University Mentouri - Constantine جامعة منتوري - قسنطينة Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages كلية الآداب و اللغات Department of English قسم اللغات الأجنبية

The Importance of Extra Work in Motivating Learners towards Enriching Their Vocabulary Stock to Mold Their Writing.

The Case Study of First-Year Pupils

at Tarek Ibn Ziyad High School, Constantine

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment in candidacy for the degree of of Magister in Foreign Language Methods and Methodologies

Board of Examiners

President:	Prof. Moumène Ahmed	Prof.,	University of Constantine
Supervisor:	Dr. Labed Nacif	M.C.,	University of Constantine
Examiner:	Dr. Belouahem Riad	М.С.,	University of Constantine

Submitted by:

Mrs. Toualbia Habiba

Supervised by:

Dr. Labed Nacif

2010-2011

Acknowledgements

First of all, I would like to express my deep gratitude to my supervisor Dr Nacif Labed for his patience, wise guidance and continuous advice.

I wish also to thank all the pupils who made up the population of the study and to the headmaster of Tarek Ben Ziad high school for the help he furnished to make the experiment.

Special thanks are due to all the teachers and professors who taught me much in the university classroom for their continuous encouragement to finish the work.

I wish to thank my family and friends for their love and support throughout the duration of research. To my Dad and Mum who are always by my side for their ever lasting love. Special thanks go to my father-in-law "papa Amar" who is a real father to me and his wife.

I wish to thank my brothers, sisters, sisters-in-law and my nephews and niece: Ayoub, Amir and Chayma.

Finally, I would like to express my special gratitude to my husband for his love and support, and to my two angels Doha and Abdelhamid for being here to amaze my life.

No one accomplishes anything good alone. There are always others who assist us in our journeys. I feel it is important to be thankful for those who have influenced, assisted and supported us in different ways and circumstances throughout our lives from our parents and family, to our teachers, our friends, colleagues and sometimes even mere acquaintances. I would like to recognise all here.

Abstract

This thesis mainly intends at investigating the effect of a method which includes the use of extensive and intensive reading and writing, use of games and movies, in enriching and improving Algerian high school pupils' vocabulary stock and the impact it has on the English writing skill. If we add two more hours per week, learners' proficiency and motivation will likely improve. So to validate and prove the efficiency of suggested activities and techniques, an experiment has been designed to collect data about the pupils' outcomes in an experimental and a control group. Moreover, a set of activities has been proposed to consolidate the effectiveness of the new method over the conventional one. Results of both groups of the experiment revealed that the method under investigation proved to be successful in enriching pupils' vocabulary stock linked to the theme of the unit than does the conventional method provided in the first year textbook, which confirms our hypothesis. Results also shed light on the unconscious improvement of strategy use, by the pupils in acquiring a new vocabulary. Pupils seek clarification, ask for synonyms, look for definitions in the dictionary and take notes. Shy pupils as less competent ones participate in class discussions and give their opinion.

List of Tables

Table 01: Three Views of Motivation
Table 02: Rubin's Learning Strategies Classification
Table 03: Oxford's Learning Strategies Classification
Table 04: Models for Language Learning Strategy Instruction
Table 05: Content of the Extra Work
Table 06: Results of the Control Group Participants (Describing a Character)
Table 07: Results of the Experimental Group Participants (Describing a Character).87
Table 08: Results of the Control Group Participants (Book Review)
Table 09: Results of the Experimental Group Participants (Book Review)90
Table 10: Results of the Control Group Participants (Film Review)
Table 11: Results of the Experimental Group Participants (Film Review)
Table 12: Results of the Control Group Participants (Create a Short Fairy Tale)93
Table 13: Results of the Experimental Group Participants (Create a Short Fairy
Tale)

List of Abbreviations

- 01- BEM:Brevet de l'Enseignment Moyen
- 02- CALLA:Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach
- 03- Ctrl:Control
- 04- EFL: English as a Foreign Language
- 05- ESL: English as a Second Language
- 06- Exp: Experimental
- 07- FL: Foreign Language
- 08-L1: Mother Tongue
- **09- S-R:**Stimulus-Response

Contents

Chapter 1 Learning and Motivation

Introduction	07
1.1.Learning Defined	07
1.1.1 Foreign language within the Learning Theories	08
1.1.2 Cognitive Theory	12
1.1.3 Constructivist Theory	14
1.2. Motivation	15
1.2.1. Motivation Defined	16
1.2.2. Types of Motivation	20
1.2.3. Motivation and Learners' Needs	24
1.2.4. Motivation: Cause or Effect	26
1.2.4.1. Factors Motivating Foreign Language Learners	27
Conclusion	

Chapter 2 Enhancing Language Learning Strategies in Learners

Introduction	33
2.1.Definition	34
2.2. Features of Language Learning Strategies	35
2.2.1Communicative Competence as the Main Goal	
2.2.2Greater Self-Direction for the Learner	36
2.2.3.New Roles for the Teachers	37
2.3.Taxonomy of Language Learning Strategies	
2.3.1.Rubin's Classification of Language Learning Strategies	
2.3.2.Oxford's Classification of Language Learning Strategies	39
2.3.3.Learning Strategies Versus Learning Styles	41
2.4.Learning to Learn the Foreign Language	43
2.4.1.Strategy-Based Instruction	45
2.4.2.Explicit and Integrated Strategy Instruction	46
2.4.3.Means for Strategy-Based Instruction	48
2.4.4.Models of Strategy-Based Instruction	48

2.4.5.Teacher's Role	51
Conclusion	

Chapter 3 The Writing Skill: An Overview

Introduction	54
3.1. The writing skill: definition	54
3.2. Objectives of teaching writing	55
3.3. Writing and the other skills	56
3.4. Vocabulary and the Writing Skill	58
3.5. Role of the Teacher	60
3.6. Approaches to teaching writing	61

Conclusion

Chapter 4 The Research situation Analysis

Introduction	73
4.1 The sample	73
4.2 Procedures	74
4.2.1 Timetable and Activities	74
4.2.2 Content	76
4.2.3 Activities	78
4.3 Data collection Process	81
4.3.1 The Writing Assignments	82
4.4. Results and Implication	84
4.4. 1 Description of Results	84
4.4. 2 Discussion of the results	95
4.4.3 Teacher's Role during the Experiment	99
4.4.4 Putting It Altogether	100
Conclusion and Recommendations	
References	106
Appendices	115

The Importance of Extra Work in Motivating Learners towards Enriching Their Vocabulary Stock to Mold Their Writing. The Case Study of First-Year Pupils at Tarek Ibn Ziyad High School, Constantine

Introduction

Most teachers consider that learning is best achieved inside the classroom with, of course, a wide range of approaches and methods that help not only the teacher in the implementation of the syllabus, but the learners as well. When learning English as a foreign language, as it is the case in the Algerian high schools, three or maximum four hours per week seem very few to provide the necessary input and practice (Krashen, 1987), especially that Algerian High School learners are largely unaware of the professional benefits of learning English.

Moreover, learners are of different types and have different learning styles (Wright, 1987). They use a wide range of strategies (Oxford, 1990). Some learners also are better at learning languages than others (Harmer, 1999). Faced with the different descriptions of the learners, it seems that the teacher's task is rather complex. However, if diverse learners receive all their instruction through teacher direction, they are unlikely to become independent and self-regulated learners (Coyne, Kameenui & Carmine, 2007). Worth mentioning, researchers believe that theory is vital for teachers because it provides insight into why students respond to instruction in certain ways and not in others though theory may not allow for a prediction or an explanation of all the variations in learners. It can nonetheless provide a frame work for understanding commonalities among students and possible reasons for individual variations.

Teachers thus have to go deep inside the learning theories and must be aware of the fact that language is not a set of easy steps that can be programmed in a quick do-it yourself kit.

^{*}Through the whole dissertation, the pronoum"she" is used in its generic meaning.

Few if any people achieve fluency in a foreign language solely within the confines of the classroom (Brown, 2000). Moreover, in recent years there has been a shift from teachercentred instruction towards learner- centred one, i.e. how learners go about their learning tasks in a foreign language. Nowadays, much of responsibility is on the learners to gain the expected accuracy and fluency. Learners and their strategies have begun to receive much interest and attention (Cohen in Oxford, 1990). Oxford (ibid) states that a learner must invent her personal strategies for learning new languages and proposes to travel, live abroad and correspond with foreign

Thus the statement "the teacher as knowledge provider" is no longer appropriate in the foreign language classroom (Hedge, 2000). With the few hours a week, foreign language learners could not achieve the expected proficiency. The Algerian high school learners feel a dire need to recycle their English lessons in order to become competent enough to pass their examinations and continue their studies at the university with success.

However, as far as the writing skill is concerned, no one can deny the importance of vocabulary in enhancing this skill. In addition the secondary school textbooks are designed to emphasise more on grammar rather than vocabulary a fact that creates a routine and automation in the classroom which lead to a feeling of boredom. This will certainly hinder the students from acquiring the foreign language if we add the problem of the short time allocated to learn the language.

Aim of the Study

The present study is conducted to answer the question whether an intensive extra work (intensive-extensive reading and listening to songs and authentic conversations, use of games, storytelling, etc.,) beyond the learners timetable is helpful to develop a set of strategies, acquire vocabulary and use it in their writings, and breed motivation necessary to achieve a better level in learning the foreign language within the curriculum.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

This study mainly aims to find the answers for the following questions:

- 1- Can intensive/ extensive reading and listening result in an enrichment of secondary school learners' foreign language vocabulary?
- 2- To what extend do the types of activities selected for the implementation affect the learners' writing in terms of words use?
- 3- How can fun and hilarity generate motivation to learn (acquire and produce) a foreign language; and improve learners' strategy use?

In the light of these questions, we hypothesize that if we add two more hours per week, learners' proficiency and motivation will likely improve.

Tools of Investigation

For testing this hypothesis, we have chosen as a case study the first year pupils of Tarek Ben Ziad high school Constantine. The choice was imposed on us, since the teacher was assigned two levels: third year scientific stream classes and first year scientific stream classes. And because it was impossible to work with third year classes as the students lack both readiness and time in doing activities they consider fruitless and would help in no way in obtaining a good mark in the Baccalaureate examination, the teacher leaned towards the first year scientific stream classes. To get valuable results about the importance of intensive extra work beyond class time we deemed it appropriate to go through the experimental method: we have a control and an experimental group. The Experimental group: eighteen first year science students will perform tasks beyond their class timetable during the second and the third terms of the school year 2007-2008. These activities consist of using vocabulary and grammar games, puzzles, reading tales, listening to tapes, and watching movies during two extra hours added to the already existing three hours per week.

The Control group of eighteen first year science students will receive classroom instruction only during their conventional class timetable.

Data Gathering Tools

Data of the experiment will be gathered from the analysis of the pupils' outcomes after each activity assigned to both groups of the experiment. The experimental group however, will receive the independent variable during twenty hours i.e. intensive and extensive reading and listening to the fairy tales, songs, vocabulary games, etc. Data collection about the behaviour of the pupils during the activities about strategy use and any improvement in the experimental group participants' writings in terms of word use will be tabulated in an observation grid.

Organisation of the Study

This study consists of four chapters. The first three chapters provide a literature review about key issues of the field work. Chapter One is devoted to discuss learning with a focus on foreign language learning in particular. It goes further to provide some theory about the factor of motivation so essential to generate or prevent success in learning the foreign language.

The second chapter deals with the foreign language learning strategies. It exposes some strategies classifications, and the notion of helping learners learn how to learn to raise their autonomy. Strategy-Based Instruction thus, provides some models like the CALLA model and the Grenfell & Harris model which advocate the integration of SBI in the language learning process.

The third chapter of the research provides the gist about the writing skill, its relationship with the other language skills, mainly, reading and the importance of vocabulary as the currency of communication. More information will be provided about the different writing approaches from process to creative approaches, in addition to the role of the teacher in teaching this skill.

The last chapter of the study provides the procedures and the content of the experiment. Then, it analyses the results obtained during the experiment of the two groups and includes a synthesis of the research findings. Finally, we will provide a discussion of pedagogical implications and recommendations.

Chapter 1 Learning and Motivation

Introduction	07
1.1.Learning Defined	07
1.1.1 Foreign Language within the Learning Theories	
1.1.1.1Behaviourist Theory	09
1.1.1.2Classical Conditioning	09
1.1.1.3Operant Conditioning	10
1.1.2 Cognitive Theory	12
1.1.3 Constructivist Theory	14
1.2. Motivation	
1.2.1. Motivation Defined	16
1.2.2. Types of Motivation	
1.2.2.1. Integrative Orientation	
1.2.2.2. Instrumental Motivation	21
1.2.2.3. Integrative versus Instrumental Motivation	
1.2.2.4. Extrinsic versus Intrinsic Motivation	
1.2.3. Motivation and Learners' Needs	
1.2.4. Motivation: Cause or Effect	
1.2.4.1. Factors Motivating Foreign Language Learners	
1.2.4.1.1. Storytelling	
1.2.4.1.2. Use of Music: Songs and Singing	
1.2.4.1.3. Vocabulary Games	
1.2.1.5.4. Use of Videos	
Conclusion	

Chapter 1

Learning and Motivation

Introduction

In this chapter we will provide some literature about the process of learning and discuss its principles and theories which have a relation with foreign language learning. We shall also investigate the factor of motivation and the role it plays in the learning of a foreign language, where we shall talk about the different theories that underlie this affecting factor and go further to see the different connections with the present case study.

1.1.Learning Defined

How do we come to know something we ignored before and use it? In other terms what is this process called "learning"? What are its bases? And what theories underlie it? Learning has gone through centuries of thought and investigation and is still under study. It has generally been understood by common people as being the process of giving knowledge by a teacher, and accumulating knowledge by learners (Labed, 2007). But with specialists of the field, learning has jumped from being a mere repetition and memorization of words and actions to complex processes of doubt, reflection and problem solving which would consciously and/ or unconsciously enable human beings retain and use the learned behaviour whenever needed.

In psychology, a common definition of learning is that it is a process that brings together cognitive, emotional and environmental influences and experiences for acquiring, enhancing or making changes in one's knowledge, skills, values, emotions, senses and world views (Feldman, 2000). Moreover, there are many other definitions which in a way or another, all agree that learning is a "relatively permanent change in behaviour including observable activity and internal processes such as thinking, attitudes and emotions brought about by experience." (Feldman, 2000). Child (1973) on his part, sums up a clear definition and states that "learning occurs whenever one adopts new, or modifies existing, behaviour patterns in a way which has some influence on future performance or attitude". (p. 81). These definitions distinguish between behaviours that are the result of factors other than learning, changes due to maturation, for instance (Feldman, 2000), and behaviours that are the result of actual learning. They shed light on the complexity and the difficulty encountered by psychology and any other related field in reaching a common definition of learning and its principles, partly because it is a human aspect and also because it is a process in a continuous state of flux. In this stream of thought, there are three main categories or philosophical frameworks under which the commonly expected learning theories fall: behaviourism, cognitivism and constructivism.

1.1.1. Foreign Language within the Learning Theories

Learning a foreign language is different to learning other subjects. That is why a basic knowledge of foreign language theories is extremely useful for teachers, since it provides them with appropriate content area instruction. The explanation of what happens constitutes the learning theories. Theories provide us with vocabulary linked to this field and a conceptual framework for interpreting the examples of learning under observation. They suggest no solutions but they direct our attention to variables that lead us to find solutions to practical problems. Therefore, before presenting the forgoing theories, which would help teachers have some understanding of educational and applied subject theory, without which they will be mere technicians. Since learning theories affect the way a person uses any particular device or behaves in any given situation, instruction can be structured around making learning most effective.

1.1.1.1. Behaviorist Theory

Behaviourism, a term first coined by Watson (1913), to the findings on classical conditioning. Behaviourism was most developed by Pavlov (1927) and Skinner (1954) and also includes the contribution of researchers like Thorndike (1934) and Hull. Their claim is that all animals, as well as man, are born with a set of instinctive responses to external stimuli. They tried to explain all learning in terms of some form of conditioning (Williams and Burden, 1997). The main characteristics of this stream of thought are that learning is noticed by a change of behaviour, that this behaviour is shaped by environment, that reinforcement-which is the process by which a stimulus increases the probability that a preceding behaviour will be repeated- is central to explain the process of learning either classical or operant conditioning.

1.1.1.2. Classical Conditioning

It is a kind of learning in which a previously neutral stimulus comes to elicit a response through its association with a stimulus that naturally brings about the change, known as classical conditioning. Pavlov attached a tube to the salivary gland of a dog, which allowed him to measure precisely the amount of salivation that occurred. He then sounded a bell and, just a few seconds later, presented the dog with meat. The time that elapsed between the presentation of the sound and the meat occurred repeatedly. At first, the dog would salivate only when the meat itself was presented, but soon it began to salivate at the sound of the bell even when Pavlov stopped presenting the meat. The dog had been conditioned to salivate to the sound of the bell. Pavlov interests were strictly to do with physiological reflex actions that

help learning to take place by acquiring response through conditional ties to these reflexes (Feldman, 2000:152-3). He demonstrated that a response (salivation) generated by one unconditioned stimulus (meat) could be produced by introducing a second conditioned stimulus (sound of the bell) at the same time this came to be known as S-R (stimulus – response) theory of classical conditioning.

Pavlov contended that human behaviour should be studied objectively. He rejected then the idea of innateness and instinct (Brown, 2000). For him Conditioning was the sole explanation for all learning since behaviours are learned by building up series or chains of response.

1.1.1.3. Operant Conditioning

A theory developed by Skinner (1974) (in Brown, 2000) founder of modern behaviourism in the United States, and also known as radical Behaviourism. Skinner created a chamber with a highly controlled environment used to study conditioning processes with laboratory animals. These animals were to learn to obtain food by operating on their environment within the box, i.e. the animal will probably peck the key by chance and will receive a food pellet. The first time this happens, the animal (rat, pigeon, etc.) will learn the connection between pecking and receiving food and will continue to explore the box. Sooner or later the pigeon will again peck the key and receive a pellet until it satisfies its hunger. Skinner called the process that leads the animal to continue pecking the key "reinforcement". Thus, the word "operant" refers to the way in which behaviour operates on the environment, i.e. the range of behaviours that organisms' perform. It deals with the modification of voluntary behaviour that may result either in reinforcement which increases the reoccurrence of the behaviour or punishment which decreases the reoccurrence of the behaviour. For Skinner, the importance of stimuli is de- emphasized; focus is on the consequences or the stimuli that follow the response. These consequences tend to strengthen behaviour by the notion of reinforcement (reward / punishment). Skinner (1974) proposes to provide a positive reinforcement to mete the undesired behaviour out, instead of a negative reinforcement which would not extinguish a negative behaviour (Brown, 2000). Furthermore, Child (1973) in his book entitled "Psychology and the teacher" mentions that Skinner has drawn several valuable conclusions about learning from his experiments: First, learning is a process that should be built on short steps based on learners capacities; second, that this learning should be regularly rewarded and that this reward should follow quickly when the correct response appears (feedback based on the principle that motivation is enhanced when we are informed of our progress); and third, that the learner should be given an opportunity to discover the difference between stimuli which lead to the most likely patterns to success. However, instead of controlling the response by the experimenter who determines when and what to present as stimulus in the Pavlovian theory, one must wait for the desired response to happen before learning can proceed in the Skinnerian conditioning. It is only when this response appears that reinforcement (Child, opcit).

Today different approaches and methods for teaching the foreign language have been devised on the principles of both theories. The drilling activities for instance, which owe its success to both classical and operant conditioning, have proved to be very useful in helping learners memorize long lists of vocabulary. This belief was the basis for the Audio lingual Method that flourished during the after World War II period. It was characterized by the great deal of oral activity-pronunciation and pattern drills and conversation practice. They supported conditioning and habit formation models of learning and experienced success and popularity during a good period of time. Errors could not be tolerated under this approach because their toleration would give room to the development of 'bad habits'. However, the failure of this theory in teaching long term communicative proficiency was its major drawback. As far as the study in case is concerned, both drilling activities and reinforcement played an important role in motivating the experimental group to learn the foreign language. Each time they were given an opportunity to encounter the new vocabulary and use it in their writings, they were rewarded with the chance to bring their own material (bring a song, a movie).

1.1.2. Cognitive Theory

Although psychologists do not deny the importance of classical and operant conditioning, they criticize behaviourists for being too dependent on overt (observable) behaviour to explain learning. This is what led psychologists like Kafka and Köhler (1900) who founded the *Gestalt* school on the basic principles of studying perception of a better understanding of the process of learning. For this school, focus was on the term "insight" which describes the sudden immediate, repeatable and transposable behaviour (Child, 1973). The *Gestalt* psychologists emphasized the human's ability to perceive patterns as "wholes" and this came to be labeled later as a cognitive theory.

Cognition is concerned with the study of thought processes that underlie learning and has developed approaches that focus on the unseen, mental processes that occur during learning. The learner, not environment, is seen as an active participant in the learning process, using various mental strategies to learn. According to Ausubel (In Brown, 2000), learning takes place in the human organism through a meaningful process of relating new events or items to already existing cognitive concepts or propositions, in other words, the important role played by prior knowledge. He tries to explain the theory of learning by comparing both rote learning and meaningful learning. To Ausubel, rote learning involves mental storage of items having little or no association with existing cognitive structures. Whereas, meaningful learning is described as being a process of relating new material to relevant established entities to cognitive structure. William James (1890)described meaningful learning and explained:

"In mental terms, the more other facts a fact is associated with in the mind, the better possession of it our memory retains" (p:662, cited in Brown, 2000 p: 85).

The cognitivists, much influenced by Piaget's works(1927), see that logical thinking underlies the linguistic development. Cognitive thoughts recognize that learning is not only the recall of facts but also involves memory, reasoning, critical thinking and problem solving. Thus learners notice a pattern and construct their own rules. They benefit from their own mistakes since they are active participants in the foreign language learning process. Moreover, Ausubel's (1968) theory of learning, which has important implications on foreign language, emphasizes the importance of meaning and meaningful contexts for linguistic communication. Ausubel (opcit) explains that too much rote activity at the expense of meaningful communication in the foreign language classroom could hinder the learning process (Brown, 2000).

In the case of the present study, the teacher researcher focused much on discovering and improving students' learning strategies. Many cognitive strategies like sourcing, matching, note taking and summarising were used during the implementation phase with the experimental group which aimed at enriching the learners' vocabulary stock. Many approaches to cognition helped in reinforcing the idea of the study in point among which we can list the information processing approach which includes factors such as attention, perception and memory.

