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***Motivating Students to Perform Better Orally in  
a Communicative Language Teaching Frame  
Work.***

***The case of second year LMD students of English  
at Constantine University***

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for  
the Master of Arts Degree in Language Sciences.

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***Dedication:***

*To my mother and father, source of my happiness and success in life. May Allah bless them.*

*To my brother Said, and my sisters Houda and Lina for their unconditional support and encouragements to pursue my interests.*

*To my extended family and the many friends, who have been so supportive and encouraged the fulfillment of this work.*

*To all those who believed in me and pried for my success*

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## **ABSTRACT**

This dissertation, a total of three chapters, is intended to investigate Communicative Language Teaching as a method that is used to motivate students to perform better orally. The former is very telling if it is accounted for and it is used here to refer to motivation and oral performance. In this study, we aim at exploring the different characteristics of the Communicative Language Teaching which make it a motivating method for students learning a foreign language and we also described its effects on the students' oral performance.

It is by the means of two questionnaires administered to both teachers and second year L.M.D students, at the Department of Foreign Languages at University of Constantine, which we investigated our hypotheses that look into students' motivation and their oral performance in a Communicative Language Teaching frame work.

The results of the present study show that Communicative Language Teaching is motivational and helps the learners to perform better orally which means that there is a positive correlation between them that all the oral expression teachers agree upon.

Eventually, this study aims at suggesting to teachers some strategies, language activities and techniques that may serve for the creation of an anxiety free atmosphere, which in turn, serve for motivating students to develop their oral skills.

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## **INTRODUCTION**

### **1. Background of the study:**

In the very early months of studying English, I thought about the theme of my Master dissertation. It was very gloomy that time, but Oral Expression and motivation were always there. Such a choice was influenced by the problems that my classmates, that time, were facing during the Oral Expression lectures; I always asked myself the question “why don’t they take part in our conversations?” In trying to find an answer to this question, I asked it loudly, and was surprised at the very many different answers that everyone was giving me: “I fear the teacher”, “I feel terribly shy if one of our classmates is going to laugh at me”, “English was not my first choice” or “I am not interested, it becomes routine!!”

Years later, my vision vis-à-vis this issue became clearer when having T.E.F.L. (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) and Psycho pedagogy as two essential modules in the option “Language Sciences”. I was given the opportunity to study with the pillars of the latter Pr Abderrahim, Pr Saadi and Pr Kouloughli who made tremendous efforts to explain what the teacher has to do to get the learners interested in learning.

After reading several books, I noticed that many theoreticians have poured huge amount of ink trying to find out the best method of teaching a foreign language. According to Vygotsky, Krashen and many other authors, language is best acquired by social interaction or by meaningful input and negotiation (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). In trying to make the link between the several methods suggested and the students’ answers, I thought, as many did, about Communicative Language Teaching.

## **2. Aim of the Study:**

Through this research, we aim at investigating the relationship between the oral proficiency and motivation, using Communicative Language Teaching. We believe that this study will provide learners, as they are future teachers, with the appropriate ways (techniques) to develop the speaking skill. Learners must be given some opportunities that help them decipher their thoughts and thus develop their oral skill using the target language. Our aim, in the present piece of research, is to propose Communicative Language Teaching as an effective method to meet our objectives; to motivate students to perform better in the speaking skill.

## **3. Statement of the problem:**

Usually, when someone shows his/ her ability to speak proficiently a foreign language, we hear people around him/her saying that learning a foreign language is a matter of motivation. Very often, people think spontaneously that learning effectively a foreign language involves motivation on the part of the learner. In psycho pedagogical contexts, motivation is crucial to all sorts of learning.

Educators, throughout history and across the world, have been eager to know the best method that keeps students motivated to learn a foreign language. To find out a solution to this issue, many methods have been developed. Every method has its own principles which are viewed as being the methods' pillars that help the teachers choose the one they think is better to motivate students, and help them develop a given skill while the learning of the foreign language takes place.

Educators shifted attention to the affective aspect of learning, in the 1970's, and introduced the Communicative Language Teaching as an innovative method. They suggested that Communicative Language Teaching is a better method of teaching a

foreign language since it helps students “know when and how to say what to whom” (Larsen- Freeman, 2000: 121) to get them involved and participate in an anxiety free atmosphere.

In the present study, at the department of English, university of Constantine, we tried to implement the Communicative Language Teaching in a second year English L.M.D. classroom seeking to investigate the relationship, if there is any, between the language oral proficiency and motivation in a Communicative Language Teaching environment.

#### **4. Hypotheses:**

For many students, it is like gambling talking in the classroom. They may give correct sentences and win the teacher’s praise as they may fail transmitting what they want to and then feel ridiculous, frustrated, or embarrassed. This failure is sometimes due to: linguistic factors such as lack of vocabulary or using the wrong tense, or to non-linguistic features such as hesitation or fear. (Brown, 2007)

As an antidote to such non-linguistic features, the teacher has to “establish an adequate affective framework” (Brown, 2007: 160) so that the learners feel comfortable and courageous enough to participate without giving importance to making mistakes.

Our first hypothesis is that an affective learning environment has to be set in order for students to perform better orally. In other words, if the teacher creates a motivating atmosphere, the students are going to feel relaxed then they could perform better orally.

The first hypothesis makes us think of the second one which is in one way or another linked to it. To motivate students, the teacher has to figure out the right

teaching method. Our second hypothesis is that if Communicative Language Teaching is the method used in the class, students would perform better orally.

In the pursuit of our aims, our general hypothesis is that if Communicative Language Teaching enhances motivation in students, then they would perform better orally.

These last could be reformulated in the form of a research question: In what ways does Communicative Language Teaching enhance motivation and how does the latter lead students to perform better orally?

### **5. Tools of the study:**

In order to test our hypotheses and to obtain the information required from our subjects, to fit the objectives of our study in the present research, we used one main tool; the questionnaire.

We proposed two formal questionnaires; one for students and another for teachers. Both of them were designed to show whether Communicative Language Teaching motivates students to perform better orally.

The students' questionnaire was designed to second year L.M.D. students of English at university of Constantine. We selected randomly two groups approximately forty (40) each, out of a population of twenty (20) groups (approximately 800) and then selected arbitrarily twenty five (25) for the study.

The teachers' questionnaire was designed to teachers of English at university of Constantine, as well. We selected randomly a sample of ten (10) teachers for the study.

The questionnaires results are of a vital importance for our research. The analysis of both of the teachers' and the students' questionnaires will show us to which extent their responses correlate either positively or negatively with our hypotheses.

## **6. Structure of the study:**

The dissertation is divided into three chapters. It starts with a general introduction that deals with the background of the study and the aim of the study. It includes also the hypothesis and the statement of the problem. The general introduction ends up with the tools of research and the structure of the dissertation.

In the first and the second chapters we consider the literature review, and the third chapter will be devoted to the field work.

The first chapter provides a historical background of the Communicative Language Teaching. It also discusses its principles and its different materials and techniques.

The second chapter is divided into two sections; the first section deals with motivation. It is mainly concerned with the different theories and approaches to motivation and their implementation in teaching; whereas, the second section deals with the speaking skill and the different activities used for teaching it.

The last chapter is devoted to the investigation of the obtained results. In this chapter we dealt with the research tool (the questionnaires) and we described the questionnaires' design, answered the research questions and checked the results as to the truthfulness of the hypotheses, then at the end, we put forward some practical suggestions.



## CHAPTER ONE:

### COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

#### **Introduction:**

Over the past few decades, teaching foreign languages has witnessed tremendous changes. However, the teachers' aim remained the same; getting students communicate spontaneously in the foreign language. Theoreticians were pretty much concerned about the best method to teach learners the foreign language. They put forward several methods to facilitate the foreign language teaching and learning processes. Various methods have been suggested for this sake, yet Communicative Language Teaching is our main concern.

By the 1970's, innovativeness introduced "Communicative Language Teaching" as a reaction against the "artificiality of pattern- practice" and to the "conscious" learning of grammatical rules (Yule, 2006:166).The focal point of Communicative Language Teaching encompasses the form of the language (grammar and vocabulary) to the functions of language (the use of the language in communication) together with the learners' affectivity. This reason, actually, enhanced its implementation in languages schools.

In this chapter, we shed some light on the history of communicative language teaching, its main principles and frameworks. We also touch upon the different roles of communicative teachers and the affective factors of learners.

## **1. Definition of the Terms: Approach, Method and Technique**

Richards and Rodgers (2001) noted that Communicative Language Teaching “is best understood as an approach, rather than a method” (Brown, 2007:241). An “approach” is defined by Anthony as

“a set of assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning.” (1968: 64). However, a “method”, according to Al- Mutawa and Kailani, is “the application of the detailed aspects of an approach.” (1989:12). A method comprises a number of “techniques”. It includes the lesson plan, the syllabus, the textbook and other teaching materials (Al- Mutawa and Kailani, 1989). Brown defines “techniques” as “any of a wide variety of exercises, activities, or tasks used in the language classroom for realizing lesson objectives.” (2001: 16).

## **2. The Communicative Language Teaching History:**

If we look at the history of Communicative Language Teaching, we find that it was (i.e. Communicative Language Teaching) mainly influenced by Hymes’s “Communicative Competence” which was based on the two Chomskyan notions of “competence” and “performance” (Al- Mutawa & Kailani, 1989).

According to Brown, competence is “a nonobservable ability to do something, to perform something” (2007: 35). And performance is “the actual doing of something.” (2007: 35). Competent Students, for instance, know that the following sentence: *The girl rides the horse* can be decomposed into a Noun Phrase that contains the Determinant (the) in the first place followed by the Noun (girl), a Verb Phrase that contains the Verb (rides) and a Noun Phrase that, in turn, contains the

Determinant (the) and a Noun (horse). Competent students are said to be good performers when they know how to produce this rule. (Harmer, 2001)

As a matter of fact, Competence was linked to “an idealized speaker- hearer” who is not influenced by “memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, errors, and hesitation phenomena” during production. (Chomsky, 1965; Brown, 2007: 36). While performance is the: “actual production (speaking, writing) or the comprehension (listening, reading) of linguistic events.” (Brown, 2007:35).

### **3. What Is Communicative Competence?**

As it was mentioned above, Dell Hymes introduced “**Communicative Competence**” on the basis of Chomsky’s “competence” and “performance”. As many scholars, he agreed on the fact that learning a second language is not only a matter of knowing its rules, but also it is a matter of knowing how to communicate using those rules. He noted that **Communicative Competence** is “the aspect of our competence that enables us to convey and interpret messages and negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts.”(Brown, 2007: 219).

Hymes stated that speakers need to understand the language and to be able to use it according to the socio-cultural environment, i.e. speakers need to have that ability to communicate using the language in relation to the sociocultural environment. This idea was interpreted by Bachman into “Communicative Language Ability” (Bachman, 1990; Hedge, 2000: 44-6). Brown, (2007), Canale and Swain (1980) and Savignon (2000) conceived Communicative Competence in terms of four components: grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociocultural competence, and strategic competence.

### **3. a. Grammatical Competence:**

Brown states that the grammatical competence “encompasses knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar, semantics, and phonology” (2007: 219; Canale & Swain, 1980, p29). In other words, the grammatical competence has not only to do with the recognition and mastery of the grammatical rules, but also with the ability of using them correctly (Savignon, 2001).

### **3. b. Discourse Competence:**

Quoting Brown, discourse competence is “the ability to connect sentences [...] and to form meaningful whole out of a series utterances.” (2007: 220). In other terms, discourse competence deals with the relationship that exists between words, phrases, series of utterances, and written words and phrases forming a text. The “identification” of isolated sounds and words helps in the “interpretation” of the text/speech meaning; this is known as “bottom- up processing”, while “understanding” the text/speech meaning contributes to the “interpretation” of isolated sounds and words. This is known as “top- down processing” (Savignon, 2001: 17).

### **3. c. Sociolinguistic Competence:**

This type of competence helps the speakers to be “contextually appropriate” (Hedge, 2000: 50) .i.e. to know whether the utterance is appropriate to the context or not. Savignon stated that sociolinguistic competence has to do with “an understanding to the social context in which language is used” (1983: 37; Brown, 2007).

Canale and Swain broke Sociolinguistic Competence into two different pragmatic categories: Illocutionary Competence (dealing with sending and receiving

intended meanings) and Sociolinguistic competence (dealing with politeness, formality, register, and their relation with a given culture). (Brown, 2007)

### ***3. d. Strategic Competence:***

For Canale and Swain, strategic competence is: “how to cope in an authentic communicative situation and how to keep the communicative channel open” (1980: 25; Hedge, 2000). Strategic competence is mainly related to communication strategies. The first strategy to be mentioned here is the “Achievement Strategy”. When students try to say something and then fail, they tend to mime, use some gestures and use the structure “you know”, seeking to find the right word or sentence. The second strategy is called the “Reduction Strategy”. Students, sometimes, feel uncertain about their knowledge concerning a particular form, so they tend to avoid using it and select, for instance, “perhaps”.(Hedge, 2000: 53).

Brown (2007) identified communication strategies as; the “Avoidance Strategy”: when learners avoid using a given structure because they are uncertain about its correctness, and “Compensatory Strategies”. This type of strategy is divided into: Code- Switching (when learners tend to use their mother tongue when they fail in expressing their opinion) and Appeal to authority (when unable to transmit their ideas, they directly ask the teacher or the native speaker to translate their thoughts).

In short, Strategic Competence comes into use when students are uncertain or even unable to say what they want to in the target language because they lack competence.

### **4. Principles of Communicative Language Teaching:**

Brown (ibid) was among several theorists who defined Communicative Language Teaching in terms of Characteristics for the sake of directness and

simplicity. Here are the characteristics of Communicative Language Teaching as identified by Brown (2001: 43):

1. “Classroom goals are focused on all the components (grammatical, discourse, functional, sociolinguistic, and strategic) of communicative competence”; i.e. Students should not only learn the grammatical rules and lists of vocabulary, but also learning how to use them in appropriate situations.
2. “Language techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes”; i.e. the various exercises, activities, or tasks used in the language classroom help getting the learners use the language for meaningful purposes.
3. “Fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques. At times fluency may have to take on more importance than accuracy in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use”; i.e. teachers focus more on fluency; since the primary goal of Communicative Language Teaching is getting students communicate meaningfully, teachers give more importance to fluency and tolerate the students’ errors. They believe that the students’ errors are due to a natural outcome of the development of communication skills.
4. “Students in a communicative class ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts outside the classroom”; i.e. the tasks used in the classroom should provide the students with the skills needed to communicate in real world contexts.
5. “Students are given opportunities to focus on their own learning process through an understanding of their own styles of learning and through the development of appropriate strategies for autonomous learning.”

6. “The role of the teacher is that of a facilitator and a guide.”

These characteristics reveal the focal points of Communicative Language Teaching. In short, Communicative Language Teaching enables students to communicate in the foreign language using the different types of communicative competence. However, the language techniques encourage them to use the target language purposefully in different situations. Besides, the use of the authentic material pushes students to make use of the language in real world contexts.

In point of fact, Communicative Language Teaching pays less attention to accuracy (the degree to which learners’ use of the target language is remarkably free of errors); students’ errors are tolerated since it focuses more on meaning and fluency (it is the speed, easiness and spontaneity with which foreign language learners communicate orally). This, actually, helps students know their different learning strategies and enhances automaticity in them. Additionally, the teacher in Communicative Language Teaching is seen as a guide and facilitator not as a controller.

## **5. Types of Communicative Language Teaching framework:**

### ***5. a. Learner-Centered Instruction***

As its name indicates, Learner-Centered Instruction is centered on the learner. That is to say, the emphasis is on students’ initiative and interaction. Learner-centered instruction curricula include the consultation and input of students and that do not presume objectives in advance. It is based on techniques that focus on or account for learners’ needs, styles and goals, and on techniques that allow for students creativity and innovativeness, as well as techniques that give some control to students (group

work, for example) and techniques that enhance students' sense of competence and self-worth. (Brown, 2001)

### ***5. b. Cooperative and Collaborative Learning:***

Cooperative learning is an instructional device that teachers use to enhance communication among learners since it engages them to work together in pairs and groups. Brown (2001: 47) stated that in cooperative learning, students are “a team whose players must work together in order to achieve goals successfully.” Researchers emphasized the idea that cooperative learning is learner-centered and marked out some of its benefits. They highlighted that cooperative learning helps students to work together and enables them to learn from one another. It also encourages the involvement of all children and takes away the stigma of failure from students. In addition to that, cooperative learning stimulates autonomy and enhances self-esteem (Cohen & al., 2004: 147) Moreover, cooperative learning enhances motivation in the classroom and endorses positive peer interactions (Salkind, 2008). In sum, Oxford (1997: 445) notes that cooperative learning helps in “promoting intrinsic motivation, (...) heightening self-esteem, (...) creating caring and altruistic relationships, and lowering anxiety and prejudice”.

In collaborative learning, group learning activity “is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners” (Brown, 2001:47); i.e. students are reliant on the application of what they are learning in real life contexts. Students, in collaborative learning, engage with teachers or advanced peers who provide “assistance and guidance” (Oxford, 1997: 47)

### ***5. c. Interactive Learning:***

Interaction is central to language learning. It is very beneficial for students in the sense that it helps them develop the target language in a communicative context.



During interaction, students do not only send and receive messages, but also negotiate meanings while understanding and interpreting them (Yule, 2006) this, actually, is achieved through using authentic language in real contexts, and through engaging students in spontaneous conversations. Michael Long (1996, 1985) envisaged “interaction hypothesis of second language acquisition” as the main theoretical foundation of interactive learning. (Brown, 2001: 48)

#### ***5. d. Whole Language Education:***

“Whole language” is a term that originated from reading research and brought into play to accentuate (a) the “wholeness” of the language in contrast to views that splintered the language into its bits and pieces; (b) the interaction and interconnections between oral language (listening and speaking) and written language (reading and writing); and (c) the importance of both, the written and the spoken language of a given society. In this day and age, this term includes more other particles. It is utilized to portray cooperative learning as well as student-centered learning. It is also used to focus on the social nature of language, the use of authentic natural language, and the integration of the four skills. (Brown, 2001)

In different terms, the wholeness of a language is related to the interrelationship of the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) they all collaborate with each other; we use the language to communicate and to interact in relation to specific contexts.

#### ***5. e. Content-Based Instruction:***

Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (1989; vii) defined Content-Based Instruction as “the integration of content learning with language teaching aims.” (Brown, 2001) It highlights the importance of using the language in relation to the content material as opposed to teaching the language skills in isolation from content.

### **5. e. Task- Based Instruction:**

For Skehan (1998, in Brown, 2001: 50) defines a task as an activity in which meaning is most important, in the sense that, the meaning is chief. He also defines a task as an activity in which there are some communication problems to solve as well as some sort of relationship to comparable real- world activities.

Task-Based Instruction aims to supply learners with “a natural context for language use.” (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; 144) when learners work to get a task done, they have plenty of chances to interact together; they produce, receive and assimilate the language. In other words, Task-Based Instruction locates task at the heart of teaching methodology; it outlooks the learning process as a set of communicative tasks.

### **6. The Role of Interaction**

Interaction, in fact, is central to Communicative Language Teaching. It is what involves learners in communication using the foreign language and enables them send messages, receive them, interpret them in particular contexts, negotiate their meanings and then collaborate to fulfill certain goals.

Interaction is defined as being a “collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings, or ideas between two or more people, resulting in a reciprocal effort on each other.” (Brown, 2001: 165) Rivers (1987) emphasized the idea that communicative classroom should be interactive. He affirmed that: “In interaction, students can use all they possess of the language, all they have learned or casually absorbed, in real-life exchanges. (1987, 4-5, in Brown, 2001: 165) similarly, Olsen and Kagan (1992) uphold that Communicative Language Teaching endorses meaningful interaction among students since they listen, respond, restate, elaborate, and clarify their communicative messages.

Because of the vital importance of interaction, researchers set out seven principles and underlined the significance of the coexistence of their relationship. These principles are stated here as identified by Brown (2001):

**6. a. Automaticity:**

The proper interaction is best achieved when students' attention is on meanings and messages they want to transmit rather than on grammar and other linguistic forms. This lack of restrictions and control enhances automaticity in the students.

**6. b. Intrinsic Motivation:**

During the interaction with one another, students enjoy their own competence to use the language and develop a system of self-reward.

**6. c. Strategic Investment:**

Interaction requires students to use strategic language competence; to make decisions about when and how to say and/ or interpret messages, and to repair the errors they may produce.

**6. d. Risk Taking:**

Students, in an interactive class, are subjected to their shyness of their friends laughing at them, failing to produce intended meanings, failing to interpret the interlocutors' intended meanings, or even fearing of being rejected or neglected. All these are risks which students have to challenge for the sake of interaction.

**6. e. The Language-Culture Connection:**

Students are required to be systematically versed in the cultural nuances of the language.

### ***6. f. Interlanguage:***

The role of the teacher's feedback is fundamental to the developmental (production and comprehension) errors students make during the second language acquisition process.

