

General Introduction

1. Statement of the problem

The subject under study is a result of our interest in the domain of motivation and communication. We wonder why English learners are demotivated to learn the language and why teachers have troubles dealing with their learners in terms of their inability to communicate. The main concern of this work is to investigate the inability of the students of the English Department at Biskra University to hold a conversation with their teachers or their classmates.

Thus, the role of motivation in foreign language learning is essential, and the role of the teacher is in the heart of the teaching-learning process. The teachers' skill in motivating learners should be seen as central to learning effectiveness in communication. Thus, this study attempts to empower teachers to motivate their students through the use of motivational strategies and techniques.

In the Algerian universities, motivation may be the neglected aspect of our understanding of how to design instruction though it is a key determinant to success or failure. Indeed, learners with sufficient motivation can achieve a working knowledge of L2 regardless of their

aptitude, whereas without sufficient motivation, even the brightest learners are unlikely to persist long enough to attain any real useful language. However, there were almost no attempts in psychological literature to design motivational strategies for classroom application till the mid 1990's. All focus has been on trying to define motivation and to promote it.

2. Aim of the study

The teaching-learning process is a daunting task. It certainly requires some qualifications in order to achieve the preset objectives. One such qualification that teachers need to have is the ability to discover their students' potential to learn a foreign language and to enhance students' intrinsic motivation. The latter may be deemed as one variable, the most important one that leads to success in the teaching-learning process.

Because motivation is crucial in learning anything, particularly a foreign language, and considering that motivation is the neglected aspect in teaching, we intend to investigate the various strategies in the instructional domain that may enhance students' motivation to learn the English language and to use it as a means of communication and not as a compulsory subject in the academic curriculum.

Moreover, this work aims at showing the effective role of the teacher in using these strategies that integrate motivational activities in the syllabus and in demonstrating their application among learners.

Besides investigating the role of the teacher as a motivational factor, this work aims at diagnosing first-year students' needs in terms of motivation and communicative abilities. Furthermore, it seeks to prove the effectiveness of some motivational strategies used by the teacher to enhance his students' motivation and to improve their communicative proficiency.

The study also endeavors to investigate the students' differences to confirm the importance of the establishment of a psychological profile about them in order to motivate them to learn the English language and to use it for communicative purposes. Communication also will be focused on as being the main goal for teaching and learning English. Therefore, we intend to investigate the necessity and effectiveness of the Communicative approach in enhancing communicative proficiency.

3. Research Questions

Lack of motivation may be one of the causes of first-year students' failure to learn the English language and to use it communicatively. The teacher is the one who increases students' motivation, and this leads us to formulate our preoccupations through the following questions:

- Why do first-year students of English face difficulties in learning the language and using it correctly through speaking?
- Why is motivation necessary in the learning process?
- What can the teacher do to promote motivation?
- To what extent can the teacher improve his students' proficiency by acting as a source of motivation in the classroom?
- What strategies can the teacher use to motivate his students?
- What are the methods that help enhance communicative proficiency?

This research will explore these questions in an attempt to bring some clarity to the actual situation of teaching English at the University of Biskra and to the actual roles of the teachers and learners in the teaching-learning process.

4. Assumptions

We assume that the teachers' personality and qualifications in addition to the use of motivational strategies would have beneficial effects on the students' readiness to be proficient in studying English. Despite the existence of several factors (internal and external) that interact to enhance the students' communicative abilities, the most important one is surely the teacher who could motivate learners to improve their abilities.

5. Hypothesis

We hypothesize that the teacher who uses modern motivational strategies would enhance students' motivation and promote their communicative proficiency.

6. Means of research

The research means for collecting data are: (1) the students' questionnaire designed for first-year students of English at Biskra University, (2) the teachers' questionnaire designed for the teachers of oral expression at the same Department, and (3) the classroom observation which is used to provide further information about students' communication in the real foreign language classroom.

7. Structure of the dissertation

In this research-work, we will provide a literary survey on the role of motivation in foreign language learning. We will shed light on the teacher as an agent of change, then we will present the ways of teaching communicative skills through describing some strategies in developing communication. The dissertation consists of four chapters.

Chapter one deals with the development of psychological views and theories of motivation. It also provides various definitions and illustrations. We argue that motivation is a key factor to learning in general and to learning a second language in particular.

Chapter two outlines the roles of the teacher in foreign language teaching, including the different strategies of motivating students, and highlights the characteristics of a good teacher. Furthermore, the chapter focuses on showing ways to develop communicative competence or proficiency (these terms will be used interchangeably) through pointing at three major methods namely: Communicative Language Teaching, Task-Based Approach, and the Natural Approach. This chapter deals also with learners' differences and roles as being participants in the teaching- learning process.

Chapter three highlights the field work. It seeks to answer all the questions stated in the problem. It includes questionnaires to both teachers and students and classroom observation procedures.

Chapter four provides some pedagogical implications on the role of the teacher as a motivational factor in enhancing students' communicative proficiency. We argue that the teacher is the most crucial agent in the teaching-learning process.

CHAPTER ONE

Motivation

Introduction	10
1. Definition of Motivation	10
2. Theories of Motivation	15
2.1 Behavioral Theories	15
2.1.1 Classical Conditioning	16
2.1.2 Operant Conditioning	17
2.1.3 Social Learning / Observational Theory	17
2.2 Cognitive Theories	18
2.2.1 Cognitive Dissonance Theory	19
2.2.2 Cognitive Developmental Theory	20
2.2.3 Attribution Theory	20
2.2.4 Expectancy-Valence Theory	22
2.2.5 Achievement Motivation Theory	23
2.2.6 Self-Efficacy Theory	25
2.3 Psychoanalytic Theories	26
2.4 Humanistic Theories	27
2.4.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs	27
2.4.2 Alderfer's Hierarchy of Motivational Needs	29
2.4.3 Self-Determination Theory	31
2.5 Transpersonal / Spiritual Theories	32
3. Types of Motivation	33
3.1 Integrative Vs Instrumental Motivation	34
3.1.1 Integrative Motivation	34
3.1.2 Instrumental Motivation	36
3.2 Intrinsic Vs Extrinsic Motivation	39
3.2.1 Intrinsic Motivation	39

3. 2. 2 Extrinsic Motivation	40
3. 3 Global Motivation	42
3. 4 Task Motivation	42
4. The Process of Motivation	42
Conclusion	45

Introduction

This chapter explores the term motivation and attempts to highlight many issues, i. e., definition, types, theories and processes. Each individual is unique in his way of thinking, behaving and learning a second/foreign language. Some people seem to have the ability to learn a language quickly and easily, but others do not: they are not similarly motivated, or may not have the same linguistic, social or psychological backgrounds. Motivation is important in learning a second language because it determines the learner's desire, ability and perseverance in doing his tasks.

1. Definition of motivation

It is widely assumed that learning occurs when we want to learn. The concept of motivation is related to the desire to learn, but it also implies many things such as energy, disposition, inspiration, and effort which vary with each individual. Indeed, individuals have different areas of interest, different drives, and needs and so have different kinds and levels of motivation.

Learning a second or foreign language is different from learning anything else; therefore, two definitions will be developed in this regard:

the first definition is about motivation to learn in general; the second one is about motivation to learn a second or foreign language.

The term 'motivation' has been for long interpreted differently by different theorists; however, all share the same belief that there is an intimate relationship between a learner's motivation and his behavior. Moreover, many factors affect it and make it changeable according to the circumstances. It is quite complicated to give 'motivation' a unique and precise definition. Covington (1998: 15) argues: "Motivation, like the concept of gravity is easier to describe in terms of the outward effects than to define". Cohen (1990) defines motivation in general terms. He says that it is "Something that drives people to do what they do" (Cited in Bentham, 2002: 120). Harmer (2000: 51) precises this 'something' as "...some kind of internal drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something."

Williams and Burden (1997) agree that motivation is something that comes from within the individual. They define motivation as:

[...] a state of cognitive and emotional arousal, which leads to a conscious decision to act and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal.
(p.120)

Kleinginna and Kleinginna (1981) go in this sense and give an almost identical definition:

Motivation is an internal state or condition that activates behavior and gives its direction; [...] a desire or want that energizes and directs goals-oriented behavior; [...] an influence of needs and desire on the intensity and direction of behavior.

Therefore, motivation is goal-oriented: something consciously conceptualized by the individual; something that he is aware of; something made voluntarily and deliberately. It is also: "...the will to act. It is the willingness to exert high levels of effort towards organizational goals, conditioned by the efforts and ability to satisfy some individual need".

Furthermore, motivation

[...] refers to an assumed process within a person (or animal) that causes that organism to move toward a goal. The goal may be to fulfill a social ambition, such as having fame, money, or a good marriage.

(Wade and Travis, 1990: 344)

Gardner (1985: 111) also defines motivation as:

[...] the combination of desire and efforts made to achieve a goal; it links the individual's rationale for any activity such as language learning with the range of behaviors and degree of effort employed in achieving goals.

Another definition is proposed by Heckhausen (1991) who defines motivation as:

A global concept for a variety of processes and effects whose common core is the realization that an organism selects a particular behavior because of expected consequences, and then implements it with some measure of energy, along a particular path.

(Heckhusen in Dornyei and Otto, 1998: 64)

Motivation involves a need, a desire, effort, energy, active involvement, and persistence in order to achieve a goal. Our concern, however, lies in the second language learning context and how researchers consider motivation as a key to success in this context, as Dornyei (2001: 91) claims: “Motivation is one of the key factors driving language learning success.”

Learning a foreign language is different from learning any other subject mainly because:

Languages are unlike any other subject taught in a classroom in that they involve the acquisition of skills and behaviour patterns which are characteristics of another community.

(Gardner, 1985: 146)

Learning a language, indeed, is not just learning its vocabulary or its grammar; it is also acquiring new social and cultural behaviors and integrating them so as to obtain a new identity. As Crookall and Oxford claim: “learning a second language is ultimately learning to be another

person” (Williams and Burden, 1997: 136). Therefore, learning a foreign language is closely related to the way we see, understand and appreciate the group speaking the language. Motivation proved to be determinant to success in learning in general; it is also “a key factor to L2 learning”. (Ellis, 1994: 08)

For several decades, researchers in social psychology and education have recognized the importance of motivation for successful L2 learning. Littlewood (1991; in Brown, 1994: 53) asserts that motivation is: “the crucial force which determines whether a learner embarks on a task at all, how much energy he devotes to it, and how long he perseveres”. Gardner (1985) defines the term motivation in the second language learning context as “...referring to the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity. It is also, he adds,

Those affective characteristics which orient the student to try to acquire elements of the second language, and include desires the students have for achieving a goal and the amount of effort he expends in this direction.

(Gardner, 1985: 179)

Additional to the desire to learn another language, Gardner and Lambert suggest that an individual’s attitudes and orientations toward the

L2 community sustain motivation. They explain “ ...an individual’s attitude is an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object, inferred on the basis of the individual’s beliefs or opinions about the referent”. (Gardner and Lambert, 1959; in Spolsky, 1989: 149). Gardner and Lambert thus outline motivation features saying that it “... involves four aspects, a goal, effortful behaviour, a desire to attain the goal and favourable attitudes towards the activity in question. These four aspects are not unidimensional”. (ibid., 150)

2. Theories of Motivation

Teaching is closely related to the notion of change and progress, and all theorists of the existing schools agree that motivation influences this change; however, they disagree on its extent. The following part discusses the most influential theories that characterize the most influential schools of thought, namely the behaviourist, the cognitive, and the humanistic, those that revolutionized the psychology of education and the field of second or foreign language teaching.

2.1 Behavioral theories

The behaviorists explain motivation in terms of external stimuli and reinforcement. They claim that organisms behave in a certain way as a response to an external stimulus. The behavior is then shaped, repeated and

reinforced. Brown (2000: 160) states: “Driven to acquire positive reinforcement, and driven by previous experiences of reward or behaviour, we act accordingly to achieve further reinforcement.”

Modern behaviorism emphasized the nature and scheduling of the reward, considering it ‘an external force’, and “the most effective way of motivating a desired behaviour.” (Williams and Burden, 1997: 113). Behaviorists wanted to investigate how behavior emerges from certain specific conditions and how it varies when those conditions change. They explained that it was all about ‘needs’: Human beings behave in a way as a response to a *need*. When this need changes, the behavior changes too. From a behavioristic perspective, then, motivation is seen as the anticipation of the reward, making all our acts turn around it and having no control and no choice over our actions. Behavioral theories focus on the teacher’s actions and on the physical environment to explain the student’s behavior and motivation. Here are the three most prominent behavioral theories on motivation:

2.1.1 Classical Conditioning

This theory, also known as Stimulus-Response, was proposed by Pavlov (1927; in Good and Brophy, 1990: 153) who conducted

experiments on learning through conditioning and demonstrated that behavior is energized and directed in response to external stimuli.