13

1.1.3. Constructivist Theory

Also known as social constructivism, the constructivist theory has more of an affective focus than a cognitive one. Rogers (1969) and Vygotsk's views (1978) about the social interactive nature of learning suggest that learners develop mature thinking through the process of an active construction of new ideas or concepts based upon current and past knowledge or experience. Rogers advocates the studies based on viewing the learner as "whole" from a cognitive, physical and primarily emotional perspectives. The learner is said to internalize concepts, rules or general principles which he/she may use in a real life context thus, constructing one's own knowledge from one's own experience. This construction is done by experimentation and not by being told what will happen. Learners are left to use cognitive strategies as tools in order to make their own references, discoveries and conclusions (Chamot et al, 1999). Vygotsky (1962) explains how language and thought are intertwined and mutually influence each other. It is through the medium of language that an individual expresses his/her thinking about the world precisely. Vygotsky (1978) also states that learning results from the social interaction between the teachers and their learners, in a non-threatening environment i.e., a learning environment where the learner does not feel shame or fear to respond to an instruction or communicate with the teacher and the other learners, which stimulates the construction of new ideas and even increases the learners' intellectual development. They will form a self concept of reality which is congruent with real world context where they will grow and learn.

In an educational pedagogical context, mainly, in foreign language learning the focus is on enabling learners develop skills and strategies which will help them learn. Teachers, therefore, like learners, are active participants. They have to create perfect contexts for interaction between learners using the foreign language which has a significant impact on their social being. Learners will adopt a social and cultural behaviour and ways of thinking different to their own society and culture, a fact which may result in a variety of factors that are likely to promote or rather militate against success like motivation and anxiety. This is a fact that can be noticed with the participants of the experimental group who were given ample opportunities to work in groups, read together, discuss the tales in cooperation and bring some authentic material (authentic pop songs, fairytales, etc.,) where discussion was open to talk about native speakers' culture and lifestyles. Even if there were pros and cons, every single student could express him/herself freely using their previous experiences.

1.2. Motivation

Introduction

Language teachers and researchers currently place much importance on the role of the learner and his characteristics such as learning styles, strategies, attitudes, and motivation, to name just a few, which are currently viewed as essential factors to be considered in the language learning process. As motivation is of great significance in foreign language learning (Gardner, 1985), I propose some literature about it in this chapter dealing with language learning.

Learners learn a foreign language because they want to acquire, use or communicate with those who speak the language, or perhaps they want to know their culture and learn about the country where this language is spoken. Thus, most researchers agree that motivation plays a major role in the learner's foreign language achievement. It is one field of language learning which has received much attention in the past decades, and researchers to investigate the factors that contribute to the learner's performance. Even though its importance is widely recognized, motivation remains elusive and complex, it appears to be simple and easy but it is so difficult to define. Convington (1998:1) states that motivation, "like the concept of gravity, is easier to describe- in terms of its outward, observable effects- than it is to define".

1.2.1. Motivation Defined

When we read or hear the word motivation many words and expressions are triggered in our minds: goal- desire- will- effort- ambition- energy- persistence- achieveinspire- reward. The word motivation comes from the Latin verb "movere", which suggests the idea of movement. A great amount of research on motivation is on how the process of motivation operates and what influences motivation. Thus, in order to approach this concept, one has to search into psychology where several theories prevailed with, of course, no consensus on one global definition of motivation. Three close branches to define motivation are worth mentioning here: (1) motivation within traditional psychology, (2) motivation within educational psychology, and most obviously (3) motivation within foreign language learning.

Traditional psychology thus, has been interested in motivation in relation to human behaviours in general and focuses on the theoretical questions and research methodologies necessary to explore questions about personal traits or situational differences that allow researchers to make predictions about human behaviour in specific situations (Brophy, 1999). Moreover, research on motivation has generally been focused on three broad theories, the Behavioural, the Cognitive, and the Constructivist.

Behavioural theorists, on one hand, saw motivation as a response to changes in environmental events or stimuli, and acts were seen as direct response to external forces in anticipation of a reward. Skinner (1954) and Thorndike (1934) conceptualized motivation as a drive created by deprivation of some needs like hunger, thirst, sex, etc. Later, a new wave of thought prevailed and gave way to the Behariourist theory. Its advocates are the Cognitivists such as Ausubel, Ames and Bandura who emphasized the role of individual mental processes and personal beliefs, thoughts and emotions which are said to be components of motivation. Keller (1983) points that "the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect."(p. 389)

The Social Constructivist theory, on the other hand, which has become prevalent within the last three decades, introduced the concept of the importance of social context along with individual choices in motivation: motivational behaviour occurs within a social milieu (Child, 1973) and cannot be separated from it. In a similar vein, Brown (2000) summarizes the three approaches to motivation within traditional psychology as shown in table (2.1) below

Behaviouristic	Cognitive	Social constructivist
-Anticipation of	-Driven by basic human	-Social context
reward	needs (exploration,	-Community
-Desire to receive	manipulation, etc)	-Social status and
positive reinforcement	-Degree of effort expended.	security of group
-External individual	-Internal individual forces	-Internal, interactive
forces in control	in control	in control

 Table2.1. Three Views of Motivation (Brown, 2000: 163)

Educational psychologists tend to put emphasis on motivation to learn in educational contexts (classrooms). Their primary interest is to elaborate classroom methods and strategies to maximize students' motivational behaviour.

For that reason they have sought to develop a variety of theories to explain motivation in classroom and study it from individualistic, social and contextual perspectives. Brophy states:

"This implies the need for scholarship on motivation in education to develop at least in part as a separate field of inquiry with its own unique questions and research methods, and not merely as an area of application for principles developed through scholarship on the psychology of motivation" (1999:30)

The variety and richness of approaches and theories trying to understand human motivation are essentially brought to the field of foreign language learning because of the importance assigned to motivation in the learning of foreign languages. Corder (1981) goes so far as to say that "given motivation, it is inevitable that a human being will learn a language if he is exposed to the language data". (p. 8), this means that motivation is the fuel that energizes the learning process which would certainly take place with the different material exposed or used. In the classroom, for instance, effective learning will take place when the learners are firstly invited to do an activity that generates fun and entertainment. The case of using songs with the experimental group of the present study will shed further light on that matter. Moreover, many prominent theoreticians have made important contributions to understanding language learning motivation. But perhaps the most consequential of the early researchers on motivation within foreign language learning were Gardner and Lambert in Canada (Gardner and Lambert, 1975). Their work began in the 1960's and resulted in the Socio-Educational Model of Second Language Learning in 1993 which is concerned with the role of various individual differences in the learning of a foreign language. In the Socio-Educational model, Gardner (1982) attempts to interrelate four features of foreign language learning: the social and cultural milieu, individual learner differences, the setting and the context. The model includes the most influential elements in foreign language acquisition

which are the four individual differences: intelligence, language aptitude, motivation and situational anxiety. For motivation in learning the foreign language, Gardner (2001) explains that three elements are prominent: first, the motivated individual expends *effort* to learn the language; second, the motivated individual *wants* to achieve a goal, i.e. the desire to learn; and third, the motivated individual will *enjoy* the task of learning the language.

Not different from Gardner, William and Burden (1997) on first position state that motivation is composed of many different and overlapping factors such as interest, curiosity and a desire to achieve a particular goal by someone who has that disposition. It may be constructed as a state of cognitive and emotional arousal which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal.

In the same vein, Brown (1994) observes that "motivation is probably the most frequently used catch-all term for explaining the success or failure of virtually any complex task" (152). To Littlewood (1991) motivation for foreign language learning is a long and a 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'.(p.53)

Moreover, the questions asked by Dornyei (2001) would confirm what all researchers and theoreticians have advocated. He states that motivation is concerned with the following components: (a) why people decide to do something, (b) how long they are willing to sustain the activity, and (c) how hard they are going to pursue it.

In summary, motivation is a dynamic factor which initiates and influences directly the learner's behaviour in learning a foreign language and helps him / her determine how to choose the good strategies to learn and acquire the foreign language skills.

1.2.2. Types of motivation

The trend towards motivational theories related to classroom learning has generated more interest among language teachers and researchers of foreign language learning. To better understand the students' motivation for learning the foreign language, it is helpful to examine the literature in two relevant areas of the integrative and the instrumental motivation and the factors affecting such learning. Gardner (2001) identified these two types of motivation to understand the learner's ultimate goal or purpose for learning the foreign language in order to understand why she is motivated. He refers to this as the learner's orientation, a characteristic which when present to any considerable degree tends to guarantee a high measure of success in foreign language leaning (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991).

1.2.2.1 Integrative orientation

The term integrative denotes the desire for integration i.e., the willingness to become a member of another language group since the learner perceives that group favourably and possibly as having higher status than his own group. The learner wishes to learn a foreign language in order to communicate with people from another culture that speak that language. He tries to assimilate to some degree in the target language community. As Gardner (op.cit) contends, integrative orientation of foreign language learning is "a complex of attitudinal, goal directed and motivational attributes". The integratively motivated individual is one who is motivated to learn the foreign language, and has the desire or willingness to identify with the other language community and tends to evaluate the learning situation positively. Such an individual is thought to have an internal, more enduring motivation for language study which is expected to lead him to a successful acquisition of a wide range of registers and a native like pronunciation. Earlier studies by Gardner and Lambert (1975) have already shown that the learner's attitude plays an important role in feeding that desire for integration. Developed early in childhood, attitudes are the result of parents' influence, contact with people who are different in a number of ways, and of interacting affective factors in the human experience. They form a part of one's perception of the self, of others and of the culture in which one is living. The attitude learners have towards the members of the cultural group of the target language defines the degree of motivation to learn that language (Brown 2000). Students who like people that speak the language (see them as helpful, friendly and intelligent), admire their culture and have a desire to become familiar with the society in which the foreign language is used feel motivated to acquire that language. Oller et al (1997) studied educated Chinese speaking ESL students and found that those who considered Americans as helpful, sincere and friendly did good in a cloze test of English as a foreign language.

1.2.2.2 Instrumental motivation

From another side, there may be factors contributing to motivation other than integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation. Instrumental orientation then, stands as being an interest in learning the foreign language for pure pragmatic reasons. It describes a group of factors concerned with motivation arising from external utilitarian goals such as school credits, passing an exam, reading a technical material, facilitating the study of other subjects through the medium of the foreign language, furthering a career, having a high pay based on language ability, and so forth Brown,(op.cit). The desire is more practical and concrete rather than being interpersonal. The learners see language learning as enabling them to do other useful things, but as having no special significance in itself. They have few signs of interest in members of the other cultural group. Instead, they are willing to use them and their language as an instrument for personal satisfaction.

1.2.2.3 Integrative versus Instrumental motivation

Much debate and controversy among researchers and educators have been taking place about which kind of motivation is more important for the foreign language learning. A great majority of the research on this issue advocates the trend leaning to the importance of integrativeness over instrumentality. Gardner and Lambert (1972) hypothesise that instrumentality is less effective than integrativeness because it is not based in the personality of the learner. It depends on external pressures, and consequently the learner will lack the willingness to achieve progress in learning the foreign language. Moreover, 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 drawback of instrumental motivation. They go further to state that an integratively oriented learner is more persistently and intensely motivated than other learners. He would likely have a stronger desire to learn the foreign language, have more positive attitudes towards the learning situation and would likely expand more effort in learning the foreign language. This confirms the studies carried out by Spolsky (1969) who found that integrativeness generally accompanied higher scores on proficiency tests in a foreign language. It was indeed an important requirement for successful language learning. The learner with integrative orientation of motivation seizes every opportunity to learn and to work. Learners volunteer more frequently in class, give more correct answers, appear to be more interested and receive more positive reinforcement than those who are not so motivated. The higher learners' integrative motivation, the more evident are the classroom behaviours that show that the learners are really active, thus achieve greater foreign language competence(Gliksman et al, (1982)).

But, foreign language learning in a classroom setting could not logically involve attitudes towards the foreign language community because the learners have little or no

22

contact with members of that community. Instrumental goals play indeed an important role in the learning of the foreign language. In addition, not all high school students are seeking integration with a new language group. There are learners who do not like to study, but they have to because they have pressure from their parents, peers, teachers and so forth. This is a type of motivation which cannot belong to either of the two motivational orientations.

Thus, foreign language motivation should not be considered as a force choice between these two orientations they are not opposite ends of a continuum (Dornyei, 1994). Instead, they are positively related. Both types are important. Brown (2000) states that foreign language learners rarely select one form of motivation when learning the foreign language. A learner might learn a foreign language well with an integrative motivation or with an instrumental one, or indeed with both. Both orientations may lead to success, but lack of either causes problems.

1.2.2.4. Extrinsic versus intrinsic motivation

Another distinction has been proposed by many scholars as Deci and Ryan (1985) is that between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. On one hand, they claim that learners who are interested in learning tasks and outcomes engage in them for their own sake to satisfy their curiosity. This is viewed as most beneficial in the classroom. It is often equated with fun and enjoyable activities. Intrinsic motivation, which is stronger for long term retention (Piaget, 1972), is then not linked to any tangible reward that the task will bring, but rather aims at bringing about certain internal consequences, namely, feelings of competence and selfdetermination. It is defined as the desire to engage in an activity for its inherent satisfaction rather than some separable consequences as pointed out by Ryan & Deci (2000). Intrinsically motivated learners usually display intellectual curiosity, find learning fun and continue seeking knowledge even after the formal instruction (classes), which is after all the major goal of education.

Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, causes learners to do a task for a tangible reward. The reason for performing an act is to gain something outside the activity itself such as passing an examination, getting money, winning a prize or having higher grades and even gaining certain types of positive feedback or avoiding punishment. In an educational context (classroom), the task is initiated and regulated by the teacher (an external origin). The learners are involved in a regulation by following the teacher's rules and avoiding embarrassment.

To conclude, and as we have seen with integrative and instrumental motivation, views are confronting each other claiming the prominence of one type over the other. An illustrative example is the view of Maslow (1970) that says that intrinsic motivation is clearly superior to extrinsic. People strive for self-esteem and fulfillment regardless of the presence or absence of extrinsic rewards, though reality counts endless cases struggling for concrete results after a certain period of instruction.

1.2.3. Motivation and Learners' Needs

A great majority of theoreticians and researchers agree that human beings engage in particular tasks on the basis of underlying needs. Hence, many classifications of needs have been provided among which Maslow's classification is the most important. Maslow (1970)(in Adler,1977) assumes the existence of a hierarchy of human needs which constitute the basis for the movement toward psychological health. Maslow outlined a motivational hierarchy consisting of five categories of human needs arranged in an ascending order: *physiological basic* needs satisfied by such stimuli as food and sleep; *security-* a need for a safe environment free from immediate threat; *social-affiliative* and *love* needs; a desire for social

acceptance; esteem- need for enhancement and acceptance of self; and self-actualization striving for full realization of unique characteristics and potentials.

The development of motivation in the field of foreign language learning is in a form of pyramid. People must satisfy their lower level needs before they try to satisfy their higher level needs (self-esteem). Motivation and needs are then closely related. On one hand, motivation is seen as the fulfillment of needs, and on the other, human needs serve as drives or incentives which move one to a particular action. Students' motivation to learn depends on their needs and interests, since the effectiveness of their learning is influenced by motivation. In terms of foreign language learning, the need for safety indicates that the learner needs to be secure that learning the target language and culture doesn't affect negatively his/her own culture. Social needs also indicate that the learner needs to be a knowledgeable person who is able to communicate and integrate with others by learning their language. Failure to satisfy the students' needs is likely to hinder their risk-taking strategy and motivation. Psychologically insecure foreign language learners can be very anxious (Macintyre & Gardner, 1991) and if this happens, they regress in their needs, motivation, and performance in the classroom. This offers the suggestion that the starting point in foreign language syllabus design should be a learners' needs analysis which would help construct and plan a syllabus properly in order to assure successful learning. In this vein, Gardner (1985) states that need analysis should be given considerable attention. Better study of needs at a grass root level leads to higher motivation which will certainly result in more autonomy of learning. The teacher's duty then, is to find out aspects of the foreign language which are valuable to learners and must design tasks that support these aspects. Classroom activities must encourage the development of communication and end in positive results. In the case of the experimental group of the present study as we will see further down, a careful material design was put beforehand on the basis of motivating the learners to learn the foreign language

25

without boredom. The aim is to create a healthy atmosphere for the learners where they feel relaxed and at the same time interested in knowing other peoples' culture and lifestyles without knowing they are unconsciously learning.

1.2.4. Motivation: Cause or Effect

It is not clear whether motivation improves the desire to learn or successful learning enhances motivation. The question then needs to be asked is: which is the cause and which is the result. In other words, does success in foreign language learning give birth to motivation, or does motivation lead to success? Or both?

In fact, research literature is slightly in support of the causal interpretation of motivation.Support for motivation as a cause was strongly made by Gardner (1985). It seems that at least most of the time motivation has an independent causative role. But what is needed is more evidence which takes a longer time and complex methods to measure the progress of a single group of learners' overtime.

On the other side of the balance stand researchers who favour the idea of motivation as a result and not as a cause. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) were some of the first to question Gardner's approach stating that motivation is a cause and foreign language achievement the effect. Researchers like Strong, Savignon, Hermann and Burstall carried out studies to maintain or refute the causal theory. Burstall (1974), for instance, made an experiment with a sample of primary school children learning French where the results showed that it is achievement which is primary and motivation the consequence. In other words, it was the motivation that was engendered by the learning process itself. As when someone is told he has done a task very well, motivation is likely to increase. By contrast, events that lead to feeling of incompetence are likely to undermine motivation. Dornyei (2001) rather perceives motivation as cyclic, going up and down, affecting language achievement and being affected by it. Learners may use motivation to reach a goal or take the achieved goal to increase motivation.

1.2.4.1. Factors Motivating Foreign Language Learners

A feature shared in most foreign language classrooms, where the language in question is a required school subject, is the problem of how to motivate the learners. It is important for the teachers of the foreign language to be aware of the possible factors that may be affecting their students' motivation. With the factors like the teaching methodology and the lack of the target language environment, the teachers have to develop strategies to help solve the problems that arise relating to students' motivation and desire to learn English as a foreign language (Sivan, 1986; Skehan, 1991)

1.2.4.1.1. Storytelling

It is advocated that art and drama play a major educational role in developing sensitivity in learners, perfect the ability to talk about feelings and express mental states. Many storytellers, educators and researchers advocate storytelling as a social art which provides the vehicle to utilize and expand acquired vocabulary, phraseology and the range of lexical expressions by contextualizing them in stories which students can hear, see, act out, retell, revise and rewrite. Easy-to-follow stories and illustrations give learners something to think in. In addition, the nature of stories allows for endless variety in the classroom. Learners add humour, creativity and originality to their own versions of stories. Once having taken ownership, they are then highly motivated to communicate these stories to other students.

Moreover, storytelling can contribute significantly to early literacy development (Mallen, 1991; Jennings, 1991; Cooper, Collins & Saxby, 1992; Glazer & Burke, 1994). It employs literary conventions such as point of view, plot, style, characterization, setting and

theme (Mallen, 1991:15). Many different genres can be explored through regular storytelling experience. Learners will soon learn to expect certain features of these genres. This is typified by the resounding replication of stories beginning with "Once Upon a Time" and ending with "Happy Ever After". Fairy tales then provide ordering devices which can be applied to the learners' everyday life even if they were from diverse sociocultural backgrounds. This will rather provide different experiences and interpretations. Glazer and Burke (1994) state that learners':

" language blossoms when caregivers observe closely their interests and capitalize on these to stimulate literacy, when they are invited to share their experiences and their stories, when ready help is available in reading and writing, when listening ear is always present and when a telling story-laden tongue is available". (p: 163)

1.2.4.1.2. Use of Music: (Songs and Singing)

Plato believed that "musical training is a more potent instrument than other, because rhythm and harmony find their way into the inward places of the soul on which they mightily fasten (...) making the soul of him who is rightly educated graceful." In the "Greek View of Life", Dickinson (1909) defines 'mousikas', from which the word music derives, as an intimate union of melody, verse and dance (p.217). Music codes words with heavy emotional and contextual flags, evoking a realistic, meaningful, and cogent environment, and enabling students to have positive attitudes, self-perceptions, and cultural appreciation so they can actively process new stimuli and infer rules of language.

Music constitutes a field of which is particularly conducive to learners' spontaneous active and creative expression, due to the diversity of means of expression used, i.e. words, singing, movement, sounds of instruments, different acoustic effects, graphic associations, etc., from the point of view of aesthetics music shapes sensitivity to beauty, develops imagination, and teaches independence and aesthetic evaluation. It is often the source of joy and relaxation, and enables the release of energy and physical growth.

Once area to focus upon would be the use of music and songs for active vocabulary acquisition. The main reason is the good atmosphere it creates in the classroom. Learners relate to songs as part of entertainment rather than work and find learning vocabulary through songs amusing rather than tedious. This is true especially with pop songs which are part of youth culture (Bell, 1981).

1.2.4.1.3. Vocabulary games

Language learning is hard work. Effort is required at every moment and must be maintained over a long period of time. However, there is a common misconception that if one is having fun and there is hilarity and laughter, then it is not really learning. It is possible to learn a language and enjoy oneself at the same time (Lee Su Kim, 1995). In fact, games help and encourage many learners to sustain their interest and work. They help the teacher to create contexts in which the language is useful and meaningful. They can also provide intense practice of language; motivate the learners since they are amusing and challenging. They increase cooperation and can be used to give practice in all language skills and must then be regarded as central to a teacher's repertoire. Lee (1995) says that games should be treated as central and not peripheral to the foreign language teaching programme (p. 2). Games can lower anxiety, and make the acquisition of input more likely (Richard- Amato, 1988: 147). They are highly motivating and entertaining that they give shy students more opportunity to express their opinions and feelings. Through playing games, learners can learn English the way children learn their mother tongue without being aware they are doing so; thus without stress they can learn a lot. In the easy, relaxed atmosphere which is created by using games,

learners remember things faster and better. "The look and remember way of vocabulary learning seems to be not effective for learners of English language. Learning new words is a cumulative process, with words enriched and established as they are met again" (Nation, 2000: 6).

1.2.4.1.4. Use of Videos

As we live in the age of science and technology, it is unsurprising to find out that students like the technological devices (TV, video, computer, and so on) to be utilized in their learning. Marshal (2002) found strong evidence that educational technology complements what a great teacher does. Videos, for instance, expose learners to authentic materials and to voices, dialects, and registers other than the teacher's and provide cultural contexts for the foreign language. They also relieve students from the boredom of the traditional class language drills. Therefore, the English teachers have to realize the basic role which technology can play in motivating the learners and enriching the teaching process. It correlates with learners' needs and goals; consequently the rare use of it makes the learners feel demotivated.

Conclusion

In conclusion, talking about foreign language learning is a life long process. Thus, we tended in this chapter, to provide the essential of what we deemed important about the learning theories..

Moreover, when grappling with the subject of motivation in the foreign language classroom and its types, research will never end and discussion about it will continue to death. It remains in a state of flux, in part because theoreticians and researchers have not yet reached agreement upon the most appropriate aspects linked to such a complex area which involves many interrelated factors where one simplistic view would not be enough to make motivation appear as simple as providing interesting learning activities and strategies.