### ***6. g. Communicative Competence:***

Interaction involves all the elements of communicative competence (grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic). All these aspects must work together for successful communication.

## **7. The Different Roles of Communicative Teachers:**

Usually, traditional teachers expect to be seen as “authority figures”; they personify the role of parents, judges, leaders, and even doctors, who must “heal” the ignorance of students. (Oxford, 1990: 10) In a communicative class, however, teachers have rather distinct roles between “directive” and “less directive” provided that the heart of Communicative Language Teaching is communication and interaction. To begin with the teacher as **a controller**, s/he who is always in commands of every single moment in the class. He decides when the students should speak and what they should say. Some control on the part of the teacher is important, however, the teacher has to create a friendly and spontaneous atmosphere with the purpose of communication to take place. Another role that the teacher should incarnate is the role of **a director**. Brown (2001: 167) compares this role of teachers to “a conductor of an orchestra” or “a director of drama”. When students interact, s/he has to keep the course of communication flow easily. In addition to that, the teacher should be **a manager**. In the sense that s/he plans for the lessons in the objective of

keeping the students focus on their communicative goals, evaluates them and corrects them, but gives each student the chance to be creative. Moreover, the teacher should be **a facilitator** and **a guide** who facilitates the process of learning and allow them, with his/her guidance, to discover the language during using it. A final role designed for the teacher is the role of **a resource**. Through the learning process, students face many difficulties and come in a straight line to the teacher seeking his/her help and s/he has to be available and ready to help them.

In actual fact, the teacher should set up a position of “dominance” by being **a controller, a director and a manger**, and at the same time s/he should establish a position of **a facilitator, a guide and a resource**. Van Lier (1984) argues that learners are more willing to involve themselves in the activities they are practicing when they feel less control on the part of the teacher. Along with Van Lier, Littlewood states that communicative competence, for instance, can more successfully take place when the teacher performs as an initiator of the activity and then gives full freedom to his/her students’ spontaneous learning process. In other words, the teacher should be in harmony with them; s/he should create equilibrium between being “directive” and “less directive” for the sake of encouraging students to communicate in the target language.

### **8. The Role of Learners in a Communicative Class:**

Learners, in a very real sense, have to participate in the different classroom activities proposed by the teacher. They have to be self reliant when interacting with their peers in groups as they have to be responsible for their own learning. They also have to understand that the teacher is a facilitator and is there to guide them.

## **9. Second Language Acquisition and Learning Strategies:**

Second Language Acquisition calls the learners attention to the use of the learning strategies. Before touching upon these strategies that learners use throughout the whole process of language acquisition, we need first to hint at the two divergent dichotomies that are at the core of all the teaching methods as they are at the core of Communicative Language Teaching; “Acquisition” and “Learning”.

### **9.1. The Dichotomies “Acquisition” and “Learning”:**

In a very real sense, many theorists have been of the same mind concerning the distinction between these two terms. They agreed that “**acquisition**” occurs unconsciously and spontaneously; it leads to a spontaneous “conversational fluency” (Oxford, 1990; 4) whereas “**learning**” is a conscious process of accumulating language rules. (Yule, 2006; 163)

### **9.2. Learning strategies:**

Actually, learning language imposes learners to use some strategies. According to Oxford (1990: 7), strategies are: “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situation.” Much ink was poured by Oxford to explain what strategies are. She put, in plain words, what was and still is useful for language teachers. She divided the learning strategies into “direct” and “indirect” strategies that are, in turn, divided into other subcategories. The **direct strategies**, on the one hand, overlap: “memory strategies” (learners create mental linkage, apply images and sounds, review things well, and employ them in action), “cognitive strategies” (learners try to practice; they send and receive messages, analyze and reason, and then

create structures for input and output), and “compensation strategies” (learners make guesses intelligently and overcome limitation in speaking and writing). On the other hand, the **indirect strategies** that lie on top of: “metacognitive strategies” (students center, arrange, plan, and then evaluate their learning), “affective strategies” (learners try to lower their anxiety, to encourage themselves and take the initiative), and “social strategies” (students try to ask questions, cooperate with one another and try to understand each other). (Oxford, 1990; 17)

### **10. Affective Factors in Communicative Language Teaching:**

As it was broached above, theorists, in Communicative Language Teaching, underlined the weight of the affective domain (without a complete denial of the cognitive and linguistic domains) to smooth the progress of second language learning. They believed that the affective factors contribute in many ways to the learners’ success in language learning. Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia (1964) believed that the development of affectivity goes through five levels: “receiving”, “responding”, “valuing”, “organizing” what has been valued and finally “understanding” oneself according to the values they have internalized (Brown, 2007:153) this definition was and still is widely used today.

The specific affective factors that are related to second language learning are as follow:

#### ***10. a. Self- esteem:***

It is strongly believed that no successful cognitive or affective activity can be fulfilled without some degree of self-esteem, self-confidence, knowledge of oneself

and self-efficacy. They all have to do with “defining oneself and finding acceptance of self in expressing that self in relation to valued others.” (Brown, 2007: 154)

Self-esteem is defined by Coopersmith (1967: 4-5) as being “a personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes that individuals hold toward themselves.” (Brown, 2007) In other words, self-esteem is the evaluation that individuals make with reference to themselves. People’s self-esteem is obtained from the different experiences with themselves and with others in relation to the peripheral world.

Brown (2007: 155) identified three levels of self-esteem as described in the literature multidimensionality: **general or global self-esteem**, which is said to be fairly constant in a mature adult, and is disobedient to change. It is the general evaluation that one makes of oneself over time and across a number of situations; **situational or specific self-esteem**, which refers to self-evaluation in particular life situations, such as social interaction, work, school, or on certain relatively distinct characteristics such as intelligence, communicative ability, or personality traits such as empathy, and flexibility, and **Task self-esteem**, which is related to particular tasks within precise situation. For instance, task self-esteem in second language acquisition has to do with one’s assessment in a particular facet of language, speaking or writing, for example. Heyde (1979) studied the effects of the three levels of self-esteem of an oral production task by American college students learning French as a foreign language. She uncovered the positive correlation between task self-esteem and performance on oral production. (Brown, 2007)

Teachers, on their parts, should act as fuel to fire. They should convince their students that “yes, they can do it!” to enhance self-esteem in them.



### ***10. b. Attribution Theory and Self-efficacy:***

Scientists relate self-esteem to attribution theory and self-efficacy. For psychologists, **attribution theory** emphasizes on how people explain their successes or failures in achieving a given task. Weiner and others (in Slavin, 2003, Dornyei, 2001, Williams and Burden, 1997) define attribution theory in terms of four explanations for success and failure in achieving a particular task: ability, effort, perceived difficulty of a task, and luck. Ability and effort are internal to the learner, whereas task difficulty and luck are external factors. The students' marks are related to all these internal and external factors. Some students, when affected by the two external tasks may make efforts to succeed while the other portion surrenders. Perseverance or giving up is, in short, a matter of **self-efficacy**.

### ***10. c. Inhibition:***

During the process of understanding oneself, people construct sets of “defenses” to protect their ego. People with weak self-esteem uphold walls of inhibition to defend their weak ego whereas those with high self-esteem have lower defenses. According to Guiora et al. (1972) and Ehrman (1996) the human ego also includes “language ego”. (Brown, 2007; 158) The **language ego** is related to the idea that when learning a language, students build up a new way of thinking, feeling and a second identity. **Language ego** entwined with the second language, can effortlessly generate a sense of “fragility, defensiveness, and a rise of inhibition in the student” (Brown, 2001:61) to lower down inhibition in the learner, teachers should encourage them to take risks and should convince them that learning a language necessitates making mistakes since it goes through the process of trial and error.

#### **10. d. Risk Taking:**

Risk taking is as important as the previous affective factors to second language learning. Students', with low self-esteem, avoid taking risks fearing that they are going to be laughed at or criticized. However, those with high self-esteem they are number one risk takers and they do not really give importance to what may the others say about them. Teachers should praise risk takers for their attempt even if their answer is wrong because by so doing, those who fear taking risks may feel less inhibited and why not give it a try.

#### **10. e. Anxiety:**

Anxiety is another important factor in second language learning. An easy definition of this term would be that of Scovel (1978:134). Scovel states that "anxiety is associated with feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension, or worry" (Brown, 2007: 161). Anxiety can be experienced in two different levels: **trait anxiety**; that is permanent in the individual and **state anxiety**; that is there only in relation to some particular events or acts. (Brown, 2007; Horwitz, 2001; Oxford, 1999) theorists emphasized the distinction between **debilitative anxiety**; nervousness before giving a public speech, for instance, and **facilitative anxiety**; feelings of pressure to get the job done, for example. (Alpert and Haber, 1960; Scovel, 1987; Brown, 2007)

#### **10. f. Empathy:**

In familiar terms, empathy is "putting yourself in someone else's shoes" to be able to understand what another person is feeling (Brown, 2007: 165). In more complex terms, empathy is "a process of comprehending in which a temporary fusion

of self-object boundaries permits an immediate emotional apprehension of the affective experience of another.”(Guiora & al., 1972: 142; Brown, 2007: 165) empathy is crucial to communication; teachers should pay attention to the students’ feelings since teaching a language is also teaching its cultural customs, values and ways of thinking.

#### **10. g. Extroversion versus Introversion:**

Extroversion and introversion are two important affective elements in second language acquisition. Extroversion represents the portion of people who are sociable and outgoing, while introversion represents the portion of people who are generally shy and inhibited. Extroversion, as defined by Brown (2007: 166) is “the extent to which a person has a deep-seated need to receive ego enhancement, self-esteem, and a sense of wholeness from other people.” In other words, extroverts usually need the presence of others to feel good. Theorists highlighted two elements of extroversion: “sociability” and “impulsivity”. They assumed that sociability (more pertinent to the process of language learning) is a crucial constituent in language learning and that sociable learner are self-confident and risk takers; they participate in almost all language activities without caring much about making mistakes. Introversion is “the extent to which a person derives a sense of wholeness and fulfillment apart from a reflection of this self from other people.”(Brown, 2007: 167) In different terms, introverts do not need the presence of others to feel in a better state. Different from extroverts, introverts are shy, inhibited and risk avoiders, they are all time silent and refuse any kind of participation in the classroom. Even though, introverts seem fragile, they have strength that extroverts do not have. For this, teachers should help them bring out this strength by engaging them in different language games and activities mainly role plays.

### **10. h. Motivation in General:**

Motivation is one of the major affective factors to second language acquisition; all scholars are of the same opinion that motivation is the most important cause in students' success or failure. Harmer (2001: 51) defines motivation as "some kind of drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something". Many learners are **extrinsically motivated**. That is, they just want to learn a language so as to attain some goals, such as succeeding in an exam, obtaining their driving license, or even having training abroad in a highly regarded university. In contrast to **intrinsically motivated** students who just crave for learning a language. as it was explained, **extrinsic motivation** is caused by many external factors while **intrinsic motivation** comes from within the individual.

In short, to help the second language learning process, teachers should use different classroom activities such as role plays, discussions, audio/visual aids, language games, and group work. Such activities enhance motivation in the students, help introverts get rid of their shyness and extroverts to be more empathic, lower inhibition and anxiety, encourage them to take risks and higher their self-esteem.

### **11. The Activities Used in Communicative Language Teaching:**

Usually in groups, communicative language teaching emphasizes the use of various activities such as games (guessing games), role play (performing a dialogue in a given context), projects, interviews (may take the form of dialogues), information gap, discussion and debate, and jigsaw (strip story).

**Conclusion:**

In a nutshell, we have reviewed in this chapter Communicative Language Teaching as a method that was put forward by the 1970's as a reaction against the traditional methods which emphasized the learning of language rules. Communicative Language Teaching inventors noted that communicating successfully in a language necessitated more than the linguistic competence (the grammatical rules) it necessitates the communicative competence. In the pursuit of their aims; i.e. communicating fluently in the target language, theorists set out different principles to be followed. They centered their attention on the learners' affects. They emphasized the importance of using different activities, language games and group work in the classroom to enhance motivation, lower anxiety and inhibition, and heighten self-esteem. Educators also believed that this can be achieved only if teachers incarnate the role of facilitators and guides who give more weight to fluency rather than accuracy.

## **CHAPTER TWO:**

### **SECTION ONE:**

#### **MOTIVATION**

##### **Introduction:**

Digging deeply in history, we find that motivation is a notion that existed centuries ago, and that was and still is at the heart of all human learning. To explain this notion, we found it necessary to make a link with the concept of adaptation in Piaget's theory of cognitive development and the process of learning a second language.

In the first half of the 19 century, Piaget developed one of the most original theories of cognitive development. It is a notion that was introduced to clarify the process whereby individuals construct their knowledge during their early stages of mental development.

Piaget believed that all living organisms have "organizations" and "structures". For survival, the living organisms "adapt" their existing structures depending on the new structures found in the living environment (Nicholls, 2004). During "adaptation", some of the organisms' structures may be modified and some other structures may emerge. Piaget believed that the intellect's "organization" is the development of habitual actions, and "structure" is, for him, built in terms of "schemas" and "operations". He defined schemas as being: "the internal representation of some specific action" (Mc Gruck, 1984; p. 34), and operations as being: "an internal rule of knowing which has the distinctive characteristics of being reversible." (Mc Gruck, 1984; p. 34)

The key concept to the Piagetian theory is “adaptation”. To clarify this notion, Piaget identified two aspects; assimilation and accommodation. Assimilation is: “the process whereby the organism applies present structures without modification to new aspects of the environment.” (Mc Gruck, 1984:35). In other words, the organism makes use of its existing structures without any modification to the new aspects of the environment. While accommodation is: “an outgoing process whereby the organism modifies existing structures to meet the demands of the environment.” (Mc Gruck, 1984; 35). In different terms, accommodation is the process by which the organism changes the present structure to fit in the new environment.

These two seemingly different canals “adaptation” and “learning” make, in fact, one since they both related “change in behavior” to “experience”. Learners pass through the same canal, for them, the foreign language is the new environment; while learning it, they tend to compare it with their mother tongue and try to modify the existing structures (schemas and operations) they have about the latter and let other new ones (structures) emerge to fit in the former. This, in point of fact, makes the definition of learning: “a change in behavior or beliefs that result from experience.” (Slavin, 2003). Whitman states that assimilation and accommodation are not constant; that is, they occur every now and then “the new scheme is able to assimilate slightly more, and in so doing accommodates and prepares to expand again.” (1980: 45) For Haynes, accommodation in learning has to do with “modifications to spoken or written language to make it comprehensible for English language learners.” (2007:145) and adaptation has to do with “modifications in materials and instruction made for English language learners.” (2007:145) The ability to accommodate with the new learning environment was noticed to be dissimilar from one learner to the other; some learners show a great deal of interest to learning the foreign language and are

eager to reach the point to be able to communicate with this new tongue. Whereas, others show less interest and spend lots of time and effort to do so.

Educators, the world over, related this issue to motivation and agreed upon its vital importance in the success or failure of individuals in achieving a specific task in general, and of learners in learning a language in particular.

They were “motivated” themselves to elucidate the world with what motivation is. The complexity of this issue made educators see motivation from a rather different perspective than others do. As a result to this, much ink was spilled and many theories have seen the light.

In this chapter, we touch upon motivation in general, the various range of theories that scholars put forward to explain the intricacy of this component and its vital importance in the human learning.

### **1. What is Motivation?**

A school boy was asked whether he likes playing video games in his spare time; he answered: “No, I prefer to play foot ball, I am very good at it!!” and a university student was asked about her reading preferences: “Oh! I prefer romantic novels, I read them so fast!!” was her reply. The interpretation of these two examples, pragmatically, involves one major affective concept that is Motivation. Being “very good” at playing foot ball or reading romantic novels “so fast” show how deeply these two persons are motivated for doing these tasks. As in playing or reading, motivation is very essential in learning languages.

Psychologists, over the globe, showed great deal of interest to understand the complexity of motivation. Myriad definitions were put forward, yet all meet in one



point; motivation is: “what gets you going, keeps you going, and determines where you’re going to go.” (Slavin, 2003: 329) In other words, motivation is the drive that helps one meet his/her desired goals. Motivation, indeed, it is fundamental in learning in the sense that it controls the students’ behavior; it serves as an evidence for teachers to interpret how much students are willing to learn.

## **2. Theories of Motivation:**

Over the past decades, theorists, in an attempt to clarify the concept of motivation, carried out numerous studies that showed various explanations. The definitions suggested may be interpreted in so many ways, “depending on the theory of human behavior you adopt”. (Brown, 2001:73)

### **2. a. The Behaviorist Theories:**

Behaviorists approached motivation in a scientific way in the sense that they carried out some experiments on animals to comprehend how humans are motivated to learn (Slavin, 2003: 140). This perspective was influenced by Pavlov (Classical Conditioning), Thorndike (The Law of Effect), and mainly by Skinner (Operant Conditioning). For these scientists, motivation is simply seen as “the anticipation of reward” (Brown, 2007:168) they noted that reward acts as a reinforcer in individuals. Slavin (2003: 144) would define a reinforcer as “any consequence that strengthens a behavior”. Students, for example, when feeling ambitious for a positive reinforcement, push themselves to perform according to prior experience with reward (teacher’s praise) when giving a correct answer to win another positive comment (reward). It is noteworthy to point out that behaviorists see that “our actions are at the mercy of external forces such as rewards”. (Williams & Burden, 1997:119)

## **2. b. The Cognitive Theories:**

Unlike the behaviorist theory that views motivation in terms of anticipation of reward, the cognitive view of motivation “centers around individuals making decisions about their own actions” (Williams & Burden, 1997: 119) that is to say, individuals are in command of their acts; they make decisions on their own in order to achieve the goals they traced. This view was influenced by many cognitive researchers who mapped out three main theories that are put, here, in plain words.

### **2. b. 1. Attribution Theory:**

This theory, which was developed by Bernard Weiner, aims at comprehending individuals’ explanations to their success or failure in accomplishing a given task. It is worth reiterating that Weiner and others (Slavin, 2003, Dornyei, 2001, William and Burden, 1997) describe attribution theory in terms of four explanations for success and failure: ability, effort, the perceived difficulty of a task, and luck. These attributions are either internal or external (locus), stable or unstable (stability) and controlled or uncontrolled (controllability) (Williams & Burden, 1997). A major assumption of attribution theory is that individuals usually try to uphold a positive self-image (Slavin, 2003, Thompson, Davidson, & Barber, 1995). Consequently, while they perform well in a given activity, they relate their success to their own efforts or ability. But when they fail, they relate their failure to uncontrollable external factors (task difficulty and luck). The following table recapitulates the three main attribution dimensions:

**Table (A):** The four main elements of attribution (Williams & Burden, 1997: 105)

Locus of Control		
	Internal	External
Stable	Ability	Task Difficulty
Unstable	Effort	Luck

**Locus of Control:**

Locus of control is a word derived from the “Social Learning theory” of Rotter (1954). Slavin (2003; 334) defines locus of control as “a personality trait that determines whether people attribute responsibility for their own failure or success to internal or external factors.” Williams and Burden (1997) identified two types of individuals; “internalizers”, are persons who believe that they are responsible for all that happen to them in their lives; and “externalizers”, persons who believe that all that happen in their lives is influenced by external forces, while there are some persons who are caught in between. Many studies were put forward to examine locus of control in relation to academic achievement. The results demonstrated that learners with internal locus of control show great deal of interest towards learning and problem-solving tasks, and were really enthusiastic to gain the maximum of rewards, whereas learners with external locus of control were inactive, submissive and careless.

Williams and Burden (1997; 103) stated that teachers, on their behalf, should take these results into account to promote internal convictions in their learners about control above language learning by mainly: distinguishing their strengths and

weaknesses “cognitively and socially”, building up their own “plans for learning” the foreign language, taking responsibility for achieving their “own plans”.

### **2. b. 2. Expectancy theory:**

The expectancy theory, or the expectancy-value theory, was influenced by many cognitivists, mainly by the 1950's. The theory's main focus is “on the belief that people's efforts to achieve depend on their expectations of reward.” (Slavin, 2006: 325); i.e. students with different goals are motivated if they believe that there is a positive relation between efforts, performance and reward. Atkinson (Salkind, 2008) suggested that motivation is made up of three major elements: expectancy (that has to do with the learners convictions about their potentials and their expectations for success); instrumentality (the link between success and reward); and value or valence (valuing the results of success). This was put that way:

$$\text{Motivation (M)} = \text{Expectancy} \times \text{Instrumentality} \times \text{valence}$$

This formula connotes that learners' motivation to achieve a given goal is related to their own certainty about their abilities and determination for success, the reward they get when succeeding and the value that rests over success. If any of the values is zero, the equation is zero. (Huitt, 2001)

### **2. b. 3. Self-Determination Theory:**

This is a theory that was proposed by Edward Deci and Richard Ryan. According to Salkind, (2008: 889) Self-determination theory is: “the experience of choice and endorsement of the actions in which one is engaged.” He noted that self-determination theory is founded on three factors: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. First, autonomy that indicates the compatibility that exists between one's deeds and emotions, and willingness and volition. In other words, it is the degree of

freedom by which students decide to perform a particular task. Second, Competence, briefly, means one's belief for how well s/he can perform a task. Third, relatedness, which signifies the need of belongingness to a particular group, and the need to uphold strong relationships within this group.