2. 1. 2 Operant Conditioning

This theory, founded by Skinner (1957; in Williams and Burden, 1997: 9), emphasizes the role of reinforcement in learning. Skinner regards learning as the result of environmental factors and focuses on the consequences under which a behavior is shaped and how these consequences affect it: if the behavior is reinforced by rewards, it will increase; if it is punished, it will decrease. When this theory is applied to language learning, the student is affected by a stimulus (a structural pattern of the foreign language, for example). The student gives a response by repeating this pattern which is then reinforced by the teacher's approval.

This theory helps teachers understand students because it may help reveal why some students react favorably to particular subjects and dislike others.

2. 1. 3 Social Learning/ Observational theory

Social learning theorists such as Bandura (1977; in Good and Brophy, 1990: 167) claims the importance of observation, modeling and vicarious reinforcement in the process of motivation. According to Bandura's principle, a student who admires his teacher may work hard to please him and become like him. Both vicarious and direct reinforcement

can raise the individual's sense of self efficacy for a particular task. This leads to higher levels of motivation. Bandura's social learning theory is behavioristic but also cognitive, because "...it focuses on the consequences of specific behavior, yet cognitive because it also considers how students interpret past event and set goals for themselves" (ibid).

All these theories focus on extrinsic motivation (i.e. the desire to obtain particular outcomes from outside) as they deal with external rewards and expected behavior. Moreover, the physical environment and actions of the teacher are of prime importance.

2. 2 Cognitive theories

Contrary to the behaviorists, cognitivists such as Festinger, Piaget or Weiner (ibid: 169) see motivation as a matter of the individual's decisions; i.e. "the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect." (Keller, 1983; in Brown, 2000: 160). Therefore, people have the choice to behave the way they want, so they have control over their acts because they are aware of the probable results of the decisions they make, and know what goals they want to achieve. Their behavior is determined by their perception of events and how they think about what is happening to them.

Cognitivists used also the term ‘reward’ as a factor that determines behavior; however, they see it ‘internal’ such as curiosity or interest, and consider it a factor that triggers behavior in a conscious and deliberate way. Cognitive psychologists also look differently at needs or drives: They see them as “the compelling force behind our decisions”. (Williams and Burden, 1997: 119). Cognitivists explain motivation in terms of a person’s search for meaning and satisfaction in life. They identified four factors that influence a behavior’s direction:

[...] the inherent need to construct an organized and logically consistent knowledge base, one’s expectations for successfully completing a task, the factors that one believes account for success and failure, and one’s beliefs about the nature of cognitive ability.

(Good and Brophy, 1990: 366)

The following theories formulated their principles according to those influences:

2. 2. 1 Cognitive Dissonance Theory

This theory has been developed by Festinger (1957; in *ibid*: 368) and is in some respect similar to ‘disequilibrium’ in Piaget’s theory of cognitive development (Williams and Burden, 1997: 23-24). It suggests that we seek for balance (homeostasis) in our lives and resist to influences or expectations to change. This is based on the premise that

When there is a discrepancy between two beliefs, two actions, or between a belief and an action, we will act to resolve conflict and

discrepancies. The implication is that if we can create the appropriate amount of disequilibrium, this in turn will lead to the individual changing his or her behavior which in turn will lead to a change in thought patterns which in turn leads to more change in behavior.

2. 2. 2 Cognitive Developmental Theory

This theory is based on Piaget's (1983; *ibid*: 52) principles of equilibration, assimilation, accommodation and schema formation. Piaget (1983) proposes that children possess an inherent desire to maintain balance in their conception of the world. This may be experienced if a child gets a new experience by relating it to an existing scheme, or he may accommodate by modifying the existing scheme if the new experience is too difficult. Hence, it is recommended that teachers use a wide variety of concrete experiences to motivate children, for example, the use of "...manipulative working in groups to get experience, seeing from another's perspective, field trips, etc". (Stevena-Long and Cobb, 1983: 49-50). Individuals will repeatedly use new schemes because of a desire to master their environment. This explains why young children, for example, can sing the same song many times with no loss of enthusiasm.

2. 2. 3 Attribution Theory

This theory, founded by Weiner (1974; in Bentham, 2002: 124), is about "the study of how individuals explain events in their lives". (Bruning

et. al., 1999; in Wang, 2001: 05). It is important to emphasize that students' perceptions of their experiences generally influence their motivation more than the actual, objective reality of those experiences. Indeed, students share beliefs about the reasons of their success or failure referring them to certain 'attributions'. These attributions are either internal or external and are either under control or not. Moreover, Weiner (1979; in Williams and Burden 1997) proposes that attribution can be explained through a three-dimensional classification of causality. They are:

Locus of control: It refers to the degree to which the results are due to factors inside or outside an individual (e.g. mood, intelligence or luck, teacher bias, task difficulty,...)

Stability: It refers to an unchanging cause. For example, ability is seen to be stable because it is relatively lasting. Effort, however, is unstable because it varies considerably over time.

Controllability: It refers to those factors that can be controlled to influence results. For example, competence and performance are said to be controllable, while luck and mood are classified as uncontrollable. (*ibid.*, 105).

It is important for teachers to understand what students believe about the reasons of their academic performance, and it is necessary to help them develop a self-attribution explanation of effort; otherwise, as

difficulties appear, they will have their motivation as well as their learning behavior decrease.

2. 2. 4 Expectancy-Valence Theory (VTE)

The theory was proposed by Vroom (1964; *ibid*) who states that a person's motivation to achieve a goal depends on a combination of the value of that goal (its valence), the person's estimation of success likelihood (the expectation), and the connection of success and reward (instrumentality). Therefore, in order for the student to engage in a given task, he should first expect to succeed in doing the task; then, he should perceive the connection between the task given and success. Finally, he should value the results of this success.

Valence, expectancy and instrumentality are three interconnected variables that must be present in order for motivation to be raised. These elements must also be high for motivation and the resulting behavior to be also high.

2. 2. 5 Achievement Motivation Theory

This theory, postulated by McClelland in 1974, suggests that individuals are motivated to pursue and attain goals. It emphasizes on accomplishment as done for its own sake and not for the rewards that

accompany it. Three theories which discuss the notion of achievement and goal fall under achievement theory's umbrella. These are:

a- Need for Achievement

Atkinson (1964; in Good and Brophy, 1990: 370) described the need for achievement as “a global generalized desire to attain goals that require some degree of competence”. He saw this need partly innate and partly the result of experience. Individuals with a high need for achievement have a strong expectation of success and thus anticipate a feeling of pride in accomplishment. They seek out for challenging tasks and work with heightened intensity to do them. By contrast, individuals with a low need for achievement avoid such tasks because of a fear of failure and a feeling of shame.

Glasser (1986, 1990), in his '*Control Theory in the Classroom*', and '*The Quality School*' claims that for people to succeed in life, they must first experience success; for children, it should be school.

b- Fear Motivation

This theory, also described by Atkinson (1964; in *ibid.*) states that a person's fear in achievement pushes him to act against will. A person with a fear of failure tends to avoid too difficult tasks (even if he likes challenges) which lead to negative outcomes in order to guarantee success.

Differently stated, a person with a fear of success might prefer to fail because of the fear of losing social support. These are dependent, not self-confident people.

c- Goal Theory

Goal theory, suggested by Locke and Latham (1994) focuses on the reasons or purposes students have for achieving something. Different researchers made several classifications of goals and used different terms to define them. However, they all meet to identify two main goal orientations:

Task goals: they represent the belief that the purpose of achieving a goal is a personal improvement and understanding. Students with this kind of goals focus on their own progress in mastering skills and knowledge.

Ability goals: they represent the belief that the purpose of achieving is the demonstration of ability. Students here focus on appearing competent, often by comparing themselves to others.

Studies have shown that task goal-oriented students proved to be more intrinsically motivated and performed better than those with an ability task orientation. They use more effective cognitive strategies, seek for challenging tasks, are more self-confident, and have more positive feelings about school and learning. The teacher may foster this kind of goals by

encouraging cooperative learning, decision making, and by accepting errors and emphasizing on learning for its own sake.

2. 2. 6 Self-Efficacy Theory

Self-efficacy is a concept coined by Bandura (1986; in Bentham, 2002: 124). It describes “that part of the self that specifically relates to our estimation in regard to our personal effectiveness.” It is “a self-judgment of one’s ability to perform a task in a specific domain.” (Wang, 2001). This theory suggests that students who have a high estimation of personal effectiveness display greater persistence, effort, interest and a high intrinsic motivation in learning. In order for the teacher to increase his students’ level of self-efficacy, he has to know what affects it. Bandura (1997) identifies four factors:

Mastery experiences: They are one’s personal experiences with success or failure. For example, a student who did well in a previous Math exam will have a high perception of his ability in Maths.

Vicarious experiences: It involves the individual’s observation of others’ experiences and comparing them with his own. Students who observe a model (e.g. a peer) who performed successfully in a crucial situation, expect themselves to do the same performance.

Verbal persuasion: The teacher’s feedback in convincing or encouraging students to do their tasks, greatly motivate them especially those who feel

they are not competent. The teacher's or parents' positive messages, such as '*you can do it*', increases self-efficacy.

Physiological state: It involves “the emotional intensity or arousal that we bring to a task” (op. cit. 125). These can be anxiety, nervousness, or sweating. Such states reflect the learner's perceptions of his self-efficacy, which in turn affect his performance. The teacher should pay attention to the amount of arousal he provokes in learners. It should not be in extreme levels; otherwise, the student will be unable to attempt the task.

All cognitive theories center around individuals making decisions about their own actions far from being subject to external forces over which they have no control. However, not all our actions can be controlled since we cannot have influence over effective factors like emotions, biological arousals, or social contextual factors. Furthermore, cognitive theories suggest that individuals seek balance in their lives and will resist influences or expectations to change. How, then, does change or growth occur. One source, maybe, is biological development.

2.3 Psychoanalytic theories

The psychoanalytic theories of motivation propose a variety of fundamental influences. Freud (1990), for example, suggests that all actions or behaviors are the result of internal, biological instincts that are

classified into two categories: life and death. However, Erikson (1993) and Sullivan (1968) broke with Freud over this concept, and proposed that interpersonal and social relationships are of great importance. Alder (1989), later, proposed power, while Jung (1997) proposed temperament and search for soul or personal meaningfulness.

2.4 Humanistic theories

Although we share basic needs with non-human beings, our needs are further more complex. Once our basic needs are met, we are driven by higher levels of motivation. Early humanist researchers such as Murray (1938; in Williams and Burden, 1997: 113) explained motivation by focusing separately on factors as biology, achievement, power, etc. Maslow (1954), however, saw the interconnection and identified the reasons behind behaviors as stemming from intrinsic motives of becoming self-aware and realizing one's potential. Three main theories emerged from the humanistic view on motivation.

2.4.1 Maslow's hierarchy of human needs

Maslow (1962; in Good and Brophy, 1990: 364) attempted to synthesize a large body of research related to human motivation. His theory was hierarchical in the sense that more basic needs needed to be met before

time and space were given over to achieve other higher needs. Maslow (1968) argues:

The single, holistic principle that binds together the multiplicity of human motives is the tendency for a new and higher need to emerge as the lower need fulfils itself by being sufficiently gratifying.

He categorized the needs into two groupings. The first grouping is referred to as 'deficiency needs', because they motivate people to act only when they are unmet to some degree. It comprises four levels:

- Physiological needs: food, water, activity, rest, sex,...
- Safety needs: security, protection, shelter,...
- Belongingness and love: receiving and giving love and affection.
- Esteem needs: respect, achievement, self-esteem.

Once these needs are satisfied, the motivation to satisfy them diminishes, or even vanishes for a while.

The second grouping is referred to as 'growth needs' because people constantly strive to satisfy them. Initially, Maslow put only one growth need, 'self-actualization', which refers to self-fulfillment (i. e., the need to develop all one's potential talents and capabilities), then, he changed his mind by including other levels: cognitive needs (such as curiosity, exploration, and understanding) and aesthetic needs (such as beauty, order, art). Indeed, Maslow discovered that self-actualization needs are not

automatically activated when esteem needs are met. However, “Individuals whose self-actualization needs become activated, held in high regard such values as truth, goodness, beauty, justice, autonomy and humor.” (Feist, 1990). While not originally part of the basic needs, cognitive and aesthetic needs play a critical role because their absence makes impossible the satisfaction of the five basic needs. Maslow’s theory and its focus on prepotency enjoyed a great popularity and acceptance though a lack of evidence to support his hierarchy of needs.