The duties and responsibilities then fall on the teachers who are invited to find out techniques and provide time and context to help the learners develop their plans and tactics (strategies). It has been found that they correlate best with motivation and that increased motivation and self-esteem lead to more effective use of appropriate strategies necessary to reach foreign language proficiency.

Introduction	
2.1. Definition	
2.2. Features of Language Learning Strategies	
2.2.1Communicative Competence as the Main Goal	
2.2.2Greater Self-Direction for the Learner	
2.2.3. New Roles for the Teachers	
2.3. Taxonomy of Language Learning Strategies	
2.3.1. Rubin's Classification of Language Learning Strategies	
2.3.2. Oxford's Classification of Language Learning Strategies	
2.3.3. Learning Strategies versus Learning Styles	41
2.4. Learning to Learn the Foreign Language	43
2.4.1. Strategy-Based Instruction	45
2.4.2. Explicit and integrated strategy instruction	46
2.4.3. Means for Strategy-Based Instruction	48
2.4.4. Models of Strategy-Based Instruction	48
2.4.5. Teacher's Role	51
Conclusion	

Chapter 2 Enhancing Language Learning Strategies in Learners

Chapter 2: Enhancing Language Learning Strategies in Learners

Introduction

The intent of this chapter is to provide an overview of the existing literature concerned with the role of learning strategies in foreign language learning. It is fitting to have a chapter devoted to this topic because extensive investigation has shown the importance of language learning strategies in making language learning more efficient.

Research into language learning strategies began in the 1960s. Development in cognitive psychology, with its assumptions that human beings process information and that learning involves such information processing, influenced much of the research done on language learning strategies. (Williams & Burden, 1997). Already in 1966 Carton published his study entitled "The Method of Inference in Foreign Language Study", which was the first attempt on learning strategies. After Carton, in 1971, Rubin started doing research focusing on the strategies of successful learners. She classified strategies in terms of processes contributing directly or indirectly to language learning (Rubin, 1975). Later, a flow of researchers flooded the field of foreign language learning with seminal works which contributed to the development of language teaching and learning field. (Abraham and Vann, 1987, 1990; Chamot and Kupper, 1989; Naiman, Fröhlich, stern and Todesco 1978; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford et al, 1989, 1993, 1995; Politzer and McGroarty, 1985; Ramsey, 1980; Reiss, 1983). They all identified "the good language learner" as one who is mentally active, employs language strategies more frequently and more appropriately, monitors language comprehension and production, practices communicating in the language, makes use of prior linguistic and general knowledge, uses various memorization techniques and asks questions for clarification. These researchers believed that language learning strategies can

help learners to facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of the information and increase self-confidence in an era of pedagogic focus shifting from teacher-centered approaches to the learner's active role in language learning.

2.1. Language Learning Strategies Defined

The term "*language learning strategy*" has been defined by many researchers. They spent decades on observing learners, studying their behaviors, analyzing and drawing conclusions that are both helpful and worth implementing in the domain of foreign language learning and teaching.

Both Wenden and Rubin (1987) and O'Malley Chamot(1990) define learning strategies as sets of operations, steps, plans and routines used by the learners to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval and use of information, they are the intentional behaviours and thoughts used by learners during learning so as to better help them understand, learn, or remember new information. Tarone (1981) defines the learning strategies as attempts to develop linguistic and socio-linguistic competence in the target language. They are complex procedures that individuals apply to tasks. Cohen (1998), on the other hand, defines strategies as being conscious moves made by the foreign language learner intended to be useful in either learning or using the target language. From another perspective, Brown (2000) states that strategies are specific attacks that [learners] make on a given problem posed by the target language input and output. For Oxford (1990) whose work on learning strategies is a landmark, learning strategies are mental processes which learners employ to learn and use the target language. They are the tools for active, self-directed involvement. That is necessary for developing the target language communication ability. Cohen (op.cit) categorizes language strategies as being either learning strategies or language use strategies. On one hand, language learning strategies are conscious thoughts and behaviors used by learners with the explicit

goal of improving their knowledge and understanding of the target language. They include cognitive strategies for memorizing an manipulating target language structures, metacognitive strategies for managing and supervising strategy use, affective strategies for measuring emotional reactions to learning and for lowering anxiety, and social strategies for enhancing learning such as cooperating with other learners and seeking to interact with native speakers.

For language use strategies on the other hand, the focus is, primarily, on employing the language that learners have. They come into play once the language material is accessible. They include strategies for retrieving information about the language already stored in memory, rehearsing target structures, and communicating in the language despite gaps in target language knowledge (Cohen, 1998).

On the light of these definitions, one can assume that an agreed upon definition is possible to achieve. Thus, we can define a learning strategy as any tool, tactic or action that learners use with the intention to assist their progress in acquiring the foreign language for the goal of communication and interaction with others.

2.2. Features of Language Learning Strategies

Oxford discusses several features or characteristics of learning strategies. Key features of the language learning strategies are: the communicative aim, the learner's self-direction, new roles for the teacher, problem orientation, and direct and indirect support of learning.

2.2.1. Communicative Competence as the Main Goal

All appropriate language learning strategies are oriented toward the general goal of communicative competence, where different linguistic, psychological and social factors are put together to achieve a form of communication that is understood at all levels (Oxford, 1990). Thus, the development of communicative competence requires realistic interaction among learners using a meaningful, contextualized language. The learning strategies enable learners to take part actively and confidently in the communication context. As an illustrative example, the strategies that help learners break the ties of shyness that hamper them from communication such as the role of cooperation with others. In a group work activity, a shy student will feel relaxed and rather motivated to express himself freely without any barrier like constant error correction by the teacher or the open expression in front of the whole class.

2.2.2. Greater Self-Direction for the Learners

From the little experience I got from the teaching of the secondary school learners, it is worth pointing that language learners dislike, to some extent, the "do it yourself" learning and prefer the usual way of teaching, that of feeding and telling them what to do, for what purpose and when to do it. However, self-direction implies the idea that the teacher will not be there to guide, prompt, help and facilitate learning. Learners must be equipped with language learning strategies, to act on their own, develop their own plans and tactics for communication, especially in contexts far from the classroom. Self-direction, therefore, is crucial to the development of ability in a new language (Oxford, (op.cit)). A better method to induce this feature into learners would be the gradual process of making it comfortable to learners to become self-directed and more responsible for the tasks, i.e. autonomy is a strategy that helps learners move a step forward to language proficiency. It involves knowing what to learn, knowing how to learn it, and being motivated to do this learning and to put it to use. This it is not easy to achieve because most learners do not take an organized approach to their learning (Moir and Nation, 2002). However, one way of encouraging autonomy is to introduce a negotiated syllabus where the teacher and the learners share the decision making about the various aspects of the course on a continuing basis. This can be matched with the

discussions held by the teacher investigator and the learners of the experimental group of the present study, as we will sketch it out further down, about what to learn, what activities to do in class and how much time to spend on them. The goals thus, are to make the course as sensitive as possible to the learners' needs and to get the learners to feel ownership of the course.

2.2.3. New Roles for the Teachers

With the new battery of learning strategies, no room is left to the teacher to stay a knowledge provider. The teacher must be a prompter, a facilitator, a guide, an adviser and a co-communicator. The teacher is responsible for the classroom atmosphere. It is the teacher who must create a comfortable milieu for learning by helping learners develop their own strategies, build new ones, and enable them use these strategies at the right time, for the right task in the right context. She must be cautious about imposing her own learning style upon students; thus the conversation around the learning should include questions like: "what might be some different ways to approach this task, and which of those would work best for you?" self-reflection is crucial here. The teacher should be prepared to give suggestions, but must also allow students to make their own choices. The teacher's role shifts from mediator to facilitator. For example, learners can work in pairs or a small group to create a fairy tale using the vocabulary and grammar of the day. Then the teacher monitors the progress. It is the teacher who has to strengthen their roles and make learners more creative by guiding them toward more responsibility and autonomy that promise true learning (Harmer, 1999).

This is some light shed on some language learning strategies features. It is both helpful and useful for the understanding of the strategies taxonomy.

37

2.3. Taxonomy of language Learning Strategies.

Language learning strategies have been classified by many scholars (O'Malley et al, 1985; Wenden and Rubin 1987; Oxford, 1990; Stern, 1992; Ellis, 1994). However, most of these attempts to classify language learning strategies reflect more or less the same categorizations of the learning strategies without any radical changes.

Rubin's(1987) and Oxford's (1990) classifications of language learning strategies are worth listing. For Rubin, on one hand she pioneered much of the research done on the issue. For Oxford, on the other hand, her taxonomy is seen as the most comprehensive and practical of the date.

2.3.1. Rubin's classification of language learning strategies

Rubin (op cit), one of the first researchers in the field of foreign language learning, identified two kinds of learning strategies: those contributing directly to learning and those contributing indirectly to learning (see table 3.1.1). She classified strategies into three groups: learning strategies, communication strategies and social strategies. These groups are further categorised into cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. Rubin (1987) states that 'learning strategies contribute to the development of the language system and affect learning directly' (p.23).

Cognitive strategies require direct analysis, transformation or synthesis of learning material. They are divided into: classification, verification, deductive reasoning, guessing, inductive inferencing, memorization, monitoring and practice.

Metacognitive strategies are used to supervise, control or self-direct language learning. They involve processes as planning, prioritizing, setting goal, self-management and evaluating the best ways of learning. Communication strategies, on the other hand, are less directly related to language learning. Their focus is on the process of taking part in a conversation and understanding what the speaker intended. Finally, social strategies are those

38

activities learners engage in where they get opportunities to practise their knowledge of the target language. These strategies contribute indirectly to learning since they do not lead directly to the obtaining, storing, retrieving and using of the target language. (Rubin & Wenden, 1987).

Learning strategies	Communication strategies	Social strategies
1-Cognitive learning strategies: -clarification -verification	- participating in a conversation	- providing opportunities of exposure to the situation of learning
-guessing -inferencing		louining
-reasoningmonitoring -practice memorization	- getting meaning	- practicing knowledge of the target language
2-Meta-cognitive strategies:	- clarifying	
- planning -prioritising		
-setting goals- self management		

 Table 3.1.1. Rubin's Learning Strategies Classification

2.3.2. Oxford's Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Oxford's model (1990) outlines a comprehensive, multi-levelled and theoretically well conceived taxonomy of language learning strategies. She sees the ultimate goal of language learning strategies as being directed to the achievement of communication competence. She distinguishes between direct language learning strategies which directly involve the subject matter, i.e., the target language, and indirect language learning strategies, which do not directly involve the target language, but are essential to learning nonetheless. Second, each of these broad categories is divided into language learning strategies and subcategories. She outlines three main categories of direct learning strategies.

Memory strategies aid in entering information into long-term memory and retrieving it when needed for communication. Cognitive strategies are used for forming and revising internal mental models and receiving and producing messages in the target language. Finally, compensation strategies which are needed to overcome any gap in knowledge of the foreign language (Oxford, 1990). (See table 3.2.1)

Oxford describes also three sub-categories of the indirect language learning strategies. Metacognitive strategies help learners exercise "executive control" through planning, arranging, focusing on, and evaluating their own learning. Affective language learning strategies enable learners to control feelings, motivations and attitudes related to language learning. Last but not the least social strategies facilitate interaction with others by breaking the ties of shyness and fear.

What is important to note is the way language learning strategies are interconnected both directly and indirectly and the support they can provide one to the other (Oxford, 1990). Brown (2000) describes Oxford's taxonomy and puts:

> "One of the most useful manuals of language learning strategies available is Rebecca Oxford's practical guide for teachers. She outlined a host of learning and communication strategies that have been successful among learners. Her taxonomy is both comprehensive and practical."(P: 131)

Direct Strategies	 1- Memory: creating mental linkages, applying images and sounds, reviewing well, employing action. 2- Cognitive: practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing and reasoning, creating structure for input and output.
	3- Compensation strategies: guessing intelligently, overcoming limitations in speaking and writing.
	1- Metacognitive: centering learning, arranging and planning learning, evaluating learning.
Indirect	2- Affective: lowering anxiety, encouraging, taking emotional temperature.
Strategies	3- Social: asking questions, cooperating with others, empathizing.

Table 3.2.1. Oxford's Learning Strategies Taxonomy

Rubin's(1987) and Oxford's (1990) classifications are illustrative examples among a lot of other studies done for the same purpose of providing a classification of language learning strategies which can be used by both learners and teachers who seek to introduce a strategy based training in their classrooms. However, this training should go beyond the descriptive taxonomies and try to defeat difficulties that learners' encounter during their language learning process.

2.3.3. Learning Strategies versus Learning Styles

The types of strategies used by different learners vary due to different factors. They do not operate by themselves, but are rather directly tied to the learners underlying styles and other personality related variables such as anxiety and self-concept in the learners. They are also linked to factors like sex, age, and ethnic differences. (Oxford, 1989).

Learning styles are the general approaches that learners use in acquiring a new language or learning any other subject. They are the overall patterns that give general directions to learning behavior (Cornett, 1983). They determine how we think, how we communicate and even how well we remember things. Learning styles might be thought of as "cognitive, affective, and psychological traits that are relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment Keef, (1979). Skehan (1991) defines learning styles as general predispositions, voluntary or not, toward processing information in a particular way. They are determined by the way learners internalize their total environment.

Knowing and understanding one's own learning styles is often very important for learners. This knowledge can help them realize whether they are learning or not (Oxford, 1998). Learning styles are used to cover four aspects of the person: (a) cognitive style, i.e, preferred or habitual patterns of mental functioning (b) patterns of attitudes and interests that affect what an individual will pay most attention to in a learning situation; (c) a tendency to seek situations compatible with one's own learning patterns; and (d) a tendency to use certain learning strategies than others (Lawrence, 1984). Oxford and Ehrman (1988) state that learning styles are a blend of cognitive, affective and behavioral elements. They have different dimensions in language learning field. First, we have cooperation and competition. Second, tolerance for ambiguity, i.e., learners who can more readily tolerate ambiguity often show the best language learning performance (Naiman, 1975). Myers and McCaulley (1985) distinguish four more dimensions to learning style: extroversion versus introversion, sensing versus intuition, thinking versus feeling and judging versus perceiving.

To sum up, strategies are distinct from learning styles, which refer more broadly to learner's natural, habitual and preferred ways of absorbing, processing and retaining new information and skills (Reid, 1995). They are so even if there exist an obvious relationship between one's language learning style and the learners' usual or preferred language learning strategies.

2.4. Learning to Learn the Foreign Language

Because of the effects of globalisation and the faster means of communication, we are now enjoying, foreign language learning stands as a priority for individuals belonging to this world. People who learn other languages will increase the ability to assimilate ideas and notions they are not familiar with, will adapt faster to changes and respond more efficiently to challenges in their lives. A foreign language is a useful tool for boosting learners' brain creativity, emotional intelligence and enriching vision of life. It dares them to step out of their detrimental passive mode, when expecting their teachers to control the process and somehow impart the language to them, and helps them to venture out of their comfort zones and learn something that is completely new to them.

42

For these reasons today's trend is oriented towards the notion of making the learners aware of the learning process before true learning will take place. Whether this awareness is called intentional learning, meta learning, mindful learning or self-regulation, its focus is making learners learn how to learn. This notion which is taking advance in the research literature submits to great amounts of investigation in all domains.

Traditionally, foreign language learners like to be told what to do and usually learn through rote memorization where they pile up information which they cannot connect with other prior knowledge or to a new situation. Their sole purpose is to get grades even if they fail to develop a useful skill which results in making learning more difficult and time consuming. This is what makes the theoretical basis for the "learning to learn" philosophy: as a detective, the learner will be able to take the new information, link it to prior knowledge (schemata) (Harmmer, 1999) and then use it in some new way. Bruner's (in Williams and Burden, 1997) name is very much linked to this notion. He states that the development of conceptual understanding and of cognitive skills and strategies is a central aim of education, instead of acquiring factual information. He further explains that a need to learn how to learn is vital with which learners develop the ability to transfer learning from one situation to another by taking risks and learning from errors. Learning becomes both a cyclical and cumulative process. Learners build on previous skills to attain more knowledge and develop more intellectual skills in connection with a new context.

The teachers' role, therefore, is much powerful and more demanding. Vygotsky (1978) argues in his Zone of Proximal Development that learners will think in a more critical way if they are assisted and guided by other people (teacher in a foreign language classroom), on a part of a difficult task by modelling appropriate ways of solving a problem and giving helpful hints, rather than doing the entire task by themselves. Teachers should teach learners to take a few moments before starting a learning task in order to think and reflect on how they

can best approach it (the need to plan). This reflection includes primary questions as what to do, how to do it and when and why to do it. They have to encourage learners study before class, during class and after class. They have not to manipulate them, but rather help them use their language learning strategies and continuously change activities if they find that learners are losing the ability to pay attention. What is more is that teachers have the duty to create conditions that foster learning by modeling, scaffolding and helping learners to construct understanding, with the eventual goal of becoming independent thinkers and problem solvers. Talk and problem solving instruction are among the best methods to help learners learn how to learn. Gibbons (1993) goes to stress the power of talk and says:

"Talk allows [learners] to think aloud, to formulate ideas, to set up and evaluate hypotheses and to reach tentative decisions in a context that is not restricted by the formal demands of written language". (1993:27).

Additionally, the responsibility of learning falls on the learners themselves, since they are expected to actively participate in the process of learning to learn. They are required, according to the first year English curriculum (2006), to enhance their language learning strategies by practicing and by developing analytical thinking through finding creative solutions to language learning problems. They will be motivated to research a problem, explore a number of solutions and propose a direction to follow. The learners become more independent and autonomous in the language proficiency achievement.

2.4.1. Strategy-Based Instruction

In an era of intensive research looking for the 'best method' of teaching, Strategy-Based Instruction is seen as an effective practice of pedagogy in classroom instructional situations. As the field of language teaching has become more learnercentered (based on the Competency based approach principles) and interactive, a great emphasis is put on helping learners take more responsibility for meeting their own language learning needs. However, what may well stand in the way of learners' success in language learning is an insufficient awareness of how various strategies may help them learn and use the target language more effectively. Strategies-Based Instruction has its roots in good language learner's research (psycholinguistic factors influencing language learning). Based on a learner-centered approach, it extends classroom training to include outside environments. This approach has as a goal to guide learners toward efficient use of language learning strategies while learning a target language, therefore, creating greater learner autonomy and increased proficiency (Cohen, 1998; Brown, 2000). Both the good as well as the less successful learners will need instruction in 'how', 'when' and 'why' to use strategies efficiently as a way to improve learning and performance, by raising awareness and providing them with systematic practice, reinforcement, self-monitoring and evaluating their strategies use while attending to Consequently, they become active and positive language learning activities. participants in their approach to learning.

Researchers add that learners will benefit from Strategy-Based Instruction if they understand the strategy itself, perceive it to be effective and do not consider its use to be overly difficult (Macintyre and Noels, 1996). Strategy-Based Instruction has positive effects on language skills and on students' motivation and self-confidence (Chamot et al, 1996; Nunan, 1997). Learners feel powerful in the foreign language learning process when they are equipped with tactics and techniques to solve a language problem. The success that learners reach in learning a language point will likely have an impact on their feeling and thus, raise their motivation for experiencing other situations and of course learn more. Moreover, when explicit strategy instruction is in harmony with language tasks, it becomes part of the regular teaching process and speeds up learning, rather than slowing it down. The benefit clearly justifies the time (Oxford, 1990).

Worth considering in the design of a strategy training programme, are the learners' 'needs' then the available resources as: time, money, materials, availability of teacher trainers and the feasibility of proving this kind of instruction. Just, how language learning strategies should be taught was open to discussion and research, but so far it has been confirmed that strategy training is generally more effective when woven into regular classroom activities than when presented as a separate strategy course.

2.4.2. Explicit and integrated strategy instruction.

Research strongly argues for explicit strategy instruction (Graham and Harris, 2000; Pressley, 2000). Explicit learning strategies instruction essentially involves the development of students' awareness of the strategies they use, teacher modeling of strategic thinking, students' practice with new strategies, students' self evaluation of the strategies used, and practice in transferring strategies to new tasks(Oxford, 1990; Nunan, 1997; Cohen,1999; Chamot et al, 1999; Grenfell and Harris 1999; Harris, 2003; Stern, 2003). However, there is less agreement on the issue of whether Strategy-Based Instruction should be integrated into the language curriculum or taught separately. While many argue that integrated instruction provides students with opportunities to practise learning strategies with authentic language learning tasks (Chamot and O'Malley, 1994; Oxford and Leaver, 1996; Nunan, 1997; Chamot et al; Cohen, 1998; Grenfell and Harris, 1999), others have different views. They see that strategies learnt within a language classroom are less likely to transfer to other tasks (GU, 1996) and it is

easier to plan one separate strategy course than to prepare all teachers to teach strategies (Weinstein, Mayer, 1986; Vance, 1999).

In a similar vein, and for the purpose of facilitating the integration of a strategybased instruction, researchers have suggested a sequence of steps to follow when conducting a strategy-based programme. (Weinstein & Underwood, 1985; O'Malley & Chamot 1990; Oxford, 1990). These steps are summarised as follows:

- a. Diagnosis: identifying and assessing students' learning strategies through observation, interviews, etc.
- b. Preparation / consciousness-raising: developing students' awareness of different strategies; developing goals for strategy use and affective control for individuals and the entire class. Demonstrating how to use a given strategy to make the task at hands easier.
- c. Instruction: providing direct and well informed instruction on learning strategies through explanations, modeling, practice and integration; providing different practice opportunities with varied learning tasks or content, encouraging learners to employ the strategy while doing the task.
- d. Evaluating: though it is a high demanding step for high school pupils, helping the learners evaluate their own strategy use; evaluating the whole strategy training and revising the instruction components-if necessary- whether the strategy has aided the learners or not and reminding them when to transfer a useful strategy to other language tasks. The goal is for a new, useful strategy to become automatic and effortless and thus, install a new strategy in the learners' repertoire of effective strategies, which as we see are supposed to have.

47

In sum, we wish that teachers opt for explicit instruction and should integrate the instruction into their regular course work rather than providing a separate learning strategies course.

2.4.3. Means for Strategy-Based Instruction

At present time, numerous means are available for strategy instruction. They have already been developed and used in a variety of educational settings, which help in incorporating strategy awareness and strategy practice in the language classrooms. A number of EFL textbooks offer guidelines and exercises for strategy awareness and practice. Assignments or recommendations of a self-help study are organized in the classroom. A number of learning centers around the world have an EFL related components. Such centers make available to learners a number of possible types of extra class systems in writing academic study skills and pronunciation.

Finally, we can list other means that help in establishing a strategy-based instruction like: peer tutoring, research oriented videotaped mini courses, awareness training, and strategy workshop (Weaver and Cohen, 1994). These methods provide important insights into unobservable mental learning strategies.