#### **2. b. 4. Self-Efficacy:**

Self-efficacy is dealt with in a socio-cognitive theory of motivation that was suggested by Albert Bandura. He defines it as “the belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations” (1995: 2). In other words, self-efficacy is an individual's belief in his or her ability to succeed in a particular situation. The theory gained the psychologists attention after Bandura's seminal paper in 1977 because it was seen really influential in all human life. Bandura (1994) stated that self-efficacy takes a vital part in all the challenging tasks that individuals face. He believed that individuals with a strong sense of self-efficacy outlook challenging tasks as duties to be mastered. By so doing, they build up a profound interest and a “stronger sense of commitment” in the different tasks they perform. They also convalesce rapidly from frustration. However individuals with a weak sense of self-efficacy avoid challenging tasks because they consider themselves incapable of facing them. They put emphasis on personal weaknesses and negative results. These individuals, promptly, lose confidence in themselves.

Self-efficacy starts in early childhood, when children are exposed to a various range of situations, and does not end; it keeps on progressing all through life since individuals experience new skills and knowledge (Bandura, 1992).

Albert Bandura, the founder of this theory, believes that there are four main foundations of self-efficacy (1994):

**2. b. 4. a. Mastery Experience:**

Students' sense of efficacy is strengthened or weakened when they succeed or fail in performing a given task.

**2. b. 4. b. Social Modeling:**

Observing other students achieve a task successfully is one more significant source of self-efficacy.

**2. b. 4. c. Social Persuasion:**

Students could be convinced by their teachers that they "can make it"; i.e. students are able to succeed if they receive verbal encouragement from their teachers.

**2. b. 4. d. Psychological Responses:**

An additional important factor to self-efficacy is the students' own responses and emotional reactions to particular contexts. Students should train themselves to manage their stress when facing challenging situations to develop their sense of self-efficacy.

**2. b. 5. Achievement Motivation:**

The achievement motivation theory was influenced by many theorists mainly McClelland (1953) and Atkinson (1964). The essence of this theory was represented in the concept of the differences of individual's need to achieve or to be triumphant. Scholars assumed that the differences between the students' needs to achieve had significant inference for their learning experiences (Williams & Burden, 1997). They distinguished two major factors dominating achievement motivation: need for achievement (the desire or the drive that thrust students to succeed), and fear of failure (the desire to avoid approaching a task fearing to fail). Salkind (2008; 690) noted that early theorists explained the need for achievement in terms of implicit and

explicit motives: “Implicit motives (...) operate outside of conscious awareness, whereas explicit motives (...) are accessible to conscious awareness.”

### **2. b. 6. Goal Theory:**

As it was mentioned above, decision is at the heart of cognitive theories of motivation. It is believed that when making decision about performing a given task requires setting goals on the part of the learners. These goals were seen by many theorists as “situation-specific aims that establish a framework for how individuals engage in and experience achievement tasks” (Salkind, 2008; 690). An early view of goal theory hypothesized that goals diverge in relation to “a performance mastery dichotomy”. Performance goals (ego-involvement goals) emphasize on doing better than others when performing a given task, while mastery goals (learning goals) with emphasis on developing competence when carrying out a given task. Latest views integrated another item; “performance-avoidance goals”. It highlights the importance of avoiding failure while doing a particular activity. Other theorists added a fourth item “mastery-avoidance goals” with the focus on avoiding incompetence. (Salkind, 2008).

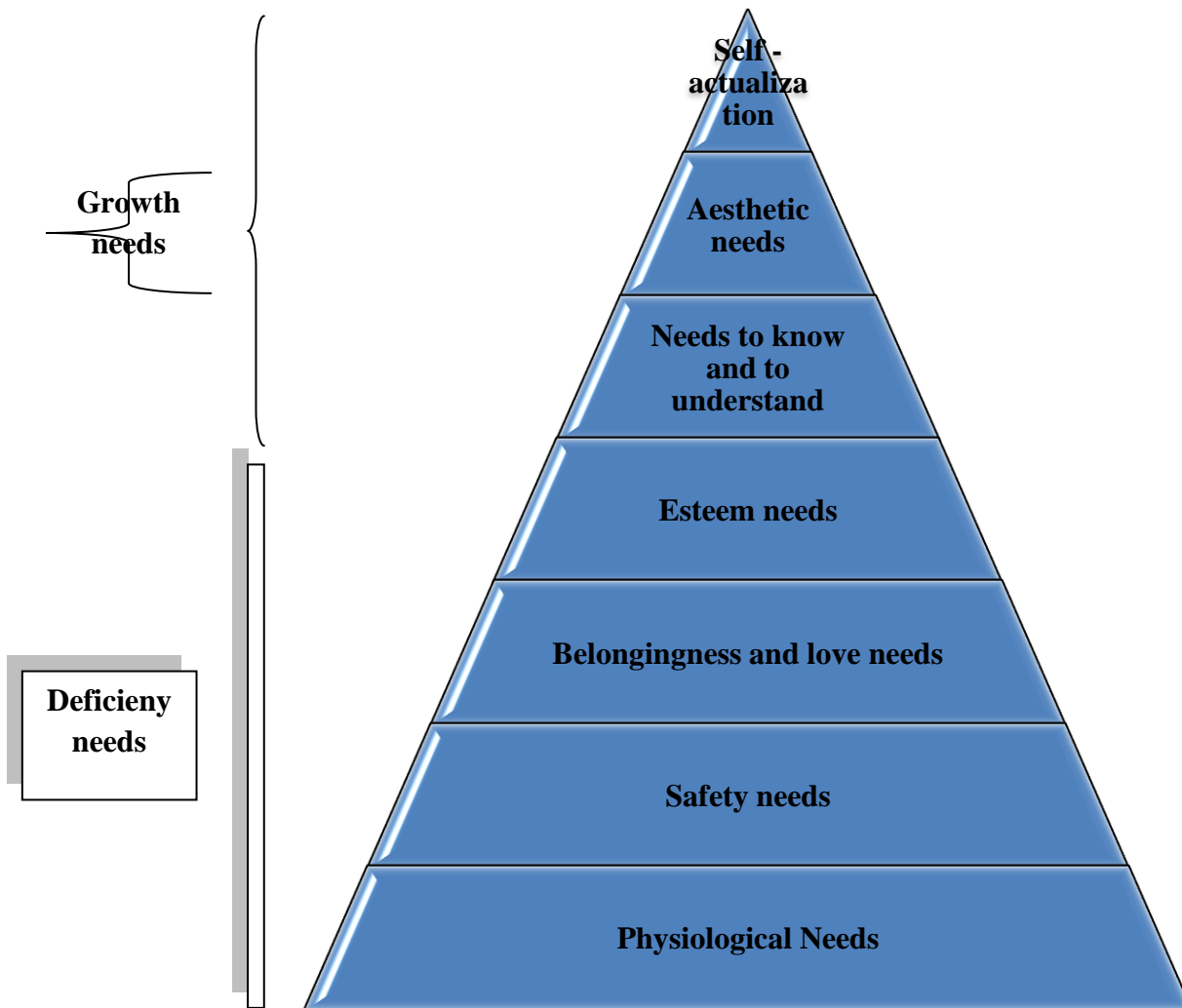
In different terms, goal setting has an effect on motivation since it provides students with opportunity to set their own “learning goals” that enhance their “ego-involvement” and help them “perform” well in a specific activity. Slavin (2005) stated that students’ motivation is either oriented towards “learning goals” or “performance goals”. For language learners with learning goals, studying is an opportunity to gain competence in the foreign language, where learners oriented towards performance goals perceive studying as an opportunity to gain “positive judgements” from their teachers or parents for their competence in the language.

## 2. c. Humanistic theory:

Humanistic views of motivation perceive the individual as a whole and examine the interrelationship of the diverse human needs. One of the most influential humanistic theories is the Abraham Maslow hierarchy of needs which was introduced to the world in the 1940's and 1950's.

### Abraham Maslow Hierarchy of Needs:

Maslow believed that people have several needs to satisfy during the course of their life. He, figuratively, classified these needs hierarchically in a pyramid from the lowest to the highest.



Abraham Maslow Hierarchy of Needs



Maslow ( in Salkind, 2008) made a distinction between “deficiency needs” and “growth needs”. He classified the lowest four layers of the pyramid as “deficiency needs” that overlap: the physiological needs; i.e. need for survival (hunger, thirst, sleep...), safety needs (need for security, protection, stability, freedom from damage...), belongingness and love needs (needs to belong to and feel loved by important persons like family, friends, colleagues at work...), and esteem needs (needs for appreciation, status, confidence, self-respect...). Slavin (2005) stated that once these basic needs are satisfied, “a person’s motivation to satisfy them diminishes.” However the “growth needs” keep growing and are by no means fully satisfied. Salkind (2008), again, noted that Maslow classified the three highest layers as “growth needs”. These needs include: cognitive needs (needs to know, understand, to explore...), aesthetic needs (needs to appreciate, and look for beauty and tidiness in the environment), and self-actualization (acceptance of self and others, spontaneity, extroversion, creativity...). Self-actualization as defined by Maslow (1954) is “the desire to become everything that one is capable of becoming” (Slavin, 2005)

### **3. Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Motivation:**

All of us, from time to time, do things for the reason that we take pleasure in. And, sometimes, we do things just because we expect something in return (reward). Psychologists, in view of that, recognized the divergence that exists between “intrinsic” and “extrinsic” motivation. They described the portion of people who carry out a given activity just for pleasure and enjoyment within the self as being “intrinsically motivated” and those who carry out a given task for the sake of obtaining external rewards as being “extrinsically motivated”. In other words, extrinsic motivation is “fueled by the anticipation of reward from outside and beyond the self” (Brown, 2007: 172). While intrinsic motivation is doing “something because

the act of doing it is enjoyable in itself” (Williams & Burden, 1997: 136). In language learning, students who show a great deal of interest when learning a foreign language and a great deal of excitement when practicing it are “intrinsically motivated”. However, those who just learn the language to gain parents’ appreciation or teachers’ praise are “extrinsically motivated”.

In fact, digging deeply in history, we find that the term “intrinsic motivation” was first coined by Harry Harlow and his associates in 1950’s after an experiment on the monkey solving the puzzle in return for reward. For the monkey, “solving the puzzle seemed to be its own reward.” (Salkind, 2008: 556) in other words, it was an internal pleasure to the monkey to solve the puzzle.

#### **4. Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation in Self-Determination Theory:**

For self-determination theory motivation is divided into “intrinsic motivation”, which refers to the intrinsic significance while performing a given task. According to Deci and Ryan (1985) believed that competence and self-determination are the basic foundations of intrinsic motivation. They theorized that if students are given the freedom of choosing the tasks they want to carry out, they will look for appealing ones within which they can get the defies that the task suggest higher. A sense of competence is built up when students make every effort to achieve these defies. Lately, cognitivists suggested three distinct categories of intrinsic motivation. The first category, intrinsic motivation-knowledge, is the category of motivation which students carry out tasks for the sensation coupled with investigating new thoughts and building up new information. A second category, intrinsic motivation-accomplishment, is the feeling linked to trying to accomplish an aim. The third

category, intrinsic motivation-stimulation, refers to feelings aroused by carrying out the activity (joy and enthusiasm).

Quite the reverse of intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation extrinsic motivation refers to extrinsic rewards to the task performed. Once more, Deci and Ryan (1985) differentiated, from bottom to top, three categories of extrinsic motivation in relation to the degree to which motivation is “self-determined”. The first category, **external regulation**, is described as those tasks that are chosen by external resources to the students (rewards). A second category, **introjected regulation**, is the cause that pushes student to carry out an activity by reason of the demands by other persons (Learning the foreign language in order not to feel embarrassed in front of the students’ native community, for instance). The third category, **identified regulation**, is the most self-determined type of extrinsic motivation. In this category, students devote a lot of vigor to be proficient fluently, for example, since fluency is an appreciated aim in language learning. Deci and Ryan (1985) differentiated all categories of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation with what they coined “Amotivation”. They defined **amotivation** as “the situation in which people see no relation between their actions and consequences of those actions”. In situations as such students have no extrinsic or extrinsic reasons behind carrying out a given activity; they may even say that they want to stop learning the foreign language since they ignore or are uncertain about the reasons behind so doing.

##### **5. Instrumental and Integrative Orientations:**

Usually, a distinction between instrumental and integrative orientations of motivation is made in second language learning. Gardner and Lambert (1972) studies were influential in this sphere. Brown (2007), Dornyei (2001), Gardner and McIntyre

(1991), and others affirmed that instrumental and integrative are not types of motivation, but are rather seen as “orientations”. Yule (2006) declared that several students have “an instrumental motivation”; i.e. they learn the second language just to accomplish some academic or career goals. As opposed to those students with “integrative motivation” who want to learn the language in order to integrate themselves into the second language culture and to be accepted in that society.

## **6. How can motivation be enhanced?**

### **6. a. Intrinsic motivation:**

Slavin (2006: 336) affirms that “Classroom instruction should enhance intrinsic motivation as much as possible”. That is to say, teachers should do their best when giving the lecture in way to gain the students’ attraction and inquisitiveness about it.

Slavin (2006) believed that “arousing interest” in the students is of vital importance. He assumed that teachers should emphasize the lecture’s important role in our daily life, or by giving them the opportunity to choose how to study it (in pairs, or in groups). Moreover, teachers ought “to maintain the students’ curiosity”; language teachers should, from now and then, use idiomatic expressions or proverbs in particular situations to push students figure out why the teacher used this idiomatic expression or proverb in this context and not in another. In addition to that, teachers are asked to “use a variety of interesting presentation modes”. By this is meant, using songs, films, guest speakers, demonstrations, computers, language games, role plays, and so forth. Such activities should be well planned to meet with the course objectives. Furthermore, teachers should “help students set their own goals” by encouraging them to work firmer to reach the aims they set (performing a play).

## **6. b. Extrinsic Motivation:**

Enhancing intrinsic motivation in learners is very essential, yet teachers should at the same time provide them with extrinsic incentives. Slavin (2005; 348) defined an extrinsic incentive as “a reward that is external to the activity, such as recognition or good grade.” He proposed a range of extrinsic incentives that can sustain motivation in students which teachers should constantly use. Teachers should “express clear expectations” about the tasks they want their students’ to achieve to help them get the convenient reward (mark, praise). In addition to that, teachers are asked to provide learners with “clear, immediate and frequent feedback”. Feedback, as defined by Slavin (2006; 340), is an “information on the results of one’s efforts”. Nunan (1991; 195) noted that feedback can be positive and “consists of short interjections. Like ‘good’, ‘okay’” or negative which “consists exclusively of the instructor repeating the learner’s response with a rising intonation.” He considered, as many educators did, positive feedback as being more efficient than negative feedback in changing the students’ behavior. Furthermore, teachers should “increase the value and availability of extrinsic motivators”; i.e. students “must value incentives that are used to motivate them.” (Slavin, 2006; 341) a number of learners may not be concerned about the teacher’s reward (golden stars, good marks, praise).

**Conclusion:**

In a few words, we hinted, in this chapter, at the different theories of motivation in relation to the various schools of thought; the behaviorists who viewed motivation in terms of reinforcement, the cognitivists who believed that motivation has to do with decisions that individuals make about their own deeds, and the humanists who perceived motivation in terms of needs to be satisfied. Not surprisingly, all the theories are different from one another, yet they all agree that motivation is the heart of all human learning. We also explained that motivation can take two forms; intrinsic motivation (the desire to achieve comes from within) and extrinsic motivation (individuals perform some tasks anticipating for an external reward). In addition to that, we shed some light on the distinction made between instrumental orientations (individuals' desire for achieving academic goals) and integrative orientations (the individuals' desire to integrate into the second language culture). We ended with some examples of implementations in language classes; teachers should enhance intrinsic motivation through arousing interest in learners, maintaining students' curiosity, using variety of interesting presentation modes, and helping students set their own goals. Teachers should, also, maintain extrinsic motivation by expressing clear expectations, providing learners with clear, intermediate and frequent feedback (verbal praise).

## **CHAPTER TWO:**

### **SECTION TWO:**

#### **THE SPEAKING SKILL:**

##### **Introduction:**

Undoubtedly, the need to communicate in the English language, in this time and age, is the central aim of thousands and millions of people around the globe. The learning process, for some, may be a piece of delight that they need to enjoy every part of it till the end. For many, it is a bit thorny, yet they keep challenging the obstacles they face every now and then, to reach their desired aim. While for very few persons, language learning is a barrier that they cannot stand challenging and give up in the middle of the road. The reasons behind learning the foreign language may vary from an individual to the other, yet the aim is one; getting to communicate fluently using the target language. It was agreed that ancient language teaching ways of teaching did not help much people to communicate fluently in the target language. Accordingly, today's ways claim that the aim of teaching speaking ought to develop individuals' communicative skills since speaking is fundamental to second language learning and teaching.

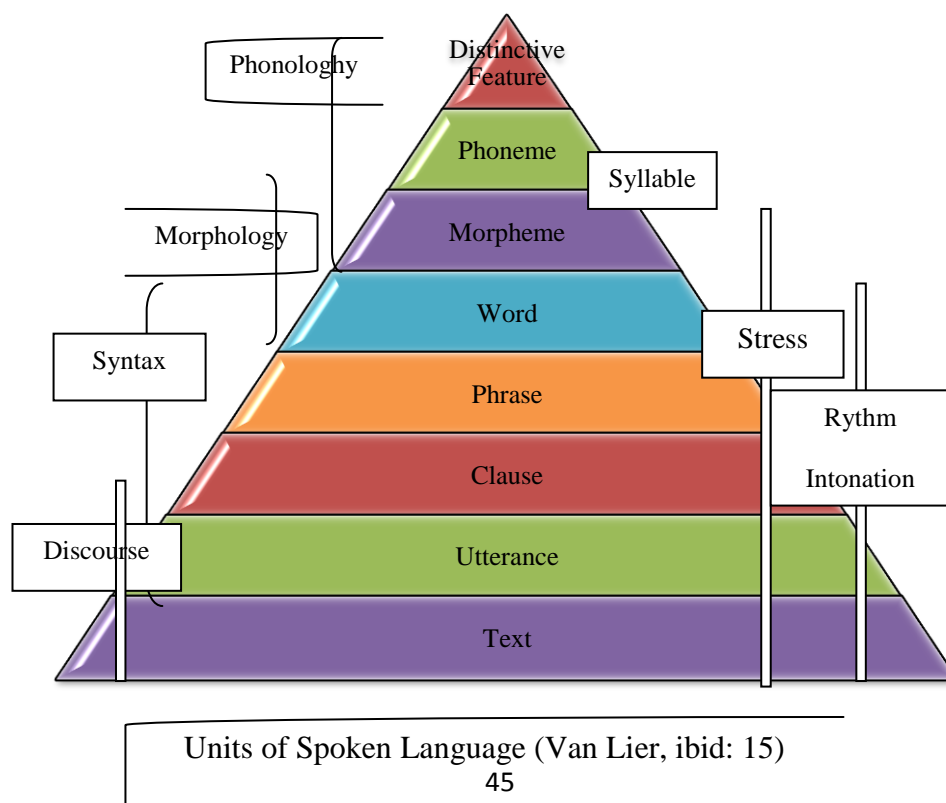
In this chapter, we hint at speaking in general, the different stages of speaking, the causes behind the difficulty of speaking for learners, the activities used to teach speaking. In addition to that we touch upon the stages of the learners' errors and their contribution for second language learning.

## 1. What Is Speaking?

To define speaking, Petrie (1987; in John Lyons, R. Coates et al.,: 336) cited that “speaking is an activity which most of us spend a great deal of time engaged in, apparently without any effort and with not very much thought.” Indeed, people all over the globe, produce thousands and thousands of words without making any remarkable effort. Chaney (1998: 13) defines speaking as "the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts".

## 2. The Components of English Language:

During the learning process, English language learners use all the components of the language without being consciously aware about that. It is for teachers to comprehend these interconnected components with the aim of helping students develop their speaking skills. Van Lier (1995: 15) described the English language components in the following pyramid:





At the bottom of the pyramid, there lies text. A text is formed by sequences of sentences arranged smoothly. Texts can be written or spoken, whereas our emphasis, here, is on the spoken discourse. Texts are composed of utterances which made up the upper layer and which are what an individual says. Utterances might be incomplete, as opposed to the written form. The third superior layer is concerned with clauses. Linguists define the clause as a group of words containing a subject and a verb forming a sentence. It can be either independent; i.e. it can occur alone (the telephone rang) or dependent; i.e. it needs another clause to be completed (while I was going out...). Phrases make up the fourth upper layer of the pyramid. A phrase is known as being a group of words without a marked tense verb (a blue pen). The fifth higher layer is concerned with words. Words are “free morpheme”; i.e. occurring on their own and conveying the meaning. And “bound morphemes” which are always linked words (prefixes, suffixes). Van Lier (1995) noted that it might be problematic for second language learners to use suffixes mostly because of their absence in their mother tongues. In the sixth superior layer lies the phoneme. Phonemes are small units of sound that differentiate meanings. They differ from one language to another. This difference may cause trouble to second language learners; they might be unable to pronounce some sounds. Phonemes are either consonants (/d/ in doctor and /s/ in spouse) or vowels (/e/ in pet and /ʌ / in hug). A syllable may be consistent of a morpheme or one or more phonemes. For that reason it overlaps the morpheme and the phoneme layers. Syllables are open (they end with a vowel) or closed (they end with a consonant).