2. 4. 2 Alderfer’s hierarchy of motivational needs

Alderfer (1972) has tried to rebuild Maslow’s hierarchy of needs into another model (ERG = Existence, Relatedness, Growth) which comprises three groups of core needs:

a- Existence needs: They include all the various forms of material and psychological desires.

b- Relatedness needs: They involve interpersonal relationships with other members of the group.

c- Growth needs: They involve the intrinsic desire to grow and develop personally.

Based on these groupings, Alderfer’s theory (1972) sustains that:

In an individual, more than one need may be operative at the same time. If a higher need goes unsatisfied, then the desire to satisfy a lower need

intensifies. It also contains the frustration-regression dimension.

It has to be recognized that not all characters/personalities follow Maslow's and Alderfer's proposed hierarchies. One of the most often cited personality dimensions related to motivational needs is that of introversion and extroversion. Thus, a new classification of needs has been proposed. It suggests that there may be two aspects of each level that differentiate how people relate to each set of needs. Moreover, different personalities might relate more to one dimension than to the other.

In fact, there is a little agreement about the identification of basic human needs and how they are ordered. In addition to Maslow, Alderfer and McClelland classifications, many other researchers proposed other additional needs. For example, Ryan and Deci (2000) suggest the need for autonomy and the need for competence. Thompson, Grace and Cohen (2001) propose the need for connection, recognition and power. Rodgers (1961) talks about the need for self-regard; and Harre (1979) mentioned the need for social respect, added to many other needs as adventure, exchange, expansion, expression, etc. Franken (2001) suggests that this lack of accord in a common classification of needs may be the result of different philosophies.

2. 4. 3 Self- Determination Theory (SDT)

This theory was developed by Deci and Ryan in 1985 (in Brown, 2000). It focuses the importance of ‘intrinsic motivation’ in driving human behavior. The theory emphasizes the notion of growth and development and deals with external active encouragement. It describes individuals (students) as having three categories of needs:

- **Competence feedback:** It involves understanding how to, and believing that one can, achieve various outcomes.
- **Relatedness:** It involves developing satisfactory connections to others in one’s social group.
- **Autonomy:** It involves initiating and regulating one’s own actions. It is in fact, the most important part in the SDT research. It proposes that a person must be able to initiate and regulate his behavior through personal choice and through the effort expended to complete the task in order for this latter to be intrinsically rewarding. The use of extrinsic rewards, however, detracts from a feeling of self-determination and leads to a decrease in intrinsic motivation.

Humanistic theories of learning tend to be highly value-driven and hence more like prescriptions rather than descriptions. They emphasise the ‘natural desire’ of everyone to learn. They maintain that learners need to be empowered and to have control over the learning process. So the teacher

relinquishes a great deal of authority and becomes a facilitator.

2.5 Transpersonal / Spiritual Theories

These theories deal with the meaningfulness of our lives or ultimate meanings. According to Huitt (2001), the way we view our spirituality has a big influence on our values and self-concept. He argues: “one’s perspective on humankind’s spiritual nature also impacts the dreams and goals one develops and how one pursues them”. Researchers such as Maslow (1954), Allport (1955), Frankl (1998), James (1997), Jung (1997), and Wilber (1998) have all been influential in this approach to motivation.

Great are the implications of the theories of motivation in education. Whether a theory is based on an individual’s behavior, cognition or thought, they all have an unquestionable impact on the teaching-learning process. Indeed, they supply the teacher with guidelines about how to deal with students whatever their level, needs or interests, and inspire him with points to develop plans to motivate their students. Many researchers offer practical suggestions for teachers based on the principles of theories of motivation. Dornyei (1998), for example, suggests in his famous ‘Ten Commandments for Motivating Language Learners’ to promote learners’ autonomy and self-confidence, and to create a good environment for learning. Oxford and Shearin (1996) focus on improving the learners’

motivation through challenge, diversity and friendship, and on encouraging them to develop their own intrinsic rewards. Keller (1987) proposes the ARCS Model of Motivational Design (= Attention, Relevance, Confidence, Satisfaction). This model stresses on the engaging and meaningful aspects of a learning task to ensure a successful achievement of learning objectives.

3. Types of motivation

Many researches studied motivation and its effects on language learners. The most extensive and significant research in second language learning was carried out by Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) to investigate the role of motivation and to determine how attitudinal and motivational factors affect language learning success. Over a period of twelve years in studying foreign language learners in Canada, USA and the Philippines, they could distinguish between two basic types of motivation: integrative and instrumental.

Other distinctions were proposed, notably the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations which are considered rather sources of motivation than types. A huge research was conducted to explain these concepts in order to control their effect in education.

3. 1 Integrative Vs Instrumental Motivation

Gardner (1985), in his landmark of socio-educational model of language acquisition, centres attention on four classes of variables linked to the process of language acquisition: cultural beliefs in the social milieu of the target language, individual differences, formal and informal language acquisition contexts, and linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes. Speaking about individual differences, he deals with motivation (he rather calls it orientation) and highlights two different kinds: integrative and instrumental.

3. 1. 1 Integrative motivation

In addition to the desire and effort to achieve a goal, Gardner (1985) adds the favourable attitudes toward learning language at hand. This promoted the notion that self-identity and identification with the foreign language community are important to the language-learning process: it is the integrativeness. An integrative motivation, thus, is described as how much an individual wants to integrate with the target language community in order to feel that he fits in. It involves an interest in learning a second language because of "... a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other language group." (Lambert, 1974; in Ellis, 1994: 509). Similarly, Gardner et. al. (1976: 119) add:

Integrative motivation reflects a high level of drive on the part of the individual to acquire the language of valued second language community in order to facilitate communication with that group.

Gardner developed this definition out from Mowrer's (1950) theory of successful first language acquisition. Mowrer believed that a child succeeds to acquire his first language through his quest for identity initially from parents and other members of the family, and later with the member of his community.

Integrativeness is particularly important as a source of motivation because it has a great influence on the learner's level of effort to succeed in learning the second language. Indeed, the learner's attitudes towards the target language serves as a foundation to motivation, and because of the long time that the process of learning takes, the learner needs a stable attitudinal base to sustain a favourable level of motivation.

Another positive effect of integrativeness is that it affects positively the learner's behaviour: The learner seizes every opportunity to learn more. Furthermore, a study conducted by Glikman (1976) shows that learners, integratively motivated, are more active in class, give more correct answers and have better results than those not so motivated. However, the generalisation that achievement in second language is facilitated by

integrative motivation has been questioned. Studies have shown that the relationships between attitudinal and motivational variables and learning achievement are “in stable, non-linear function that varies greatly across individual, contexts, and learning task”. (Oller, 1981; in Ho, 1998: 02)

Gardner, himself, also criticized these relationships to be unstable because, he argues: “not everyone who values another community positively will necessarily want to learn their language”. (Gardner, 1985: 76)

3. 1. 2 Instrumental Motivation

As opposed to integrative motivation which refers to the desire to identify with the L2 group culture, instrumental motivation refers to

[...] more functional reasons for learning a language as the means of attaining certain instrumental goals, e.g. getting a better job, reading technical materials, passing required examinations, etc. (ibid.)

Ur (1991: 276) defines instrumental motivation as “the wish to learn the language for the purpose of study or career promotion”. An instrumentally motivated learner, then, has almost no interest in the members of the L2 community, but only uses them and their language as an ‘instrument’ for personal satisfaction. He is, in fact, in need of the target language to achieve a practical goal to pass an exam, increase one’s

chances to get a job, facilitate the study of other subjects through the medium of this language, translation, etc.

Contrary to the research done on integrative motivation, few studies have investigated instrumental motivation and its effect on language learning because it is seen to be less effective. However, Dornyei (1990) claimed the opposite because, according to him, it "... involves learning the target language in institutional / academic settings without regularly interacting with the target language community" (Dornyei, 1990; in Ho, 1998: 02). Indeed, reality has shown that learners seek to learn for academic purposes in academic settings and see no need to integrate with the L2 group.

One of the few studies in instrumental motivation was that pursued by Dinkel (1948) then by Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) who offered financial rewards to students in order to achieve a set goal: learning Farsi and an English-French vocabulary list. Students, in both cases, did better than those who were just told to do their best. This led to the conclusion that:

Learners with an instrumental reason for learning a L2 can be successful"; moreover, learners with incentives (such as money) may also aid learning by increasing the time learners spend studying.

(Ellis, 1994: 514)

However, a decrease in the effort to learn has been remarked as soon as the rewards stopped. That is why instrumental motivation has been so badly criticized. Instrumentality proved to depend on external pressures; as a result, the learner lacks the willingness to achieve progress and success in his quest for learning the second language. Furthermore, it proved to end as soon as the goal is achieved. It is effective only if the goal is continuous.

In Spite of the numerous claims and counter-claims that intrinsic motivation is more effective than extrinsic motivation, investigation findings showed that both types are important requirements for successful language learning. These findings emphasize that there is no single means of learning a second language and that it is all about the context of learning.

Brown (2000: 163) states that:

[...] some learners in some contexts are more successful in learning the language if they are integratively oriented, and others in different contexts benefit from an instrumental orientation.

He adds, “Second language learning is rarely taken up in contexts that are exclusively instrumental or exclusively integrative. Most situations involve a mixture of each orientation” (ibid.).

3.2 Intrinsic Vs Extrinsic Motivation

The choice to act in a certain way leads us to another distinction to the type of motivation. The degree, to which learners are intrinsically or extrinsically motivated to succeed, appears to be the most powerful dimension in the whole motivation construct. The two terms will be, here, largely developed.

3.2.1 Intrinsic motivation

Psychologists agree on the fact that there is a natural curiosity drive in animals and human beings, "...a drive that does not appear to be directed towards an apparent material end, but which prompts exploration and discovery from an early age." (Fantona, 1995: 149). Indeed, children are curious about what surrounds them and are always attempting to explore the adult's world. If these attempts are reinforced -by approval and excitement, they are likely to continue and become more productive.

Originally, the notion of intrinsic motivation has been developed as an alternative to goal directed theories of motivation that deal with the role of extrinsic rewards and punishments. In addition to curiosity and discovery, interest is considered as the main element in motivation, it is the "positive response to stimuli based on existing cognitive structures in such a way that learner's curiosity is aroused and sustained." (Keller, 1984; in

Ellis, 1994: 515). Teachers may sustain students' level of motivation through motivating tasks and activities. Deci (1975) supports this view and defines intrinsic motivation:

Intrinsically motivated activities are ones for which there is no apparent rewards except the activity itself. People seem to engage in the activities for their own sake and not because they lead to an extrinsic rewards.

(Deci 1975; in Brown, 2000: 164)

Thus, intrinsic motivation comes from the joy or pleasure derived from language learning itself.

3. 2. 2 Extrinsic motivation

Whatever stimulating a teacher may be, there will always be moments when the learner's intrinsic motivation is insufficient. In such a case, resource has to be made to motivation as an extrinsic kind. Extrinsic motivation results from the desire to obtain some particular outcomes from outside and beyond the self such as grades, prizes, teacher's and peers' approval, money, etc. It also comprises the desire to please parents, succeed in an external exam, gain a group competition, influence someone or avoid punishment. Lynn (1991; in Fantona, 1995:150) states:

Success at such thing helps build up children's prestige in their own eyes and in the eyes of teachers, peers, and parents, and thus assists the development of what is called achievement motivation

Because learners find success to be rewarding, they are always building expectations and work harder to fulfil them. However, at a school level, extrinsic motivation is seen to increase anxiety and leads to failure and low self-esteem. Furthermore, in cases when praise maybe highly rewarding, it can prove highly directive too, and may “...lead children to abandon their other ideas and concentrate upon the one to which the teacher has responded so positively” (ibid. , 151).

For these reasons, most psychologists favour intrinsic motivation, especially for long-term retention. Maslow (1970), for example, claims for the superiority of intrinsic motivation because, according to his hierarchy of needs, we seek to achieve self-actualization, and that we strive for self-esteem and fulfilment even if extrinsic rewards are present. Bruner (1966) praises the ‘autonomy of self-reward’. According to him, we can develop dependence to external rewards which may result to the extinction of our desire to learn. Brooks *et. al.* (1998) sustain that external rewards “decrease interest in the task, thereby diminishing the like hood that the task will be continued in the future”.

Some studies, however, suggest that learners may be motivated by both kinds of motivation and that one influences the other. Harmer (1981: 310-11) states that:

Although I initially contrasted intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, one can also imagine situations in which intrinsic and extrinsic rewards might correlate, as it were, to motivate learning.
(Cited in Williams and Burden, 1997: 124)

4.3 Global motivation

It is an overall orientation of the learner towards the learning of the foreign language. It is influenced by previous education -knowledge and experiences-, social factors and by the teacher's actions.