2.4.4. Models of Strategy-Based Instruction.

No single best method for conducting strategy instruction has been provided, but attempts to design models to achieve this goal are worth considering. Five different instructional models have been designed and presented to raise learners' awareness about strategy use, give them opportunities to practise the strategies they are being taught and help them use the strategies in new learning contexts (transferability). The first model to consider was proposed by Pearson and Dole (1987) with reference to first language learning but applicable to the study of foreign language. It includes explicit modeling and explanation of the benefits of applying a specific strategy, extensive functional practice with the strategy and chances to transfer the strategy to a new learning context.

In the second model, Oxford (1990) outline a useful sequence for the introduction of strategies that emphasizes explicit strategy awareness, discussion of the benefit of strategy use, functional and contextualized practice with the strategies, self-evaluation and monitoring of language performance and suggestions for transferring the strategies to new tasks.

The third model offered by Cohen (1998) has the teacher take on a variety of roles in order to help learners learn to use learning strategies appropriate to their own learning styles. Grenfell and Harris (1999), on the other hand, suggest that learners work through a cycle of six (06) steps. Once they are over, a new cycle begins (see table 4.4.1). The last, but certainly not the least, model proposed in the list is the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA). It is a recursive model of learning rather than linear, thus teachers and learners have the option of revisiting prior instructional phases as needed (Chamot, 2005). The theoretical framework of CALLA is a social cognitive learning model that emphasizes the role of students' prior knowledge, the importance of collaborative learning, and the development of metacognitive awareness and self reflection. Its instructional design is task-based and has five (05) phases in which teachers combine the three components of content, language, and learning strategies: preparation – presentation –practice – evaluation and – expansion (Chamot, Barnhardt, Eldinary, Robins, 1999).

In summary, current models of language learning strategy instruction are based on developing students' knowledge about their own thinking and strategic processes. These models serve to encourage learners to install strategies in their repertoire of learning tools that they will use effectively and confidently in any learning context, with or without the teacher's presence.

Strategy-Based Instruction	CALLA Model	Grenfell Model
Cohen (1998)	Chamot et al. (1999)	Grenfell & Harris (1999)
Teacher as diagnostician : Helps students identify current strategies and learning styles.	Preparation : Teacher identifies students' current strategies for familiar tasks.	Awareness raising: Students complete a task, and then identify the strategies they used.
Teacher as language learner : Shares own learning experiences and thinking processes.	Preparation : Teacher models, names and explains new strategy; asks students if and how they have used it.	Modelling : Teacher models, discusses value of new strategy, makes checklist of strategies for later use.
Teacher as learner trainer : Trains students how to use learning strategies.	Practice : Students practise new strategy; in subsequent strategy practice, teacher feeds reminders to encourage independent strategy use.	General practice: Students practise new strategies with different tasks.
Teacher as coordinator : Supervisors students' study plans and monitors difficulties.	Self-evaluation : Students evaluate their own strategy use immediately after practice.	Action planning: Students set goals and choose strategies to attain these goals.
Teacher as coach : Provides ongoing guidance on students' progress.	Expansion : Students transfer strategies to new tasks, combine strategies into clusters, develop repertoire of preferred strategies.	Focused practice : Students carry out action plan using selected strategies; teacher feeds prompts so that students use strategies automatically.
	Assessment: Teacher assesses students' use of strategies and impact on performance.	Evaluation : Teacher and students evaluate success of action plan; set new goals; cycle begins again.

 Table 4.4.1 Models for Language Learning Strategy Instruction

2.4.5. Teacher's Role:

Although it is a learner-centered focus in a strategy-based programme, the teacher has a heavy load in order to achieve the final objectives intended by the instruction. A teacher who adheres to language learning strategies instruction is much influenced by constructivism, which holds that prior knowledge forms the foundation by which new learning occurs. Teachers should be responsive to their learners' needs, conceptual knowledge, motivation and other characteristics. Learners come to classrooms less socially oriented, less assertive or more withdrawn.

Dörnyei (2001) states:

"Language classrooms are inherently face threatening environments. Therefore, teachers need to encourage students to recognize their language learning fears". (p. 91).

The teachers have to alleviate all this and foster an atmosphere of natural support and reassurance. They can reduce negativity, raise students' self-belief and assist them; they tailor and reshape instruction in light of particular learners' difficulties, and do a great deal to make certain that learners understand the nature of the task and the use and significance of the strategies they learn.

Good strategy teachers are not drill sergeants, but they keep learners active and involved with tasks requiring meaningful processing. They do not give orders, but rather model, discuss, explain and remind learners that planning before acting is the way to attack academic tasks. Among the teachers' major goals in a strategy-based programme is to provide learners with opportunities to become active, critical thinkers who move beyond a view of learning as information gathering to a view of learning as knowledge building. They have to provide experience that help learners construct and personalize the strategies they use. They have to put in mind that strategy instruction is not a quick fix. The give-and-take between teachers and learners, as strategy instruction proceeds, provides rich, informative assessment data and once learners have begun using an effective strategy, less instructional time needs to be diverted to managing learners' behaviour. When the learners experience success with learning strategies, it becomes critical that they start to generate their own strategies independent of teacher assistance, since they have built a step towards autonomy, and consequently become more proficient in the target language.

Conclusion:

Research on language learning strategies will continue to develop as foreign language learning researchers seek to understand different learners' characteristics and the complex cognitive, social and effective processes involved in processing language input and using the language for a variety of purposes. Language learning strategies can contribute to development of learner mastery and autonomy.

Appropriate use of language learning strategies enables learners to take responsibility for their own learning by enhancing independence and self-direction. As they move toward language proficiency, language learners develop their own understanding of the foreign language and its surrounding culture. Thus, integrating a language learning strategy instruction into the language classroom is a challenge that all teachers should take. Moreover, research in specific language learning contexts is essential to realise the instruction potential and enhance foreign language learning.

Chapter 3 The Writing Skill: An Overview

Introduction	54
3.1. The writing Skill: Definition	54
3.2. Objectives of Teaching Writing	55
3.3. Writing and the other Skills	56
3.4. Vocabulary and the Writing Skill	
3.5. Role of the Teacher	60
3.6. Approaches to Teaching Writing	61
3.6.1. The Product Approach	
3.6.2. The Process Approach	63
3.6.3. The Genre Approach	
3.6.4. The Creative Approach	
3.6.5. The Cooperative Approach	67
Conclusion	69

Chapter 3

The Writing Skill: An Overview

Introduction

The aim of this study is to help foreign language secondary school students improve their writing skill by enriching their vocabulary stock through extra work including intensive reading. For that matter, it is of major interest to provide background about this skill. The chapter will thus define the nature and the objectives of the writing skill. Furthermore, it will discuss writing in relation to the other skills, more precisely to reading . It will also provide information about the different approaches which help in the teaching of the writing skill and shed some light on the teacher's role in helping the students enhance their writing abilities.

3.1. The Writing Skill: a definition

From mechanical or formal aspects of writing down to the more complex act of composing, the skill of writing has always been considered as one of the most complex human activity that allow swriters to explore thoughts and ideas and make them clear for the audience. It is a continuing process of discovering ways and encouraging thinking and learning, as it motivates communication and paves the way to reflection on thoughts. This reflection is mainly possible because thoughts become concrete; a material easy for examination, reconsideration, rearrangement and change. Hammer (2004) states that writing is considered as a fairly recent development in the evolution of Man. It has remained for most of its history a minority occupation. Unlike speaking which is used to gain power, writing has been regarded, at least since Aristotle's time, as the mere use of symbols and graphs (letters) to record speech (Olson, 1994). However, with the tremendous development of research on

language and its learning, theorists, researchers and practitioners agree now that writing can never be limited to that narrow definition. They state that this process is more than the mere transcription of speech. (Omaggio & Hadley, 1993:290). In a similar vein, White and Arndt (1991) describe it as:

> " a mental-effort demanding and thus a time consuming one: it is far from being a simple matter of transcribing language into written symbols: it is a thinking process in its own right. It demands conscious intellectual effort which usually has to be sustained over a considerable effort of time". (p. 31)

In a foreign language setting, writing as one of the four skills, has required greater importance because of its increasing significance in the globalized community. It can be defined as a major classroom procedure. It is an important activity or an effective technique to reinforce the oral and written language materials. For the teacher, on one hand, it is the best tool to provide evidence of learners' achievements, which will be a source of later reference. For the learners, on the other hand, writing fulfills their needs by enhancing language learning as they experiment with words, sentences and larger chunks of writing to communicate their ideas effectively, and to reinforce the grammar and vocabulary they are learning in class. It is, moreover, the primary means by which learners are evaluated, since it demonstrates their academic achievement in school (Almutwaa & Kailani, 1989).

3.2. Objectives of teaching the writing skill

As noted above, writing is communication: we express ideas about a subject to an audience for a specific purpose. Mainly the purpose or objective of teaching writing in a foreign language stands under the umbrella of getting the students to acquire the abilities and skills they need to produce a range of different kinds of written texts similar to those an educated person would be expected to be able to produce in their own language (Ur, 1996).

Harmer (2004) argues that writing can be used for a variety of purposes ranging from being merely a back up for grammar teaching i.e., writing for learning, to a major syllabus strand in its own right where mastering the ability to write effectively is seen as a key objective for learning: writing for writing. As far as the Algerian Educational system is concerned, writing in English is a school oriented activity which has achievement objectives. That is, learners are learning writing to acquire the language that would enable them to succeed in their examinations and eventually move upward to the higher level.

3.3. Writing and the other skills

To learn a foreign language requires a good mastery of its four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. They may appear different from one another, but they constitute an interwoven relationship. Both reading and listening are receptive skills, whereas speaking and writing are productive ones (Harmer, 2005). Of all the skills, speaking seems to be the most important because people who know the language are referred to as speakers of that language. Foreign language learners are therefore interested primarily in speech. When we record speech using graphs and symbols, that is letters, we get the written form of the language. However, a person who can read a foreign language without necessarily being able to understand is merely decoding, that is, translating written symbols into corresponding sounds which form the various spoken language we listen to in a recorded conversation, a phone call or when watching a movie, for instance.

Studies and researches have widely recognized the connection of the four skills and the impact they have on each other. However, the most convergent skills are reading and writing. Teaching writing is teaching reading. Writing is sometimes seen as a flip-side of reading. These skills are two analogous and complementary processes in that both involve generating ideas, organizing ideas into logical order, drafting them a number of times to achieve cohesion, and revising the ideas as is appropriate (Fitzgerald, 1989). They are so closely aligned that some researchers even advocate teaching reading and writing simultaneously rather than two separate subjects. In this stance, Anon (2003) states: "good writing is closely allied to good reading, both are creative and involve the whole person emotions and intellect" (p: 1). Johns (1988) goes further to say that "it is impossible to assign academic writing tasks that don't require preliminary reading" (p: 277). To Stosky (1983):

"Better writers tend to be better readers that better writers tend to read more than poorer writers and that better readers tend to produce more systematically mature writing than poorer readers" (p.656)

Thus, good writing is the result of exposure to a lot of reading. Hayes (1980) emphasizes the importance of reading as a central process in writing. When we train teachers composition we teach them theories of reading in order to successfully teach students to write. Krashen (1987) claims that the comprehensible input (i.e., reading) is an important part of writing acquisition. When students have more writing opportunities, they will be more attentive to what they read (Elbow, 2004). Poor reading comprehension skills may limit one's ability to evaluate one's own writing. (Weigle, 2002). Reading a lot helps students to become better readers, so the more students write the better and more they become fluent as writers. For this reason, a part of our experiment was devoted to intensive reading and the effect it has in enriching students' vocabulary stock and its influence on their writings. Neman (1995) contends that writing is a craft, an artistic process with techniques and conventions that can be learned, employing the other skills of the language. For that, they need to be helped by the teacher who has the responsibility to guide and assist learners in their writing journey.

3.4. Vocabulary and the Writing Skill

There is no doubt that vocabulary plays an important role in learning a foreign language and it is one element that links the four skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing all together. There is a wealth of research indicating that a rich vocabulary is a critical element of reading ability. First, comprehension improves when we know what the words mean, and since comprehension is the ultimate goal of reading, we cannot overestimate the importance of vocabulary development. Secondly, words are the currency of communication where a robust vocabulary improves all areas of communication which are listening, speaking, reading and writing. In fact, when learners improve their vocabulary, their academic and social confidences improve, too. Research has also shown that lack of vocabulary contributes to writing difficulty for foreign language learners (Santos, 1989; Astika, 1993) and that vocabulary is one of the most important features that determine writing quality (Raimes, 1985; Uzawa & Cumming, 1989; Leki & Carson, 1994; Walters & Wolf, 1996). At any level, written communication is more effective when a depth of vocabulary and command of language is evident. Wilkins (1972) argued that "without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed". And if the writing process is inextricably linked to the reading process, the richness of the learner's vocabulary stock then will have a direct influence upon the accuracy and the quality of their writing.

As stated by Grabe and Kaplan (1996) vocabulary development not only supports reading and writing, it also promotes syntactic flexibility and creates a foundation for further learning. In some ways, the ability to write hinges upon having an adequate vocabulary. However, unlike reading, where the learners may be able to have access to accurate meaning of unfamiliar words, simply by examining the context in which those words are used, during writing the students are creating the context themselves. Students must be able to recall words that are known to be used correctly. Writing then, is dependent upon the ability to draw upon

words to describe an event. In foreign language learning, writing in context, with attention to vocabulary use is a tool for general foreign language improvement (Muncie, 2002).

Moreover, there has been a distinction in literature between receptive or recognition vocabulary understood in reading and productive vocabulary used in writing (Nation, 1984). Laufer and Paribakht (1998) go further to consider learners' recognition vocabulary as passive and productive vocabulary as active. Productive vocabulary is further divided into free active vocabulary that is, words learners voluntarily choose to use and controlled vocabulary which are words learners can use if required. As for the present study, our concern is given to convert learners' receptive vocabulary into productive vocabulary by getting learners to actively use recognised and new words in a way that helps them learn, and reinforce the language structure and vocabulary that they need in writing which is considered as a final, general objective at the end of their instruction, the Baccalaureate exam, for example.

However, the indirect teaching of vocabulary -which assumes that vocabulary expansion will happen through the practice of other language skills-has been proved to be not enough. Duin's (1983) study has found that explicit vocabulary instruction results in greater use of contextually appropriate words as a result of word awareness effect, influencing learners to pay more attention to word choices in writing, enriching the content, and improving sentence structure; the greater the number of different words used, the better the writing. Both Laufer (1994) and Muncie (2001) recommend explicit vocabulary instruction to improve writing. The implication is that the goal of vocabulary teaching must be more than simply covering a certain number of words on a word list, but rather helping learners use this vocabulary in a right context for meaningful purposes, with a particular audience, style and register. The greatest tool teachers can give learners for succeeding not only in their writing and their education and in life is thus, a large rich vocabulary stock and the skills for using it.

3.5. Role of the Teacher in Teaching Writing

We generally hold the view that a teacher with long life experience can, with no doubt, solve students' problems. Ur (1996) puts:

"It has been said that teachers who have been teaching for twenty years may be divided into two categories: Those with twenty years experience and those with one year's experience repeated twenty times." (Ur, 1996:317)

Teachers share the researchers' goal of enabling students improve their writing skills, gaining further advantage on their teaching experiences and innumerable exposures to students' struggles and pitfalls in learning to write. Researchers agree that language teachers should and can play a crucial role in assisting students to acquire writing accuracy and fluency. However, it would be extremely difficult, if not impossible, for teachers to teach students a skill that they themselves have not yet mastered (Graham, MacArthur, & Fitzgerald, 2007). They must be equipped and have a firm grasp of the writing process.

Whether the purpose of writing is learning or writing, teachers of writing have to be there to assist their learners perform a number of crucial tasks. These tasks range from the act of demonstrating the writing conventions and genre constraints in specific types of writing, to the duty of motivating the learners by provoking and prompting their ideas, especially in creative writing. Once they start writing in class, learners need much support and reassurance. Teachers must respond to the content and construction of the learners' written piece supportively and often make suggestions for its improvement (Ur, 1996). The teacher may give oral or written comments to learners to make them aware of the improvements they have done in their writing assignment, thus aiding them become better writers. The teacher has to consider herself a real reader and not a judge. Making a positive comment and explaining would have a rewarding impact on learners, or asking for clarification, reorganization, etc., and making suggestions that help in the revision as moving on from one idea paragraph to another. The teacher has to avoid negative comments that will be taken as humiliation and personal attacks.

Another kind of teachers' reaction to their students' writing is evaluation. Both teachers and learners need to know how well they have done and what standard they have reached. The learners need to know where they made mistakes and learn to put them right. The teachers, on the other hand, need to improve their methods, select their approaches which enable learners master the writing skill.

3.6. Approaches to Teaching Writing

The idea that the ability to write well is a gift that one may or may not be innately born with is a mistaken one (Nunan, 2000: 271). The ability to write well is not a naturally acquired skill; it is usually learned or culturally transmitted as a set of practices in formal instructional settings, namely, classes.

Writing coherently and fluently in a foreign language is an enormous challenge which must always be held in high esteem. It is a nerve-wracking experience to learners and even to teachers, among whom many would prefer to avoid. In fact, learners will not become better writers if they do not spend a relatively substantial part of most of their school days engaged in productive activities. Graves (1985) at this stance states that students should write for at least 30mn a day, say about four days a week to meet their needs and ensure their success. Hence, many good writers could develop this skill through practice i.e., writing assignments that would train them and enhance their writing ability as claimed by Hughes (1989) who sees that 'the best way to test people's writing ability is to get them to write'.(p.75); and effective formal teaching which is based on selected theories, approaches and methods.

Although the way writing is taught has changed radically over the last three decades, three main approaches to the development of EFL writing are often identified in the literature. The first involves a focus on form where emerging writers base their writing against models provided by their teachers (Rivers, 1968). The second approach takes the perspective of a focus on the writer where the construction of a piece of writing goes through cycles of writing and re-writing activities or processes. (White and Arndt, 1991; Ferris & Hedgecock, 2005). The third approach, eventually, focuses on the reader. Writing is viewed as a social activity where texts are produced for a particular purpose or audience (Raimes, 1983; Elbow, 1998). Other approaches to teaching writing have been devised and derived from the foregoing approaches. However, it is commonly agreed upon in literature that applying one approach or another depends on what we want our learners to do. What is worth mentioning here is that we tried to make an eclectic approach to writing that is, the Process Product approach to teaching writing with the experimental group of the present study, during the extra time devoted to intensive reading and listening. Learners were exposed to different text genres and were asked to produce similar texts. During the writing assignment both the process of writing and the final product were given importance.

3.6.1. The Product Approach

Also called 'text focused approach' based on the Behaviourist theory, this approach focuses on the habit formation and imitation to reach a well produced composition. The learners' task is then to imitate text models generally produced by the teachers themselves who consider them as 'good writing' (Coffin et al., 2003). The focus is on the final product which must be correctly arranged to ensure that learners have really achieved language fluency and accuracy. They have to go through different activities and exercise the type of gap filling, substitution and reordering, vocabulary and rhetoric conventions i.e, the mastery of grammatical and lexical systems of the language. Nunan (1989) describes:

The product approach to writing focuses on the end result of the act of composition, i.e. the letter, essay, story and so on. The writing teacher who subscribes to the product approach will be concerned to see that the end product is readable, grammatically correct and obeys discourse conventions relating to main points, supporting details and so on. (p. 36)

However, a major complaint about this approach is that the writer becomes a simple manipulator of already learned language structures (drilling the structures should end in a mastery); the linguistic features and not the quality of ideas. As far as the teachers of the product approach are concerned, they are mere error spotters and correctors of the final outcomes. They examine the finished product focusing more on linguistic accuracy (Mcdonough and Shaw, 1993). They focus on the extent to which the learners have reached in applying a grammar point or using a writing mechanic successfully without paying attention to ideas and creativity.

3.6.2. The Process Approach

This approach, which gained ground in the mid 1970s, emphasizes a shift from the focus on the final product to the writer as the text generator and the process he goes through to generate a text. The text form thus does not constitute the primary concern but the concern goes to the different recursive stages including pre-writing, drafting, revising and editing (Hayes & Flower, 1980). These cyclic stages require special cognitive activities such as brainstorming, selection and ordering ideas, etc. The task is never complete and requires constant revision. We move backward and forward letting ideas in and out until reaching a satisfactory final product. It may be more effective than providing models of particular rhetorical forms and asking learners to follow these models in their own writing. In this stance, Osbina and Hogue (1990) state:

"It is important to note that writing is a process not a 'product'. This means that a piece of writing, whether it is a composition for your English class or lab report for your chemistry class, it is never complete." (p.3)

Meanwhile the teachers' role within this approach should aim at raising learners' awareness to the cognitive activities of interpreting, brainstorming, planning and re-writing they perform through the filter of the different stages of writing. This has been coined by Oxford (1990) as 'strategy training', as has been mentioned in Chapter Two.

3.6.3. The Genre Approach

Genre, a model text, a skeletal or otherwise is worth defining as a type of spoken and written discourse which is recognized by a discourse community. It is recognized as a type by its overall content, structure and function. This approach gained ground in the 1980s and is based on functional linguistics which focuses the relationship between language and its social function. It can be defined in terms of the intended form and the intended function of the writing. By form is meant such written products as letter, laboratory report, or essay. Function can be thought of in terms of communicative functions like: describing, inviting, exposition, argumentation, etc. It focuses on formal discourse characteristics of texts to enable learners use appropriate registers which are important to succeed in particular settings (Paltridge, 2004). The learners have to recognize the different elements of writing: the topic, the conventions and style of the genre and the context in which it will be read and by whom. The aim of the writer then is to reach the same communicative purpose or function exhibited by other texts. Hyland (2004) adds that 'the writer is seen as having certain relationships with his

or her readers, and certain information to convey and the forms of a text are resources used to accomplish these' (p.87). This approach advocates the explicit study of text types, with the belief that the analysis of sample texts can uncover the features and rules for writing in specific situations as well as the contexts they serve for discourse communities (Swales, 1990). Learners go through the different stages of deconstructing dominant genres, analyzing them from a linguistic angle, reproducing them from the analysis of their structural and linguistic features and then generating their own texts that conform to the conventions of each genre. The text deconstruction explores the social contexts in which the texts are written, the social purpose of texts (example to inform, to persuade) and involves explicit knowledge about the structural organization and linguistic features of text types. For instance, the teacher decides on the genre to be taught and identifies which aspects of the text type will be focused upon. The teacher also needs to select a model of the text type to support the explicit teaching about the genre. With the students, they try to identify the purpose of the text, the intended audience, the structural organization of the text (e.g. for a narrative: orientation, complication, resolution), and the specific linguistic features of the text type (e.g. connectives in an argument such as therefore, consequently, in addition, in conclusion, etc).

However, the problem with this approach is that it controls or inhibits learners' identities as writers: it stifles their voice and potential by imposing style and form. Badger and White (2000) talk about the learners' passive performance in the process of modeling the given text. The negative aspect of genre approaches is that they undervalue skills needed to produce a text and see learners as largely passive (p.155). The genre approach misrepresents the process of writing and does not easily transfer to other writing tasks. The learners writers become slave to the text genre and cannot go beyond its precincts. They are guided and focused to follow the conventions of each particular genre and model a similar text using the cues they gathered from each genre deconstruction.

