تم أولاً الإطلاع على الدراسات المرتبطة بهذا الموضوع وتحديد الدراسات المتعلقة باستراتيجيات تعلم اللغات والقراءة والتدريب على هذه الإستراتيجيات وأخيراً التحفيز لتعلم اللغات.

أجل اختبار الفرضيتين الأنفة الذكر تم توزيع استبيان أول لجميع طلبة السنة الأولى اختصاص اللغة الإنجليزية بالمدرسة العليا للأساتذة قسنطينة من أجل التعرف على الطلبة غير المتحفزين للقراءة وأسباب . تحليل نتائج هذا الاستبيان مكن من التعرف على 28 طالبا غير متحفز وحدد أسبابا لذلك ترجع إلى

استعمالهم استراتيجيات غير فعالة للقراءة متمثلة في استراتيجيات تعتمد على فهم المفردات بدلا من فهم . تم بعد ذلك اختيار 14 طالب لتلقي تدريب على استعمال استراتيجيا

فعالية تعتمد على الفهم العام للنص اختيرت اعتمادا على تحليل نتائج الاستبيان الأول. بعد انتهاء هذا التدريب فُدمَ استبيان ثانٍ للطلبة المشاركين فيه من أجل اختبار نجاعة هذا التدريب أو عدمها لتحفيز الطلبة على القراءة باللغة الانجليزية. تحليل نتائج هذا الاستبيان أدى إلى التحقق من صحة الفرضيتين اللتين اعتمدت عليهما هذه الدراسة.

الكلمات المفتاحية:

إستراتيجيات تعلم اللغات . إستراتيجيات القراءة . التحفيز . التحفيز على تعلم اللغات . التدريب على استراتيجيات تعلم