4.4 Task Motivation

It is concerned with the way the teacher approaches or perceives the specific task at hand. Here, the teacher's efforts are put in practice; indeed, he makes the task to be done as attractive as possible and encourages students to do their best in order to succeed. This kind of motivation proposes that students' motives should be directed towards the task itself and not towards the end result.

4. The Process of motivation

It is a general tendency to believe that motivation is a personal trait. Some people have it while others do not. The concept of motivation is situational and its level varies both between different individuals and within individuals at different times. In fact, individuals differ in their basic

motivational drives but they all follow the same process to have motivation generated and goal attained. The process of motivation goes through many stages, as Bergeron (1982: 103) states:

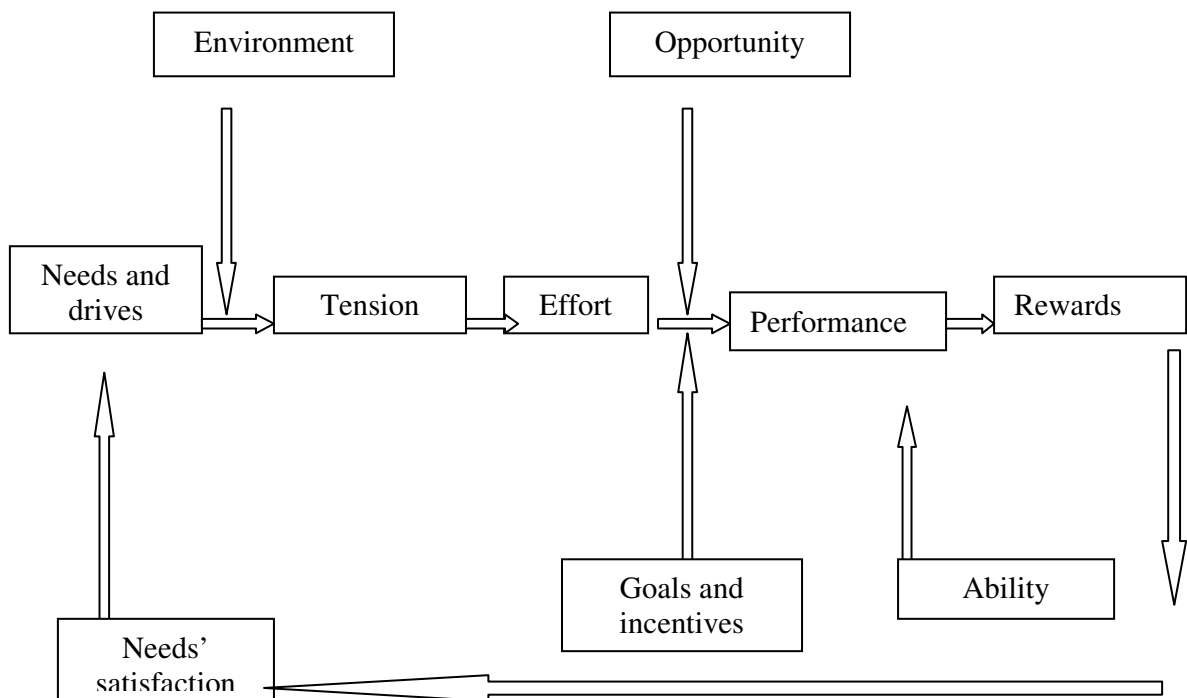
A cause d'un besoin insatisfait (e.g : le besoin de nourriture), un individu ressent une certaine tension, un certain inconfort (la faim), ce qui le pousse à faire quelque chose (s'extirper de son fauteuil et se rendre jusqu'au réfrigérateur) en vue d'atteindre un certain objectif (engloutir un demi-jambon cuit) qui satisfait le besoin, diminue la tension et ramène l'individu à son point de départ (le fauteuil), jusqu'à ce que le cycle recommence.

Indeed, Bergeron explains that : Because of an unmet need (e.g. the need for food), an individual feels a certain tension or discomfort (hunger) which drives him to do something (getting out of his chair and going to the fridge) to achieve a certain goal (swallow half a ham) that satisfies the need, reduces tension and brings the individual to his starting point (the chair), up to that cycle again.

In the initiation, a person starts feeling a lack. There is an arousal of need so urgent, that the bearer of this need has to venture in search to satisfy it. This creates a tension, which urges the person to forget everything else but cater to the aroused need first. This tension may create drives and attitudes depending on the desire to be satisfied. After that, the

person seeks for information and evaluates all possible alternatives then chooses the best one. After choosing the alternative, an action is taken. Once it is achieved, the tension is relieved and the need satisfied.

Murray focuses on the concept of ‘need’ in the process of motivation. He defines it as: “a need is a tension that leads one to pursue a goal which if achieved will release the felt tension.” (Murray 1938; in Good and Brophy, 1990: 362). Shah and Shah (1994) illustrated the process of motivation in the following diagramme:



Conclusion

Motivation has been called the neglected heart of language teaching. As teachers, we often forget that all of our learning activities are filtered through our students' motivation. Without it, there is no pulse, no enthusiasm; i.e., no life in class. A great deal of research (since a long time) has been done in the area of motivation and why it is so fundamental to second language learning. The underlying issues related to motivation are complex, but it is clear that every person's motivation to learn is flexible rather than fixed.

CHAPTER TWO

The Teachers' and Learners' roles in enhancing Motivation and Developing Communicative proficiency

Introduction	48
I. Teachers' Profile	48
1. Definition of 'Teacher'	48
2. Characteristics of a Good Teacher	49
3. Teacher's Roles	54
3.1 Facilitator	56
3.2 Controller	56
3.3 Organizer	57
3.4 Assessor	57
3.5 Prompter	58
3.6 Participant	58
3.7 Resource	59
3.8 Tutor	59
3.9 Observer	59
3.10 Teaching Aid	60
4. The Role of the Teacher in Developing Communicative Proficiency	60
4.1 Communicative Language Teaching	63
4.2 Task-Based Approach	68
4.3 The Natural Approach	71
3. Strategies for Raising Students' Motivation	74
II. Learners' Profile	94
1. Definition of 'Learner'	94

2. The Role of the Learner in the Teaching-Learning Process	94
3. Learners' Differences	96
3.1 Age	97
3.2 Gender	99
3.3 Aptitude	101
3.4 Language levels	102
3.5 Attitude towards the Target Language	104
3.6 Cognitive Abilities	106
3.7 Learning Styles and Strategies	107
4. Characteristics of Good / Motivated Language Learners	112
5. Characteristics of Demotivated Language Learners	115
6. Causes of Learners' Demotivation	119
7. Characteristics of Good / Motivated Language Learners	123
Conclusion	123

Introduction

Chapter one pointed to motivation and its importance for success in learning. In this chapter, we cast light on the one who will carry that motivation to transmit it to learners in order for them to achieve competence and performance in learning the second language. However, the teaching-learning process will not be complete without the participation of an important ‘partner’: the learner. Therefore, even if pointing at the teacher as an agent of change, it is of same necessity to mention the learner, his learning differences, characteristics, and roles. Furthermore, this chapter determines the real roles of the teacher in the class, the characteristics of a good teacher, and most importantly the strategies he uses to increase students’ motivation, and his status as an agent of change.

I. Teacher’s Profile

1. Definition of ‘teacher’

According to Oxford Advanced Learners’ Dictionary (1995: 1225), the teacher is defined as “a person who teaches, especially in school”. This is a very simplified definition which does not show the real status of the teacher when we consider that he has almost been a ‘prophet’. Therefore, the teacher’s job is to teach. His main job is:

to show somebody how to do something so that he will be able to do it himself; to give somebody information about a particular

subject: to help somebody learn something; to do this for a living; to encourage people to accept something as a fact or principle to persuade somebody not to do something again by making them so much that they are afraid to do.

Researchers define teachers and their job using some metaphors. For example, Harmer (2001: 56) stated them in the following:

Sometimes they say they are like actors because 'we are always on the stage.' Others think they are orchestral conductors 'because we direct conversation and set the space and tone'. Yet others feel like gardeners, 'because we plant the seeds and then watch them grow'.

These different views clearly indicate the different roles a teacher may have. In the following point, we define and discuss each role separately and show their effect in classroom management and students' success.

2. Characteristics of a good teacher

Teaching has to do with issues like method, technique, content, presentation, etc. Having a tremendous knowledge but failing to communicate it doesn't serve teaching; as Hassett (2000: 7) says: "Good teaching often has less to do with our knowledge and skills than our attitude towards our students, our subject, and our work". Good teachers, in general, have some traits that characterize them. They are not definitive

when we take into account the teacher's personality and character. These general traits have been put forward by Hassett (2000: 2-5):

- Good teachers have a sense of purpose: They prepare and conduct their lessons and program depending on what students expect and make plans to meet those expectations. Teachers have their own expectations too about what happens in their classrooms, based on the goals they try to achieve.
- They have expectations of success for their students, but can't guarantee it to all of them. They have a sense of commitment and always adopt an optimistic tune and attitude; thus, creating a climate of encouragement which leads to success.
- They know how to live with ambiguity. Teachers generally do not have immediate and accurate feedback, so they focus on good strategies and materials, things which they can control and trust and which give them predictability and self-confidence. Even if there is no way for teachers to predict precisely what the long-term results of their work will be, having a sense of purpose, choosing the right strategies, and cultivating expectations of success for all the students will help them control things.
- They adapt and change things to meet students' needs. Sometimes, learning doesn't occur, i.e., no student could learn the concept(s) presented in the lesson. In this case, good teachers devise new strategies, think in new ways and do anything possible to revive the learning process as working with different materials or by arranging groupings differently.

In brief, they think in a different way when the previous one doesn't fit students' needs and interests.

- They are reflective, keep questioning themselves and routinely think and reflect on their classes, students, their methods, techniques, and materials. They compare and contrast, draw parallels and distinctions, review, remove and restore. They observe what happens in their classes on a daily basis in order to be constantly connected with the teaching-learning process.

- They are comfortable with 'not knowing': teachers can be faced with dilemmas, questions that they cannot always answer. Good teachers are honest about their ignorance or forgetfulness.

- They enjoy their work and their students: they are enthusiastic, motivated and motivating, energized and energizing, creative and interesting. They find a balance between focusing on students, i.e., making them feel important and understood, and focusing on content, i.e., making students achieve their educational goals. Achieving the balance takes time and attention; it demands that teachers observe closely, evaluate carefully, and act on their own findings.

Davies and Pearse (2000: 2) add other characteristics and state that good teachers:

- Have a practical command of the target language, not just knowledge of grammar rules.
- Use English most of the time in class, including beginners' classes.
- Think mostly in terms of learner practice, not teacher explanations.
- Find time for really communicative activities, not just the practice of language forms.
- Focus their teaching on learners' needs, not just on finishing the syllabus of the course book.

In a similar vein, Harmer (1998) in his work *How to Teach English*, tried to find an answer to the question: What makes a good teacher? His attempt resulted in the following:

- A good teacher should make his lessons interesting so you don't fall asleep in them
- A good teacher must love his job. Indeed "teachers must love their career in order for them to pass enthusiasm, to assist, to provide a warm environment to the students".
- A good teacher must be approachable. Harris (1991: 2) explains this point: "... by sharing parts of themselves with students, especially little stories of problems and mistakes they made, either as children or even as recently."

- A good teacher should try to draw out the quiet students and control the more talkative ones.
- A good teacher should be able to correct people without offending them.
- A good teacher is someone who helps than shouts.

Good teachers are also sensitive to their students' problems and difficulties. They have "some sort of connective capacity: who connect themselves to their students, their students to each other and everyone to the subject being studied." (Palmer, 1997; in Harris 1991: 3)

Good teachers know how to maintain order and discipline and safeguard their students' health and safety. A good teacher is also an open-minded person who respects his students' diversity and differences in customs, religion, background, etc. He is fair, intelligent, objective, helpful, attentive, polite, respectful, friendly, funny, and intellectual.

In fact, there is no formula for good teaching, and very different people make very good teachers for very different reasons. Whatever the style, method or personality, a good teacher is someone that makes learning enjoyable and effective. Harmer (1998: 8) argues: "Teachers are not, however, ultimately responsible for the students' motivation. They can only

encourage by word and deed.” Moreover, good teaching is not a static state but a constant process. As teachers, we have new opportunities to become teachers every day. Hassett (2000) states: “good teachers are the ones who seize more opportunities than they miss”. In his part, Wisniewski (1999) adds: “ ... they are deeply committed to the belief that humans have an extraordinary capacity to transform weakness into strength[...] they are people in process of development- in process of becoming the ideal professor.”

3 . Teacher’s roles

The concept of ‘role’ has become very popular in ELT and it is a term in common usage to denote the functions that teachers and learners perform during the course of a lesson.