3.6.4. The Creative Writing Approach

It is a new trend in the teaching of the writing skill, which helps learners become more enthusiastic and independent writers. As defined in the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (1998), creative writing is teaching people to write fiction, plays, poetry, etc., which involves skillful and imaginative use of the language to produce a work of art that makes one feel proud. Creativity means novelty, that is, new and alternative ideas are suggested. The novel ideas must be, in some way, reasonable and sensible in the situation concerned. Creativity develops learners' capacity for imaginative activity, leading to outcomes which are judged by appropriate observers to be original and of value (NACCCE, 1999). Gaffield- Vile (1998) contends that creative writing 'is a journey of self- discovery and self-discovery promotes effective learning' (p.31). Creative writing is deemed as the capacity for coping with life effectively (Craft, 2005) since it focuses on the writers selfexperience. Learners are left on their own to produce a good piece of writing i.e. the use of correct, appropriate language. The learners then, develop, share and refine their ideas in a smooth way starting from low levels of phrases and sentences to whole paragraphs (Beetlestone, 1998).

However, creative writing is different from academic writing in that it is more difficult because it deals with a combination of cognitive skills (thinking) and affective traits (feelings and emotions). It focuses on imagination which is the ability to think of all things as possible, thus innovative ways of using information, readiness to deal with the unexpected and flexible thought which has taken on importance.

The teachers' role under this approach is to create opportunities for the learners where they can write without frustration of any text type deconstruction, motivated to tackle their experience using the language that suits their needs. The teacher has to create a supporting environment in which learners feel empowered in writing (Mayer, 2007), by setting good contexts that fit learners' daily life experiences and organizing peer work. They can expose learners to a varied, rich material such as visual arts (videos); music; role-play and drama (narration). This material selection has been proved to help learners make sense of experiences and the world around them far from being experts at consuming knowledge but rather producing and creating this knowledge (Bruner, 2003; Egan, 2005).

3.6.5.The Cooperative Writing Approach

The cooperative writing approach is one trend of writing devised under the umbrella of collaborative learning which involves developing instructional arrangements where learners work as a team. Learners can become more reflective by acting as revealing mirrors to each other (John-Steiner, 2000). Under this approach a well performing student is assigned to be the helper (tutor) and a low performing student is assigned to be the writer (tutee). The learners are introduced to work as partners on a writing task. The helper student assists the writer student with meaning, organization, spelling, punctuation, generating ideas, creating a draft, rereading essays and editing them, choosing the best copy and evaluating the final product. Throughout the intervention, the teacher's role is to monitor, prompt and praise the students and address their concerns. The Cooperative writing approach is thus devised to match these concerns; it has been proved to encourage motivation and develop positive attitudes towards the writing activities (Spencer, 1983; Nunan, 1991). Earlier, Slavin (1980) describes cooperative learning as students working in small groups and are given rewards according to their performance. The notion of teaching writing as a process was developed during the 1980s, and was based to a great extent on Graves (1983) influential book Writing: Teachers and Children at Work. Learners in this approach do not write on a given topic in a restricted time and hand in the composition for the teacher to correct. Rather, they explore a to read over, think about and move them on to new ideas (Raimes, 1983).

The use of the cooperative learning in the writing classroom has therefore been proved to culminate positive outcomes in terms of the students writing performance. The investigations show that cooperative arrangements, in which students work in a team and help each other with one or more aspects of their writing, have a strong positive impact on quality. Kagan and High (2002) recommend the incorporation of cooperative learning in teaching writing. They conducted a study which showed that students performed better in writing when cooperative learning was incorporated in the classroom.

In essence, this approach shows a strong impact on improving the quality of learners' writing. Its effectiveness is compared with that of having students compose independently (Dailey, 1991; MacArthur et al., 1991). Besides, Harmer (2006) believes that writing in groups is effective in both Genre-based and Process approach to teaching writing. He adds that learners find the writing activity motivating when they embark on the research discussed on the topics, have peer evaluation and achieve the group's goals.

To sum up with the writing approaches, it is worth pointing that they should be seen as complementary and overlapping perspectives representing potentially compatible means of understanding the complex reality of writing (Hyland, 2003). Badger & White (2000) advocate the Genre Approach works best when it is joined with the Process Approach.

Enabling students to attain writing skills is the goal of teachers. Much of the writing research to date has concentrated on devising strategies to help students organize and sequence behaviours (Graham, Harris & McArthur, 2004). These writing strategies are tailored to fit genres that are common to most educational curricula, and the cognitive processes of planning, revising and editing. As far as the experimental group of the present

68

study is concerned, we opted for both the genre-based and the process approaches to writing, including some sequences of creativity and peer's counseling moments.

Conclusion

The attempt in this chapter has been to discuss the writing skill, its definition, objectives, its relationship with the other skills, mainly, reading and vocabulary as the essence of any written piece. Some light was also shed on the different approaches that govern the teaching of the writing skill. However, what is worth pointing is that we have intended to do not write much about the assessment of this skill partly because first evaluation or assessment, which are considered as being synonymous within the present study, were not taken into consideration as having achievement or selection ends. Instead, the writing tasks assigned to both the control and the experiment groups in our experiment were not meant for any kind of grading but rather to establish a kind of formative, continuous evaluation i.e., to adjust instruction by providing feedback that aims primarily at helping learners develop their writing, focusing on confidence building; and engaging learners in a conversation about their ideas or writing choices so as to help them see themselves as successful and promising writers. This continuous evaluation aimed at noticing any kind of improvement of the high school foreign language learners' writing in terms of vocabulary use and richness, after a period of extra work which included both reading and listening. Second because the notion of assessing writing is worth a whole chapter for itself, since it has received much attention and investigation during the last two decades, cannot be compressed into a few numbers of pages. However if students are to improve their writing skill they must be given ample opportunities to write, and their writing must be subjected to a thorough assessment. Assessing the writing skill is viewed as devices for gathering information about a student's abilities or skills and the quality of his/her outcomes. It encompasses all sorts of activities that the teachers engage in to

evaluate their learners' writing progress. Basic issues in assessment include discussions of direct versus indirect objective writing tests; holistic and analytic scoring; validity; reliability; and practicality.

The teachers' role in assessing the writing skill is, therefore, to be readers rather than judges. They need to act as motivators, collaborators, critics and be able to provide different types of response which focus on the sections that need improvement and highlight the aspects which are clear and poetic that is, creative. These responses may be dialogue journals, peer response, using check lists or portfolios, etc.

Chapter 4

The Research Situation Analysis

Introduction	73
4.1 The Sample	73
4.2 Procedures	74
4.2.1 Timetable and Activities	74
4.2.2 Content	76
4.2.2.1 Fairy Tales	77
4.2.2.2 Movies, Songs and Games	78
4.2.3 Activities	
4.2.3.1 Comprehension Questions	78
4.2.3.2 Finding Synonyms/ Definitions/ Opposites	
4.2.3.3 Matching/ deriving words	79
4.2.3.4 Puzzles and Crosswords	79
4.2.3.5 Translation	79
4.2.3.6 Gap filling	80
4.2.3.7 Discussion	80
4.3 Data collection Process	81
4.3.1 The Writing Assignments	82
4.3.1.1 Describing a Character	
4.3.1.2 Book/Film Review	
4.3.1.3 Create a Fairy Tale	83
4.4. Results and Implications	
4.4. 1 Results Analysis	84
4.4. 1.1 Activity I	84
4.4. 1.2.Activity II	87
4.4. 1.3Activity III	93
4.4. 2 Discussion	95
4.4. 2.1 Research Question n°1	95
4.4. 2.2 Research Question n° 2	
4.4. 2.3 Research Question n° 3	
4.4. 2.4 Strategy Use	99
4.4.3 Teacher's Role during the Experiment	99

4.4.4 Putting It Altogether	100
Conclusion	103

Chapter 4

Introduction

This chapter intends to present the different procedures followed by the teacherinvestigator during the implementation phase to detect any improvement in the students' writings due to the extra work including intensive and extensive reading and listening and using drama, songs, videos, games, etc. It also aims to check whether students' vocabulary stock is enriched with the implementation of these variables.

4.1. The Sample

The study took place in Tarek Ben Ziad High school in Constantine, during the school yea 2007/2008. Two groups of first year scientific stream including: 18 students in the experimental group (Exp), and 18 students in the control group (Ctrl) with a medium age of 15. The first year groups are formed randomly each year. It is until the second year that the selection is made based on the orientation and the grades obtained by the pupils, thus the random sampling necessary for an experiment was not possible. The participants constituted the first generation of the reforms established by the Ministry of Education since the school year 2003-2004. The reforms include the extension of the period of English learning as a foreign language from two years during the middle school phase to four years. What was worth noticing with the participants in our experiment is that they were better equipped in terms of writing assignments than the previous generations. The reforms students could write whole meaningful paragraphs if compared with the precedent generations, who could barely write correct sentences.

First year scientific stream-classes are allocated three hours for English learning per week, a time allocation which has never satisfied both the students and the teachers, to learn a core course as the English language. As far as the teachers of Constantine are concerned, during the seminars with the inspectors, the quest for more time was the ever demand, basing their advocation on the learning theories and teaching principles which encourage the use of the foreign language in real life situations with authentic content materials. The learning thus, will be meaningful with content suitable to the learners' needs that will be able to discover the language structure and detect the meaning of the new words in accurate, authentic contexts rather than artificial, complicated grammatical rules and vocabulary lists and all these objectives could not be reached if time is not available.

4.2 Procedures

4.2.1 Timetable and Activities

It was impossible for the teacher researcher to have at least two additional free hours to insert the content of the extra work. However, as far as the participants of the study are concerned, their weekly timetable did not include the physical education subject matter; partly because there were only two sport teachers at that time; and partly because there were too many first year classes than usual (12 classes). A situation which obliged the school administration to drop the physical education from the students' timetable and thus afforded free time to the teacher-investigator to make the experiment.

For the control group, however, the participants were released to go home each Tuesday at 14:00 whereas the experimental group population was kept for two hours every Wednesday from 10:00 to 12:00. The implementation of the extra work was very possible and the school principal did not object the exploitation of the learners' free time because what matters most is to keep them busy all the time they are in the school from making troubles or lazing around. Therefore, we could organise the different activities during these hours around

making the students more involved, more responsible and mainly more motivated to do something new. The table below shows the different activities and tasks assigned to the experimental (Exp) group during the second and the third terms. A period, which gave us the total of twenty (20) hours if we exclude the weeks during which examinations were held and the holidays.

	Months and activities					
Weeks	January	February	March	April	May	
Week One	-Storytelling: "The Four Musicians" -Listen and answer -Time for a song: "Sing with the Chorus" - Vocabulary game: "Who is the Character?"	 -Read, listen and sing: "Little Red Riding Hood" -Make a summary of the fairy tale. -Time for the song: fill in the gaps: "Earth Song" By: M.Jackson 	 -Read, listen and sing: " SnowWhite and the 7 Dwarfs" - translate the tale from English to Arabic/French (group work) - Sing with the chorus 	-Read and answer the questions - Make a summary of: "Beauty and the Beast" and "The Cat in Boots" -Exchange works for peer correction	 Listen and answer the questions: "Les Fables de la Fontaine" Look for definitions, synonyms and opposites (vocabulary game) 	
Week Two	-Movie time: "Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets" -Class discussion - describe a hero	-Grammar game: past tenses and 'ed' pronunciation -Create a tongue twister	 Peter Pan (read and answer) Deduce the morals Time for a game: Puzzles Crosswords Riddles Jokes 	-Movie time: "Peter Pan: Finding Never Land" -Class discussion about the setting and the actors	 -Read aloud: "The Lion King " time for a song 'Heal the World' by M. Jackson 'Mamma' by Celine Dion 	

 Table 4.2.1 Content of the Extra Work

Moreover, the teaching practice for this research has two major parts: (1) the use of the special techniques such as storytelling, music, songs, videos, vocabulary games with the Exp group and (2) the teaching using the textbook material with the ctrl group.

Based on the language learning theories and studies advocating the use of storytelling, songs games, etc., (cf. Chapter One), a list of activities has been prepared by the teacher according to the profile that involves the learners' needs and interests in addition to the main objectives of the study. The following are some of the techniques and activities used in the experiment:

-Peripheral learning: asking learners to collect tales, poems, songs, films and games related to the theme of the unit under study "Once Upon a Time"

- Listening and question answering.

-Reading, inferencing and guessing.

-Finding synonyms, definitions and opposites.

-Playing games (grammar and vocabulary).

-Conducting discussions about a movie or a fairy tale.

-Contextualizing (creating stories).

-Translating and writing poems.

However, it has to be noted that it was impossible to make use of all the activities with the experimental group. The activities were carefully chosen from the list above and planned to be used in the classroom according to so other variables in the setting such as learners' characteristics, time, teaching tools, etc.

4.2.2. Content

Research shows that we need to encounter a word about ten or twelve times or more before we know it well enough to help us comprehend what we read. When learners had enough encounters with a word, they will begin to use it in their writing, and that word then becomes a part of their personal vocabulary bank. The aim of this is to help learners improve their vocabularies through much listening; speaking, and reading, for which the researcher has designed a set of material which includes the following.

4.2.2.1. Fairy Tales

In the Algerian high-school classrooms, writing has an important role to play, and learners are generally required to submit written composition every term-end, in addition to the final exams (BEM and BAC exams). The majority of the teachers rely heavily on textbooks and design writing assignments based on ideas provided in these textbooks.

However, the English syllabus of the first year scientific stream comprises a unit which deals with the fairy tales (Sinbad, Alice in the Wonderland), and novels and literary works (Things Fall Apart, Coke Town). The unit is entitled: Once Upon A Time and has as general objectives the development of pupils ability to read, analyze, and discuss a story, its characters, its setting and the plot. Pupils are also expected to use the necessary vocabulary and tense when narrating. For this reason, we opted for a simple, but elaborated edition of the fairy tales mentioned in Table 4.2.1 previously, considering that the general level of the learners is not up to higher- levelled books although we met some exceptions of students who, justifiably, asked for more complex literary works and found the fairy tales beneath their needs and interests.

The list of the materials includes : "Snowwhite and the Seven Dwarfs", "Peter Pan", "The Four Musicians", "Little Red Riding Hood", "The Lion King", "Les fables de la Fontaine" and "The Cat in Boots". (See Appendix#2)

77

4.2.2.2. Movies, Songs and Games

As far as the movie and song time are concerned, the teacher helped the participants to choose, then bring the following: "Peter Pan: Finding Never land" and "Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets" as movies. For the songs, a class agreement was reached after a discussion about serious songs with Standard English which treat, to some extent, the topic of the unit in question. Last, the grammar and vocabulary games were selected by the teacher herself. (See appendices#1 and 3)

4.2.3. Activities

4.2.3.1. Comprehension questions

After having the learners listen to a story or read it twice and asking them to pause at appropriate points, to explain vocabulary or to elaborate the context, they were given an activity to answer, questions about the form of the text, questions about the gist of the story, its main characters, their description and the setting. The activity was usually held in a funny atmosphere. Every single learner was involved in the discussion where she could give her opinion either orally or in a written form. The tales book cover was also so colourful and attractive that the learners spent all the time in watching the pictures and illustrations even if it sometimes generated laughter, because they considered it as a child game.

4.2.3.2. Finding Synonyms, Definitions and Opposites

A very interesting activity to both teacher and learners, dictionaries were close companions to learners who tried each time to look for a new vocabulary definition in a competitive way. It was a moment of glory when a student found the definition first. The newly defined words were then linked to the context of the story and consolidated.

4.2.3.3. Matching /Deriving Words

This activity has a unique aim: it is to enrich the learners' vocabulary stock. The teacher, however, did not use the word list type of activity, but tried to introduce the vocabulary items in a context close to that of the fairy tales.

4.2.3.4. Puzzles and Crosswords

It is one of the most motivating and challenging activities. It helps in boosting the brain to find solutions to the problem. It also creates competition between learners which means more motivation to learn the foreign language.

4.2.3.5. Translation

The use of L1 in foreign language classes is a controversial issue and much debate has been taking place among educators and linguists about the impact of such an issue on foreign language learning. Yet, the use of learners' native language in the foreign language classroom remains very important (Guthrie, 1984; Atkinson, 1987). Learners often complain about the English teacher, who rarely uses Arabic in the English class. It is difficult for the underachieving learners to understand what the teacher says in English because of the accumulated weakness and limited competence in the foreign language. Schmidt (1995:26) points out that "lower level students can easily be left behind. If only the (foreign language) is allowed, they may frequently miss out an explanation and instruction and can become discouraged".

However, some students claim that they sometimes dislike the English classes because their teachers overuse Arabic in class. They want to communicate fluently and achieve real foreign language competence. For these reasons the teacher researcher introduced the translation activity during the period of the implementation. The less competent students would find it a relaxing and a defrightening opportunity to learn new vocabulary related to the fairy tales. For the good students, on the other hand, a translation activity would mean a challenging occasion to prove their ability to find equivalent words in both languages L1 and the foreign language and thus, the teacher would have a compromise between the rare use and the overuse of the learners' native language.

4.2.3.6. Gap Filling

This activity was intended for the listening section only, just for the purpose of knowing the degree of retention of the new vocabulary. The learners had no written support except for the notes taken during listening to the tale. They were then asked to fill in the gaps to complete a similar story, if any.

4.2.3.7 Class Discussion

One of the most powerful factors affecting vocabulary learning through speaking is negotiation of meaning. It occurs when learners deliberately explain language items in communication to each other or ask for clarification from the teacher. A class-discussion was held after each fairy tale or movie to enable learners express themselves, give their opinions and clarify ambiguities.

In all, during the next fairy tale introduced, learners were left on their own. They were asked to read or listen to the story, take notes, contextualize a vocabulary item, try to give its deriving words, fill in a table about the characters and then write a full description. No scores were meant to be given but only oral praise which had had a positive effect on learners.

4.3 Data Collection Procedure

Data collection lasted approximately three months, between the beginning – February 2008 and the end- April of the same year. This time period was selected for the only reason that the intended unit dealing with narrating is programmed during this period of the school year. In the syllabus, however, the unit requires twenty hours to be covered. But with the period of examinations and holidays, it took us until mid-may 2008 to be fully achieved and this gave us the opportunity for a better implementation of the extra work of the experiment.

Meanwhile, the teacher had prepared the learners for the experiment by telling that they will have extra hours to study the English language, and will carry out a number of tasks, but neither the number, the nature nor the tasks dates were specified. At first, the learners refused and expressed a deep disagreement because it was depressing to them to have more hours to learn a programme they feel difficult and boring. However, once the teacher had explained the procedures and the content of the extra work, a wind of joy, excitement, curiosity and motivation blew the classroom, especially when the teacher asked them to start looking for the material needed. Even the less competent learners showed a readiness to bring whatever material they could to make learning livelier. Doors were open for every single discussion and modification.

For the participants of the control group, on the other hand, nothing new was introduced. The three hours per week time was strictly followed and no extra work was introduced. The teacher followed the conventional method, trying to end up with the unit under study on time. Therefore, data for these twenty hours study came from:

- The learners' outcomes collected after the writing assignments during the official classes of the two groups of the experiment.

81

- Observation of the learners' behaviour during the extra work time and the official classes for both groups.
- A material review: the teacher's material design with the experimental group of the study.

4.3.1. The Writing Assignments

At the outset of the study, the major goal was to find out if there was any relationship between the insertions of fun class work including: storytelling, songs, games, etc., and improvement of the learners' vocabulary stock during a writing activity. Therefore, learners in both groups were assigned a textbook activity after each three weeks of the implementation. The activities ranged from the least complex to the most demanding one: (1) describing a character, (2) book/ film review, and (3) creating a fairy tale. (See Appendix # 4)

4.3.1.1. Activity 1: Describing a character

It is an activity which is part of the first year textbook and was assigned to both the control and experimental group. The control group participants, on one hand, were asked to describe the two characters in Achebe's "Things Fall Apart": Okonkwo and Unoka from a table which provided their physical description, personality traits and their likes and dislikes. The experimental group participants, on the other hand, were asked to do the same characters' description with the exception that they have been given opportunity to make similar descriptions during the extra work implementation.

4.3.1.2. Activity 2: Book/Film Review

The nature of this activity, included in the textbook(see appendix#4), aimed at encouraging learners to communicate their opinion about a film they have watched or a book they have read recently and felt it worth exchanging with their classmates. An example of the

book review is furnished in the textbook and the focus was to use special vocabularies linked to the setting the plot, and the characters.

4.3.1.3. Activity 3: Create a Short Fairy Tale.

This activity does not appear in the unit's plan, but is rather considered as a final objective of the unit's project. It was assigned to both groups and took over two weeks to be fully achieved, because the teacher followed a process approach to writing. Students moved from one stage to another to reach the final product (drafting, revising, re-drafting, polishing and editing). The teacher arranged the participants of both groups of the study under eight sub-groups of about four students each. The learners were encouraged to choose their group mates and give names to their groups, a situation which generated much fun and motivation.

As it is a fact in a foreign language class, a teacher can make use of the social dynamics in the classroom and conduct a lot of peer or group work activities. "Groups are able to process more information collectively than individuals."(John, 1989: 358) Of course it was very easy for the teacher researcher to give assignments and send learners home to prepare their tasks, but when students talk together about words, they activate prior knowledge and use a variety of processing skills including listing, interpreting, categorizing, generalizing and labelling..

Moreover, the teacher in the experiment could involve the learners in group works and activities around what Scarecella and Oxford (1992) advocate. They suggest using pair work, group work or cooperative learning activities (learner-centered learning) to help in not putting too much pressure on individual students in front of the whole class. That is why we thought that these activities are necessary because the English classes in our high schools still tend to be in general more teacher-centered that's why most of our students are rather passive.

Helping the learners create a fairy tale was a challenging task. The aim in organising the work under groups was to boost learners' creativity, a principle almost advocated by theoreticians in the pedagogical field, such as Vygotsky's(1962) seminal works. Moran and John-Steiner (2004) note:

He viewed the creative process as an interaction, tension, transformation and analysis over the parallel time scales of the creative life and historical, cultural development." (p. 62)

Learners' outcomes in both groups of the experiment and after each activity were collected and later analysed, to detect any improvement in the learners' writings in terms of the quantity and the quality of vocabulary used. The results are further discussed in the coming section of the chapter comprising the results and their implications.

4.4. Results and Implications

The learners' works in the control and the experimental groups were gathered after each task and analysed on the basis of the quantity and quality of the vocabulary items used (nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs).

While analysing the statistical information, a comparative study is done to reach some concrete conclusions. The results of the experimental group are compared to the results of the control group and are later matched to research questions of this study.