Stress, rhythm and intonation symbolize the “suprasegmental phonemes” because they transmit meanings above the segmental phonemes depending on the context.

Another important component that is not described in this pyramid is fluency. Fluency was defined by Hedge (2000:54) as being “the ability to link units of speech together with facility and without strain or inappropriate slowness, or undue hesitation.” In other words, the interconnection of all the language components mentioned above results in fluency.

### **3. Listening and Speaking Relationship:**

There is “a natural link between speaking and listening” (Brown, 2001:275), that teachers should pay attention to and should not hesitate to incorporate these two skills in the teaching process. In fact, both of listening and speaking happen together; when teachers center their attention on speaking, listening is always there. The link is so clear in almost all the activities used to teach speaking; they both strengthen one another.

### **4. Speaking and Writing Differences:**

Again, Brown (2001:303) noted that speaking and writing differ in many ways. The first difference to be mentioned is **permanence**. The oral production is ephemeral; it disappears as one finishes speaking. However, the written language is enduring; one can read what was written centuries ago. Another difference is **orthography**. The spoken language contains phonemes, stress, rhythm, intonation and “nonverbal cues”. Whereas, in writing there are only graphemes (punctuation, pictures, charts). One more difference between the two (speaking and writing) is **complexity**. One may think that speaking is less complicated than writing; however, both of them are complicated. The difference, here, lies in the degree of their complexity. In the spoken language, people produce short sentences with many conjunctions; while in writing writers produce longer subordinating sentences. The

last difference to be mentioned, here, is **Vocabulary**. Speakers tend to use simple vocabulary when they speak because it is easy to understand; while writers tend to use a more complicated vocabulary because they have time to think about what to write. This makes it troublesome for learners who feel themselves obliged to use the dictionary to explain almost all the words.

## **5. What Makes Speaking Difficult?**

Learning how to speak may be troublesome for second language learners. Brown (2001:270-1) identified eight problems that the students may face during the learning process, which the teacher has to take into account.

### **5. a. Clustering:**

Because of memory limitation or stress, students tend to divide their oral production into words or phrases. For that reason, teachers have to aid their students to produce

Fluent speech, for Brown (2001: 270) is “phrasal”; it is not a “word by word” production.

### **5. b. Redundancy:**

The spoken language is redundant in the sense that it is possible for students to rephrase, repeat, and use “I mean” or “you know” from time to time during their oral performance. By such doing, students are given more opportunities to be understood.

### **5. c. Reduced Forms:**

The spoken language has several reduced forms; it may be phonological, morphological, syntactic, or pragmatic. Such reductions might be hard for students who have been studying the “full forms” of the language.

### **5. d. Performance Variables:**

Second language learners are subject to hesitation, pauses, false starts, and correction. Teachers help their students to think at the same time of their oral performance (using uh, um...etc).

### **5. e. Colloquial Language:**

It is a bit hard for second language learners to get used to the colloquial language (idioms, slang, and cultural knowledge, for instance). The aim of the teacher, here, is to get his/her students communicate using these forms.

### **5. f. Rate of Delivery:**

Probably the most important aim of second language learners is to communicate fluently using the target language. The teachers' aim, as well, is to help the students to speak the language rapidly and fluently.

### **5. g. Stress, rhythm and intonation:**

All these elements are crucial to the English language since they convey meanings above the words meanings.

### **5. h. Interaction:**

Interaction helps a lot in the students' language development. When negotiating meaning (giving feedback, asking for explanation) they learn new words and new structures.

### **6. Types of Classroom Speaking Performance:**

Brown (2001: 271-2) figured out six categories related to the types of oral production that the learners are supposed to accomplish in the class.

#### **6. a. Imitative:**

Students, when exposed to authentic listening materials, tend to imitate native speakers; they tend to pronounce the words the same way that they heard them. Briefly, they tend to 'go natives'. This, actually, helps a lot in the process of language learning. "Drilling" is also important in the learning process; it gives the students the chance to listen and to repeat orally some language forms (phonological, grammatical) that the students may find troublesome.

#### **6. b. Intensive:**

Intensive speaking surpasses imitative. The students are subject to the intensive practice of the language focusing on the words' or sentences' stress and rhythm; it can be "self-initiated" as it can be practiced in pairs.

#### **6. c. Responsive:**

Students in a language class are often responsive; they give the teacher short answers when they are asked, as they may ask or comment about a given situation.

However it cannot be extended to dialogue. Their speech might be “meaningful and authentic”.

#### **6. d. Transactional (dialogue):**

Transaction is “an extended form of responsive language”; i.e. students are given the opportunity to negotiate what they say. It could be part of pair work as it can be part of group work.

#### **6. e. Interpersonal (dialogue):**

Interpersonal dialogues are performed for the sake of upholding social relationships. Such interpersonal dialogues might be complicated for students since they may include colloquial language, slang, or ellipses that are not easily figured out by the students. However, students are going to be able to decipher after carrying out many interpersonal dialogues.

#### **6. f. Extensive (monologue):**

Students in the intermediate and advanced levels are requested to give oral reports or summaries. These are called monologues.

### **7. Activities Used to Teach Speaking:**

According to Thornbury (2008) Theorists, in relation to their schools of thought, proposed three different stages that learners pass through when they are learning to speak. The first stage to be mentioned, here, is awareness. By awareness it is meant that students are in need to be aware of the characteristics of the language under study. Appropriation makes up the second stage. Appropriation is the “integration” of the language characteristics into the students’ existing knowledge.

The last stage has to do with autonomy (usually used with automaticity). When students are able to use the new language on their own, they are said to be autonomous.

According to Thornbury (2008: 41-111), theorists have designed several activities for all the stages mentioned above in order to an effective teaching to take place. All these activities urge the students to participate since they bring interest into the classroom and, thus endeavor motivation.

### **7.1 Awareness:**

The awareness activities focus on language features, sociocultural rules, topic shift, performance effects, communication strategies, speech acts, features of spoken grammar (repetition, ellipsis...etc), discourse markers (well, I mean, any way... etc), vocabulary, lexical chunks and stress and intonation.

#### **7.1. a. Using Recordings:**

Teachers should expose their learners to audio-recorded material that can be scripted, semi-scripted or authentic conversations and dialogues. (Radio, TV...etc)

#### **7.1. b. Using Live Listening:**

By listening to the teacher or a guest speaker since it opens the doors of interactivity.

#### **7.1. c. Using Noticing the Gap Activity:**

Students are asked to perform an oral task, then they listen to a competent speaker performing the same task and then they denote the characteristics of the

language that they have not used in the same way. Students re-produce the oral task as the competent speaker did.

## **7.2. Appropriation:**

Once students are aware about the language features, they have to appropriate this awareness in order to be used. Appropriateness offers the learners the opportunity to do a better control over their oral production.

### **7.2.1. Drilling and Chants:**

#### **7.2.1.a. Drilling:**

By drilling it is meant the repetition of key words, sentences or entire expressions after hearing them (as in dialogues, conversations, TV...etc).

#### **7.2.1. b. Chants:**

Chants are very entertaining for students. Listening to songs or playing computer games help students pick up many words and idiomatic expression and remember them easily.

### **7.2.2. Milling Activities:**

Such activities push the learners to put in practice the standard language repetitively. In such activities, the learners are asked to collect the different points of views of their classmates by asking them specific questions to complete a survey or to find what the students have in common (in order to know how funny the class is, every student asks his/her classmates three or four questions that work in this “would you ever...”).



### **7.2.3. Writing Tasks:**

It seems a bit strange to talk about writing in speaking. However, writing plays a significant role in the speaking-learning process. The following activities explain more the role of writing in teaching speaking.

#### **7.2.3. a. Dictation:**

In dictation, teachers ask the students to write the expressions (diverse) that s/he dictates (e.g. expressing gratitude) then, dividing them into two groups from formal to informal. After that, the students have to use them to write dialogues.

#### **7.2.3. b. Paper Conversation:**

In this type of activities, students are asked to write a conversation on a shared paper (pair work or group work) that the teacher corrects while walking around the groups.

#### **7.2.3. c. Computer-mediated chat:**

Chatting with a person on Internet means exchanging short sets of words or sentences. Chatting is noticed to be very effective since it enriches the learners' language.

#### **7.2.3. d. Rewriting:**

Another effective writing activity is rewriting. In this activity, teachers ask their learners to “adapt” or “modify” the written dialogues to learn what has been newly introduced. (e. g. the direct/indirect speech or the passive voice)

#### **7.2.4. Reading Aloud:**

Reading aloud is a step that can be classified between writing and speaking. It helps learners focus on pronunciation without feeling stressed of what to say next. According to Thornbury (2008), Mark Powell suggested a four step technique for reading aloud that he called “sound scripting”. 1) Teachers give the learners a text and ask them indicate where pauses fall. 2) Students highlight the stressed words. 3) Then, they (i.e. students) come to a decision about the sequences of words that are slower or deliberate. 4) Finally, practice reading the text they have been through.

#### **7.2.5. Dialogues:**

Dialogues have been used for ages and still are used today in language classes. Dialogues give the learners the opportunity to focus on grammatical and lexical structures.

##### **7.2.5. a. Items on Board:**

The teacher writes some expressions (e.g. have you seen...? It's really funny to...etc) in an attempt to make the students imagine a situation and then speak.

##### **7.1.2. b. Disappearing Dialogue:**

The teacher writes the text of the dialogue on the board. Then s/he asks the students to read it loudly in pairs. After that the teacher removes the sections of the dialogue one after the other. By such doing, the learners memorize the dialogue and rewrite it all over again.

### **7.2.5. c. Dialogue Building:**

It is the opposite of disappearing dialogue. The teacher sets up a situation using drawings (e.g. drawing two persons in a grocery store) and asks the students questions (like who are they? Are they friends?) and then the students are asked to imagine the whole situation. By so doing, the students construct a complete dialogue which they perform on the spot.

### **7.2.6. Communicative Tasks:**

The communicative tasks emphasize more the importance of fluency rather than accuracy. Teachers believe that the students' oral production is better developed when they are focusing on what to say in a given situation rather than how to say it. They also believe that communicative tasks get the learners ready to use the language in real-life situations and that these tasks enhance automaticity in them.

#### **7.2.6. a. Information Gap Activity:**

This activity provides extensive talks among the learners. In information gap, the learners are given different information that the other students may not have. This gap cannot be completed only if the learners use the language. Every learner has an important role in this activity because the activity cannot be achieved unless all the participants give the piece of information they have.

#### **7.2.6. b. Jigsaw Activity:**

It is so called because it involves many participants. In such an activity, the teacher arranges four flashcards and tells the learners about the general idea that these cards uphold. Then, s/he distributes the cards for four subgroups (one per each). After a moment the teacher asks the members of all the subgroups number one, for instance,

to describe what s/he has seen. Later on, the teacher and subgroup number one members decide upon the idea that this card upholds.

#### **7.2.6. c. Surveys:**

The students are asked, in this type of activities, to confirm or disconfirm the claim a hypothesis that the teacher suggested. To do so, students collect their classmates' opinions about this issue then one student should be chosen to report what the group's members found. Finally, the whole class comes to a decision whether what they reported confirms or disconfirms the truthfulness of the issue.

#### **7.2.6. d. Guessing Games:**

Like who am I? Or what am I? Where every student thinks of a famous person, an object or an animal and his/her classmates make guesses until what was thought is found.

### **7.3. Autonomy:**

Automaticity is defined by Thornbury (2008:90) as being “the capacity to self-regulate performance as a consequence of gaining control over skills that were formally other-regulated.” The activities that are used to enhance automaticity in the learners are described as follow.

#### **7.3.1. Presentations and Talks:**

Teachers ask the students to present the following activities in front of their classmates and get ready for a real life communication.

### **7.3.1. a. Show and Tell:**

Students are asked to talk about a picture or an object that is important to them, and then answer the questions that their classmates ask.

### **7.3.1.b. Did You Read About?**

Students are asked to speak about something they may have heard about on the radio or that may have read in the newspaper. After that, all the students give their opinions.

### **7.3.1. c. Academic Presentations:**

This type of activity gets the learners (individually, in pairs or in groups) present academic presentations with formal characteristics (e.g. language and gender). A discussion takes place when the students finish their presentation.

### **7.3.2. Stories, jokes and anecdotes:**

Storytelling has been used for decades and still is used now. Through storytelling, students are given the opportunity to practice their oral skill as well as to know each other. Jokes and anecdotes have the same aim.

#### **7.3.2. a. Guess the lie:**

In this activity, students are going to take turns. One of them tells three short anecdotes; two of them really happened to him/her, but the third is false. The other students are going to guess the lie.

### **7.3.2. b. Insert the word:**

The teacher gives all the students cards with different words or expressions. After that, they start telling anecdotes one after the other and the other learners guess the ‘secret item’ that the anecdote entail.

### **7.3.2. c. Chain Story:**

The students turn take to build a story (one sentence per student).

### **7.3.2. d. Party jokes:**

Students exchange jokes in pairs or groups. Then the class should vote for the best one.

### **7.3.3. Role play:**

Role plays involve the learners in real life communication and help them reduce their fears of performing in front of people. A very popular role play activity is **“the soap”**.

In the “soap” learners “plan, rehearse, and perform” a short passage from a soap opera. The other students, later on, are free to give their opinion about the participants’ performance and about the message they transmit.

### **7.3.4. Discussion and debate:**

Discussion and debate are, usually, the most used activities in oral classes. Actually, **“Panel discussion”** is what teachers prefer. Usually used in pairs or in groups; students on the panel give their arguments about a given issue, and those students (from the audience) either agree or disagree. This activity is very effective, in

the sense that it helps learners focus more on what they say rather than how to say it (fluency rather than accuracy).

## **8. Error Analysis:**

Linguists were deeply concerned about the difficulties that second language learners face, they wanted to know the reasons behind those difficulties to be able to heal them. Corder was among the linguists who gave a great importance to the learners' error. In the 1960's Corder introduced "error analysis" that was defined by Gass and Selinker (2008:102) as being "a type of linguistic analysis that focuses on the errors learners make." Indeed, error analysis is a study that deals with the learners' errors seeking to obtain information about the language difficulties in order to prevent them from happening. Corder (1981) made a significant distinction between errors and mistakes. He stated that **mistakes** are viewed as slips of the tongue (due to fatigue, stress...etc) once can be recognized by their speakers once they are uttered; whereas, **errors** are related to the learners, they occur systematically and cannot be recognized them. He also made a distinction between "**overt**" and "**covert**" errors. Overt erroneous utterances are those errors that are grammatically wrong; however covert errors are correct, but do not convey the learners' intended meaning. Gass and Selinker (2008) noted that Corder distinguished three types of errors: a) **transfer errors** that reflect the negative influence of the mother tongue; b) **analogical errors** that are related to the second language items, and c) **teaching-induced errors** that are related to the methods and the teaching material used for teaching. Other types of errors that were suggested by Richards (1971) and are 1) **interlingual errors** (mother tongue interference), 2) **intralingual and developmental errors** (that are so called because they are made even by a child acquiring a mother tongue). He identified four types (causes) for intralingual errors; a) **overgeneralization** (when learners over

generalize rules used for specific cases; regular/irregular plural, for instance); b) **ignorance of rule restriction** (applying different rules when it is not necessary; the student who I talked to him); c) **incomplete application of rules** (the influence of the teacher's on the students' answers) d) **false concepts hypothesized** (wrong comprehension due to the nuances of the teaching items).

### **9. Treating Errors in the Classroom:**

According to Hedge (2000), the teachers' correction of the students' errors is essential. It helps them to recognize their errors, understand them and try not to make them again. Teachers should correct the students' systematic errors (developmental), and not mistakes that are due to fatigue or carelessness. Teachers have to take the learners' affect into account, for this reason, they are asked to make a balance between "correction" and "encouragement". They need to make a balance between negative feedback when students err and positive feedback (praise) when they participate. Again, according to Hedge (2000) correcting errors may be through various strategies that the teacher has to be aware of. S/he may frown and say "no", reiterate the students' sentence with a raised intonation, reiterating the question focusing on its key component that is desired to be noticed by the learners, nodding or simply uttering "what did you say?" some activities requests from the teacher not to correct his/her learners on the spot. For such activities, teachers should write the errors made by the learners on a sheet of paper and hand it to them or just note them on the board to be corrected with other students.



**Conclusion:**

In a few words, we mapped out throughout this chapter the speaking skill. The speaking skill is assumed to be the most difficult skill (compared to listening, reading or writing) if teachers do not use the right method and do not center their attention on the learners affect. Scientists agreed that speaking goes through three stages: Awareness, appropriateness and autonomy. They also suggested a various range of activities for each stage to be well developed. These activities focus more on the learners and give the teacher the role of a guide or a facilitator who do not interrupt his/her learners for the sake of getting their answers accurate, but emphasize more on how they are fluent when performing a given task. The variety and interest that these activities bring into the class, create a less inhibiting atmosphere and indulge motivation in the learners, and as a consequence, help the learners develop their speaking skill. It is very true that the Communicative Language Teaching is the best method to teach oral expression because of its characteristics and principles, but it would not be good enough if teachers do not grasp the essences of motivation and the purpose of learning a second language that is fluent communication.

## **CHAPTER THREE:**

### **THE FIELD WORK**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter is devoted to the presentation and the analysis of the data obtained through the implementation of the present research.

As a first step, we start by introducing the population of the study. Second, we describe, analyze and interpret the questionnaires results. Which, in turn, help us confirm or disconfirm our hypotheses about using Communicative Language Teaching as an effective method to motivate students perform better orally. We provide two sections, the first one deals with the teachers' questionnaire analysis, and the second deals with the students' questionnaire analysis.

In addition to that, we present our research findings about applying Communicative Language Teaching at the level of university, to motivate students perform better orally.

#### **1. Methodology:**

##### **1.1. Hypothesis:**

It is worth reiterate our hypotheses:

- a) Teachers should set a motivating learning environment in order for students to perform better orally; and b) Communicative Language Teaching would be one of the best methods to be used in the class, to enhance motivation students.

## **1. 2. Population:**

### **1.2. a. The Students:**

Second Year LMD students of English, at the University of Constantine department of English, development of English make up the entire population of our present study. We dealt with a sample of fifty (50) students, from a total population of about 800 students. The participants, in this study were recruited from two classes. Again, a random selection made up the final sample which consisted of twenty five (25) students (males~ 8%; females~ 92%). The students' ages ranged from eighteen to twenty two. The reason behind choosing to work with second year is that they are more or less motivated. They are still in late adolescence and affect counts very much for them; teachers have to choose the best method to teach them, for the students to perform well orally. We think so because if the method chosen does not take the affective side into account, students will never be motivated to speak and thus they will perhaps never be able to use the language correctly.

### **1.2. b. The Teachers:**

Teachers at the University of Constantine make up the whole population. We dealt with the sample of ten (10) teachers selected randomly, from the entire population of about eighty (80) teachers. All the participants in this study (professors, doctors, and set-teachers) at least have taught (or still teach) oral expression. The reason behind such a choice was to examine the degree to which teachers' awareness of the important role of Communicative Language Teaching in fostering motivation in learners.

## **2. Description of the Questionnaires:**

For this present study, we devised two questionnaires, one for teachers and one for students. The questionnaires contain questions of the multiple choice type, where the teachers/students put a tick in the corresponding boxes after reading the questions attentively. The results of the questionnaires serve to investigate the teaching-learning situations to help lecturers use Communicative Language Teaching as an effective teaching method that centers attention on the psychological and affective side of their learners.

### **2.1. The students' Questionnaire:**

The students' questionnaire was composed of (23) questions composed of five parts; the first part deals with background information about the students, the second part involves questions about the students' attitudes and their level of motivation towards speaking English. Part number three deals with the personality of the learners (extroversion vs. introversion). Part number four deals with the atmosphere in the classroom and "accuracy". And finally, part five deals with the role of the teacher in a Communicative Language Teaching frame work.

### **2.2. The Teachers' Questionnaire:**

The teachers' questionnaire was composed of (25) questions composed of five parts; the first part is about background information about teachers. The second part deals with the learners' attitudes from the teachers' perspective. The third part involves questions about the role of the teacher in a Communicative Language Teaching framework, part number four questions' deal with communicative language

teaching, and eventually, part number five deals with level of the teachers' motivation towards teaching at university.