A teacher is sometimes considered a ‘spiritual guide’ that “does not bid you enter the house of his wisdom, but rather leads you to the threshold of your own mind.” (Gibran, 1991; in Harmer, 2001: 56). He is the one that creates conditions in which students learn for themselves. A teacher is also referred to as a caretaker, a protector or a mother: “...teachers are the second mother for their students because students spend a lot of time with their teachers”. Indeed, just like mothers, teachers look for the best for their students and aim to raise them to be the pioneers of the society. Teachers

give love, care, instruction and make classrooms as safe and pleasant 'homes' as possible.

These roles and many others are far from the traditional role which was restricted to the teacher standing on stage, talking to students and having them listening quietly. Teacher's roles have changed considerably through time, especially with the emergence of 'learner-centered' instruction in which the learners' needs and experiences are put central to the educational process: students work for themselves, making efforts, using their own mental capacities through their own styles and strategies, and having the teacher only as a monitor or a facilitator. However, the path towards autonomy is not so easy. The teacher stands as the driver of operations and the controller of progress.

In fact, the teacher decides what role to play and when. Thus, a role may change from one class to another. Harmer (2001: 57) states: "The role to choose will have enormously beneficial effects both on learning, and on the dynamics and atmosphere of the classroom." Harmer (1991) suggested a framework in which he identifies the teacher in a number of roles, summarized as follows:

3. 1 Facilitator

This term is traditionally used to refer to ‘the teacher’s role’ because “the aim is to facilitate the students’ progress.” (Harmer, 2001:57). This role is closely tied to learner-centered teaching in which the lesson’s success or failure is measured depending on the activity performed by learners and not on teachers’. Learners are given tasks to work on, and the teacher intervenes only when it is needed. In this kind of teaching, the teacher needs to have special qualities including maturity, intuition, educational skills, and tolerance of uncertainty.

3. 2 Controller

Here, the teacher holds the entire responsibility of what is going on in his class. He takes the roll, gives students instructions, organizes drills, reads aloud, etc; in brief, everything is under his control. This leaves little intervention for students whose role is reduced to simple spectators. This creates a de-motivating atmosphere where, most of times, students feel neglected and passive. However, there are times when acting as a controller makes sense such as in announcements, restoring order, giving explanations, or in leading a question-answer session.

3.3 Organizer

This role consists of giving students clear instructions of how to do an activity as an example, generally by forming them into pairs or groups. The teacher engages students in a task, demonstrates, initiates and organizes feedback. Here, students are given more attention: they are explained what they have to do, can participate, express themselves and feel really engaged in the learning process. This creates an enjoyable and motivating atmosphere.

3.4 Assessor

Acting as an assessor, the teacher grades his students, corrects them and offers them feedback. These indicate to students whether or not they are getting their English right. Indeed, students need this assessment in order to measure their level and make more efforts to perform better. Acting in such a way, the teacher should be careful and has to pay a great attention to his learners' reactions, especially when the grades are low. He should be sensitive to the students' possible reactions, as Harmer (2001: 60) argues: "A bad grade is a bad grade, however it is communicated. But it can be made far more acceptable if it is given with sensitivity and support". Moreover, the teacher has to be fair when scoring his students' performances. Low achievers should be equally criticized; otherwise, some will feel unhappy and demotivated.

3. 5 Prompter

Being a prompter is helping students take back the thread they lost of what is going on and nudging in a discrete and supportive way. The teacher encourages students to think creatively and may occasionally help with a word or a phrase but not for students to keep silent. He should prompt sensitively by being no too adamant and not too retiring.

3. 6 Participant

When the teacher is playing the role of a participant, he intervenes as a part of the class, as one of the students and joins them in an activity (e.g. role-play, group decision making,...). During this, the teacher “can enliven things from the inside instead of always having to prompt or organize from outside the group” (ibid. , 61). Despite the enjoyable atmosphere that takes level and case, the teacher should not exceed his students’ level and dominate the proceedings. However, it is often hard to avoid such a problem when considering the teacher having more English at his disposal than the students have. In addition, even if the teacher does his best to keep an egalitarian classroom, he is still ‘the teacher’, perceived as the leader and the one to be listened to with great attention.

3.7 Resource

As a resource, the teacher is almost needed to guide the students especially when doing group works or some presentation. To do their work correctly, the students may ask for their teacher's help, for instance about where they can find this or that information, how they can do such or such a thing. But this should be done in a careful way to avoid having spoon-fed students. Acting as resource means being helpful and available but also being frank and honest to confess when we do not know something.

3.8 Tutor

Acting as a tutor helps more in the case of long projects such research papers or pieces of writing that will take place in small groups or pairs. In fact being a tutor is combining the roles of prompter and resource. The teacher has a private, intimate relationship with his students who feel secured and supported and see their learning enhanced. However, the teacher should not intrude too much either and have to give the same degree of importance to all the students so as not some of them feel neglected.

3.9 Observer

As an observer, the teacher may take notes on students' performance. This is of great help since it gives the teacher the opportunity

to give feedback, but also to measure the success of his lessons including both the activities and the materials used and this permits him to make changes if necessary. The teacher should be careful not to be too intrusive by commenting on everything students say.

3.10 Teaching aid

Apart from the roles which the teacher adopts in class, being a kind of a teaching aid is a particular one. The teacher considers himself as a piece of teaching equipment especially when using mime, gestures or being a language model or a provider of comprehensible input. Mime, gesture and expression are quick and efficient techniques the teacher may use to convey meaning and atmosphere. They are useful in situations when the teacher is out of words or time, or when he avoids using the mother tongue to explain something.

The teacher acts also as a model of language the students can take benefit from in spite of referring back to textbooks or audio and video materials. The teacher can provide a language modal when saying a dialogue, reading aloud a text, telling a story, etc. the language modal should be clear and comprehensible, given to the students in the right level and the right speed. When doing this, the teacher should be enthusiastic and committed for students to be motivated.

The roles of the teacher vary according to the types of activities and to the students' needs and goals. Sometimes, the teacher should act as a controller to organize difficult activities. Other times the teacher may have a less dominating role when acting as a participant, prompter or resource. Whatever the roles, the teacher must be able to switch between them and carefully carry out them -each in an appropriate situation- by always thinking of the best for the students.

4. The teacher's role in developing communicative proficiency

The teacher has always tried to find more effective ways to carry out his work, usually by adopting some kind of approach or method which comprises definite techniques and strategies. Over the years, many approaches and methods appeared. Some of them considered language a system of rules for the construction of correct sentences. This was the case of early approaches as the Grammar Translation Method and Audiolingualism. Other approaches, on the other hand, considered language a system of communication, in which linguistic forms and structures convey messages and intentions in specific contexts. Approaches like the Communicative Approach and the Task based Approach adopted this principle.

As methods and approaches of teaching English have changed over time, their techniques and principles changed too, and similarly the teacher's roles. The early, traditional methods as the Grammar Translation Method, the Direct method, Situational Teaching, and the Audiolingual method adopted a teacher-centered instruction. The teacher was the controller and organizer of the whole process of learning. He was seen as an authoritarian figure, a provider of grammatical rules, and a source of all materials and all information. These early methods, even if they progressively focused on communication, were far from using the real communication. Learners were still passive, and had little or no opportunities for autonomy and creativity.

In the mid twentieth century appeared a set of 'Alternative methods' that have been quite influential, although they have never been widely used. The Total Physical Response and the Silent Way are the two most famous methods that claimed for the learner's autonomy, free-stress learning and fun. The teacher's role, here, is that of participant, resource and observer.

In the final quarter of the twentieth century, came to birth new methods with a new sight of teaching a foreign language. They claimed for a learner-centered instruction, enhancing autonomy and developing

communicative proficiency. The most notable of these methods are the Communicative Language Teaching, The Task-Based Approach and the Natural approach. These will be, here, discussed fully.

4. 1. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

CLT is defined as an approach to the teaching of second and foreign languages that emphasizes interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of learning a language, and makes use of real-life situations that necessitate communication. This approach is interested in the needs and desires of its learners as well as the connection between the language as it is taught in class and as it is used outside the class. Furthermore, CLT helps learners develop their communicative competence in an authentic context. It also makes them aware of the connection between forms and meanings together with whatever differences are there in society that might affect the pragmatic element in communication.

Communicative competence is a key notion in the CLT approach.

According to Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics (1983: 49), communicative competence is defined as:

The ability not only to apply the grammatical rules of language in order to form grammatically correct sentences but also to

know when and where to use these sentences
and to whom.

Hymes (1967) refers to communicative competence as “that aspect of our competence that enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally with specific contexts” (cited in Brown, 2000: 246). Researchers such as Hymes (1972), Canal and Swain (1980), and Savignon (1983; in Brown 2000) clearly state that communicative competence is made up of four major different components: grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence. The two first categories reflect the use of the linguistic system itself, while the two others define the functional aspects of communication. Hymes (1972: 277) argues:

We have to account for the fact that a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences, not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when out, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner...

Concerning Communicative Language Teaching methodology, the implications are very significant because language, here, is learnt specifically for its use. The communicative approach in language teaching starts from a theory of language as communication that has as goal: developing ‘communicative competence’, in which the learner has to poses

the ability to know the linguistic system of the target language and how to use it in real life situations.

The communicative approach has an unlimited range of exercises types and activities. These activities, far from focussing on repetition and memorization of grammatical patterns, require learners to share information, negotiate meaning and interact meaningfully. There are two types of CLT activities: ‘pre-communicative’ and ‘communicative learning’ activities. The former represent ‘controlled practice’. Its function is to prepare the learner for later communication by practicing certain language forms or functions. It aims at giving the learner fluent control over linguistic forms. The latter, in contrast, represent ‘creative language use’, in which the learner can perform communication with focus on meaning. Here, the production of linguistic forms becomes subordinate to higher-level decisions. The learner is expected to increase his skill. He first selects suitable language form from his total repertoire and produce then fluently to express meaning effectively.

The clear shift from traditional lessons towards modern lessons that aim at developing communicative competence had consequences in changing the roles of the teacher and the learner in the classroom. Teachers in communicative classrooms talk less and listen more “becoming active

facilitators of their students learning” (Larson-Freeman 1986; in Galloway, 1993). The teacher sets up an exercise, gives instructions, observes and acts sometimes as a referee or monitor. He is no more a model for correct speech and writing, but is rather a facilitator of learning, a classroom manager or a co-communicator with learners.

Breen and Candlin (1980) describe two main roles for the teacher in a communicative classroom: the first is to facilitate the communication process between all participants in the classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group. The latter role is closely related to the objectives of the first role and arises from it. These roles imply a set of secondary roles for the teacher; first, as an organizer of resources and as a resource himself, second as a guide within the classroom procedures and activities. A third role for the teacher is that of researcher and learner with much to contribute in terms of appropriate knowledge and abilities, actual and observed experience of the nature of learning and organizational capacities. Other roles assumed for teachers are needs-analyst, counsellor, and group process manager.

New roles, as well, are assigned to learners. Indeed, they participate in cooperative (rather than individualistic) activities, working in pairs or in

groups. They may rely on some communicative strategies (verbal or non verbal) in order to gather information necessary to complete tasks.

The language they use is unpredictable and creative. Therefore, learners take a great responsibility for their own learning and are encouraged to take initiatives; consequently, they may find themselves gaining confidence in using the target language in general. Also, they're motivated to learn more of the language system and how to use it in the process of communication, using fully their four skills.

To attain his objectives, the teacher has at his disposal a wide range of materials that support CLT principles. They're seen as a way of influencing the quality of classroom interaction and language use; thus, promoting communication. There are three kinds of materials currently used in CLT: text-based, task-based, and relia. Specific texts, games, role plays, simulations, communicative activities, and visual aids have all been set to support CLT classes.

Within the last quarter century, CLT has been put forth around the world as the 'new' or 'innovative' way to teach English as a second or foreign language. It seems not only to be more natural and less-contrived, but also seems to have the added advantage of providing learners with the human rights. Learners achieve their language learning objectives as a

function of increased independence, under the guidance of the teacher, who is no longer the autocratic controller of their destiny.

4. 2 Task-Based Approach (TBA)

In recent years a debate has been developed over which approaches to structuring, planning and implementing lessons are more effective. Considered as a logical outcome of theories of second language learning associated with the communicative approach, TBA offers, in fact, an alternative for language teachers who used to employ the traditional 'Present, Practice, Produce' (PPP) approach. This latter has been criticized of being teacher-centred and therefore, sat uneasily in a more humanistic and learner-centred framework. In response to these criticisms, came the Task-Based Approach, also known as Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT).