4.4.1 Description of the Results

4.4.1.1 Activity 1: Describing a Character

The average number of words used in this activity, according to the teacher's model, reaches about 45 words. The learners were asked to read the table and use the information included to describe the characters in Chinua Achebe's "Things Fall Apart" (see

Appendix# 4). The results obtained from the comparative study are shown in Tables 01 and 02 below. A vocabulary item that was correctly used more than once was counted only once. A vocabulary item containing an error in meaning and /or spelling were not counted as errors.

Students	Nouns	Adjectives	Verbs	Adverbs	Total
Student1	16	14	04	00	34
Student2	15	14	03	00	32
Student3	10	10	03	00	23
Student4	16	14	03	00	33
Student5	15	13	04	00	32
Student6	18	14	04	01	37
Student7	16	14	04	00	34
Student8	11	11	03	00	25
Student9	18	12	03	00	33
Student10	16	13	03	00	32
Student11	16	14	04	00	34
Student12	17	14	03	00	34
Student13	17	14	04	00	35
Student14	20	14	04	02	40
Student15	18	14	04	00	36
Student16	17	13	04	00	34
Student17	14	14	04	00	32
Student18	16	14	03	00	33
Total	280	220	64	03	593

Table 01. Results Obtained by the Ctrl Group Participants

Average number of words used per work: $32.89 \rightarrow 33$

Students	Nouns	Adjectives	Verbs	Adverbs	Total
Student1	20	17	04	04	45
Student2	12	13	04	02	31
Student3	18	14	04	03	39
Student4	10	08	03	00	21
Student5	12	08	04	01	25
Student6	18	14	03	02	37
Student7	16	14	03	00	33
Student8	15	11	03	02	31
Student9	15	16	03	02	36
Student10	16	13	04	01	34
Student11	20	15	04	03	42
Student12	18	15	04	02	39
Student13	17	14	03	01	35
Student14	10	07	02	01	20
Student15	16	13	04	02	35
Student16	16	14	04	02	36
Student17	15	15	03	01	34
Student18	17	15	05	03	40
Total	281	236	64	32	613

Table 02. Results Obtained by the Exp Group Participants

Average number of words used per work: $34.05 \rightarrow 35$

As said before, the content of the activity was provided in a table form. It shows that all the control group participants could reach the average number of words used per work (32.89), with the exception of few competent students who could add more vocabulary items to make a perfect description. However, as for the adverbs use, only two students succeeded in using the adverbs provided in the table. This does not mean that these students who failed to use adverbs do not know them or have not encountered them enough times. Indeed, they focused more on the adjectives, nouns and verbs and denied the use of adverbs, may be because of:

1- Prior devaluation of adverbs, because they think they are useless.

2- Or simply because these students may be lacking the linguistic knowledge (vocabulary knowledge) about the use of adverbs in describing people.

For the students of the experimental group, however, they succeeded in obtaining a higher average of words used per work (34.05) than that obtained by the Ctrl group participants. The Exp group participants could make use of the adverbs provided with the exception of two students. The success in this activity may be attributed to many factors, among which the implementation of the extra work is evident. During the period of the extra work implementation, students got in touch, for several times, with different characters of the fairy tales. In addition to the so many discussions held about the heroes and the amount of game activities. The frequent use of adjectives and adverbs has had an impact on their use in the characters description. However, we cannot consider this advance over the Ctrl group as absolute evidence about the success of the experiment, but it can be taken as an indicator of its importance.

4.4.1.2 Activity II: Book/ Film Review

Within this activity, a split in choice was made in both groups of the experiment, about the review that the students were asked to make. For the Ctrl group eight (08) students chose book review, and the eleven (10) remaining students chose film review. The same case happened with the Exp group. Only three (03) students opted for the book review whereas

fifteen (15) students chose the film review (see tables: 03-04-05 and 06). This preference of the film over the book may be attributed to two factors:

- First, the secondary school students do not read books, novels and tales. They do not even read their school textbooks.
- 2- Second, films attract adolescents and leave impact on them. They like the heroes, the pictures and the animation, a fact that marks their feelings, behaviours and judgments.

4.4.1.2.1 Book Review

For the control group participants, on one hand, the ideas were mostly taken from their childhood or a previous experience. They remembered the stories they were told by elders, or read during their education such as: Snowwhite, Djeha stories or Kalila wa Dimna. What is worth mentioning is that all the stories or tales were non- English books, and the students opted for the direct (word by word) translation to give their opinion about the story. As it was always the case with the participants of this study, competent students succeeded to reach the average number of words used (32 words), as shown in Table 03 below, whereas the less competent students could hardly imitate the model provided in the first year textbook. As far as the quality of words is concerned, students in this group could use the vocabulary provided in the textbook about the characters, the setting and the narrative. The choice of words was made on the basis of the story type: funny and amusing for *Djeha* stories, charming and fascinating for *Snowwhite*.

Students	Nouns	Adjectives	Verbs	Adverbs	Total
Student1	14	14	04	00	34
Student2	10	14	03	00	32
Student3	06	10	03	00	23
Student4	15	14	03	00	33
Student5	15	13	04	00	32
Student6	14	14	04	01	37
Student7	/	/	/	/	Absent
Student8	08	04	03	00	15
Total	82	39	38	13	172

Table 03. Results Obtained by the Ctrl Group Participants (Book Review)

Average number of words used per work: $21.5 \rightarrow 22$

Table 04. Results Obtained by the Exp Group Participants (Book Review)

Students	Nouns	Adjectives	Verbs	Adverbs	Total
Student1	20	14	10	06	50
Student2	15	08	08	02	32
Student3	15	07	06	03	31
Total	50	29	24	11	114

Average number of words used per work: 38

For the Exp group, on the other hand, a clear difference could be noticed, as indicated in Table 04 above. Among the participants, a girl student wrote about a classic that even the teacher did not read: Margaret Mitchell's *Gone with the Wind*. She provided a longer, and clearer review in comparison to her group mates who chose the fairy tales of *Snowwhite and the Seven Dwarfs*, and *Les Fables de la Fontaine**. The average number of words used in this group reached 38 words. If we compare the results obtained in Table 03 to those in Table 04 we will find a clear difference which may have several explanations:

- 1- The student of the Exp group who succeeded in scoring the highest average of words used is a brilliant one and is among the most competent students of the whole first year classes.
- 2- The different stories read and the film watched until the fifth week of the experiment could have its positive impact on the learners' writings in comparison to the control group subjects.
- 3- As mentioned before (cf. Chapter Three) good readers tend to be good writers because they encounter many text genres with rich vocabulary. It is the case of the experimental participants which explains their advance over the control group ones.

4.4.1.2.2 Film Review

The majority of students opted for a film review instead of sharing a book topic with their classmates. This is due to the big impact movies leave on people, not only adolescents but adults as well.

The ten control group participants wrote about a variety of movies, ranging from cartoons to action and historical films. The average number of words used did not go beyond 27 words per work (see Table 05). This is certainly due to the lack of encounters and exemplary works which help in gaining a vocabulary repertoire and a text genre stock that are useful in writing.

Students	Nouns	Adjectives	Verbs	Adverbs	Total
Student9	14	08	05	02	29
Student10	14	10	04	01	29
Student11	12	06	04	03	25
Student12	10	08	02	01	21
Student13	08	04	02	00	14
Student14	16	10	07	03	36
Student15	14	12	05	00	31
Student16	11	06	04	01	22
Student17	12	05	03	00	20
Student18	08	10	08	02	28
Total	119	79	44	13	255

Table 05. Results Obtained by the Ctrl Participants

Average number of words used per work: $26.27 \rightarrow 27$

For the experimental group, however, 15 students chose to write about their favourite movies, and as mentioned in Table 06 below they reached more than 41 words as average number of words used per work. Among the participants (08) students talked about *Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets* movie which they have seen and discussed during the experiment, though they may have watched it before but not the English version. The richness in using the different word classes (nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs) was superior to that of the control group especially with adjectives (magical, fascinating, amazing gorgeous...). This may be due to the fact that the experimental group had seen the movie a week before the assignment and had enough activities about it like: comprehension questions, finding synonyms, expressing opinion, and so forth. Such a fact also explains the leaning of the majority of the students towards film review instead of book review.

Students	Nouns	Adjectives	Verbs	Adverbs	Total
Student4	20	16	09	05	50
Student5	15	16	05	03	39
Student6	19	15	06	04	44
Student7	13	12	06	02	33
Student8	17	14	06	02	39
Student9	19	18	07	05	49
Student10	13	15	04	02	34
Student11	18	20	09	06	53
Student12	17	17	08	02	44
Student13	17	15	06	02	40
Student14	08	06	03	00	17
Student15	17	15	09	02	43
Student16	16	17	08	02	43
Student17	16	17	08	04	45
Student18	19	18	10	06	53
Total	244	231	104	47	626

Table 06. Results Obtained by the Exp Group Participants

Average number of words used per work: $41.73 \rightarrow 42$

4.4.1.3 Activity III: Create a Short Fairy Tale

One of the demanding, but the motivating activities in the present study is the writing of a short fairy tale assigned to the different sub-groups of the Exp and Ctrl participants. Students like to be in groups, partly because it is a method which breaks the ice of the class routine, and partly because the students are generally left free to do what suits them i.e., talk, laugh, comment on each other, use the L1, etc. In both groups, learners were very excited and motivated and enjoyed the task until the last phase of the process of writing. However, the results exposed in Tables 07 and 08 shed light on the considerable improvement reached by the experimental group at the expense of the control group in term of word use.

Groups	Nouns	Adjectives	Verbs	Adverbs	Total
Fantastic 4	47	18	30	08	103
The Fighters	59	15	27	06	107
Princesses	38	29	22	06	95
Ambition	22	19	10	03	54
Totals	166	81	89	23	359

Table 07. Results Obtained by the Ctrl Group Participants

Average number of words used per work: 89.75

The Ctrl participants reached the average of about 89 words per work and used 166 nouns, 81 adjectives, 89 verbs and 23 adverbs. The topics of the fairy tales created were inspired from every student's childhood experience. However, some groups were better than others concerning the quality of the writings. This is because of the students' division into sub-groups. The teacher did not make the division herself and left it to the learners in both groups of the experiment to choose their group mates, a fact that created disequilibrium among the sub-groups. Boys created their own group and called it *"Fighters"*. The competent girls of the group formed their own group named the *"Fantastic Four"* and the rest of the class did the same thing. They formed their own groups and named them; two. But, according to the results obtained by the learners during the first and the second terms only five (05) students of the Ctrl group were good enough in English. The rest of the group can be considered as less competent to weak- leveled students. Moreover the "Ambition" group which comprised the girls, who scored the lowest average in the use of vocabulary, could

hardly reach the fairy tale's final draft with, of course, the teacher's help and guidance during the writing process.

The Exp group, however, tried to create fairy tales that would impress the reader. They were exposed to different materials during the twenty hours of the experiment and felt the challenge to create these tales. Their focus exceeded the quantity of words to their quality: the colours and the over all design. They reached an average of 99 words, as it is shown in Table 08 below:

Groups	Nouns	Adjectives	Verbs	Adverbs	Total
Power	59	37	18	09	123
Dreamers	70	38	31	10	149
Desert Fighters	43	19	10	06	78
The 4 Cats	29	10	06	04	49
Totals	201	104	65	29	399

Table 08. Results Obtained by the Exp Group Participants

Average number of words used per work: 99.75

The learners used expressions that they have encountered during the extra work like: "Once upon a time", " the magic land", "secrets", "the witch and the fairy", "the monster", "the evil", etc. In one of the works a dialogue was created in the story between the hero and the devil. The learners used the direct speech to quote it. However, as with the Ctrl group, the learners in the Exp group were left on their own to make the sub- groups. Good students gathered themselves under one group, and less competent students in other groups. The group of "*Dreamers*" for instance, as we learnt later, comprised five brilliant participants; three of them were the best students in the Baccalaureate exam of 2009-2010 school year (They scored over 16/20 a mean that enabled them to be invited by the President.) "*Desert Fighters*" and "*The Four Cats*", on the other hand, included the less competent students who have always found it difficult to write.

Furthermore, in terms of word use, either quality or quantity, the Exp sub- groups took advance over the Ctrl ones. The former groups used 201 nouns, 104 verbs, 65 verbs and 29 adverbs. The latter ones instead, used only 166 nouns, 81 adjectives, 89 verbs and 23 adverbs.

However, if we consider the number of groups that were close to the average number of words used per each work we notice that the Ctrl groups took advance over the Exp ones. This can only be explained by the random organizations of students in the first year classes and the groups are by and large homogenous.

4.4.2 Discussion of the Results

We wanted to analyse students outcomes of the activities they were assigned and correlate the findings with the research questions of this study as stated in Chapter One. The research questions of the study are as follows:

1-Can intensive/ extensive reading and listening result in an enrichment of secondary school learners' foreign language vocabulary?

2-To what extend do the types of activities selected for the implementation affect the learners' writing in terms of words use?

3- How can fun and hilarity generate motivation to learn (acquire and produce) a foreign language; and improve learners' strategy use?

4.4.2.1 Research Question n° 1

The first research question is about the positive effect of intensive and extensive reading and listening on vocabulary learning. This section aims to discuss the obtained results

95

for the application of alternative vocabulary teaching strategies to actualise more effective learning and to know to what extents it is achievable. Thus, in order to have a clearer and a better understanding of the obtained results, it is necessary to go into the details of the data analysis.

The findings of the comparative study between the experimental and the control group results ended to the conclusion that there is an essential change or improvement in terms of vocabulary learning and use. The experimental group's participants showed advantage in the use of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, in opposition to the control group participants. Learners of the Exp group wrote better pieces of writing, with very rich vocabularies that we attributed to the period of implementation during which learners encountered the different expressions needed to create a fairy tale.

The exposure of the learners to different vocabularies in different contexts such as fairy tales, songs, games, has been quite effective and successful. The fairy tales produced at the end were true pieces of good writing (see Appendix# 5) where care and intention were given to both content and form.

In addition, it was apparent in our research that the conventional methods or techniques of teaching vocabulary are not effective and satisfying, neither for the teacher, nor for the learners. In this stance, Nation and Wang (1999) state that a good extensive reading and listening has the following features: it provides plenty of interesting material. It encourages learners to read at least a book in a week. It encourages them to learn most of the general unknown vocabulary met while listening or reading texts. It also provides opportunities for learners to talk and write about their reading or listening experiences. And of course, an intensive/ extensive reading and listening will certainly increase vocabulary knowledge. (Elley, 1991)

96

Moreover, creating a classroom atmosphere in which words are fun, and playing with words (vocabulary games) is encouraged and can be a powerful antidote to the very natural fear of making mistakes that can so easily inhibit learning (Thornbury, 2002). Pupils can experience the feeling and meaning of the words: nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs are better understood when learners physically act them out in the sequential order found in basic sentences.

4.4.2.2 Research Question n° 2

This question aims at finding out to which extent the techniques and activities used have reached to improve learners' writings and enrich their vocabulary stock. In Chapter Three, we shed light on the importance of the integrated, systematic vocabulary instruction in the foreign language classroom. An instruction that is based on teacher- directed interaction and negotiation and psycholinguistic principles of word learning which would train and help learners develop certain strategies in acquiring the new vocabulary necessary for any context.

Moreover, writing in context with attention to vocabulary use is a tool for general foreign language improvement. Vocabulary is one of the most important features that determine writing quality (Raimes, 1985; Uzawa and Cumming, 1989; Leki and Carson, 1994; Walters and Wolf, 1996) that is why the teacher investigator intended to select vocabulary items for the target composition. After each reading or listening section, the teacher designed a set of activities with the aim of inserting and consolidating the recognition and the use of the vocabularies necessary for the production of the particular pieces of writing programmed for the study during the conventional learning method.

The results, therefore, confirmed that the choice of activities has had a positive impact in the Exp group's writings. The participants produced better writings, describing a character, book/ film review and the creation of the fairy tales, in comparison to the control group subjects. The learners' writings in the experimental group increased significantly after the period of extra work in terms of vocabulary use linked to the context of the unit under study: *"Once Upon a Time"*

4.4.2.3 Research Question n° 3

Regarding the third research question investigating the role of fun and games in generating motivation to learn a foreign language, the participants of the experimental group enjoyed the sessions of the extra work though there were tasks to perform like answering comprehension questions and making summaries of the fairy tales. The atmosphere created by the use of stories, songs, movies and games put the learners in an environment much advocated by the Suggestopedia Method for language learning (Lozanov, 1978) a fact that diminished the absenteeism in the experimental class if compared with the conventional classes.

As far as the control group is concerned, the learners kept complaining not having them in the experimental group. They envied their comrades for having the chance to listen to pop music, watch movies and have fun class activities. Their envy contaminated their class and expressed their boredom and routine feeling frequently. They neglected their tasks and even refused to cooperate. The teacher, however, could not solve the problem without promising to give extra marks for the best works as incentives. This confirms the notions mentioned previously in Chapter One, with the section of factors motivating learners to acquire a foreign language, and the role played by storytelling, songs, movies and games in the language classroom. Routine is broken and so the ties of shyness. The cooperative and the competitive work between the Exp learners left no room for boredom, but rather excitement and joy flavoured the air.

4.4.2.4 Strategy Use

Students' strategies were expected to reflect the use of methods that had been used during the period of implementation. Much of the learning strategies advocated by Oxford (1990) and mentioned in her taxonomy (cf. Chapter Two) were used consciously and/ or unconsciously by the subjects of the experimental group of the present study. They used the dictionaries to look for the synonyms and definitions of the new words they encountered during the listening to or the reading of a story. The learners took notes when they listened to the teacher or to a song. Advance organisation, a meta- cognitive strategy, was apparent when learners tried to find a material suitable for their needs and useful to achieve the experiment's objectives. They enriched the media bank with CDs of pop music and songs, and appropriate English speaking movies. The learners thus, planned in advance what to choose and for which purpose to do it.

As for the social affective strategies, there is no better way to raise cooperative work, peer discussions and evaluations than did the group work, especially during the creation of the fairy tales and the game activities. Less competent and shy students, as we mentioned were all involved in the process trying to give an opinion, express a feeling or simply laugh and enjoy the session the same as the good students of the group did.

Moreover, strategies use was recorded by the teacher whenever used by the learners. The findings show that the good students can express immediate benefit from the strategies use and respond quickly to the activities' demands in both groups of the experiment.

4.4.3. Teacher's Role during the Experiment

During the whole period of the experiment, the teacher researcher had to constantly wrestle with the ideas to make learning more learner- centered. As the teacher is the key of the teaching and learning process, her personality has a great impact on the learners' likes and dislikes for learning the related subject. Krashen (1987) states that 'the effective language teacher is someone who can provide input and help make it comprehensible in a low anxiety situation' (p. 32). The teacher-centered atmosphere makes the learners who cannot keep up with classes behave poorly, pay less attention and talk to each other and so on. Teachers usually see themselves more as teachers of language rather than teachers of writing (Lee, 1998; Reichelt, 1999). This is why the teacher of the experiment had leaned towards more involvement of the learners in the learning process. She favoured their interaction, negotiation and participation in bringing new material and techniques to develop and enrich their repertoires necessary for the writing skill improvement. So, she was in the classroom as a guide, a prompter and a facilitator. Additionally, the vocabulary teaching addresses the learners' feelings as emotions, particular pleasant experiences, needs and interests, what pushed the experimental group participants to be more motivated to learn and apply that they have learned. In all, the teacher is seen as a major motivator, due to the way she introduces the material of the implementation; and the way she behaves with students who perceived both the teacher and her method positively.

4.4.4 Putting It Altogether

The results obtained from the analysis above provide valuable information to derive some conclusions concerning two main aspects: (1) improving and enhancing vocabulary and the impact it has in developing a writing ability, and (2) giving recommendations for future research in aspects of Algerian EFL teaching and learning by educators and policymakers.

First of all, the design of the teaching material of the present study has caused no serious problem in the classroom. On the contrary, most of the activities, exercises, activities and materials brought variety into the classroom and as a result increased students' motivation. Their interest was fed with intrinsic motivation as they knew that they will have no incentive or reward, extra marks for instance, but their motivation was rather a result of the leisure time they had, which broke the ice of conventional lessons and the boredom they felt in the classroom. This is a fact noticed by many teachers who keep complaining about the behaviours of the students during a class of foreign language required as a school subject. Chambers (1993) puts 'poor concentration; lack of belief in own capabilities; no effort made to learn; lack of cooperation... (p. 13). All these symptoms disappear once a motivation treatment is inserted to the foreign language classroom, since learners in essence come to classroom motivated but lose their motivation because of various factors among which teaching methodology is the most to blame (Dorneyei, 2001).

Second, exposing the students to English poems, stories or short plays which reflect some good manners and behaviours might increase the students' motivation toward the English literature which will then fulfill the integrative desire to learn the foreign language and integrate with its people(if ever these pupils would choose to major in English once they reach university).

Third, subject- related difficulties such as the lack of vocabulary to express oneself in speaking or writing is a demotivating factor. The teachers, thus, helped by the educational policymakers, should make some changes in trying to develop learners' vocabulary and improve their writings accordingly. This can be done by improving the traditional methods and the content of the textbooks. Some textbooks such as the first year "At the Cross Roads" fail to capture the students' interest due to the lack of interesting topics and activities, which use interesting techniques (music, films, and stories). The heavy emphasis on grammar activities at the expense of vocabulary makes learning more systematic and boring. Vocabulary should be learnt in contexts. Topics, therefore, should create a great deal of class interaction and help motivate students to develop their language skills, mainly writing. This is achieved if teachers create some school activities which meet the students' needs and learning

goals instead of concentrating solely on memorizing vocabulary lists at the expense of the language skills.

However, one of the most crucial challenges for vocabulary instruction is teachers not having enough knowledge, or having some inconsistent information or opinions about vocabulary teaching. It is intended in this study to clarify some points or misconceptions related to vocabulary teaching. Furthermore, the majority of teachers are not informed of current and alternative vocabulary instruction strategies and techniques. In fact, not having enough knowledge or having false opinions about vocabulary teaching could, we see, be one of the challenges for higher quality in teaching this language aspect.

Another important point that should be carefully treated in vocabulary learning is learners' tendency to demand equivalents of the foreign language words in the mother tongue (immediate translation from L1 to FL and vice versa). Students do not see much use of various activities used in classroom for learning words and they focus only on getting an equivalent of the target word. They prefer to ask the teacher about the meanings of the new words because they do not have the strategies for increasing their vocabulary such as derivations or word collocations. Thus, balancing the use of the L1 and the foreign language according to the students' levels and abilities will motivate students to learn English.

However like many other studies, the present research work may have some drawbacks and limitations. One of the main limitations in this is time allocation. If it was possible for the teacher researcher to have two extra hours in Tarek Ibn Ziad high school, it wouldn't be possible for other teachers in other secondary schools to have the same opportunity. Another limitation may be the small number of participants in the experiment (36 students) and undoubtedly a large- scale research will certainly provide more dependable and accurate results.