### **3. Administration of the questionnaire:**

#### **3.1. The Students' Questionnaire:**

The students' questionnaire was administered to two groups gathered together, making up 50 students (for the study, only 25 questionnaires were randomly selected). Students were given identical instructions, before they complete the questionnaire, on how to do so and for what reason it was designed. They were notified that: a) it is not a test, b) it is an important component in our study, c) their participation is going to be really appreciated, d) what matters is their opinions (no true or false answers), and e) the answers they will provide would remain completely confidential (even though they were not asked to write their names). The questionnaire took the students nearly 60 minutes of their time (which is largely enough for them to answer). With what mentioned above, we do believe that our questionnaire was administered in good conditions.

#### **3.2. The Teachers' Questionnaire:**

Since teachers are familiar with this type of studies, all that we can say is that the teachers' questionnaire was administered to ten (10) of lecturers selected randomly. It took them nearly 30 minutes of their time.

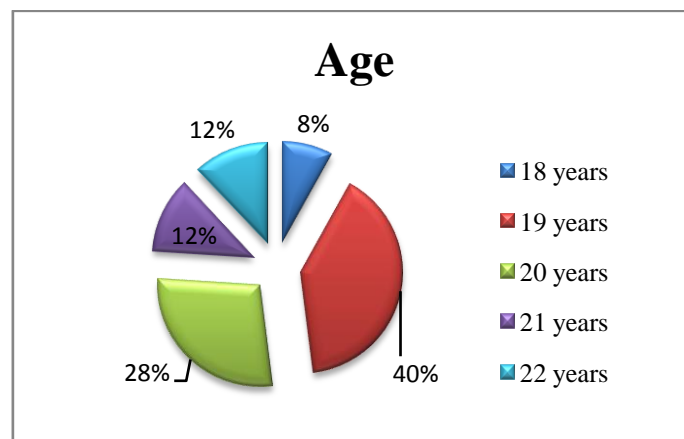
#### 4. Section One: Analysis of the Students' Questionnaire:

##### Part One: Background Information

**Table 1: Age**

<i>Years</i>	<i>18</i>	<i>19</i>	<i>20</i>	<i>21</i>	<i>22</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	2	10	7	3	3	25
<i>%</i>	8%	40%	28%	12%	12%	100%

**Figure 1: Age**

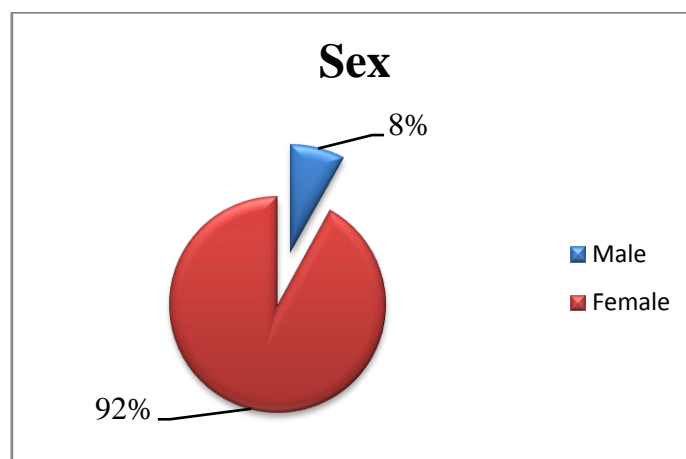


A quick glimpse at this table will reveal that there are five (5) age groups in our selected sample. All our subjects are teenage students whose ages vary between 18 and 22 years old. Out of the total number of the sample (25), we have only 2 subjects 8% who are 18 years of age; this may mean they start early their primary education. 19 years old subjects (10) represent a numerical majority (40%). 20 years old make the 28% of the whole population. Besides, 21 years old (12%) and 22 years old (12%) are believed to be older subjects who either have repeated years or not having started early their primary education.

**Table 2: Sex**

<i>Sex</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	2	23	25
<i>%</i>	8%	92%	100%

**Figure 2: Sex**

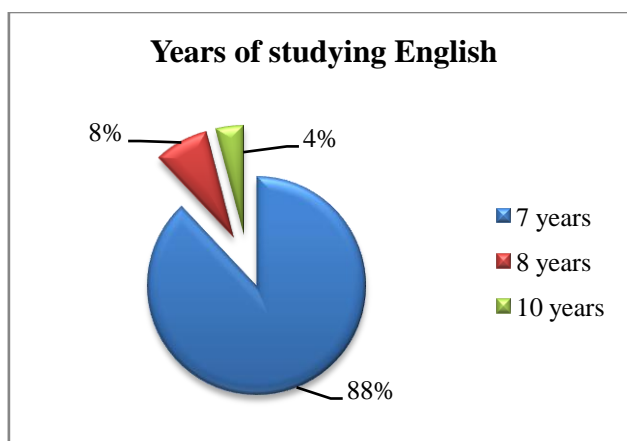


Female students outnumber males. In actual fact, this is even the case with regard to the sample under study. We have recorded just (2) male subjects out of a total of 25 making up (8%), whereas the rest is of a female gender, that is 23 (92%). This adds nothing except to the question of motivation and seriousness. Girls are expected to be more interested in studying a foreign language more than boys.

**Table 3: how long have you been studying English?**

<i>Years</i>	<i>Seven (7)</i>	<i>Eight (8)</i>	<i>Ten (10)</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	22	2	1	25
<i>%</i>	88%	8%	4%	100%

**Figure 3: Years of studying English**

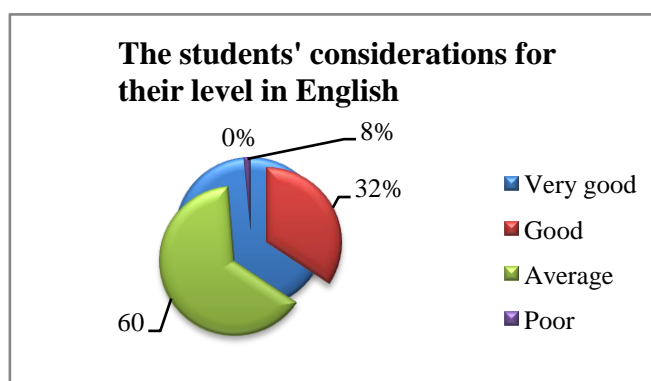


The majority of the students (22) making up (88%) stated that they have been studying English for seven years. This is believed to be the normal number to reach out their academic year. Those who stated that they have been studying English for eight years (8%) and those who declared that they have been studying English for ten years (4%) are believed that they have repeated one or many years.

**Table 4: How do you consider your level in English?**

	<i>Very good</i>	<i>Good</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Poor</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	0	8	15	2	25
<i>%</i>	0	32%	60%	8%	100%

**Figure 4: The students' considerations for their level in English**





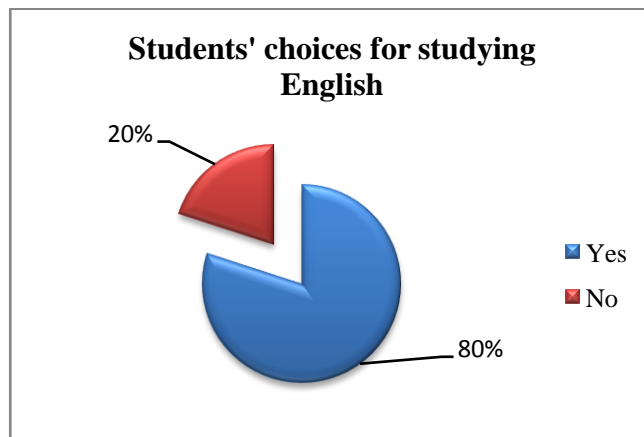
No one of the participants (0) considers his/her level to be very good in English. (32%) state that their level is good, whereas (8%) state that their level is poor. In contrast with the minority, we have (60%) who assume that their level is average. Students usually relate their level to how well or how bad they can understand and produce the language either orally or in writing.

**Part Two: Motivation and attitudes**

**Table 5: Was English your first choice?**

	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	<i>20</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>25</i>
<i>%</i>	<i>80%</i>	<i>20%</i>	<i>100%</i>

**Figure 5: Students’ choices for studying English**

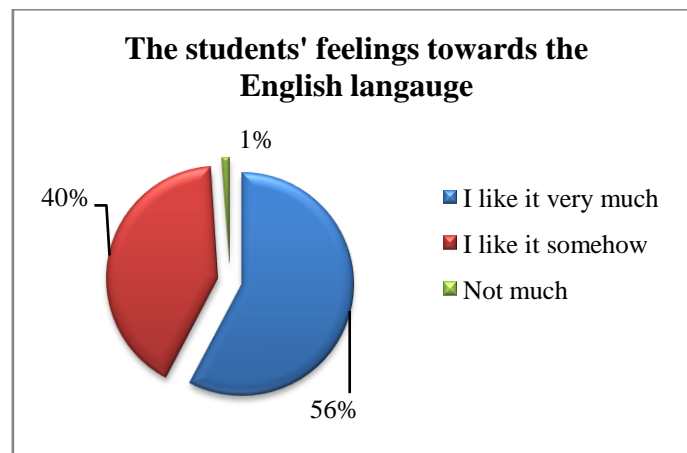


Twenty participants, making up (80%), opted for “yes” while only five participants; i.e. (20%) opted for “no”. We assume that the baccalaureate average of the minority that forms (5%) did not allow them to follow the specialty they wanted to. This question is one reason, among many, behind the level of the students’ motivation.

**Table 6: Do you like English language?**

	<i>Very much</i>	<i>I like it somehow</i>	<i>Not much</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	14	10	1	25
<i>%</i>	56%	40%	4%	100%

**Figure 6: The students' feelings towards the English language**

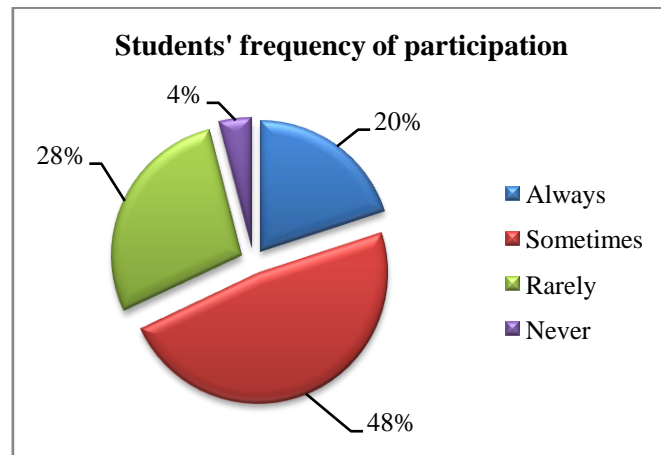


(56%) of the whole population affirmed that they like English very much, this confirms that only this portion (14 participants) went for English as a first choice because they are intrinsically motivated to. While the portion (10) that declared that they like English somehow (40%) were not really willing to study English and were extrinsically motivated (parents, friends, media, and so forth) or were sent to this option because of the baccalaureate average, then felt obliged somehow (because of no other possibility) to study English. Only one participant (4%) confessed that s/he does not like English much; this explains lack of motivation and thus, lack of interest.

**Table 7: How often do you participate in the oral expression class?**

	<i>Always</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Rarely</i>	<i>Never</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Numbers</i>	5	12	7	1	25
<i>%</i>	20%	48%	28%	4%	100

**Figure 7: The students' frequency of participation**

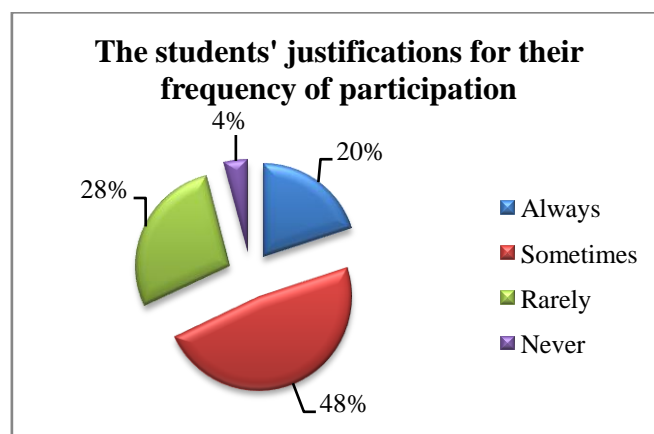


By this question, we wanted to know the students' frequency of using the language and their motivation to speak. Theorists and teachers in general emphasize that only motivated students always take the initiative to participate even when are not asked to do so. This category is represented only by 5 participants (20%). 12 participants (48%) states that they sometimes participate in oral class. while 5 of them (20%) rarely do so. This draws attention to the relative percentage of the students who indeed are interested in the topics being discussed. One student (4%) opted for "never"; that is a sign of lack of interest and motivation and/or to inhibition. Table 7 is a follow up to what have already been argued in table 6.

**Table 8: Students' justification for their frequency of participation**

	<i>Reasons</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>Always</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>I want to speak like natives</i></li> <li>• <i>I want to improve my oral skills</i></li> </ul>	5	20
<i>Sometimes</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>I am not courageous enough</i></li> <li>• <i>I only answer when I feel that what I will say is good</i></li> </ul>	12	48
<i>Rarely</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>I am not self confident and I feel afraid of the teacher's and friends' reactions (blame, laughter)</i></li> <li>• <i>I lack vocabulary</i></li> </ul>	7	28
<i>Never</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>I feel bored we always discuss topics</i></li> </ul>	1	4
<i>Total</i>		25	100

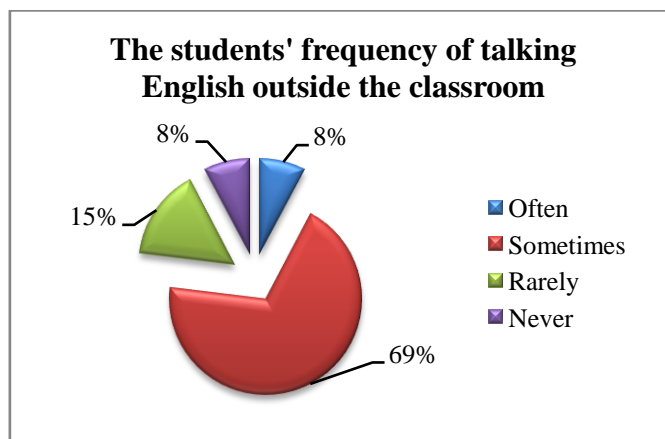
**Figure 8: The students' justifications for their frequency of participation**



**Table 9: How often do you talk English outside the classroom?**

	<i>Often</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Rarely</i>	<i>Never</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	2	18	4	2	25
<i>%</i>	8%	72%	16%	8%	100%

**Figure 9: The students' frequency of talking English outside the classroom**



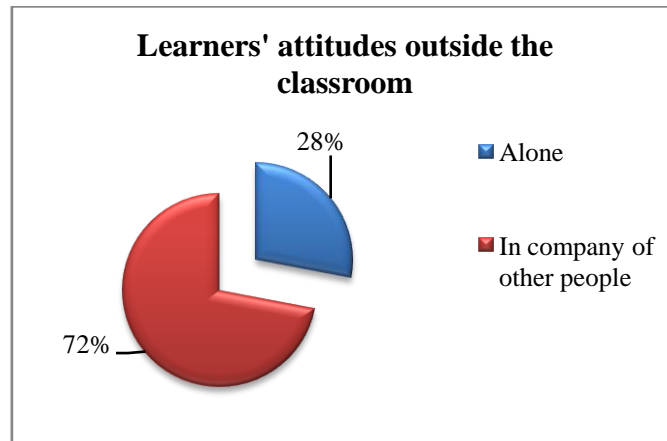
Students, who use the language outside the classroom, are believed to be intrinsically motivated and this makes up two categories; the minority of (2%) of the participants who stated that they “frequently” use the language outside the classroom, and the majority of (72%) of the participants who stated that they “sometimes” do so. In contrast to (16%) who affirmed that English is “rarely” used by them outside the classroom, and to (8%) who opted for “never” as an answer to that question.

### **Part Three: Personality of the learners**

**Table 10: Outside the classroom, do you prefer to be**

	<i>Alone</i>	<i>In company of other people</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	7	18	25
<i>%</i>	28%	72%	100%

**Figure 10: The learners' attitudes outside the classroom**

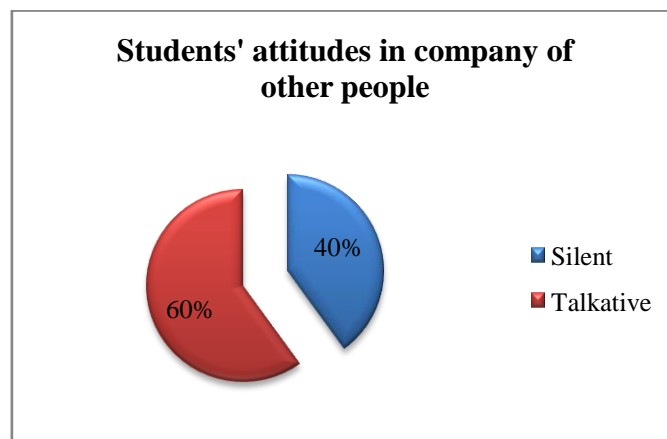


This question focuses on the personality of the learners. It seems that the great majority (72%) appear to be somehow sociable or extrovert. While (28%) is the portion of students who are shy, but not necessarily introverts.

**Table 11: In the company of other people, do you prefer to be**

	<i>Silent</i>	<i>Talkative</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>15</i>	<i>25</i>
<i>%</i>	<i>40%</i>	<i>60%</i>	<i>100%</i>

**Figure 11: The students' attitudes in company of other people**

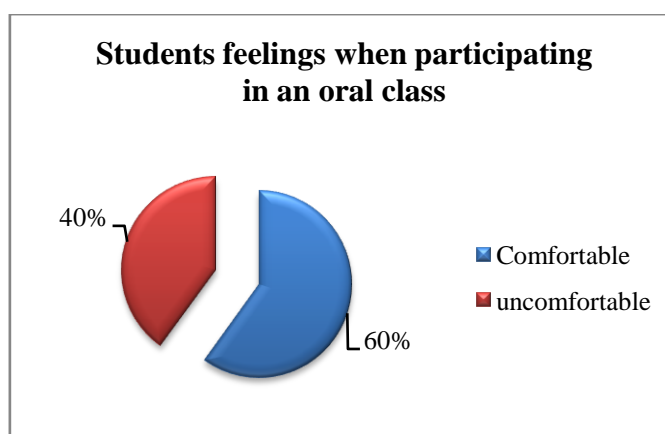


A quick look at this table shows that 10 participants, who make up (40%), prefer to be silent. Whereas, (15) participants making up (60%) prefer being talkative. Actually, the nature of students may affect their oral production since the majority of language theorists believe that “in order to learn a language, one has to speak it.”

**Table 12: How do you feel when you participate in an oral class in front of your teacher and classmates?**

	Comfortable	Uncomfortable	Total
Number	15	10	25
%	60%	40%	100%

**Figure 12: Students’ feelings when participating in an oral class**



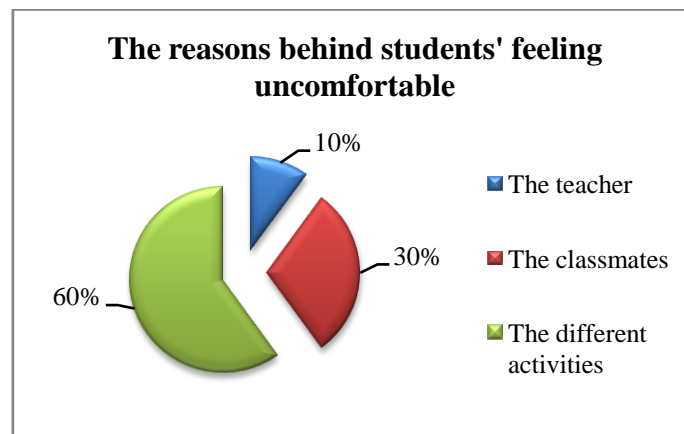
This question is related to the previous ones about the learners’ personality. The majority of the participants (60%) affirm that they feel comfortable when they participate, while the rest of the percentage (40%) reveals that students feel uncomfortable. These are, surprisingly, the same results obtained in table number 12. Extroverts, usually talkative, do not feel inhibited or hindered when taking the initiative to use English in the classroom. However, introverts, who are usually silent,

are silent and avoid taking risks fearing the reaction of their classmates and their teacher.