TBA is an approach (also referred to a method of instruction) in the field of language acquisition. It focuses on the use of authentic language, and to students doing meaningful tasks using the target language. Assessment is primarily based on task outcome, i.e. the appropriate completion of tasks, rather than simply the accuracy of language forms. TBA helps developing target language fluency and student confidence.

Task-based learning is seen as a kind of ‘deep-end’ strategy or, in Willis’ words, “likes a sort of PPP upside down.” (Willis, 1994 ; in Harmer, 2001: 87). In her ‘Framework for Task-Based Learning’, Willis (1996; in *ibid*) presents a three stage process, highlighting the roles of teachers and learners.

- **The pre-task stage** in which the teacher introduces a topic and gives the students clear instructions on what they will have to do in the next stage (the task phase). He may help them with key vocabulary or grammatical constructs (in the form of suggestions). The students may have a model of the task through, for example, listening to a recording of people doing the same task, or watching a picture or a video demonstrating the task. The students can take notes and spend time preparing for the task.
- **The Task Cycle** during which students perform the task in pairs or in small groups depending on the type of activity and using the language resources they have. The teacher’s role is limited to one of observer or counselor. He encourages all attempts at communication and doesn’t correct mistakes; thus, students feel free to experiment.
- **Language Focus.** In this stage, the teacher highlights relevant parts or features from the recording on the text. The students have to examine and analyze. It may also include language forms that the students were using, or problems they had.

Task-based learning is advantageous to the learner because it is learner-centered. It allows meaningful communication and provides practical extra-linguistic skill building. Although the teacher may present language in the pre-task level, the students are free of language control; i.e ; they can use the grammar constructs and the vocabulary they want. Indeed, the language explored arises from their needs. Furthermore, as the tasks are likely to be familiar to students (e.g visiting a doctor or calling services customer for help), they're more likely to be engaged and motivated in learning the language. When talking about motivation, it is rather intrinsic because it is provided by the need to achieve the objectives of the task and to report back on it. Success in doing this increases motivation. Listening to fluent speakers is also strongly motivating, because in attempting the tasks, students will notice gaps in their own language, and will, therefore, listen more carefully in order to fill these gaps. Students are also motivated to be accurate when reporting public by their work; because they're seeking for self-confidence and peer/teacher approval. They know that they can try things out without fear of failure or public correction.

TBL is considered a strong communicative approach because students spend a lot of time communicating (during the three stages). Besides, a natural context is developed from the students' experiences

with the language that is personalized and relevant to them. For the teacher, the framework offers them security and control with little or no risk of chaos. In the pre-task stage, for example, where learners are free to interact; there is a firm agenda for them to follow: achieving the task goal in a time limit. The teacher will be in front of an active class because almost all learners are engaged, especially in the planning and reporting phases.

4.3 The Natural Approach

Just like the CLT and TBA, the Natural Approach sees language as a vehicle for communicating meanings and messages. It works at “promoting subconscious acquisition, and relegates conscious learning to a minor role” (Pearse and Davies, 200: 192). It also aims at developing basic communicative skills both oral and written. The objectives depend mainly upon learners’ needs, the skill and level being taught. Krashen and Terrell, 1983; in Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 135) argue:

The goals of a Natural Approach class are based on an assessment of student needs. We determine the situations in which they use the target language and the sorts of topics they will have to communicate information about.

The Natural Approach is considered eclectic because it relies, in its procedure, on Total Physical Response activities in the early stages. In

later stages, other activities of other approaches and methods are used, especially those of the Direct Method and Communicative Language Teaching.

In fact, the Natural Approach does not work systematically through a determined syllabus, but progresses by focusing on communication in areas of need and interest to the learners. It emphasizes the importance of reducing stress and anxiety, and promoting the learners' autonomy, self-confidence and motivation.

Concerning the teacher's role, this latter is attributed three central roles. First, he acts as a source of comprehensible input in the target language. He is required to generate a constant flow of language input while providing a multiplicity of nonlinguistic clues to assist students in interpreting the input. Second, the teacher acts as a motivator, a provider of interesting and friendly atmosphere in which there is a low affective filter for learning. Indeed, students are not asked to speak till they are ready for it. Finally, the teacher works as a provider of a variety of activities. He is responsible for collecting materials and designing their use.

Learners' roles, however, are seen to change according to their stage of linguistic development. These changes include the learners' decisions on when to speak, what to speak about, and what linguistic expressions to use in speaking. Moreover, learners are expected to participate in communication activities with their mates because these activities provide naturalistic practice and a sense of camaraderie.

The Natural Approach rejects the formal (grammatical) organization of language as a prerequisite to teaching. It rather focuses on comprehension and meaningful communication. Like CLT, the Natural Approach is hence evolutionary rather than revolutionary in its procedure. It is an original approach in the sense that it emphasizes comprehensible and meaningful practice activities.

Throughout time, approaches and methods' principles changed considerably and so the teacher's role. From an authoritarian figure and controller to simple observer and participant, passing by tutor or facilitator teachers have played all kinds of roles. These depended mostly on the method used, the techniques applied and on the objectives to attain. Today, teachers have tendency not to follow one single method but choose a set of techniques and procedures taken from various methods. However, they

have to adapt them to their own teaching situation and according to their learners' needs, interests, abilities, etc. therefore, the modern teacher has to be eclectic, imaginative and energetic.

5. Strategies for raising students' motivation

Teachers, everyday, are confronted with classes where many of the students show boredom, disinterest and usually have a lack of motivation to learn. The teacher's role, therefore, is to bring a flow of 'positive waves' into the classroom. He has, to do so, at his disposition a number of strategies that help increase his students' self-confidence and interest in learning the language. The following points are a sample of what in fact a huge number of ideas, all certified to be effective in increasing student's motivation.

Dornyei and Csizér's (1998) 'Ten Commandments for motivating Language Learners' state a set of strategies to motivate students in the foreign language classroom. They wrote the article after conducting a survey on 200 EFL teachers in Hungary. For the study, each teacher was asked to rate 51 motivational strategies according to their perceived importance or how much the teacher used the motivational techniques in his classroom. The top ten, along with some of the specific ways Dornyei

and Csizér (1998) recommended –based on the teachers’ responses- to implement each one are listed in the following points:

1- Set a personal example with your own behavior. The teacher is required to prepare his lessons, be committed and motivated himself, behave naturally, and be sensitive and accepting in order for his students to be motivated too.

2- Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom. Teachers should bring in humor, laughter and smiles, do fun things in class, and have game-like competitions.

3- Present the task properly. Teachers have to give clear directions, provide guidance about how to do the task, and state the purpose and utility of every task.

4- Develop a good relationship with the learners. Teachers should not neglect his students even the naughtiest ones. He should take care of all the students in class, consider their interests but also their difficulties. Thus, the students will be sensitive to their teacher’s attention and will do their best to please him.

5- Increase the learners’ self-confidence. Teachers should make sure students experience success regularly. For this, teachers should constantly encourage their students, demystify mistakes, and select tasks that do not exceed their competence.

- 6- Make the language classes interesting. Teachers should select interesting, challenging, varied tasks and supplementary materials. Teachers should also build on students' interests rather than tests or grades as the learning impetus, and raise curiosity by introducing unexpected or exotic elements.
- 7- Promote learners' autonomy. Teachers should encourage creative and imaginative ideas, encourage questions, and share responsibility by having students help organize the learning. They should also involve students in choosing the materials.
- 8- Personalize the learning process. Teachers should try to fill the tasks with personal content that is relevant to the students.
- 9- Increase the students' self-orientedness. Teachers can do this by helping the students develop realistic expectations about their learning and by helping them set up several specific learning goals. Teachers can do a needs analysis with the students and help them design individual study plans.
- 10- Familiarize learners with the target language culture. For this, teachers should use authentic materials, occasionally invite native speakers to the classroom, and help establish penpals for the learners. (p 215-223)

Another research made by Chambers (1999) investigates what factors increase learners' motivation to learn a foreign language. He discussed how

middle and high school students in the United Kingdom and Germany regarded classroom foreign language learning in light of newer national standards in foreign language education. Chambers worked on identifying the demotivated learner, understanding students' attitudes in class, and the influence of parents and the home environment on learning. He described, as well, that the students' positive or negative evaluation of their learning is based on their perception of the teacher. Because of this, Chambers (1999: 137) says:

The teacher carries an enormous burden or responsibility. She holds on the strings. Her approach to teaching, her personality, her power to motivate, make learning meaningful and provide something which pupils refer to as 'fun', represent the real foundation upon which pupils' judgment of the learning experience is based.

Chambers, then, listed six recommendations for increasing students' motivation at the school level. These are not necessarily given by the teacher himself:

- 1- Enhance the prestige of the foreign language in the school curriculum. Schools should make foreign language learning compulsory, diversify the range of languages offered, and require proficiency goals to be obtained before graduation.
- 2- Provide teachers with the necessary tools to be the key motivator. Teachers must have resources to access their students' views on their

learning. Moreover, in-service training can help teachers teach autonomous and flexible approaches to learning. Also, more planning time and classroom support (assistants, computers, books, etc.) will help teachers be motivators.

3- Decrease class size and increase the length and frequency of lessons. However, new standards and tighter budgets tend to lead to larger classes and less time for foreign languages and this trend needs to be reserved.

4- Provide learners with non-traditional feedback. Because students value regular feedback on their performance, it should be given in ways that differ from the traditional measure of giving out grades. Progress can be reported informally and frequently in a positive, conversational format.

5- When cultural excursions or visits to the target language country are incorporated in the curriculum, more emphasis should be given to preparation and follow-up. Cultural excursions and immersion in the target countries should have more of a role in classroom activities, both before and after return from such adventures.

6- Emphasize culture more. Teachers and schools need to prevent stereotyping and other prejudices that can be based on ignorance or mundane, outdated materials. The country should come to the students, i.e., to have foreign nationals visit the classroom, and visit local businesses that communicate and trade with speakers of the language. (p 200-204)

As many other researchers interested in finding ways to promote motivation, Keller (1983) presented an instructional design model for motivation 'The ARCS Model of Motivational Design' which is based upon a number of motivational theories and concepts most notably 'Expectancy-value Theory'. Keller's model identifies four essential strategy components for motivating instruction. Each component is divided into three sub-components:

1- Attention strategies for stimulating and sustaining curiosity and interest.

These include:

a- Perceptual Stimulation which provides novelty, surprise, incongruity, etc. For example, the teacher places a sealed box covered with question marks on a table in front of the class.

b- Inquiry Stimulation which stimulate curiosity by posing questions or problems to solve. For example, the teacher presents a scenario of a problem situation and asks the class to brainstorm possible solutions based on what they have learnt in the lesson.

d- Variability through incorporating a range of methods and media to meet students' varying needs.

2- Relevance strategies that link to learners' needs, interests, and motives.

They include:

a- Goal Orientation: It presents the objectives and useful purpose of the instruction and specific methods for successful achievement.

b- Motive Matching. Objectives should be matched to students' needs and motives. For example, the teacher allows his students to present their projects in writing or orally to accommodate different learning needs and styles.

c- Familiarity. The teacher presents content in ways that are understandable and that are related to the learners experience and values.

3- Confidence strategies that help students develop a positive expectation for successful achievement. They include:

a- Learning Requirements: The teacher informs students about learning and performance requirements and assessment criteria by providing, for instance, a list of assessment criteria for the students' research projects and circulates examples of exemplary projects from past years.

b- Success Opportunities. The teacher can provide challenging and meaningful opportunities for successful learning.

c- Personal Responsibility. It involves linking learning success to students' personal effort and ability through oral or written feedback.

4- Satisfaction strategies that provide extrinsic and intrinsic reinforcement for effort. They comprise:

a- Intrinsic reinforcement. The teacher should support and intrinsic enjoyment of the learning experience.

b- Extrinsic Rewards. They provide positive reinforcement and motivational feedback. For example, awarding students with certificates as they master the complete set of skills.

c- Equity. It maintains consistent standards and consequences for success. For example, after the completion of a term project, the teacher provides evaluative feedback using the criteria described in the class.

Keller's ARCS model is well-known and widely applied in the instructional domain of foreign language teaching. Simple, yet powerful, it based its strategies on the notion of 'effort' which is identified as the major motivational outcome.

Harris (1991), in his turn, proposes some ideas for motivating students. These are summarized as follows:

- **Challenge students** by encouraging them to take risks, giving them; thus, the opportunity to discover the relationship between effort and success, and between success and motivation and to develop higher self-concept. If the students do not see the need to make an effort, they

sometimes will not bother to make one. Even brilliant students are not motivated to achieve if the work is too easy.

- **Use rewards with caution.** Students who do not yet have powerful intrinsic motivation to learn can be helped by extrinsic motivators in the form of rewards. A kind of recognition to a student's behavior has proved to increase his motivation and self-esteem. Rewards are more effective when used with weak students and only for a short time because a long use reinforces external control. The best reward, however, is self-satisfaction that comes as a result of effort and success.