102

A third limitation about the research work is attributed to the fact that the methodology cannot be applied to all EFL contexts. Not all the Algerian secondary schools are equipped with technological devices that help the teachers in implementing the extra work programme. Besides, the choice of the fairy tales did not satisfy the few but true competent students, who found it beneath their level to make a summary of a fairy tale they read in less than five minutes. Still, it is believed that although there might be some concerns involving the limitations mentioned above, the planned period of time and the participant groups (Exp-Ctrl) make a good sample and provides some generalisable and realistic data about the techniques and activities used while teaching.

Conclusion

In all, despite the findings, we still feel that once adopted, such a teaching and learning method offers great opportunities for both teachers and students to work with and within the foreign language atmosphere. We also recognise that theory without practice (and vice-versa) is an incomplete vision of instruction. Therefore, continuous investigation of the vocabulary and writing methods is necessary by both researchers and teachers in the fieldwork.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This study elucidates that a good motivating and rich method of teaching writing enhances the students writing performance. Before the extra work was incorporated the students' writings were not that rich in vocabulary. Pupils attended the conventional classes and did the activities of the first year textbook, automatically, without being motivated to learn the foreign language. However, after the implementation of the extra work and the rich material designed by both the teacher and the Experimental group participants, their writing showed a considerable improvement at the expense of the Control group subjects. This indicates that the incorporation of a rich, interesting and motivating method of learning new vocabularies, through storytelling, games, movies, etc., provides the mechanism in enriching and thus improving the learners' writing performance. The benefits of this method are twofold. Not only will the students perform better in writing but at the same time they will feel interested and motivated to learn in an atmosphere of fun and interest. The materials designed were close to a great extent to the pupils' needs and succeeded in capturing their attention during the whole period of the experiment. The experiment showed also an interesting improvement in strategy use by the pupils, and which has confirmed our hypothesis that extra hours and extra work pay off.

The findings of this study would be useful for teachers in adopting this method as a viable remedy to their writing class routine and problems. The implementation of fun in learning vocabulary to enhance writing has been proven to produce positive effects in students learning of the writing skill, which should be taught and learnt with interest and fun in order to culminate in positive outcomes, that is why we recommend the following.

- The Ministry of Education should give more freedom to the teachers in selecting approaches and strategies which suit their learners' levels and abilities.

104

-It is also advisable to devote more time to teach English as a foreign language instead of the three hours per week which proved to be insufficient, either for the teachers to implement extra materials, or for the learners to learn in a real context much close to their needs.

- The teachers should be aware of the techniques selection of the potentially most effective activities because the careful selection of materials plays a crucial role in the success of the teaching and learning process.

- Concerning the effective use of technology in teaching English, schools should be equipped with adequate numbers of technological devices (language labs, computer sets, CD players, etc.). In addition, teachers should be trained intensively on utilising technology in the language classroom. The time spent ensuring that teachers are using technology to enrich their students' learning experiences is an important piece in determining the value of technology to their students.

In conclusion, this study lends credence to the belief that fun and hilarity has positive effects on the students writing performance in terms of vocabulary quality and quantity. Therefore, teachers should consider this teaching method as an alley for them in teaching writing and enriching pupils' vocabulary stock.

REFERENCES

1- Abraham, R.G,& Vann, R.J (1987). Strategies of two language learners: A case study. In A.I Wenden and J.Rubin (Ed) Learners strategies in language learning (pp: 85-102). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice – Hall.

2- Adler, S. (1977). Maslow's Need Hierarchy and the Adjustment of Immigrants. The Center for Migration Studies of New York, Inc.

3- Al-Mutawaa, N. & Kailani, T. (1989). Methods of Teaching English to Arab students. Longman.

4- Astika, G. (1993). Analytical assessments of foreign language students' writing. RELC Journal 24, 61-71

5- Atkinson, D. (1987). The Mother Tongue in the Classroom: ELT Journal, 41/4, pp.241-247.

6-Ausubel, D. A. (1974). Educational psychology: A cognitive view. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

7- Badger, R. & White, G. (2000). A product, process and genre approach to teaching writing. ELT Journal 54, 2. 153-160.

8-Beetlestone, F. (1998). Creative children, imaginative teaching. Buckingham.

9-Bell, J.M. (1981). Music, color, and language. University of Texas.

10- Brophy, J. (1999). Research on motivation in education: Past, Present and future. In T.C. Burdon (Ed). The Role of Context (pp. 1-44) Stanford, CT: JAI Press.

10-Bruner, J. (2003). The narrative construction of reality. In M. Mateas, & P. Sengers (Eds), Narrative Intelligence (pp. 41-62). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Co.

11-Burstall, C. (1974). Primary French in the balance. London: NFER Publishing.

12-Brown, H.D. (1994). Principles of language learning and teaching. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

13-Brown, H. D. (2000). Principles of Language learning and teaching. Longman. (4th edition).

14- Chamot, A.U Küpper,L. (1989). Learning strategies in foreign language instruction. Foreign language Annals, 22, 13-24

15- Chamot , A.U, and O'Malley, J.M(1994). The CALLA Handbook: implementing the cognitive academic language learning approach. White Plains, N.Y: Addison Wesley Longman

16- Chamot, A., Barnhart, S., EL- Dinary, P., Robbins, J., 1999. The Learning Strategies Handbook. Addison Wesley Longman, White Plains, NY.

17-Child, D. (1973). Psychology and the Teacher. Holt. UK.

18- Coffin, C., Mary, J., Goodman, S., Hwings, A., Lillis, T.M., Swan, J.(2003). Teaching Academic Writing for Higher Education. USA: Routledge.

19- Cohen, A.D (1998). Strategies in Learning and Using a Second Language. NY.Longman

20- Cornett, C. (1983).What you should know about teaching and learning styles. Bloomington , IN : Phi Delta Kappa

- **21-** Convington, M. (1998). The Will to learn: A Guide for Motivating People. Cambridge: CUP.
- **22-** Craft, A. (2005). Creativity in Schools: Tensions and dilemmas. Abingdon: Routledge NY.
- 23- Corder, S.P. (1981). Error Analysis and Interlanguage. Oxford.OUP.
- 24- Crookes, G. & Schmidt, R. W. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the Research Agenda. Language Learning, 41, 469-512.
- **25-** Chambers, D.N. (1993). Taking the "de" out of Demotivation. Language Learning Journal, 7, 13-16.
- 26- Daily, E. M. (1991). The Relative Efficacy of Cooperative Learning Versus Individualized Learning on the Written Performance of Adolescent-Students with Writing Problems. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, John Hopkins University. Baltimore, MD.
- **27-** Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. (1985). Intrinsic Motivation and Self Determination in Human Behavior. New York: Plenum.
- **28-** Disney Mini Story book (2002). Pixar Tales
- 29-Dickinson, G.L. (1909). The Greek View of Life. New York.
- **30-** Dornyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and Motivating in the Foreign Language Classroom. The Modern Language Journal, 78, 273-284.

- **30-** Dornyei, Z. (2001 a). Teaching and Researching Motivation. Harlow, England: Longman.
- **31-** Dornyei, Z. (2011 b). Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom. Cambridge:CUP.
- **32-** Duin, A. L. (1983). Effects of Intensive Writing Instruction on a Specific Writing Task. Master Thesis, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.
- 33- Egan, K. (2005). An Imaginative Approach. San Francisco: Josey-bass.

34-EL bow, P. (1998). Reflections on Academic Discourse: How it relates to freshmen and colleagues. In V. Zamel and R.spack (Eds), Neogotiating Academic Literacies (pp.183-195). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

35- Elbow, P. (2004). Writing First! Educational Leadership, 62(2), 8-13.

36- Elley, W. B. (1991). Acquiring Literacy in a Second Language: The Effect of Book-Based Programs Language Learning 41, 375-411.

37- Ellis, R (1994). The study of second language acquisition. UK Oxford University Press.

38- Feldman, R.S (2000). Essentials of Understanding Psychology. Mc Graw-hill.

39- Ferris, D.R., & Hedgecock, J.R. (2005). Teaching ESL composition : Purpose, Process and Practice. Mahwah, NJ: Pearson Education.

40- Gaffield-Vile, N. (1998). Creative Writing in ELT Classroom. New York: Harcourt.

41- Gardner, R.C., & Lambert, W.E. (1972). Second Language Acquisition: A Social-psychological Approach (Research Bulletin No. 332). London, Ontario: University of Western Ontario, Departement of Psychology.

42- Gardner, R.C. (1985). Social Psychology and Second Language Learning: The Role of Attitudes and Motivation. London: Arnold.

43- Gardner, R.C., & MacIntyre, P.D.(1991). An instrumental motivation in language study: Who says it isn't effective? Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 13, 57-22.

44- Gardner, R.C. (2001). Integrative Motivation and Second Language Acquisition. In Z. Dornyei And R. Schmidt (Eds). (Technical Report #23, pp.422-459.Honolulu.Universityof Hawaï, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

45- Gliksman, L., Gardner, R.C., & Smythe, P.C. (1982). The role of the integrative motive on students' participation in the French classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 38, 625-647.

46- Grabe, W., & Kaplan, R.B. (1996). Theory and Practice of Writing: An applied linguistic Perspective. London and New York: Longman.

47-Graham, S. &Harris, K.A (2000). The role of self-regulation and transcription skills in writing development . Educational Psychologist, 35, 13-12

48- Graham, S., Harris, K.R., & MacArthur, C. (2004). Writing instruction . In B.Y.L. Wong (Ed), Learning about learning disabilities (3rd ed., pp. 281-313). San Diego , CA: Elsevier/Academic Press. Press

49- Graham, S., MacArthur, C.A., & Fitzgerald, J. (2007). Introduction : Best Practices in Writing Instruction . (pp. 1-9). New York: The Guilford

50- Graves, D.(1985). Writing: Teachers and Children at Work. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann books.

51- Grenfell,M. and Harris, V.(1999). Modern language and learning strategies: theory and practice. London: Rout ledge

52- GU, P.Y (1996). Robin Hood in SLA: what has the learning strategy researcher taught us? Asia Journal of English Language Teaching 6, 1-29

53- Guthrie, M. (1984). 'Contrasts in teachers' language use in a Chinese-English Bilingual classroom. TESOL (1983): The question of control, 39-52. Washington. D. C. TESOL

54- Harmer, J. (2004). How to teach writing. England: Pearson Educational Limited.

55- Harmer, J. (2006). The practice of English Language teaching. England: PearsonEducational Limited.

56- Harris, V. (2003). Adapting Classroom-Based instruction to a distance learning context. TESL-EJ, 7(2).Retrieved from: http://<<<.writing .berkley.edu/TESL-EJ/ej26/al.htm

57- Hayes, J.R. and Flowers, L.S. (1980). Identifying the organization of writing processes. In Cognitive Processes in writing (Edited by Cregg, LU. and Steinberg, E.R.) Erlbaum, Hills dale. N. J.

58- Hughes, Arthur. (1989). Testing for language teacher. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

59- Hyland, K.(2003). Genre-based pedagogies: a social response to process. Journal of Second language Writing, 12, 17-29.

60- Hyland, K. (2004). Disciplinary discourse: Social interactions in academic writing. Ann Arbor University of Mechigan Press.

61- John-Steiner, V. (2000). Creative Collaboration. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

62- John, A. (1988). Another reader reocts... TESOL Quarterly, 22, 705-707.

63- Kagan, S.and High, J.(2002). Kagon structures for English language learners. Kagan online Magazine, Summer 2002. Retriened: March 11th, 2011, From: Http//:www.KaganOnline.com.

64- Keefe, J.W (1979). Student learning styles: diagnosing and prescribing programmes. Reston, V17: National Association of Secondary School Principals. Lawrence, G (1984). A synthesis of learning style research involving the MBII."Journal of psychological", 8, pp 2-15.

65- Keller, J.M. (1983). Motivational design of instruction. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

66- Krashen, S. (1987). The Input Hypothesis. Pergamon Press, Oxford.

67- Labed, N. (2007). Learning to Learn and Learning to Think: Investigating compensation System Second years learning capacities at the University of Constantine. Unpublished Ph. d thesis.

68- Laufer, B. (1994). The lexical profile of second language writing: does it change over time? Regional English language Center Journal, 25 (2), 21-33.

69- Lee, S. K. (1995). Creative Games for the Language Class.'Forum' Vol. 36 No, January-March 1995, p. 35.

70- Lee, I. (1998). Writing in the Hong Kong secondary classroom: Teachers belifes and practice. Hong Kong Journal of Applied Linguistics, 3(1), 61-76.

71- Leki, I., Carson, J., (1994). Students' perceptions of EAP writing instructions and writing needs across the disciplines. TESOL Quarterly 298, 81-101.

72- Little wood, W. (1991). Foreign and second language learning: language acquisition research and its implications for the classroom. Cambridge Language Teaching Library.

73- Lozanov, G. (1978). Suggestology and Outlines of Suggestopedy. New York: Gordon and Breach.

74- MacArthur, C., Schwartz, S., & Graham, S. (1991). Effects of a reciprocal peer revision strategy in special education-classrooms. Learning disability research and practice, 6, 201-210.

75- MacIntyre, P. D., Gardner, R.C., (1991). Methods and results in the study of anxiety in language learning: A review of the literature. Language Learning 41, 85-117.

76- MacIntyre, P. D. & Gardner, R.C. (1993). A students 'contribution' to second language learning. Part II: Affective variables. Language Teaching, 26, 1-11.

77- Macintyre, P.D, and Noels, K.A (1996). Using social-psychological variables to predict the use of language learning strategies . Foreign language annals, 29:373-386

78- Marshall, J.M. (2002). Learning with Technology: Evidence that technology can, and does support learning. San Diego, CA: Cable in the classroom.

79- Maslow, A.H. (1970). Motivation and Personality. New York: Harper and Row.

80- Mayer, K. (2007). Emerging Knowledge about emerging writing. Young Children, 62,34-**81-** McDonough, J., & Shaw, C.(1993). Materials and Methods in ELT: A teacher's Guide. Oxford: Blackwell.

82- Moir, J., and Nation I.S.P (2002). 'learners' use of strategies for effective vocabulary Learning. 'Prospect 17, 15-35.

83- Moran, S., & John-steiner, V.(2004). How collaboration in crative work impacts identity And motivation. In D. Miell and K. Little ton (Eds). Collaborative creativity.Contemporary perspectives (pp. 11-25). London: Free Association Books.

84- Muncie, J. (2002). Process writing and vocabulary development: comparing lexical frequent profiles across drafts. System 30, 225-235.

85- Myers, I. & McCanlley, M (1985). "Manual: A guide to the development and use of the Myers Briggs type indication." LA Consulting Psychologists Press.

86- NACCCE. National Advisory Committee on Creative and Cultural Education, (1999). All our futures: Creativity, culture and education . Suffolk: D F E E.

87- Naîman,N ; Frolich,M., Stern ,H.H and Tedesco (1978). The Good Language Learner. Torronto Ontario Institute for Studies in Education. Cleveland UK

88- Nation , P. (1984). Vocabulary lists: Words, Affixes, and Stems. Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand.

89- Nation, I. S. P. & Wang, K. (1999). 'Graded readers and vocabulary'. Reading in a foreign language 12, 355-380.

90- Nation, I. S. P(2000). Learning vocabulary in lexical sets: dangers and guidelines. TESOL Journal 9, 6-10.

90- National Reading Panel (2000). Report of National Reading Panel: teaching children to read.

91- Neman (1995). Teaching Students to Write. Oxford. University Press.

92- Nunan, D. (1989). Designing tasks for the communicative classroom. Cambridge: CUP.

93- Nunan, D (1991). Language Teaching Methodology. London: Prentice Hall.

94- Nunan, D (1997). Does learner strategy training make a difference? Lenguas Modernas, 24, 123 -142.

95- Nunan, D. (2000). Language Teaching Methodology: A text book for teachers. Malysia: Longman.

96- Oller, J. (1997). Attitudes and Attained Proficiency in ESL: A Socio Linguistic Study of Native Speakers of Chinese in the United States. Language Learning 27, 1-27.

97- Olson, D. R (1994). The world on paper: the conceptual and cognitive implications of writing and reading. New York: Cambridge University Press.

98- Omaggio Hadley, A. C. (1993). Teaching Language in context (2nd . ed.) Boston, MA: Heinle & heinle.

99- O'Malley, J.M Chamot, A.U. Stewner-Monzamares, G, Russo, and Küpper, L (1985). Learning strategies used by beginning and intermediate ESL students. Language learning, 35, 21-46.

100- O'Malley, J.M and Chamot, AU. (1990). Learning strategies in second language acquisition. Cambridge, England. Cambridge University Press.

101- Osbina, A., & Hogue, A. (1990). Writing Academic English. Adison Wesley: Longman.

102- Oxford, R.L& Ehrman, M (1988). Psychological type and adult language learning strategies: A pilot study. 'A Journal of Psychological type' 16, pp 22 -32.

103- Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English(1998). Fifth edition. O.U.P

104-Oxford, R.L (1989). Use of languages learning strategies: A synthesis of studies with implication for strategy training system 17, 235 - 247.

105- Oxford, R. (1990). Language learning Strategies: What Every Teacher should know.Heinle & Heinle Publishers, Boston.

106- Oxford, R.L, Park-Oh, Y Ito, S and Sumrall, M (1993). Japanese by satellite. Effects of motivation, language learning styles and strategies, gender, course level and previous learning experiences and Japanese language achievement. Foreign language annals, 26, 359 – 371.

107- Oxford, R. and Burry-Stock, J.A (1995). Assessing the use of language learning strategies worldwide with the ESL / EFL version of the strategy inventory for language. Learning. System 23 52°? 153-175.

108- Oxford, R.L. and Leaver B.L (1996) A synthesis of strategy instruction for foreign language learners. In R.L. Oxford (Ed), language learning strategies around the word: Cross – cultural perspectives (pp.277 – Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii Press.

109- Oxford, R. (1998) 'Style wars' as a source of anxiety in the language classroom. In D.J. Young (ED), Affect in L2 Learning: A practical guide to dealing with learner anxieties. Englewood cliffs, NJ: Prentice – Hall.

110- Paltridge, B. (2004). Approches to Teaching Second Language Writing. 17th Educational Conference Adelaïde. The University of Sydney.

111- Pavlov, I. P. (1927). Conditioned Reflexes: An investigation of the psychological activity of the cerebral cortex. London: O.U.P.

112-Pearson, P.D, and Dole, J.A (1987). Explicit comprehension instruction: a review of research and a new conceptualization of learning elementary school journal, 88, 151-165.

113- Piaget, J. (1927). Intellectual evolution from adolescence to adulthood. Human Development, 15(4), 1-12.

114-Politzer, A.L and McGoarty, M. (1985). An explanatory study learning behaviours and their relationship to gains in linguistic and communicative competence. TESOL Quarterly, 19, 103,123.

115- Pressley, M (2001). What should comprehension instruction be the instruction of? In M.I Kamil? P.B. Rosenthal, P.D. Pearson, and R. Barr (EDS), Handbook of learning research: volume III (pp. 545 – 561 Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

116- Raimes, A. (1983). Techniques in Teaching Writing. New York: O. U. P.

117- Raimes, A. (1985). What unskilled ESL students do as they write: a classroom study of Composing. TESOL Quarterly 19, 229-258.

118- Ramsey, R.M.G. (1980). Language learning styles of adult multilingual and successful language learners. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, 345, 73 – 96.

119-Reichelt, M. (1999). A cross-cultural perspective on writing curricula. International Education, 29, 16-42.

120-Reid, J (ED). (1995). Learning styles in the ESL / EFL classroom Boston: Heinle and Heinle.

121-Reiss, M.A (1983) helping the unsuccessful language learner Canadian Modern Language Review, 39 (2), 256 -266.

122- Richard-Amato, P.A., (1988). Making it happen: interaction in second language classroom. Cambridge: C. U. P, UK.

123- Rivers, W. (1968). Teaching Foreign Language Skills. The university of Chicago Press. P. 240-260.

124-Robbins, J. (1999). Language learning strategies instruction in enhancing cooperative autonomy? (ERIC Document Reproduction service NO ED 409 728)

125- Rogers, C. (1969). Freedom to learn. Columbus, OH: Merrill.

126- Rubin.J. (1981). Study of cognitive process in second language learning. Applied linguistics, 11, 117-131.

127- Rubin, J (1987) Learner strategies: theoretical assumptions, research history and typology. In A. Wender and Rubin (Eds). Learner strategies and language learner (pp: 15-29). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-hall.

128- Ryan, R.M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and new directions. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25(1), 54-67.

129- Santos, T. (1989). Professors' reactions to the academic writing of non- native speaking students. TESOL Quarterly 22, 69-88.

130-Scarcella, R., & Oxford, R. (1992). The tapestry of language learning: the individual In the Communicative Classroom. Heinle & Heinle, Boston.

131- Schmidt, S. (1995). Use of Japonese in the EFL classroom. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. Edu 61 280.

132- Sivan, E. (1986). Motivation in Social Constructivist Theory. Educational Psychologist, 21(3), 209-233.

133- Skehan, Peter (1991). Individual differences in second language learning. Studies in Second Language Acquisition 13: 275-298.

134- Slavin, R. E. (1990). Cooperative learning. Review of Educational Research, 50(2), 315-342.

135- Spencer, E.(1983). Writing Matters Across the Curriculum. Edinburgh: The Scottish Council for Research in Education.

136- Spolsky, B. (1969). Attitudinal aspects of second language learning. Language Learning, 19, 271-283.

137-Steve H.H. (1992). Issues and options in language teaching. Oxford : Oxford University Press.

138- Swales, J. (1990). Genre analysis. Cambridge : Cambridge University Press.

139-Tarone, Elaine. (1981). Some thoughts on the notion of communication strategy. In Faerch and Kasper (1983)

140- Thornbury, S. (2002). Teach vocabulary. England: Longman.

141- Ur, P. (1996). A course in language Teaching: Practice and Theory. C. U. P.

142- Uzawa, k., Cumning, A. (1989). Writing strategies in Japanese as a foreign language: lowering or keeping up the standards. The Canadian Modern Language Review 46, 179-191.

143-Vance, S.J (1999). Language learning strategies: is there a best way to teach them? Unpublished manuscript. (Eric document reproduction service ED 438-716, FL 06-146)

144- Vygotsky, L. (1962). Thought and Language. MIT Press, Cambridge.

145- Vygotsky, L. (1978). Mind in Society: The development of Higher Psychological Processes. Cambridge, MA: Havard University Press.

146- Walters, J., & Wolf, Y. (1996). Language awareness in non-native writers: meta linguistic judgements of need for revision, Language Awareness 5(10), 3-25.

147- Watson, J.B. (1913). Psychology as the behaviorist views it. Psychological Review 20: 158-177.

148- Weaver, S.J and Cohen, A.D. (1994) Making learning strategy instruction a reality in the foreign language curriculum. In Cohen(Ed), Faces in a crowd: the individual learner in multi section courses. Boston: Heinle and Heinle. 285-323.