**Table 13: If uncomfortable, what makes you feel so?**

	<i>The teacher</i>	<i>Your classmates</i>	<i>The different activities proposed by the teacher</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>10</i>
<i>%</i>	<i>10%</i>	<i>30%</i>	<i>60%</i>	<i>100%</i>

**Figure 13: The reasons behind students' feeling uncomfortable**



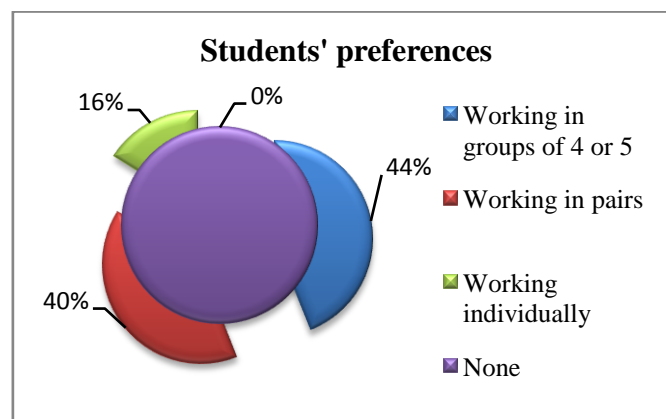
By this question, we wanted to know the reason behind students' feeling uncomfortable in oral class. The total number of the population changes, here. (10) Participants, the equivalent of (100%), admitted that they feel uncomfortable during an oral class. The majority of them (60%) declare that they feel so because of the activities the teacher uses in the classroom (always the same; discussions). This lack of variety does not really bring interest to the class and, thus, the students are bored. (3) Subjects, making up (30%) declared that their classmates make them feel uncomfortable, while only one (10%) affirmed that that teacher is the reason behind his/her feelings.



**Table 14: What do you prefer?**

	<i>Working in groups of four or five</i>	<i>Working in pairs</i>	<i>Working individually</i>	<i>None</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	11	10	4	0	25
<i>%</i>	44%	40%	16%	0	100%

**Figure 14: The students' activities preferences**



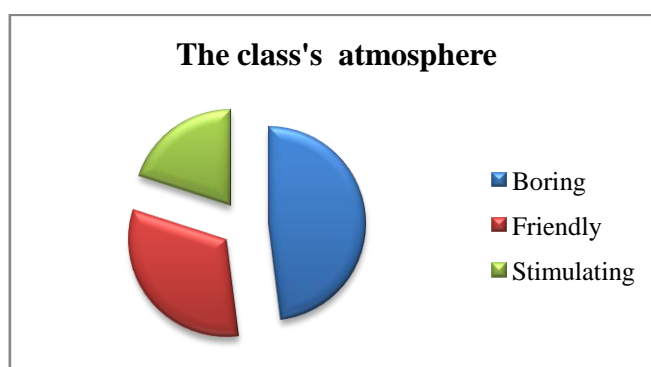
As it is visible here, the majority of (44%) of the participants prefers working in groups. This may reveal that this portion is sociable and extrovert. And right after, the other majority of (40%) favors working in pairs. We assume that this portion is either sociable and extrovert (but not to the extreme) or not really confident (i.e. in need of other support). While the rest of the participants (16%) like working alone. These are likely to be introverts who feel strong without the company of others. Outwardly, no one has preference for a particular kind of language activities.

## Part Four: Communicative Language Teaching

**Table 15: How would you describe the atmosphere of your class?**

	<i>Boring</i>	<i>Friendly</i>	<i>Stimulating</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	12	8	5	25
<i>%</i>	48%	32%	20%	100%

**Figure 15: The class's atmosphere**

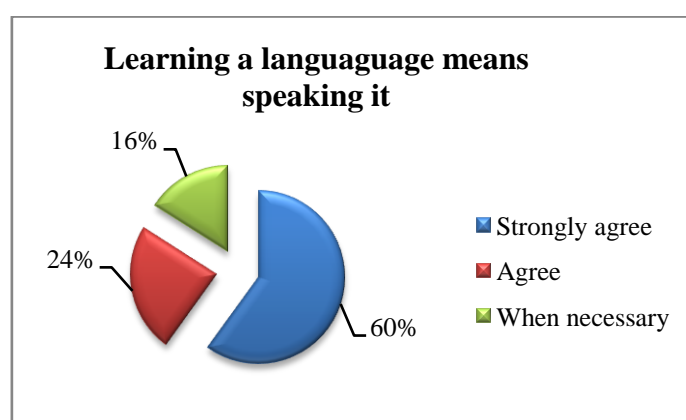


Pedagogically, a communicative class atmosphere should be friendly, and anxiety free to stimulate students, encourage them take risks and feel less inhibited. In short, it has to be motivating. (32%) Of the participants revealed that the atmosphere of their class is friendly. We assume that they declared so because of the relationship that exists between them, their classmates and their teachers. (20%) of the students stated that it is stimulating. We suppose that such a description is due to the argumentative topics discussed in the class which, usually, divide the class into pros and cons. However, (48%) declared that it is boring. We believe that they do not stand the sole activity (discussions) that teachers always use in oral expression classes.

**Table 16: Do you agree that in order to learn a language, you have to speak it?**

	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>When necessary</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	15	6	4	25
<i>%</i>	60%	24%	16%	100%

**Figure 16: Learning a language means speaking it.**

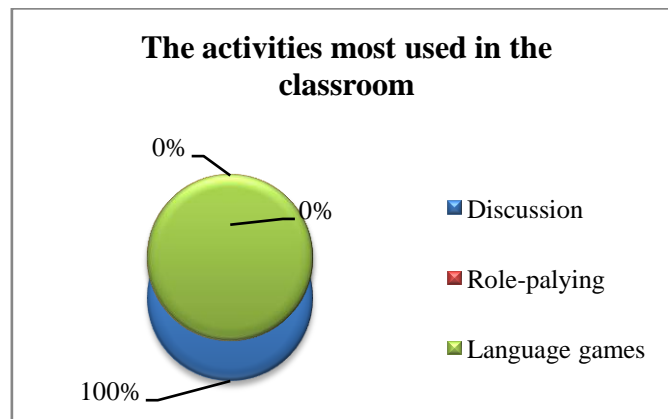


Several studies revealed that in order for one to learn a language, s/he has to speak it. Many students (60%) strongly agree about. Others (24%) just say that they agree. While the rest of them (16%) affirm that learning a language is not necessarily speaking it.

**Table 17: which activity does your teacher use most?**

	<i>Discussion</i>	<i>Role-playing</i>	<i>Language games</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	25	0	0	25
<i>%</i>	100%	0	0	100%

**Figure 17: The activities most used in the classroom**

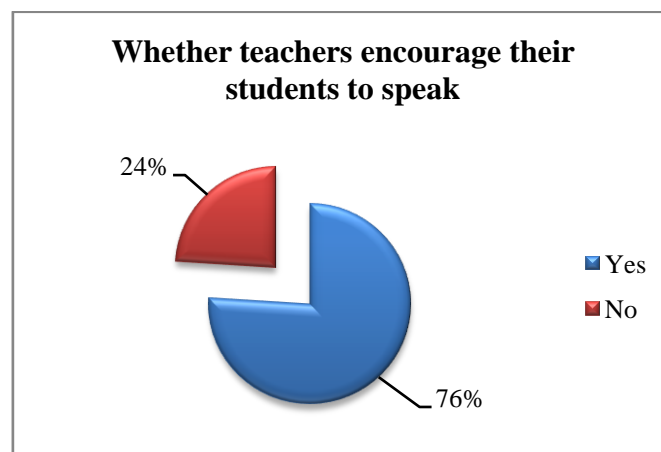


The whole population (25); i.e. the equivalent of (100%) affirmed that their teachers use nothing but discussions. This routine explains the lack of interest and motivation on the part of students. As a rule, teachers must use different activities and brings variety into an oral class to assure the students' motivation.

**Table 18: Does your teacher encourage you to speak?**

	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	<i>19</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>25</i>
<i>%</i>	<i>76%</i>	<i>24%</i>	<i>100%</i>

**Figure 18: Whether teachers encourage their students to speak**

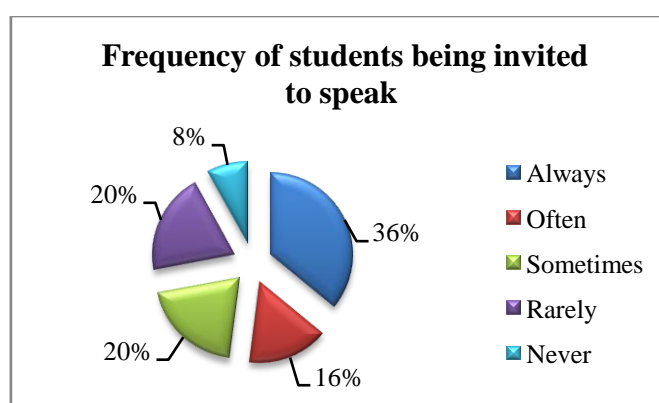


It is important on the part of the teacher to encourage his/her students to speak for the sake of enhancing motivation that is an essential factor in Communicative Language Teaching. The answers revealed by 19 participants (i.e. 76%) were positive, while the rest of the participants (6) making up the equivalent of (24%) answered negatively.

**Table 19: How often does s/he invite you to speak?**

	<i>Always</i>	<i>Often</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Rarely</i>	<i>Never</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	9	4	5	5	2	25
<i>%</i>	36%	16%	20%	20%	8%	100%

**Figure 19: Frequency of students being invited to speak**

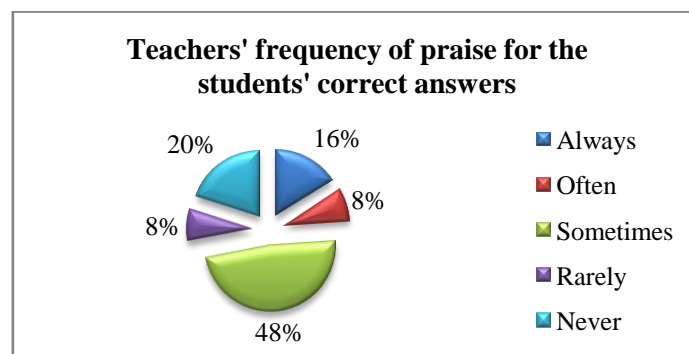


Teachers, as it was mentioned above, have to encourage their students to take risks to participate in an oral class. The results, as shown in the table, are described as follow: (36%) state that they always are encouraged to speak by their teachers. (16%) opted for often, (20%) is the percentage obtained by the participants who opted for sometimes and rarely.

**Table 20: Does your teacher praise you when you answer correctly?**

	<i>Always</i>	<i>Often</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Rarely</i>	<i>Never</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	4	2	12	2	5	25
<i>%</i>	16%	8%	48%	8%	20%	100%

**Figure 20: The teachers' frequency of praise for the students' correct answers**

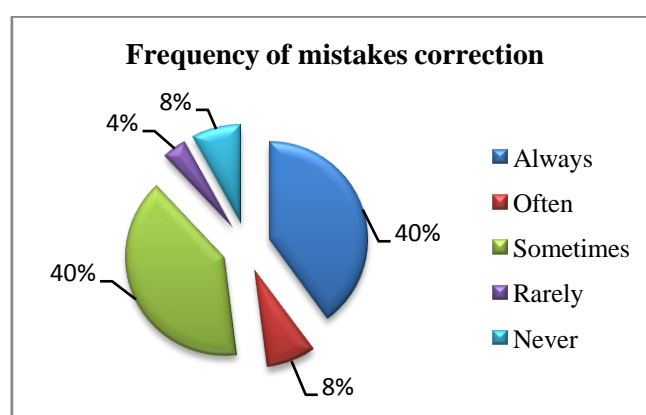


As a matter of fact, 'praise' is to motivation, as fuel to fire. It acts as a positive reinforcer that boosts the students' self esteem and increases self confidence in them. For this reason, teachers in a communicative class are required to praise their students. 48% of the participants (12) state that they are praised when they answer correctly, while "often" and "rarely" receive the same percentage (8%). The two extremes percentages are close; (16%) of the students opted for "always" and (20%) of them opted for "never".

**Table 21: How often does the teacher correct your mistakes?**

	<i>Always</i>	<i>Often</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Rarely</i>	<i>Never</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	10	2	10	1	2	25
<i>%</i>	40%	8%	40%	4%	8%	100%

**Figure 21: Frequency of mistakes correction**

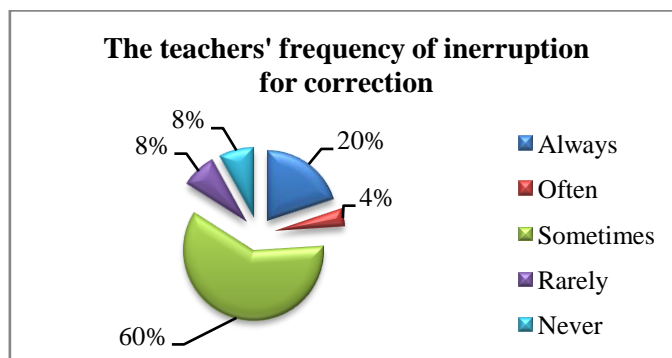


We believe that the teachers' "corrective behavior" has a strong effect on the learners. We aim, by this question, to know the frequency of correction on the part of the teachers. The majority of the participants admitted that they are always (40%) and sometimes (40%) corrected when they speak. Whereas, the minority stated that they are often (8%) and never (8%) corrected when they speak. The rest of the participants (4%) stated that the teacher rarely corrects his/her mistakes.

**Table 22: How often does s/he interrupt you to correct your mistakes?**

	<i>Always</i>	<i>Often</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Rarely</i>	<i>Never</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	5	1	15	2	2	25
<i>%</i>	20%	4%	60%	8%	8%	100%

**Figure 22: Frequency of interruption for correction**



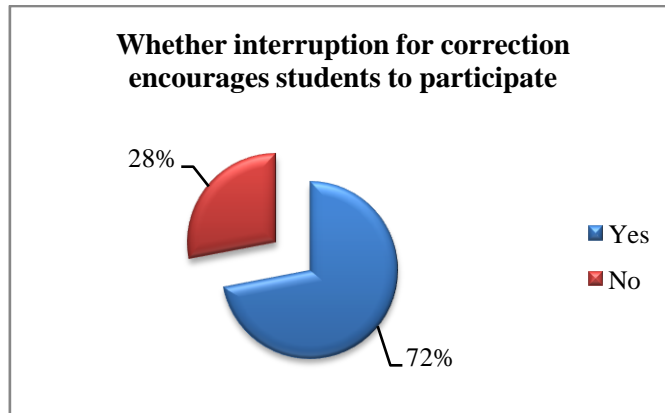
It is known that Communicative Language Teaching focuses more on fluency than on accuracy. For this, teachers should rarely interrupt their students to correct their mistakes. 15 participants; i.e. the equivalent of (60%), stated that their teacher sometimes interrupt them for the sake of correcting their mistakes. (20%) of the subjects declared that the interruption for correction always occurs. While (12%) affirmed that their teachers rarely stop them to correct their mistakes. (4%) stated that the teacher often corrects their mistakes. In contrast to (8%) who declared that they have never been interrupted to be corrected while erring.

**Table 23: Does this encourage you to participate?**

	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	<i>18</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>25</i>
<i>%</i>	<i>72%</i>	<i>28%</i>	<i>100%</i>



**Figure 23: Whether interruption for correction encourages students to participate**



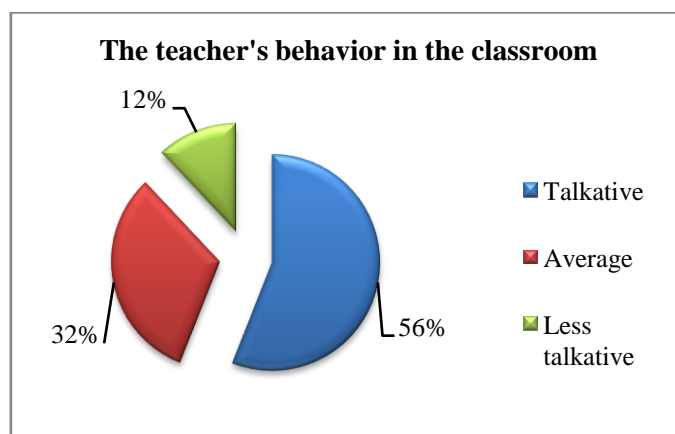
Interruption, usually, causes inhibition for introverts. That is the reason why teachers should avoid it. However, extroverts or intrinsically motivated students consider interruption as being effective when erring. (72%) of the participants believe that interruption encourage them to participate, while (28%) believe it is the opposite. And probably, introverts represent this portion.

**Part five: The teacher’s behavior**

**Table 24: In the classroom, your teacher is**

	<i>Talkative</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Less talkative</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	14	8	3	25
<i>%</i>	56%	32%	12%	100%

**Figure 24: The teachers' behavior in the classroom**

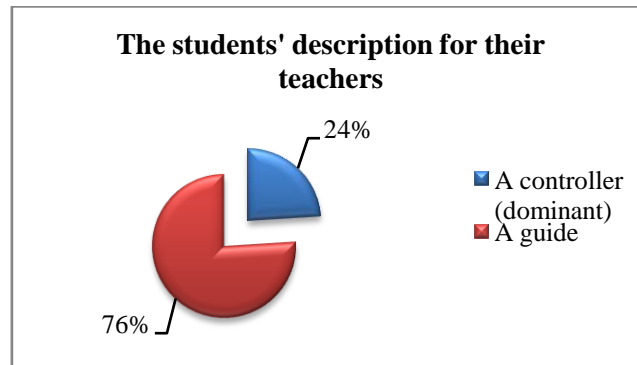


This question is intended for knowing the speaking rate of teachers in a communicative class. Teachers, as a matter of fact, should give the opportunity to their students to speak all the time, and should talk when necessary. Astonishingly, the majority of the students (56%) revealed that their teacher is talkative. (32%) declared that their teacher is less talkative, when (12%) stated that their teacher is less talkative.

**Table 25: How would you describe your teacher?**

	<i>A controller (dominant)</i>	<i>A guide</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>19</i>	<i>25</i>
<i>%</i>	<i>24%</i>	<i>76%</i>	<i>100%</i>

**Figure 25: The students' description for their teachers**



In a communicative class, teachers ought to be guides or facilitators in order for them to smooth the progress of communication for students. Not controllers who create nothing, but inhibition and anxiety in the class. A controller (dominant) is what (24%) of the participants opted for. While the majority (76%) affirmed that they would describe their teacher as a guide.

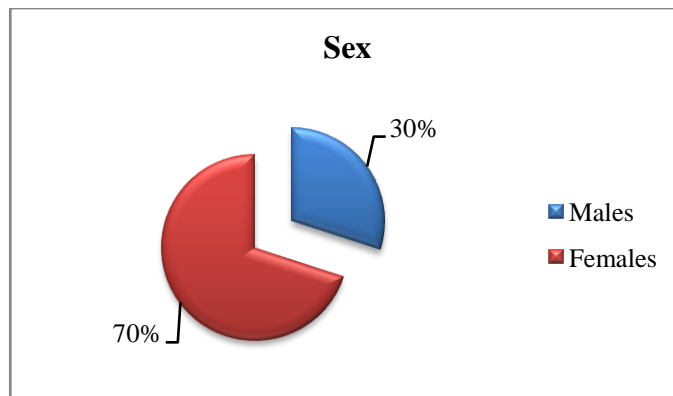
## 5. Section Two: Analysis of the Teachers' Questionnaire

### Part One: Background Information

**Table 26: Sex**

<i>Sex</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	3	7	10
<i>%</i>	30%	70%	100%

**Figure 26: Sex**

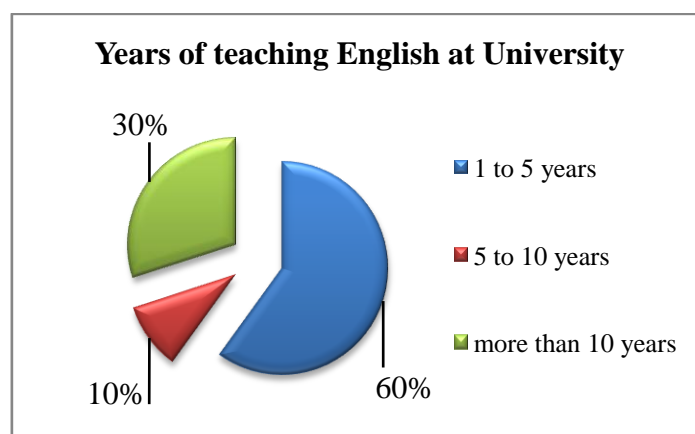


From the table above, we see that the majority of (70%) of teachers are females, while (30%) represents males. These results reveal that in this ultimate decade, females are more successful than males, and are more interested in teaching than males are.