- **Offer choices:** Offering choices about the topic, the method or the material is taking advantages of student's interests motivate them, improve their sense of responsibility and develop ownership. Harris (1991: 15) says:

When children are offered opportunities to make decisions they learn a great deal about the consequences of their choices. They also learn to value themselves and their own decision-making ability.

- **Teach students to evaluate themselves:** The teacher can help students to be 'realistic' in evaluating their own performance; i.e. not to be too hard and not too generous about themselves. Students' self evaluation is often difficult for the first few attempts. Students want to achieve a high evaluation but are reluctant to brag about their success. The ability to

realistically evaluate one's performance combined to the teacher's confidence on his students' judgment empowers greatly motivation.

- **Make students feel welcome and supported.** The teacher's positive attention can be a highly motivating factor if given reasonably; otherwise, it can reinforce poor motivation. The teacher takes time to know his students: their interests, need, problems. This 'sympathy' can be towards underachieving students to help them overcome their defeat and increase their feeling of self-confidence, but can be also towards good students to praise their efforts. Indeed "A word of encouragement during a failure is worth more than a whole lot of praise after a success." (Cited in <http://teachers.net.gazette>)

- **Use positive emotions.** It had been proved that people remember better when their learning is accompanied with strong emotions. These can be created by the teacher's attitudes during, for example, something unexpected or outrageous. Harris (1991) suggests:

The day you come to class with a bowl on your head and speak as an alien observer about human will be a day and a lesson your students will remember. Don't be afraid to embarrass yourself to make a memorable point.

- **Have students participate.** Just like adults, students love to be needed. Getting students involved in activities such as bringing magazines, making researches in library, rearranging chairs for group work, helping to decide what to do and how to do it will boost their self-esteem and make them feel useful. Students will see themselves as necessary, integral, and contributing as their teacher.

- **Use collaboration instead of competition.** Competition increases performance, but collaboration increases learning. The teacher has to teach students how to work with each other, by engaging them in pair or group activities. It is an effective way to reduce performance anxiety and to increase confidence. Competition, on the other hand, can be really productive when made against oneself. It encourages students to see failure as appositive experience.

- **Create activities that foster real communication.** Students find it really useful to learn English when the aim is to communicate. Working on projects as writing articles for the corpus columns or corresponding with students of other countries, make the learners' enthusiasm growing up.

- **Make difficult tasks more manageable:** Students will feel their motivation increasing if they can make difficult tasks easier by breaking

them into a series of smaller parts through very defined steps. As each small part is achieved a measure of success is attained and thus the enthusiasm will mount up. This prevents students from becoming overwhelmed and discouraged by lengthy projects.

- **Use variety:** the teacher should vary in topics, activities, materials, the teaching method, etc not to fall into boredom and routine. Good and Brophy (1990: 402) say: "...teacher also need incorporate variety and occasional pauses into the classroom routine to reinvigorate student motivation throughout the entire school year."

- **Provide a secure environment:** First, at home where the parents have to support their children learning through creating a quiet, well-lit place where the student is free from distractions. Parents should allow their children to have time breaks. They should also be available and help them but not doing the work for them. Second, at school where the cognitive and affective aspects of teacher-student interaction determinate the student level of motivation and thus achievement. The teacher, in class, should provide a safe climate physically (a well organized space, quiet) and emotionally (friendly tone voice, justified criticism, etc). Moreover, students should be permitted to fail without penalty. They should learn that they can and must learn from their mistakes.

- **Have a sense of humor:** The most common descriptor of an effective teacher is 'enthusiastic'. Enthusiasm and laughter are often infectious; indeed, Korokin (1988; in Khier *et al.*, 1999: 400) states: "Judicious use of humor by the teacher sets students at ease and reduces the inherent inequality of the status relationship and the situation with the students". It has been proved that humor is useful in facilitating attention and comprehension and in enhancing motivation. It is described as a teaching technique for developing a positive learning environment and is seen as a powerful tool in building a sense of community, promoting creativity and reduces conflict. The teacher can implement humor in a number of ways; telling jokes, riddles, puns, funny stories, humorous comments, etc. However, the teacher should be careful not to make laugh at the expense of a pupil, or in a bad way because "inappropriate use of humor creates a hostile learning environment that quickly stifles communication and self-esteem." (Loomans and kolberg, 1993; in *ibid*). Hence, humor should be nurtured then integrated in class.

- **Use appropriately teaching aids.** Teaching aids or media are tools used to improve the learner's skills and facilitate the learning process as they relieve anxiety and boredom since they're considered as games. They are helpful in enhancing student's motivation through creating interest and making the course more dynamic. They also "form a variable point of

departure for achieving lesson objectives” (Briton 1997; in Celce-Murcia, 2001: 461). They are divided into three categories: visual, audio and audio-visual.

1- **Visual aids:** They are all what can be seen in the classroom while language is presented, going from the participants, their behaviour, the objects used, etc. The most common -that are available for FL teachers- are the textbook the board, and the pictures/images. The textbook is useful in improving the student’s skills -especially listening and reading- and in increasing their motivation. O’Neill (1982; in Hedge, 2000: 36) emphasized their utility saying that:

They can offer a grammatical and functional framework which provides for the common needs of a group of learners; they allow students to prepare in advance; they provide quality of presentation and they do not necessarily prevent a creative spinning-off the classroom into all kinds of other activities.

In addition, textbooks provide teachers a consistent syllabus and vocabulary, satisfactory language control and several motivating topics. They also “provide teachers under pressure with the reassurance that, even when they forced to plan at the last moment, they will be using material which they can have confidence in”. (Harmer, 2001: 304)

Some teachers find textbooks boring and inappropriate and prefer bringing their personal ‘touch’ and rely on their own ideas or on their student’s ideas. However, they may feel themselves ‘locked into the book’, when they have sometimes no other alternative unless using its content as the only material available. One solution is to use creativity and improvisation. At the same time, the teacher should use textbooks’ appropriateness in terms of content, sequencing and difficulty; but also, he has to consider their availability, design, methodology and many other points. He may omit a lesson and replace it with another; change some points of the lesson he sees inappropriate, and add things (activities, exercises) of his own.

Another wide used visual aid is the board. It is the most basic and versatile piece of teaching equipment. Teachers see it as the most useful of all visual aids in presenting and practicing language because it provides “a motivational focal point during whole-class grouping” (Harmer 2001: 137). The board can be used as a ‘note pad’ to write new or unfamiliar words for students to remember, as an ‘explanation aid’ in explaining tenses or showing the position of stress and intonation in a phonemic transcription of a word, as a ‘picture frame’ to draw symbols, pictures, diagrams, tables, etc. It is also usually used as a ‘public workbook’ through completing a dialogue or a paragraph, or to correct some mistakes the teacher made on

purpose. It can be also employed as a 'game board' when doing a spelling game or resolving a cross word puzzle. It can be a 'Notice Board' as well, when teachers stick things such as pictures, posters, charts, etc to be seen by all students in the class.

A third type of visual aids is the pictures/graphics and images. They are of a great utility and facility especially when teachers "are not confident about drawing on the board may prefer to use visual materials which have been prepared before the class" (Davies and Pearse, 2000: 158). They are ready made materials that can be drawn by the teacher himself or cut out of magazines, newspapers, books, etc. Pictures as flash cards, wall-charts or cue cards-generally used with beginners- are very motivating as they are attractive in shape and colour. They also introduce the communicative aspect of language through 'communication games' with activities such as 'describe and draw' or 'story telling'. Associating a picture to a reading text makes this latter more appealing. Indeed, it engages students to work on the text and gives them a general view about it before starting to read it. The teacher's role is to check their appropriateness in terms of aim, culture, student's level and needs. They have to be visible to be seen by all students wherever sitting in the class.

Another visual aid is the overhead projector. It is one of the most flexible and useful teaching aid. It does not require much effort using it or carrying it around. It goes with the 'overhead transparencies' which can show texts, exercises, pictures, diagrams, student's writings, etc. The OHP is a gain of time and effort, i.e, the teacher is not obliged to write on the board, and materials (transparencies) can be prepared in advance, thus things are well organized and mistakes avoided. The OHP is still an extremely useful aid in maintaining student's interest and in developing their guessing and interpretation abilities.

2- Audio aids: they are very useful materials used to facilitate learning by making the course more interesting and enjoyable. They are very efficient especially in teaching L2 because they provide learners with the native speaker's language. Audio aids comprise the tape recorder and the language laboratory.

The audio cassette/ tape recorder is very important in teaching the spoken language and in improving student's receptive skills especially listening. It provides models for pronunciation and guided conversation work as they represent authentic native speaker's language. Indeed, students have the opportunity to practice and develop their oral skills through listening to different contexts and places. Chan (2004) argues:

The use of audiotape is essential in the oral skills classes. For respective skills development, the tape player is the easiest way for students to listen to a variety of speakers on a variety of topics in a variety of genres. For productive skills, the audiotape recorder is currently the most accessible piece of voice recording equipment.

Hubbard *et al.* (1991: 87) add that taped materials are often used “to bring sound effects into the classroom to be used as cues for drills and sound stories”. The tape recorder is also used to play back previously recorder material. It is a way to evaluate the students’ speaking skill and provide feedback, and for students to estimate their level and follow their progress. For taped materials to achieve their goal, they should be clear, of appropriate speed, realistic in order to be interesting and motivating.

The other most used audio aid is the language laboratory. It is a sophisticated piece equipment which shape and organization permit students to work on their own; individually, poured or in groups. Thus, interaction is facilitated and encouraged. Labs provide also privacy and independence to students. Underwood (1991: 85) says:

If your class is working in a language laboratory, most students will be able to concentrate for a little longer. This is partly because they are, as it were, ‘alone’, and partly because they are able to control their own machines.

Language laboratories permit students check their progress in pronunciation by recording their own and comparing it with the original version without necessarily the intervention of the teacher. Moreover, students have their motivation increased because they're offered the autonomy they wish; in the same time they feel confident knowing their teacher next to them, guiding them when necessary.

3- Audiovisual Aids: They are the combination of audio and visual material. They bring both sound and image into the language classroom, thus offering extra dimensions to both teaching and learning. They include videotapes and computers. The videotape is a powerful and useful educational equipment in language teaching because it brings the outside world into the classroom, thus providing an authentic aspect of the language. Students see and listen to native speakers: their pronunciation, accent, culture, attitudes, etc. Moreover, it raises students' motivation and interest as they are attracted to see and learn the language in use. Students can also make their own video-clips using video cameras themselves. It is an enjoyable way to use the language creatively and communicatively.

The teacher's role is to control the relevance of all sections of a video in a discreet way not to disturb the student's concentration. Moreover, the teacher should select the material according to well set objectives, bearing in mind his learner's level, interests, needs, etc.

In these recent years, computers proved to be useful adjuncts in second language learning. This piece of technology is seen by learners as the most exciting and motivating of all teaching aids. Working on it alone or under the teacher's control makes students really involved in doing their tasks. Besides its motivational effect, it works as a reference tool as it provides all sorts of information connected to teaching or to general facts about the world, whether through internet (web sites) or in encyclopedias available in CD-ROMs. It offers also teaching activities and testing programs such as grammar and vocabulary exercises, pronunciation practice, etc. furthermore, Internet provides learners with 'authentic English'. Students may have access to audio and visual material (on music, news, films,...) that can be read, seen and listened to. The teacher's role, however, is to keep an eye on what is heard and seen by students, because "though there are wonders and marvels a plenty on the Internet, there is a lot of rubbish too, and worse" (Harmer 2001: 150)

Whatever the method used and the aid employed, teachers agree that teaching aids can and do enhance language teaching. They assist them in their job, make the task of learning more meaningful and exciting through sharing a communicative context and providing cultural information, thus bringing the outside world into the classroom. However, before

incorporating any teaching aid, the teacher should consider the learner's level, needs, preferences and learning styles, but also the physical circumstances of the classroom.

Some students seem naturally enthusiastic about learning, but many need their instructors to inspire, challenge and stimulate them. As there is no magical formula for motivating students, the teacher has to consider the factors that affect his learners' desire to learn so that he can appropriately use the tricks and strategies that we have cited. Even if not all students are motivated in the same way, they generally react positively to these strategies and see their motivation enhanced and their learning promoted. For sure, the efforts to promote students' motivation need not be directed solely at students who have a low level of motivation. All students should benefit from higher levels of engagement and motivation to succeed. The teacher's role is to keep searching for new ideas of motivation not to push students into the circle of sameness and boredom.