149- Weigle, S. C. (2002). Assessing Writing. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

150- Weinstein, C.E, and Mayer, R.E (1986). The teaching of learning strategies. In M.C Wittor(Ed). Handbook of research on teaching (3rd ed. Pp31-327) NY: Macmillan.

151- White, R., & Arndt, V. (1991). Process Writing. Harlow, Essex: Longman.

152- Wilkins, D. A. (1972). Linguistics in Language Teaching. London: Edward Arnold, p. 111.

153- William, J. (1890). The principles of Psychology. New York: Holt.

154- Williams, M. & Burden, R. L. (1997). Psychology for Language Teachers. Cambridge: C. U. P.

-www.The Role of Storytelling in Early Literacy Development-by LouisePhillips.htm -www.elsevier.com/locate/system

APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Sample Activities of the Extra Work Period

<u>Activity 1</u>: Read the fairy tale / listen to the teacher and answer the following questions:

- a- Who are the characters?
- b- What happened?
- c- Where and when did it happen?
- d- How was the problem solved?

Activity 2: a- Match words with their synonyms: (from context)

Words	Definitions
Fairy tale	Secret power to do impossible things.
Magic	Person who is much smaller than usual
Castle	Untrue story.
Dwarf	Old large building with thick walls.

b- Complete the table:

Nouns	Adjectives
Magic	
	Wicked
	Evil

Activity 3: Gap filling:

Once Upon a Time

Each pupil needs a piece of paper.

a- the teacher dictates and all the pupils write on their papers:

Once upon a time there was an old.....that lived in a.....

- b- The pupils fill in both blanks with a noun.
- c- Exchange papers. Add a sentence that describes the *old*.....
- d- Exchange papers. *The old.....had a special skill/ability*. What was it?
- e- Exchange papers. Add: Something strange happened yesterday.
- f- Add two sentences.
- g- Exchange papers. Add an adjective and underline it.
- h- Exchange papers. Add another sentence.
- i- Exchange papers. Add another sentence.
- j- Exchange papers. End the story.

Pupils get back their original papers and read the story that has developed.

Activity 4: Secret words: find 10 words related to the fairy tales you have read so far in this wordsquare. You can read them horizontally, vertically or diagonally.

Keys:

-Snow White -Tinkerbell -Simba -Peter Pan -Wendy Darling -Seven Dwarfs -Beauty and the Beast -The Fables -The magic mirror -The Four Musicians

a	X	t	h	e	f	a	b	1	e	S	q	b	b
q	1	e	g	v	e	h	d	S	j	n	a	m	e
S	e	S	n	0	W	W	h	i	t	e	Z	1	a
n	j	h	a	v	d	g	1	m	u	a	0	X	u
a	d	b	f	n	a	n	1	b	i	n	a	e	t
i	g	h	j	1	m	i	X	a	c	v	b	n	у
c	r	t	у	u	i	1	0	р	q	S	d	f	a
i	q	a	n	a	р	r	e	t	e	р	Z	e	n
S	р	m	i	1	j	a	h	f	d	S	X	W	d
u	c	v	b	n	1	d	k	u	h	g	f	r	t
m	h	c	a	Z	e	у	m	S	j	d	g	r	h
r	S	f	r	a	W	d	n	e	v	e	S	n	e
u	f	n	m	р	0	n	u	i	f	g	h	j	b
0	k	j	i	h	g	i	f	e	d	c	b	a	e
f	e	u	i	Z	v	W	k	j	n	f	d	q	a
e	b	m	g	r	k	у	u	q	Z	X	n	g	S
h	r	0	r	r	i	m	c	i	g	a	m	X	t
t	i	n	k	e	r	b	e	1	1	X	X	j	0

Appendix 1(Followed and continued)

Grid for the secret word of activity 4

Appendix 2 Fairy Tales













Appendix 3 Movies and Songs

1.Movies



2.Songs

1- Heal the World by Michael Jackson There's a place in your heart And I know that it is love And this place could be much Brighter than tomorrow And if you really try You'll find there's no need to cry In this place you'll feel There's no hurt or sorrow

There are ways to get there If you care enough for the living Make a little space Make a better place...

[Refrain] : Heal the world Make it a better place For you and for me And the entire human race There are people dying If you care enough for the living Make a better place For you and for me

If you want to know why There's a love that cannot lie Love is strong It only cares of joyful giving If we try we shall see In this bliss we cannot feel Fear or dread We stop existing and start living

Then it feels that always Love's enough for us growing Make a better world Make a better world... And the dream we were conceived in Will reveal a joyful face And the world we once believed in Will shine again in grace Then why do we keep strangling life Wound this earth crucify its soul Though it's plain to see This world is heavenly Be God's glow

We could fly so high Let our spirits never die In my heart I feel you are all my brothers Create a world with no fear Together we cry happy tears See the nations turn their swords Into plowshares

We could really get there If you cared enough for the living Make a little space To make a better place...

[Refrain] x3

There are people dying If you care enough for the living Make a better place For you and for me

There are people dying If you care enough for the living Make a better place For you and for me 2- Earth Song by Michael Jackson

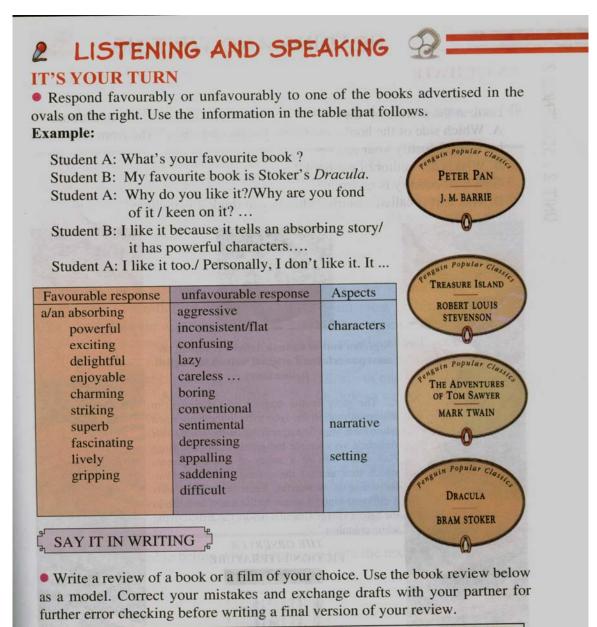
What about sunrise What about rain What about all the things That you said we were to gain ... What about killing fields Is there a time What about all the things That you said was yours and mine... Did you ever stop to notice All the blood we've shed before Did you ever stop to notice The crying Earth the weeping shores ? Aaaaaaaah Aaaaaaaah What have we done to the world Look what we've done What about all the peace That you pledge your only son... What about flowering fields Is there a time What about all the dreams That you said was yours and mine... Did you ever stop to notice All the children dead from war Did you ever stop to notice The crying Earth the weeping shores Aaaaaaaah Aaaaaaaaah I used to dream I used to glance beyond the stars Now I don't know where we are Although I know we've drifted far Aaaaaaaah Aaaaaaaah Hey, what about yesterday (What about us) What about the seas (What about us) The heavens are falling down (What about us) I can't even breathe (What about us) What about the bleeding Earth (What about us) Can't we feel its wounds (What about us) What about nature's worth It's our planet's womb

(What about us) What about animals (What about it) We've turned kingdoms to dust (What about us) What about elephants (What about us) Have we lost their trust (What about us) What about crying whales (What about us) We're ravaging the seas (What about us) What about forest trails Burnt despite our pleas (What about us) What about the holy land (What about it) Torn apart by creed (What about us) What about the common man (What about us) Can't we set him free (What about us) What about children dying (What about us) Can't you hear them cry (What about us) Where did we go wrong Someone tell me why (What about us) What about babies (What about it) What about the days (What about us) What about all their joy (What about us) What about the man (What about us) What about the crying man (What about us) What about Abraham (What was us) What about death again Do we give a damn Aaaaaaaah Aaaaaaaaah

3- Mamma by Celine Dion

Mamma you gave life to me Turned a baby into a lady And mamma all you had to offer Was a promise of a lifetime of love Now I know there is no other love like a mother's Love for her child I know that love so complete someday must leave Must say goodbye Goodbye's the saddest word I'll ever hear Goodbye's the last time I will hold you near Someday you'll say that word and I will cry It'll break my heart to hear you say goodbye Mamma you gave love to me Turned a young one into a woman And mamma all I ever needed Was a guarantee of you loving me 'Cause I know there is no other love like a mother's Love for her child And it hurts so that something so strong someday I'll be gone Must say goodye But the love you give will always live You'll always be there every time I fall You take me weakness and you make me strong And I will always love you till forever comes And when you need me I'll be there for you always I'll be there your whole life through I'll be there through the lonely days I'll be there this I promise you mamma I'll be your beacon through the darkest night I'll be the wings that guide your broken flight I'll be your shelter through the raging storm And I will love you till forever comes Goodbye's the saddest word I'll ever hear Goodbye's the last time I will hold you near Someday you'll say that word and I will cry It'll break my heart to hear you say goodbye Till we meet again until then goodbye

Appendix 4 Textbook Writing Assignments



MS WIZ LOVES DRACULA By Paul Stewart and Chris Riddle (Macmillan, £12,99.) ISBN: 0333947991) Review by Alice Collier

I have read lots of books about the magic teacher Ms Wiz, but this is my favourite. Ms Wiz goes to a fancy dress party and falls in love with someone dressed up as Dracula. I like the story very much because it is full of suspense. Besides, its characters are very funny. I recommend the story to every reader who is fond of magic.

READING AND WRITING

READ AND CHECK

• Read the text below and check your answer to exercise 2 on the previous page. Did you guess right or wrong? Explain?

well-known was Okonkwo throughout the nine villages. He was tall and huge. He had a very dark complexion, a wide nose and bushy eyebrows which gave him a fierce look. At the age of eighteen he won a wrestling match against Amalinze the Cat. Amalinze was the greatest wrestler of the time. He was called the Cat because his back never touched the earth. It is this man whom Okonkwo threw to the ground twenty years ago. His victory against Amalinze made him very famous in his village, Umuofia. In addition, Okonkwo was a very hard worker. During the planting season, he worked daily from cock-crow until the chickens went to roost. He became a wealthy farmer and one of the greatest men

of his time. §1

Unoka was Okonkwo's father. He was a thin, handsome man with a gentle look. He was always in his *agbada*. In his day, he was lazy and improvident and was incapable of bringing food to his wife and children who were always hungry. He spent most of his time playing on his flute. Unoka was never happy when people talked about war. In fact, he was a coward and preferred to talk about music. **§2**

Okonkwo was different from his father. He was a man who liked action, so he was the first to take up arms in defence of his village. His courage against the British invaders won him a place among the heroes of his tribe. ... §3

(Adapted from Things Fall Apart)

2 Complete the table below with information from the text above.

CHARACTER TRAITS	OKONKWO	UNOKA
PHYSICAL APPEARANCE A. What did he look like ?		A Chicago and A A
PERSONALITY B. What was he like?		
LIKES AND DISLIKES? C. What did he like/dislike?		

8 What tense is used in the text above? Why?

Appendix 5 Learners' Outcomes

Control Group: Activity 1: Describing a Character

Africans UNOKA and OKNOKWO are Afriquen Thay drew here in the time when the win white man came to Afrique UNOKA is OKNORWO's fither but they have an opposit presonality an caracters an conceller UNOK A was a fin handsomenum he had a gentle loss, he was a incapable of facture his family pecane he was lazy, he always was plying with his flute beaux he loss the music and when he knows abailways he was hide and sets because he as uses a big cousand, WOKA & always loob like a man who want to live in a heaven full of musicand pace where as tim hux OKNOKWO was a Tall and huge man with dails complexion and eyebreur give himt a file look

OKNOKIO was a hard warber and he was a strong wreatter, he was man of actions OLNOKUD was a farmer, he worked so hard in his land and his afarmer he never steeped slept with aut his dinna, he was a strong wreastly and man ofactions roke he tomous about wars he was the pirst toto take his arm and cane the fight because he wasso courageous be never in imitate his pathe he was a man know what's it mean manhood

OKonturo is quite differenties from
his father unoka.
he is tall huge with dark complexion
and bushy eyebrous wich gave him
a fierce look -
aut unoka is thin, handsome man
with a gentle look.
okonkuro was famous in his village,
he become a wealthy farmer because
he is a hand worker, he likes action
and he is very courageous but his
father is lagy, improvidend and
compand wich dishibed wars.
he likes musik and grent most
of his time playing on his flute.
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,

Akon how was talleduge wan with dark complexion, wide hose and busy eyebrows. He had a fierce look but his father was his equate because he was thin and handsome man with a gentle look Opente ou was fanous in this village because he was comagon, hard worker, weathy famer and he liked action and defend his viblage. In the other side, his pather Mucka was all his opposite because he was loziginguerident, coward, incapable to bring food for his family to They were poor , Jud Mucha distiled when they talked about was and prefered talk about music and his plute

Activity 2: Book/Film Review

Book Reinen Le Soir D'Algerie. Docha Stories las Review by Bounddallah Sofiance I have Exatched lots of films about stories of Dicha the funny stories of Djehag best this is my favourite . Djeha and the fourthy thefs , Djeka goes to the mountain , and he save a thief that have opened a migic door in the rocks and stealed a treasure of like the story very much because it is full of hun Besides, its characters are very kunny . I recommend this episode to evory reader who is fond of fun. The great debater by Renzel washintin Review by alice Collier Rights to mound I have seen a lots of meres fighting racitymet the best it's about a black leacher who starts a delection gream and stikes will them till they are invited to debate with the Howword team I like it because it's full of human valicens and I recommend it for any one who like inspirational movies 2 spinottorfol Review by Ayoul

Thave read to the book Barrie's Peter Bin because this bash is my Cavorite and Slike it because it talkes about childhood dreams and it is story of adventure and his characters are besut furl. I necommond the story to every neader who is fond the adverture end illution

Experimental Group Activity 1: Describing a Character

Oknheuto was a Rero in this fillinge, he was tall, Ruge with a very dark complexion a wide nose and bushy eyebrows which gives the him a fierce Rooky. In stdition Rewas a hand worker nde a very courageous since he was always the first man who take up arms and went to war, but his father was a thin, handsome man with a gentle book , He was lazy the, so he couldn't bring food to his family and he was a coward man, too, who liked talkingabout music and disliked talk

Shonkar and Unoko are two important but different characters in Chinua Achebe 's novel : Things Fall Apart. Okonkow, on one hond, mos a tall huge man with a very dark complexion, a unde nose and bushy eyebrand, which gave him a fierce look He was a strong wrestler, hardworker and a wealthy farmer who liked actions and was the first to take up arms to fight the white invaders. He mas a real courseous men. Perfect

Activity 2: Book/Film Review

it what 's your favorite book The is powerful, very brave, so patient B. I have many but the most interesting book is beauty and the beast it. They I know why do you found it without forget her beauty for the other paracters of formed them very normal interesting? B. Bearty and the beart is a fantastic Mory because it teached us many ferrons A. work you like to give us some and they do theirs role in the way Chot It takes. 9 lik shall be A. Noord you like to give us some ferrors pleare? 3. Eleiteare many! For enample the boxe between the daughter and her patter indre the bravenand the patience that the daughter shows us in her tipe noth the beauty is the beauty of spirit not the beauty of aspect? A Now let's talk about the caracters How did you find the faracters of the book and what's your favorite garacter? As what about the narrative and retting B. The narrative and the setting was mere very harmonized much in hermony As The end what 's the conclusion that you can tell us? B. for conclusion beauty and the bealt is a superb story in every side and the raison of tacking it us a magnificent and what is your favorite garacter? Be give I wand before Beauty is The most greatness garacter in the story because they is I am a stranger gort and I like the strangers girls like me and beauty uss very strang, brave and scontill the greatest very potient gol CST NU My class meter fell me, do you read books? Me, you I really like read books, it's one of my e Solv DAberie Keners by Book Kewiew My classmente. So what's your favorite one? Me You know I have read a let of books in my life but my forvoite one is Margaret Mitchell's gove with the wind 'I read it 3 times at least of seen many films of action If daymate, Can yout de me why did you like it that CSINY I have never seen Me. yos, serve 1 I liked it becase it's an exciting Tack and his fromp work evenings desorbing stery of a growing who love a new is moved to another one, the personalities are really charming and fire noting and Courayeous. I cy oged redid it so much My clarmate. Person ally, I don't think the same up every minute to addicts a killers and all the criminal New Jork City by looking for endere I don't like romantic Stores they are boring stand Mo Anyway . I say that everyone has his own opinion and preference , don't you? My clumate you of consolite , I like scientific ad Matheleter pooks the nort. not charming to me generally found in the crime scene CSINY 12 a malt series. of action and suppose to good for suspense selkers and mysteries voluers. Nothenatics

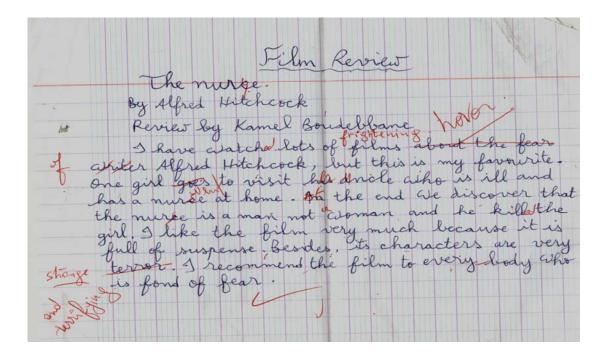
A Film Review. " Grone in 60 Seconds". - Nicolas Coge. - Angelina Jolie .

I have watched many movies about many issues; and this is one of the best. Randall is a retired can thigh who works homestly at a service station. He was drawn back into crime life when his brother Kip gets into a spot of bother with another thigh Calitri.

Randall must steal 50 clossic cars of Calitis choice within 24 hours, and deliver them to a ship-by 8am- in order to save Kip from execution. As good as Randall is, he knows that this job is too hig for just one man.

So he calls the members of his Ild team to join tim in one last mission . Together, drey make a very good plan, but tracking down fifty cans is not easy in a very limited time . The plan is put into action, but two detectives, who know Randall and his team very well, are are lying in wait. (2) It is 7:15 and and there are 49 cars inside the ship. The two detectives keep an eye on Randall among the other; the last can is his own mittion. They chates him allover the city with a back-up of police members. Randall delivers the car at 8:21 an , and Calitri does not accept it and decides to kill Kip. handall gives his life instead of his brother after he asks

his friends to hide him. At the moment when Caliti's men are about to Kill Randall Kip and the team save him and make Caliti at the hand of the detectivesthe movie was full of action, speed and suspense - as well as beautiful cars -, but about that , it was all in fact it was not about brothers.



Activity 3 : Write a short fairy tale

The "rainbow" Fairy Tale By: Dreamers 2007-2008 The "rainbow" Fairy Tale. The old friend comes to help! The colours village needed an old friend to solve a problem so that they can paint the randow? ITEM NO. 06.09.03.05

Once upon a time there was a tiny village at the heart of the dark green forest. What was among with the village mas its inha bitants who were called the wlows. Their name come from their job They were very, very small even smaller than a peanut . They earned their life from making paints to the " rainbow". OI

lived near the The yellow family river 's spring. The red family, who called themselves the "Jankees" lived. in the red roses garden, whereas the green formily, rettled near the open field of the green gross - And so did 02 the other colours femilies

They all built their houses near a place from which they get their colour and make the paint for the "rainbou" which appeared once each week. The colours could not make 03 the paints without water. They took it from the river of the village and spent the whole night in dying the « rainbou". Once the Sun comes the Monday morning a light rain falls and there affects the rain bow. At that moment exactly the colours burst in joy. and make a big party. Every family brings food and drinks and gather at the village yord. They donce all the day until the Sunger to its bed. 04

But one day, the whole village make up at the screams of the yellow family All the colours rushed to them and there they were thrilled. The river stopped from flaumo. There was no water at all , not even a drop. The young colours started to 05 my, whereas the unise colours of the village asked for on urgent meeting. 大手大

11. A Not all the colours could plus All attend the meeting but the lasic colours only: yellow, blue and sed. They were it The solution but no one could find the it The wise colours council lasted the whole night · At dawn, they decided to follow The river's flow until its spring. They storted immideately and bound that a big rock stopped at the rivers's spring. 06

It was impossible to remove it because the colours were too small and had no power to move such a rack. At that moment exactly, the unise red colour reminded the village inhabitants that they had and stad geont friend whom they helped once. he dol friend was called the "Oger" He lived in the forest. The red colour mise member 07 of the village asked younger but courageous members of the village to do the mission before the coming of the next Monday. They prepared them and

storted to pray for the benefit of hair village. The courageous young colours mere so excited to do something for the good of the village. They followed the map and arrived at the "Oger"s house. He was so happy and ready to help them because they were dear 08 friends to him . He took the tiny colours and put them in his pocket. It took him only two leaps to arrive to the colours village, whereas the small courageous colours

tack three doys and nights to arrive at the Oger"'s house. The "Oger" took the 'big rock'! as a tiny candy in his hand and let the water came out of the spring. All the village inhabitants should " Haliluya" and thanked the "Ogen" 09 for his precions help

The colour families storted to make paints to dye the rainbow and the next Monday morning a nice shining "rainbou" appeared. The village rested in peace and lived happy 10 ever after -The End.

<u>Résumé</u>

La présente étude a pour objet de voir si le travail supplémentaire intensif de lire et d'écouter des contes et des chansons, de regarder des films, entreprendre des activités de loisirs et d'apprentissage tels que des jeux à tendance pédagogique, les mots croisés, le mot secret, les blagues ..., pourrait enrichir le vocabulaire des élèves de première année secondaire, et donc perfectionner leur performance lors de l'expression écrite ce qui les inciterait à apprendre l'anglais comme langue étrangère.

Un essai a été effectué au lycée Tarek Ibn Ziad – Constantine afin de s'assurer de l'efficacité et l'efficience du travail supplémentaire sur deux groupes, l'un d'eux travaillant suivant l'ancienne méthode présentée sur le livre scolaire, tandis que le deuxième groupe a étudié suivant une nouvelle méthode, c-à-d plus d'heures de travail consistant à motiver les élèves à faire de la lecture externe orientée, d'écouter des chansons et de regarder des films en anglais, ajoutant à cela les jeux individuels et collectifs pouvant enrichir le vocabulaire. Durant l'essai, trois activités écrites ont été présentées aux deux groupes et la performance écrite des élèves a été étudiée suivant une comparaison sélective et quantitative des mots utilisés tels que les noms, les verbes, les adjectifs et les adverbes. A la suite de l'essai, nous avons pu conclure que la motivation a permis une amélioration remarquée de la performance des élèves du groupe d'essai durant l'expression écrite, en plus du développement de l'utilisation des techniques d'apprentissage chez les élèves (le mental sociale et supra-mental) ; selon les propositions d'Oxford (1990) c.à.d. ses stratégies d'apprentissage chez les élèves apprenant une langue étrangère, chose qui n'a pas été remarquée chez les apprenants du group de contrôle.