**Table 27: How long have you been teaching English at University?**

<i>Years</i>	<i>1-5</i>	<i>5-10</i>	<i>&gt; 10</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>10</i>
<i>%</i>	<i>60%</i>	<i>10%</i>	<i>30%</i>	<i>100%</i>

**Figure 27: Years of teaching English at University**



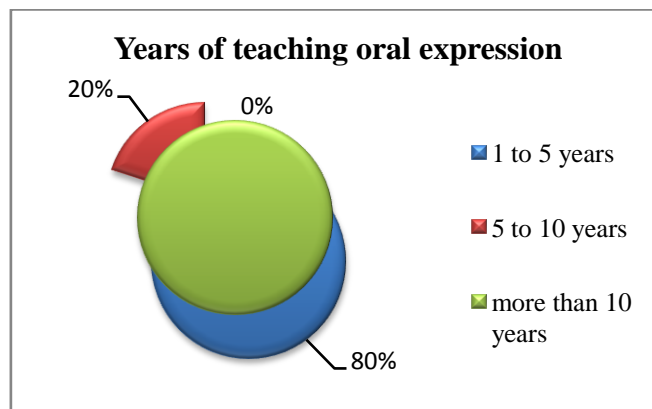
A quick glimpse at the table above, we notice that (60%) makes up the majority of teachers who have experienced teaching for few years ago. (10%) of the participants affirmed that they have been teaching for more than five years. Whereas

(30%) of the participants noted that they have started early their teaching career and they have been teaching for more than ten years.

**Table 28: How long have you been teaching oral expression?**

<i>Years</i>	<i>1-5</i>	<i>5-10</i>	<i>&gt; 10</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	8	2	0	10
<i>%</i>	80%	20%	0	100%

**Figure 28: Years of teaching oral expression**



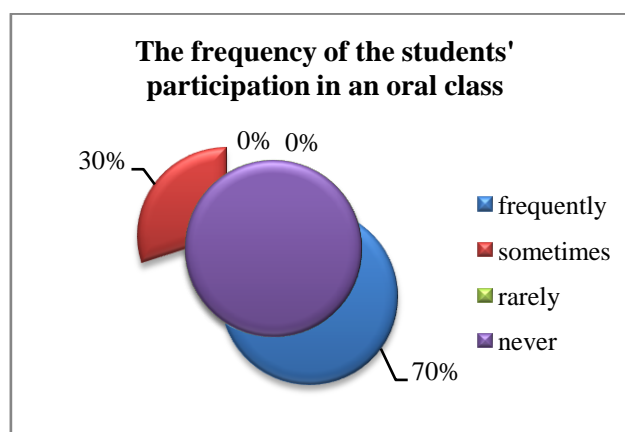
(80%) of the whole population, making up (8) teachers, affirmed that they have been teaching oral expression for the period between one to five years. The rest of the population (20%) declared that they have been teaching oral expression for the period between five to ten years. However, no teacher (0) noted that s/he has been teaching oral expression for more than ten years. We believe that, teachers, with time, prefer teaching theoretical modules more than oral expression.

**Part two: The learners' attitudes from the teachers' perspective:**

**Table 29: How often do your students participate in the Oral Expression class?**

	<i>Frequently</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Rarely</i>	<i>Never</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	7	3	0	0	10
<i>%</i>	70%	30%	0	0	100%

**Figure 29: The frequency of the students' participation in an oral class**

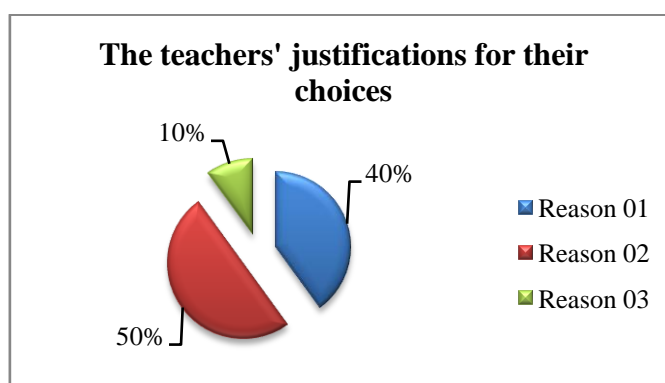


By this question, we wanted the teachers to evaluate the frequency of their students' participation in an oral class. The teachers' answers varied between frequently (70%) and sometimes (30%) while rarely (0) and never (0) were excluded. The following question, explains the teachers' assessment.

**Table 30: Whatever your answer, say why?**

	<i>Reasons</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>%</i>
01	• <i>Because of the different topics and activities proposed by the teacher.</i>	4	40%
02	• <i>Because I motivate them and I stimulate them to do so</i>	5	50%
03	• <i>Because of the students' personalities (extroversion or introversion)</i>	1	10%
<i>Total</i>		<i>10</i>	<i>100%</i>

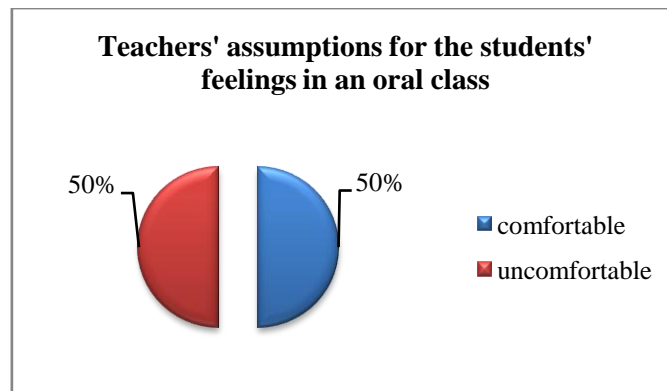
**Figure 30: The teachers' justifications for their choices**



**Table 31: Do your students feel comfortable in the Oral Expression class?**

	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	5	5	10
<i>%</i>	50%	50%	100%

**Figure 31: Teachers' assumptions for the students' feelings in an oral class**

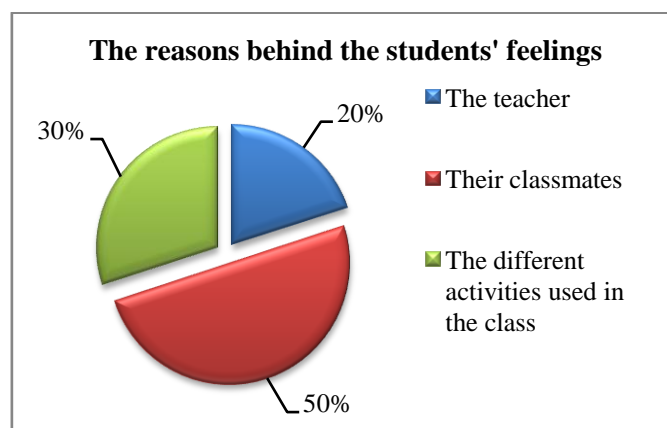


This question is a follow up to the two previous ones. One half (50%) of the informants affirmed that their students feel comfortable, while the other half affirmed that their students feel the opposite. The subsequent question justifies their answers.

**Table 32: What makes them feel so?**

	You (the teacher)	Their classmates	The different activities used in the classroom	Total
Number	2	5	3	10
%	20%	50%	30%	100%

**Figure 32: The reasons behind the students' feelings**



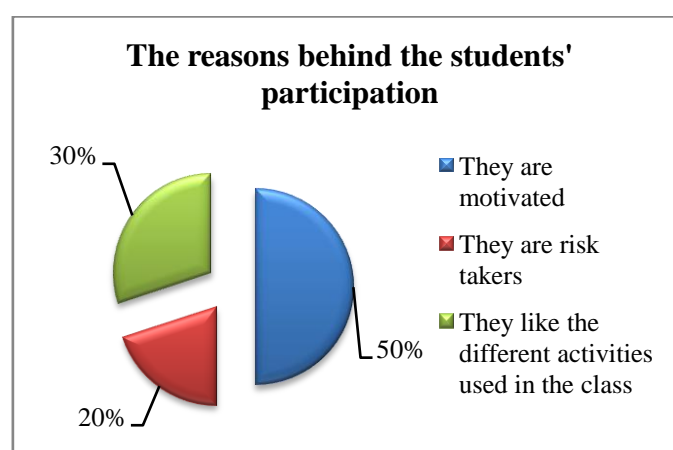


(20%) of the teachers related their students' feeling comfortable or uncomfortable to themselves. (50%) of them related that issue to the students' classmates, while (30%) relate it to the different activities used in the classroom.

**Table 33: Do you think that they participate because**

	<i>They are motivated</i>	<i>They are risk takers</i>	<i>They like the different activities used in the class</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	5	2	3	10
<i>%</i>	50%	20%	30%	100%

**Figure 33: The reasons behind the students' participation**

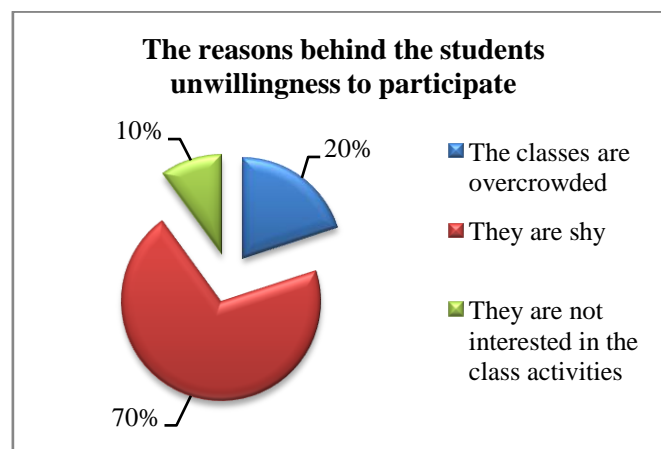


By asking this question, we wanted to know the reasons behind the students' participation. (50%) of teachers affirmed that the students participate because they are motivated. (20%) declared that they are risk takers. However, (40%) noted that the reason behind their participation is their appreciation to the different activities used in the classroom.

**Table 34: Do you think that students do not participate because**

	<i>The classes are overcrowded</i>	<i>They are shy</i>	<i>They are not interested in the class activities</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	2	7	1	10
<i>%</i>	20%	70%	10%	100%

**Figure 34: The reasons behind the students' unwillingness to participate**



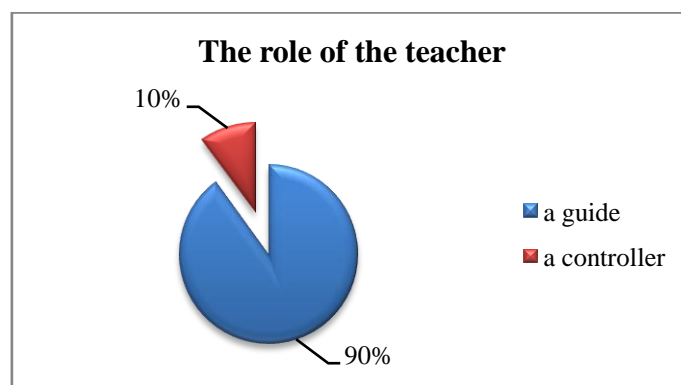
Opposite from the previous question, we wanted to know, by asking this one, the reasons behind the students unwillingness to participate. (20%) of teachers declared that the crowdedness inhibits the students, whereas (70%) of them linked that issue to shyness. (10%) believed that the reason why the students do not participate is because they are not interested in the class activities.

**Part Three: The teacher' role in a Communicative Language Teaching framework**

**Table 35: what is the role of a teacher?**

	<i>A guide</i>	<i>A controller</i>	<i>total</i>
<i>Number</i>	9	1	10
<i>%</i>	90%	10%	100%

**Figure 35: The role of the teacher**

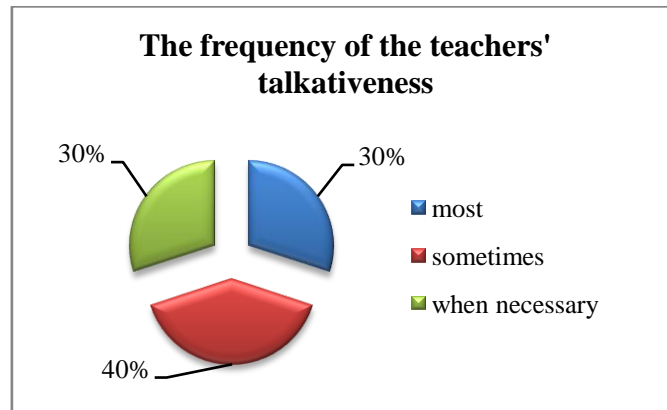


In actual fact, in a Communicative Language Teaching framework, teachers ought to incarnate the role of guides to help their learners feel less inhibited. The vast majority of teachers (90%) affirm that teachers should be guides. However, one teacher, making the equivalent of (10%) believed the contrary.

**Table 36: In the classroom, you are the one who talks**

	<i>Most</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>When necessary</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	3	4	3	10
<i>%</i>	30%	40%	30%	100%

**Figure 36: The frequency of the teachers' talkativeness**

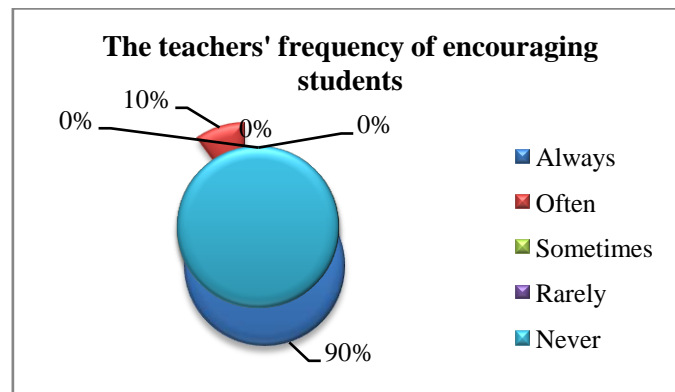


When teachers were asked about the frequency of their talkativeness in the classroom, (30%) of them declared that they are the ones who talk most. We assume that is so either because it is a personality trait that they cannot get rid of it, or because of the students' level, or because sometimes the interaction demands so. (40%) of the participants noted that they are average in terms of their talkativeness. We suppose that this portion of teachers stop when their students take the lead. (30%) of the participants affirmed that they talk when it is necessary; i.e. when they feel that the students need their interference.

**Table 37: Do you encourage your students to speak?**

	<i>Always</i>	<i>Often</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Rarely</i>	<i>Never</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	9	1	0	0	0	10
<i>%</i>	90%	10%	0	0	0	100%

**Figure 37: The teachers' frequency of encouraging students**

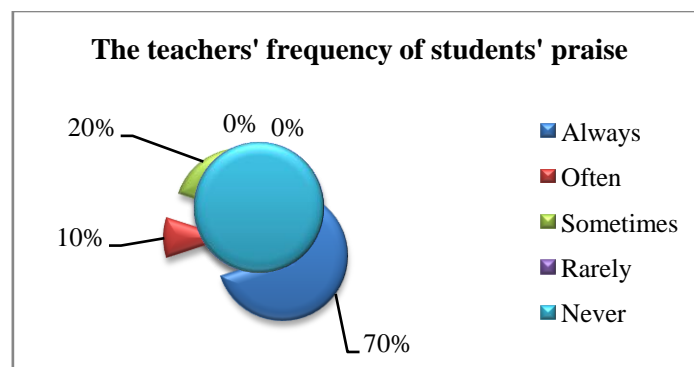


Teachers ought to encourage their students to speak for a better oral performance. (90%) of teachers affirmed that they always encourage their students to speak. (10%) declared that they often do so, whereas, none of the teachers neither opted for 'sometimes', nor 'rarely', nor 'never'.

**Table 38: Do you praise them when they answer correctly?**

	<i>Always</i>	<i>Often</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Rarely</i>	<i>Never</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	7	1	2	0	0	10
<i>%</i>	70%	10%	20%	0	0	100%

**Figure 38: The teachers' frequency of students' praise**

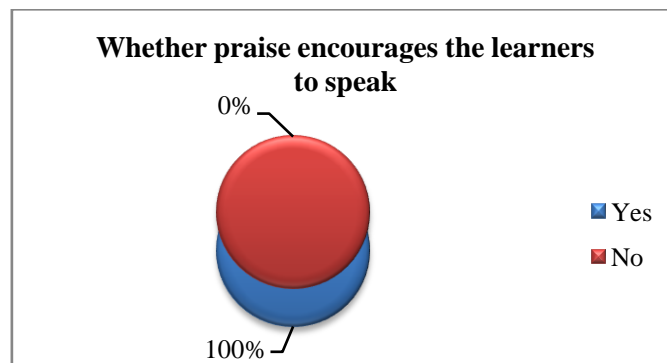


Praise is an essential affective factor that teachers should always take into account. The percentage in the table above shows that teachers are totally aware about that. (70%) of them affirm that they always praise their students when they answer correctly. (10%) of the participants stated that they often do so, while (20%) opted for sometimes. By so answering, teachers kept out ‘rarely’ and ‘never’.

**Table 39: Does this encourage them to participate?**

	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>10</i>
<i>%</i>	<i>100%</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>100%</i>

**Figure 39: Whether praise encourage the learners to speak**



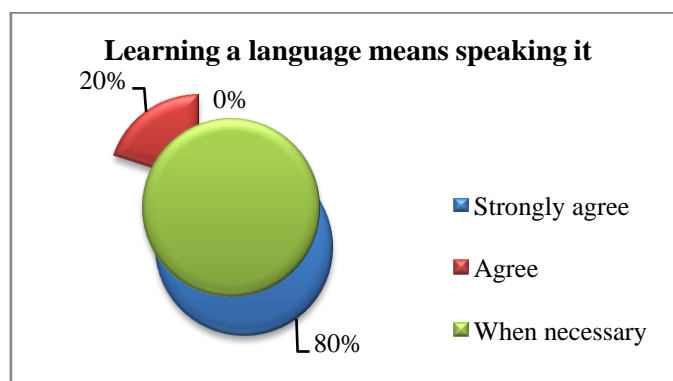
The whole participants, making up (100%), affirmed that praise encourage students to speak.

## Part Five: Communicative Language Teaching

**Table 40: Do you agree that in order to learn the language, students have to speak it?**

	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>When necessary</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	8	2	0	10
<i>%</i>	80%	20%	0	100%

**Figure 40: Learning a language means speaking it.**

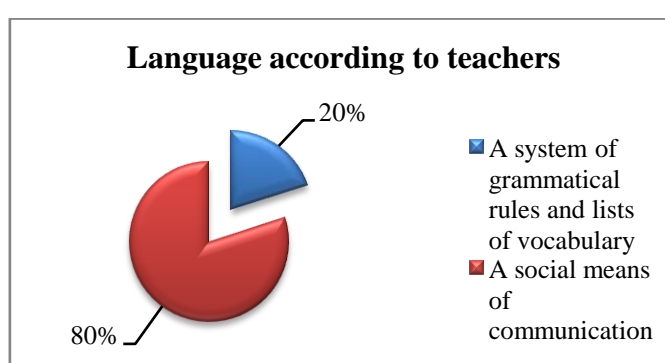


A glimpse at the above table, we note that the great majority of teachers (80%) strongly agree about the fact that students must speak the language in order for them to learn it. (20%) of the teachers agreed about that issue, while none (0) opted for “when necessary”.

**Table 41: According to you, language is**

	<i>A system of grammatical rules and lists of vocabulary</i>	<i>A social means of communication</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	2	8	10
<i>%</i>	20%	80%	100%

**Figure 41: Language according to teachers**



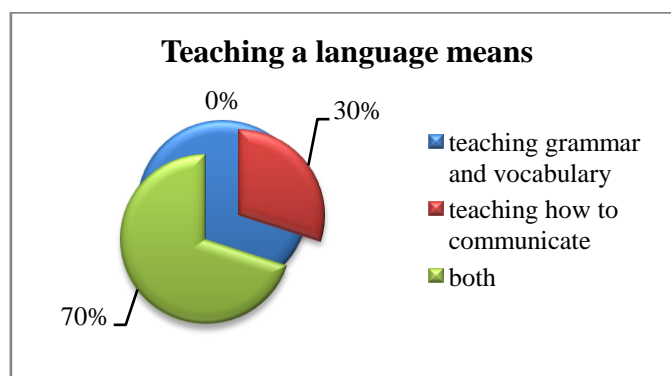
By this question, we wanted to know how teachers view language. The overwhelming majority (80%) affirmed that language is a social means of communication not a system of grammatical rules and lists of vocabulary, whereas (20%) declared the opposite.

**Table 42: Teaching a language means**

	<i>Teaching grammatical rules and lists of vocabulary</i>	<i>Teaching how to communicate using these rules</i>	<i>Both</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	0	3	7	10
<i>%</i>	0	30%	70%	100%



**Figure 42: what language teaching means**

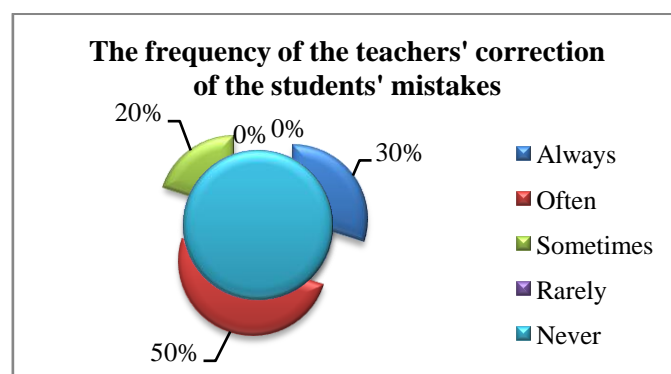


A quick look at this table reveals that (3) participants, who make up (30%), believe that teaching a language means teaching how to communicate using grammatical rules and lists of vocabulary, where (7) teachers; i.e. (70%), believe that teaching a language is not only teaching grammatical rules and lists of vocabulary, but also teaching how to communicate using these rules.

**Table 43: How often do you correct their mistakes?**

	<i>Always</i>	<i>Often</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Rarely</i>	<i>Never</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	3	5	2	0	0	10
<i>%</i>	30%	50%	20%	0	0	100%

**Figure 43: The frequency of the teachers' correction of the students' mistake**

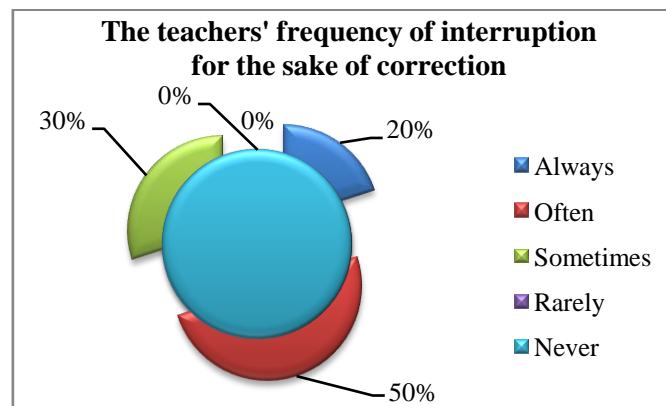


It is worth reiterating that the teachers' 'corrective behavior' has a strong influence on the students. (30%) of teachers affirmed that they always correct their students when they err. (50%) of them noted that they often do so, when (2%) opted for sometimes. Teachers excluded both of 'Rarely' and 'never'.

**Table 44: How often do you interrupt them to correct their mistakes?**

	<i>Always</i>	<i>Often</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Rarely</i>	<i>Never</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	2	5	3	0	0	10
<i>%</i>	20%	50%	30%	0	0	100%

**Figure 44: The teachers' frequency of interruption for the sake of correction**

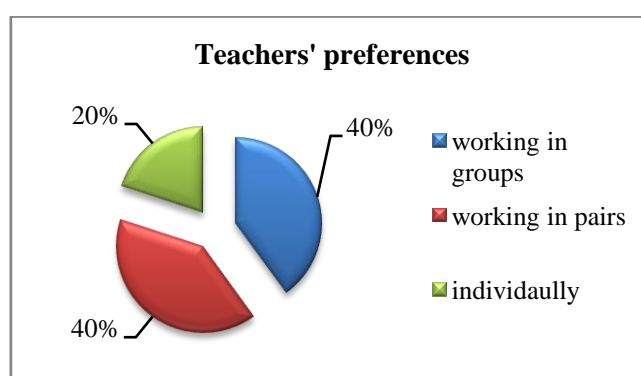


(20%) of the informants stated that they always interrupt their students to correct their mistakes. (50%) of them noted that they often do so, while (30%) opted for sometimes. Again, teachers excluded 'rarely' and 'never'.

**Table 45: Do you make your learners**

	<i>Work in groups</i>	<i>Work in pairs</i>	<i>Individually</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>10</i>
<i>%</i>	<i>40%</i>	<i>40%</i>	<i>20%</i>	<i>100%</i>

**Figure 45: The teachers' preferences**

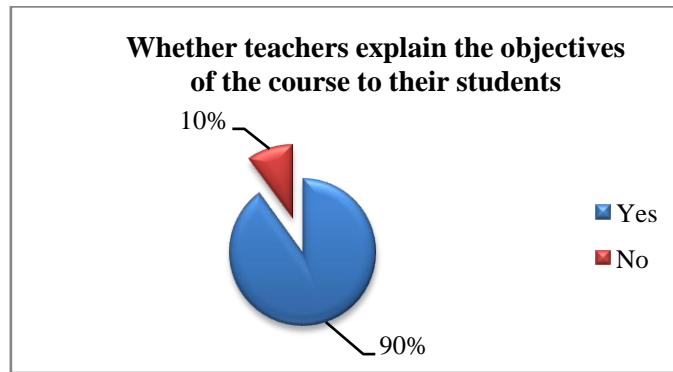


It is important to note that it is of crucial importance, in Communicative Language Teaching, to make students work in groups. (40%) of teachers affirmed that they make their students work in groups and other (40%) of them declared that they work in pairs. (20%) noted that they make their students work individually.

**Table 46: Do you explain to your students that they are learning the communicative use of the language?**

	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>10</i>
<i>%</i>	<i>90%</i>	<i>10%</i>	<i>100%</i>

**Figure 46: Whether teachers explain the objectives of the course to their students**



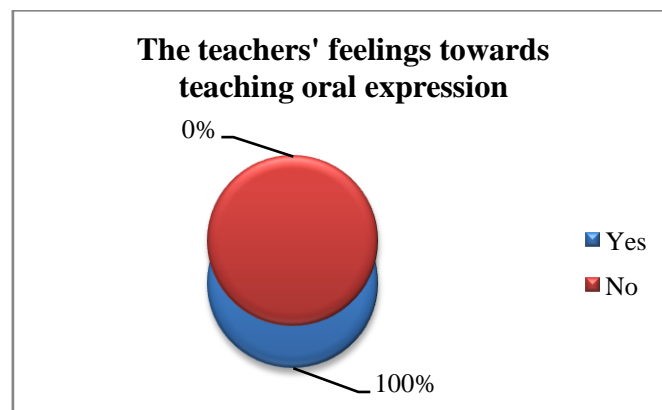
It is important for teachers to inform their students about the objectives of the course. (90%) of the participants declared that they do so, while (10%) declared that they do not.

**Part Five: Teachers' level of motivation for teaching at university**

**Table 47: Do you like teaching oral expression?**

	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>10</i>
<i>%</i>	<i>100%</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>100%</i>

**Figure 47: The teachers' feelings towards teaching oral expression**

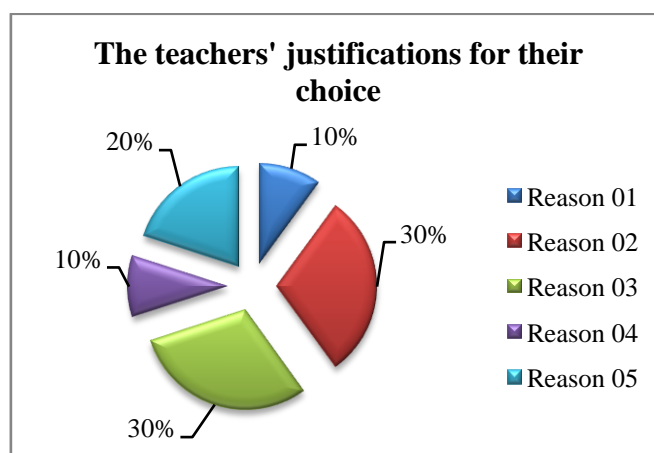


As this table demonstrates, all teachers (100%) confirm that they like teaching oral expression. And the subsequent question reveals the reasons behind this pleasure that teachers feel when teaching this module.

**Table 48: Whatever your answer, please say why?**

	<i>Reasons</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>%</i>
01	• <i>students seem motivated to study oral expression</i>	1	10%
02	• <i>I enjoy discovering the students' ideas and viewpoints, and I like the classroom interaction</i>	3	30%
03	• <i>Teaching oral expression helps new teachers develop their oral skill</i>	3	30%
04	• <i>It subjects me to more comprehensive input</i>	1	10%
05	• <i>lack of pedagogical material, documentation, and the class crowdedness</i>	2	20%
<i>Total</i>		10	100%

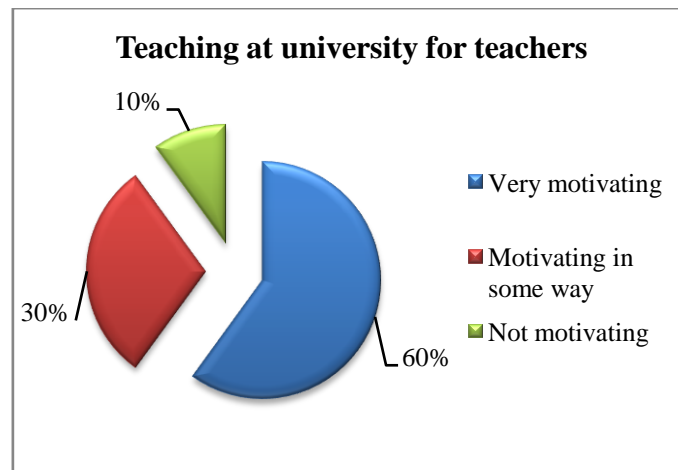
**Figure 48: The teachers' justifications for their choice**



**Table 49: For you, teaching at university is**

	<i>Very motivating</i>	<i>Motivating in some way</i>	<i>Not motivating</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Number</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>1</i>	
<i>%</i>	<i>60%</i>	<i>30%</i>	<i>10%</i>	<i>100%</i>

**Figure 49: Teaching at university for teachers**

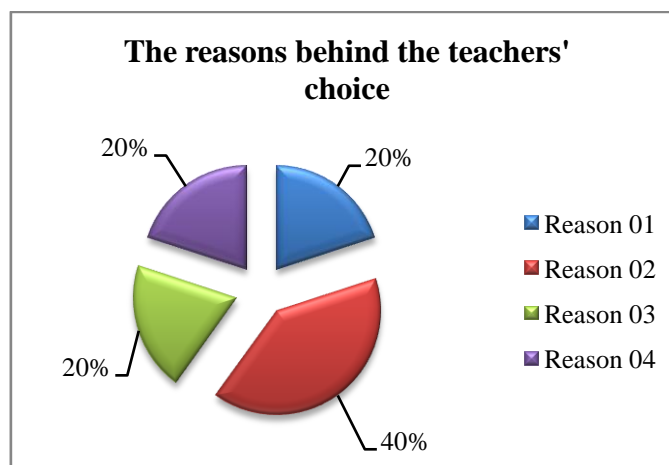


It is said that teachers' motivation is reflected in the students' own motivation. (60%) of teachers declare that teaching at university is very motivating. (30%) of them noted that it is motivating in some way. Whereas, (10%) stated that it is not motivating. The next question gives more details about that.

**Table 50: Whatever your answer, please say why?**

	<i>Reasons</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>%</i>
01	• <i>Because I believe in improving the students' level</i>	2	20%
02	• <i>because teaching at university was my dream</i>	4	40%
03	• <i>Because of lack of material and documentation</i>	3	20%
04	• <i>Because of pedagogical and environmental reasons (crowdedness)</i>	2	20%
<i>Total</i>		<i>10</i>	<i>100%</i>

**Figure 50: The reasons behind the teachers' choice**



## **6. Discussion:**

The analysis of the students' questionnaire reveals that the principles of Communicative Language Teaching do really influence the level of the students' motivation towards oral performance. The learners' answers, in part two, demonstrated that those who are really willing to study the English language show a great deal of interest and enthusiasm during an oral class. The analysis of the third part's answers revealed that there is a strong link between the students' personality and participation in the classroom. Extroverts' sociable behavior helps a lot in bettering their level of performance in an oral class since they are usually risk takers, and less inhibited than introverts. Introverts are believed to be shy and inhibited; hence the role of the teacher is to set an anxiety free atmosphere to enhance motivation in his/her learners. This is what the four and the fifth parts answers' analysis affirmed.

The teachers' questionnaire analysis, as the students' one, affirm that Communicative Language Teaching is an effective method that promotes motivation and encourages learners to speak the language and, thus, develop their oral production. In the second part, the majority of the teachers' answers revealed that they see that their students are really motivated in their oral expression classes giving many justifications to support their point of view. The analysis of the third part's answers demonstrated that all teachers seem to agree that in order for their learners to feel relaxed and less inhibited; they should play the role of guides who encourage them to take part in their lectures. The fourth part dealt with the principles of Communicative Language Teaching. After the analysis of the answers, some of the Communicative Language Teaching principles seemed to be applied in oral classes and teachers avowed that they focus more on the communicative side of the language



rather than on its correctness. Eventually, the fifth parts' analysis of the answers gave us an idea about the various reasons that teachers gave to explain their motivational attitude towards teaching.

## General Conclusion

The present study has dealt with the connections that exist between oral proficiency and motivation in a Communicative Language Teaching setting. Its main concern was investigating whether the use of Communicative Language Teaching motivates students to perform better orally on second year students of English at the university of Constantine.

Known that the Communicative Language Teaching is the method that deals most with the learners' affect, we devoted the first chapter to speak about its different principles which in one way or another are related to the two sections of the second chapter that are motivation and the speaking skill.

All teachers, around the globe, agreed upon the idea that Communicative Language Teaching is a very motivating method that helps the learners develop their oral skill, this is confirmed after the analysis of the students' and the teachers' questionnaire which demonstrated that the majority of the students (extroverts) show a great deal of motivation and willingness to participate in oral expression lectures for the sake of improving and developing their speaking skill. However the opposite was revealed by the minority (introverts). It could be explained that Communicative Language Teaching may serve as a reason to lack of motivation and unwillingness to learn on the part of the learners if its principles are not well grasped and not well implemented.

As a matter of fact, the Communicative Language teaching is an effective method because it focuses on the learners' affect. This focus is confirmed in the various principles that are its strong pillars. It gets the learners engaged in the various

activities that create an anxiety free atmosphere and, at the same time, make them understand that the teacher is there to guide them since they give more attention to fluency rather than accuracy. Accordingly, the Communicative Language Teaching Principles are recommended to be implemented in language classes in general and oral classes specifically.

As a final point, the present dissertation has shed some light on the significance of Communicative Language Teaching in fostering motivation in learners for bettering the students' oral performance. And that it may be supported by further research for the sake of improving teaching/learning at the level of university.

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## Appendix A: The students' questionnaire

### Students' Questionnaire:

Dear students,

We would be very grateful if you could answer the following questions for the sake of our study about your feelings and the atmosphere that reigns in an Oral Expression class.

Please, put a tick (√) in the corresponding box and make full statements whenever necessary.

P.S. Some questions may have more than one answer.

We inform you that your answers will absolutely remain confidential.

### Section One

Age: .....

Sex:

a- Male                       b- Female

Q1: How long have you been studying English? ..... years.

Q2: Was English your first choice?

a- Yes.....   
b- No.....

Q3: How do you consider your level in English?

a- Very good.....   
b- Good.....   
c- Average.....   
d- Poor.....

Q4: Do you like English language?

- a- Very much.....
- b- I like it somehow.....
- c- Not much.....

Q5: Does your level enable you to express yourself orally?

- a- Yes.....
- b- No.....

**Section Two**

Q6: How often do you talk in English outside the classroom?

- a- Often.....
- b- Sometimes.....
- c- Rarely.....
- d- Never.....

Q7: How often do you participate in the Oral Expression class?

- a- Frequently.....
- b- Sometimes.....
- c- Rarely.....
- d- Never.....

Q8: Whatever your answer, say why?

.....

.....

.....

Q9: Do you feel comfortable in the Oral Expression class?

- a- Yes.....
- b- No.....

Q10: If uncomfortable, what makes you feel so?

- a- The teacher.....
- b- Your classmates.....
- c- The different activities proposed by the teacher.....

Q11: Does your teacher encourage you to speak?

- a- Yes.....
- b- No.....

Q12: Does your teacher praise you when you answer correctly?

- a- Always.....
- b- Often.....
- c- Sometimes.....
- d- Rarely.....
- e- Never.....

Q13: How would you describe the atmosphere of your class?

- a- Boring.....
- b- Funny.....

Q14: What do you prefer?

- a- Working in groups of four or five.....
- b- Working in pairs.....
- c- Working individually.....

Q15: Outside the classroom, do you prefer to be

- a- Alone.....
- b- In the company of other people.....

Q16: In the company of other people, do you prefer to be

- a- Silent .....
- b- Talkative .....

Q17: How do you feel when you participate in the Oral Expression class in front of your teacher and classmates?

- a- Comfortable.....
- b- Uncomfortable.....

Q18: which activity do you like most?

- a- Discussion.....
- b- Role- playing.....
- c- Language games.....

Q19: which activity does your teacher use most?

- a- Discussion.....
- b- Role- playing.....
- c- Language games.....

Q20: Do you agree that in order to learn the language you have to speak it?

- a- Strongly agree.....
- b- Agree.....
- c- Disagree .....
- d- Strongly disagree.....

Q21: In the classroom, your teacher is

- a- Talkative.....
- b- Average.....
- c- Less talkative.....

Q22: How do you describe your teacher?

- a- A controller.....
- b- A guide.....

Q23: How often does he/she invite you to speak?

- a- Always.....
- b- Often.....
- c- Sometimes.....
- d- Rarely.....
- e- Never.....

Q24: How often does he/she correct your mistakes?

- a- Always.....
- b- Often.....
- c- Sometimes.....
- d- Rarely.....
- e- Never.....

Q25: How often does he/she interrupt you to correct your mistakes?

- a- Always.....
- b- Often.....
- c- Sometimes.....
- d- Rarely.....
- e- Never.....

Q26: Does this encourage you to participate?

a- Yes.....

b- No.....

Q27: Do you think that you participate because you

a- Are interested in the lesson.....

b- Are not afraid of making mistakes.....

c- Like the teacher.....

Q28: Do you think that you do not participate because

a- You are afraid of making mistakes.....

b- Your classmates laugh at you.....

c- You are not interested.....

**Thank You!**

## Appendix B: The teachers' questionnaire

### The Teachers' Questionnaire:

Dear teachers,

We would be very grateful if you accept answering the following questionnaire.

Your answers will help us in a study about using Communicative Language Teaching to motivate students perform better in Oral Expression classes. Thank you in advance.

Please, put a tick (√) in the corresponding box and make full statements whenever necessary.

### Section One: General Information

Sex:

a- Male

b- Female

Q1: How long have you been teaching English at university?

a- One to five years.....

b- Five to ten years.....

c- More than ten years.....

Q2: How long have you been teaching Oral Expression?

a- One to five years.....

b- Five to ten years.....

c- More than ten years.....

Q3: Do you like teaching Oral Expression?

a- Yes.....

b- No.....

Q4: According to you, language is:

- a- A system of grammatical rules and lists of vocabulary? .....
- b- A social means of communication? .....

Q5: Teaching a language means:

- a- Teaching grammatical rules and lists of vocabulary.....
- b- Teaching how to communicate using these rules.....
- c- Both.....

Q6: what is the role of a teacher?

- a- A guide.....
- b- A controller.....

Q7: In the classroom, you are the one who talks:

- a- Most.....
- b- Sometimes .....
- c- When it is necessary.....

Q8: How often do your students participate in the Oral Expression class?

- a- Frequently.....
- b- Sometimes.....
- c- Rarely .....
- d- Never.....

Q9: Whatever your answer, say why?

.....  
.....  
.....

Q10: Do your students feel comfortable in the Oral Expression class?

- a- Yes.....
- b- No.....



Q11: What makes them feel so?

- a- You (the teacher).....
- b- Their classmates.....
- c- The different activities used in the classroom.....

Q12: Do you agree that in order to learn the language students have to speak it?

- a- Strongly agree.....
- b- Agree.....
- c- When necessary.....

Q13: Do you urge your students to speak?

- a- Always.....
- b- Often.....
- c- Sometimes.....
- d- Rarely.....
- e- Never.....

Q14: Do you make your learners

- a- Work in groups.....
- b- Work in pairs .....
- c- Individually.....
- d- None .....

Q15: How often do you correct their mistakes?

- a- Always.....
- b- Often.....
- c- Sometimes.....
- d- Rarely.....
- e- Never.....

Q16: How often do you interrupt them to correct their mistakes?

- a- Always.....
- b- Often.....
- c- Sometimes.....
- d- Rarely.....
- e- Never.....

Q17: Do you encourage your students to speak?

- a- Always.....
- b- Often.....
- c- Sometimes.....
- d- Rarely.....
- e- Never.....

Q18: Do you praise them when they answer correctly?

- a- Always.....
- b- Often.....
- c- Sometimes.....
- d- Rarely.....
- e- Never.....

Q19: Do you take their feelings into consideration when inviting them to speak?

- a- Always .....
- b- Often .....
- c- Sometimes.....
- d- Rarely.....
- e- Never.....

Q20: Does this encourage them to participate?

- a- Yes.....
- b- No.....

Q21: Do you think that they participate because

- a- They are motivated.....
- f- They are risk takers.....
- g- They like you (the teacher).....

Q22: Do you think that students do not participate because

- a- The class is overcrowded.....
- b- They are shy.....
- c- They are not interested in the class activities.....

Q23: Do you explain to your students that they are learning the communicative use of the language?

a- Yes.....

b- No.....

Q24: For you, teaching at university is

a- Very motivating.....

b- Motivating in some way.....

c- Not motivating.....

Q25: whatever your answer, please say why?

.....  
.....

**Thank You!**