II. Learners' Profile

1. Definition of 'learner'

To answer this question, we need, in fact, to know what is meant by the words: learn and learning at first. To learn (as a verb) means "to be or

become informed of or to hear something to gain knowledge for or skill in something through study, teaching, instruction or experience.” (Higgleton *et al.*, 2001: 397). Learning means “The knowledge gained through study”. (ibid). A learner, therefore, is someone who gained knowledge of something through different ways among which we’re teaching.

2. The role of the learner in the teaching-learning process

The traditional role of the learner had been (for long) of a passive listener speaking and acting only when pointed at. The interaction pattern is as usually “teacher→ learner taking the form of “teacher explanation→ learner silence or teacher model→ learner choral repetition”. (Davies and Pearse, 2000: 13) In learner-centered ELT, however, learners contribute to the overall design of course content and learning activities and the selection of learning procedures by bringing their own experiences and information into class. These information can involve, for example texts which learners find and for which they design reading activities.

Moreover; learners are encouraged to take a greater degree of responsibility for their own learning and success, and not only by contributing to a course of an activity design. Also, they are pushed to continue their learning outside the classroom, at home or in self-access facilities, and to apply appropriately and effectively their learning strategies

for planning, performing and monitoring their own independent learning of course, the learner needs, teacher's help and advice, even from distance.

In contributing to instruction design, the learner can research his needs, negotiate content, imply interest, and helps to monitor the progress of the course and thus of the process of learning. Learners have the opportunity to explore experiment, plan, initiate and organize their own work. In the classroom, they are free to participate, give opinion, ask questions, suggest, comment,...etc. However, the degree of learners' involvement and freedom is, most of times, controlled by the teacher and by contextual constraints as culture, styles and motivation.

3. Learners' differences

Each individual is unique and different from other s; thus, learners are not motivated in the same way and not at the same degree.

Motivation varies according to the learners' needs, competences, cognitive skills, etc. These should be taken into consideration by the teacher when choosing the teaching method, material, activities, ... in order to ensure success for all. McDonough (1980: 130) argues: "All teachers know that some of their students will cope easily with the learning material and activities and some will not. Some will succeed and others will no".

Furthermore, “Individual and group difference among students have implications for classroom management.” (Good and Brophy, 1996: 494).

Therefore, learners differ in many sides. Most of them are focused on as follows:

3.1 Age

Students of different ages have different abilities and need different degree of teacher’s attention. It is believed that children learn languages faster than adults do because, according to Harmer (2001: 37), it “has something to do with the plasticity of a brain.”

Pinker (1994) speaks also about the ability young people have to acquire a foreign language, he explains, “acquisition ... is guaranteed for children up to the age of six, is steadily compromised from them until shortly after puberty, and is rare thereafter.” (Pinker, 1994; in *ibid*). Children are also advantaged because they possess an extraordinary enthusiasm for learning and curiosity of the world surrounding them. They are creative, imaginative and active. They can be motivated easily even by very simple things, but they also get easily bored if activities are not extremely engaging. Teachers, then, have to be flexible and have to provide a wide variety of activities, using games, colors, gestures, etc, while always showing them care and encouragement.

Adolescents, however, are much harder to convince and satisfy, when considering adolescence a crucial age in which the individual forges his personality and identity. Adolescents do not need a special attention from the teacher, but are very sensitive to their classmates' approval.

In spite of having (sometimes) a disruptive behavior, which can be a proof of personal problems, boredom or de-motivation, they are very committed to things that interest them. They are creative and possess a great capacity for learning, as Ur (1996) suggests: "teenage students are in fact overall the best language learners." (cited in Harmer, 2001: 38)

The teacher's role is to "provoke students' engagement with material which is relevant and involving... to booster students' self esteem; and be conscious always of their need for identity, ..., give them tasks which they are able to do, rather than risk humiliating them." (ibid: 39)

Adult learners, by contrast, are disciplined, respectful and cooperative. They have a previous language background, bring a wide range of experiences to class and can engage in more communicative activities. They have well set goals and are able to sustain a level of motivation to face boredom, and lateness (in progress). They make more

effort than children or teenagers because of the fear of losing face and because of their willingness for a successful career. However, the teacher has sometimes to cope with adults' open disagreements and hostility. Therefore, he has to be understanding and keep encouraging students to use their best experiences and forget past failures. The teacher has also to involve the students in a more indirect learning, with a communicative goal, making it achievable but challenging in the same time.

3.2 Gender

In the past, formal education was exclusively designated to males as “reflecting the cultural expectations that males, but not females, would need education in academic subjects as preparation for occupational and social-political roles that they would play in society.” (Good and Brophy, 1990: 600). Furthermore, males were believed to have a greater aptitude for scientific fields and score higher on visual-spatial ability tests, whereas females have a better verbal ability, especially to learn foreign languages. Males are seen to be more active and interactive in class but require a greater attention from the teacher as they tend to misbehave. The teacher works longer with them in giving instruction and in controlling their activities. Females are rather reserved and passive.

Sadker and Sadker (1986, in *ibid.* , 602) added other differences including those in style and participation:

- Men speak more and tend to interrupt women.
- People tend to listen to men with greater attention than to women.
- Men are more active in conversation; women do passive listening.

Suggestions were made about teachers' treatment towards gender differences. One of these was that teachers were "more animated and also more detailed and specific when giving feedback to boys, ..., give boys detailed instructions and feedback that will enable them to do the tasks for themselves." (ibid). Teachers, moreover, tend to encourage boys' autonomy on learning and achievement. They praise their competence and correctness, but focus on neatness and clarity with girls.

In fact, these patterns of evaluating feedback are more favorable to boys as they emphasize their abilities and efforts to make success; thus developing their self-confidence. Girls, however, are generally attributed their success to the teacher's instructions and directions; this what often discourage them.

Gender differences should be counteracted; however, it is sometimes necessary to treat both sexes differently in order to compensate weaknesses, but the teacher has to motivate both genders fairly in order to develop their interest and willingness to make efforts.

3.3 Aptitude

It is quite common to hear people say ‘she has a flair for languages’, or even, more specifically, ‘He has a good ear for Languages’...., some people do indeed have an aptitude for language Learning.

(Hedge, 2000: 17)

McDonough (1981:17) defines aptitude as it “...generally refers to a disposition to be able to do something well”. Thus, each individual possesses a sort of ability which enables him to do any task (Learning a foreign language) as good as possible.

In fact, aptitude has been revealed to be not just a single ability but rather a combination of abilities, as Stern remarks: “...language aptitude is not a single factor, but a cluster of specific abilities.” (Stern 1983; in Spolsky, 1989: 104). These specific abilities were revealed by the aptitude tests that dated from the early 1930’s, but the most important work was done by Carroll and Sapon (1957; in *ibid*) who developed ‘the modern language aptitude test. Another work was done by Pimsleur (1961, in *ibid*) and his ‘Language Aptitude Battery’.

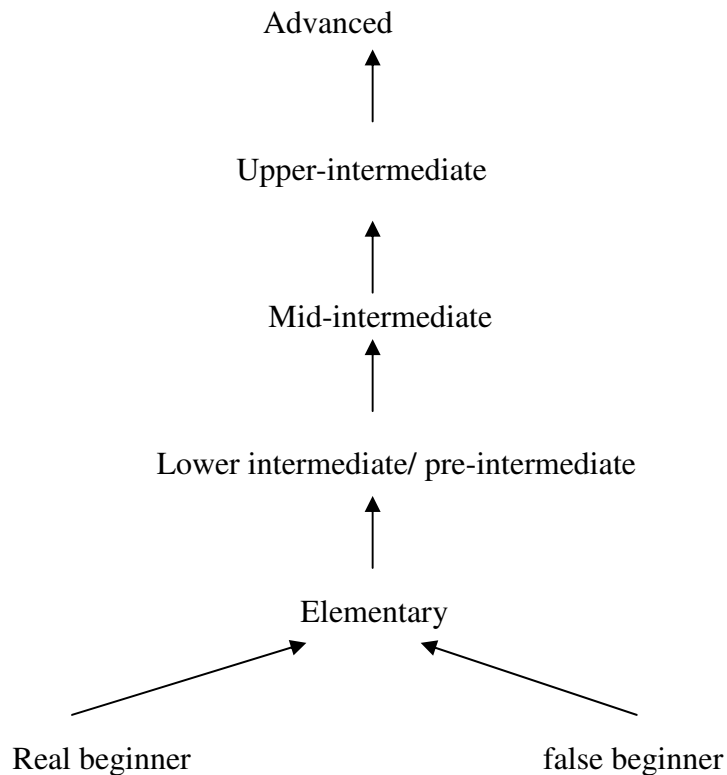
These tests were interesting for their practical usefulness. They all shared the claim that aptitude comprises three basic components. The first concerns a number of skills related to auditory ability; i.e., “the ability to

discriminate the sounds of the new language.” (ibid. , 106). The second is related to grammatical sensitivity, which is “the ability to break the stream of speech into constituents and to generalize about its structure.” (ibid), and the third ability is related to memory: the ability to remember words. A fourth component has been added later, it concerns inductive language learning ability, i.e. , “ability to identify patterns of correspondence and relationships involving form and meaning.” (Ellis, 2001)

Spolsky (1989: 106) confirms that “the more each capacity is developed in a learner, the faster control will be attained and the higher the potential level of success achieved”. Indeed, research has shown a fairly strong relationship between the tests (MLAT/PLAB) scores and measures of language proficiency.

3.4 Learners’ language levels

Language levels are determined by tests and examinations through grades. Three levels are generally described; the beginner, the intermediate and the advanced. There are also subcategories as it is shown in the following diagramme:



(Harmer, 2001. figure 11, p44)

However, these labels may vary according to the school or the education system; for example, what the teacher considers advanced learners may be intermediate for another. There are some points which are directly related to the students' level and which have to be considered by the teacher in planning the lesson, choosing materials, applying techniques, etc. These are summarized as follows:

- It is easier for beginner students to perceive their progress through time than it is for intermediate whose progress is more subtle. Students often get

lost and feel ‘the plateau effect’ where they “are inclined to accept the level they have reached as adequate for their needs and the limits of their capacity.” (Harmer, *ibid*: 44). In this case, the teacher has to re-motivate students by setting clear goals, presenting challenging but achievable activities and engaging their interest and making them do their best.

- Some techniques and activities types can be suitable for one level but not for another. For beginners, for example, the teacher uses repetition to teach them new vocabulary and opts for ‘easy’ activities. For advanced-level students, however, more complex activities are presented in which discussion and interaction is usually organized.

- The language used in class also varies in its complexity and fluency according to the level it is being taught.

- Last, but not least is the choice of the topic, especially those treated in course books. Complex issues that require complex language and abstract items must be left for advanced levels, where as for beginners, more simplified topics should be proposed to match their level.

3.5 Attitude towards the target language

The learner’s attitude towards the language has a crucial impact on the process of learning and motivation: a good/ positive attitude will foster

learning and leads to success, where as a bad/ negative attitude will hinder learning and results in failure. Wade and Travis (1990: 663) state: “attitudes influence how people see the world and the attributions they make to explain events”.

Having an attitude towards learning English is not just having a personal impression on the language; a preference or a rejection, but it is rather based on knowing some basics about it; its origin, development, culture (taught through it), but also its present status as a language of science, technology and communication. As people look differently to things, they consequently have different attitudes towards the language.

The first kind of attitude is related to integrativeness; i.e. , Seeing a language as a means to communicative with native speakers and as a way of being closer to ‘the community’. The second kind is related to the learning situation: the course and the teacher. The learner, here, has no-communicative objective and learns the target language just for the sake of learning it.

A strong relationship between attitude and motivation has been proposed by Gardner and MacIntyre (1993), that attitudes play an important role in supporting levels of motivation, which in turn, affect language learning. Gardner and MacIntyre (1993: 9) maintain that:

[...] language attitudes are shown as having a causal influence on motivation ... the point is, that motivation needs an affective basis to be maintained, and it seems reasonable to argue that attitudes serve this function.

3.6 Cognitive abilities (perception)

Perception is another characteristic proper to each individual. Wade and Travis (1990) define perception as “the process by which the brain organizes and interprets sensory information”. (G9 Glossary).

This shows that perception is an inner process related to senses that has its connection with the external world. Perception is an ability that makes us react to a stimulus, in the environment, in order to understand what is going on around us. Concretely, when given an activity, for example, some students may find it easy, other difficult because they perceive it differently according to the feeling of importance or relevance they have towards it. Wade and Travis (1990: 192) strung then this point using a set of metaphors, they say:

A camera doesn't care what it 'sees'. A tape recorder doesn't ponder what it "hears". But we human beings are different. Not only do we care about what we perceive, but our thoughts and feelings can influence our perceptions.

3.7 Learners' learning styles and strategies

Some linguists have the tendency to use the two terms as one, they claim for their interconnection, as Spolsky (1989: 109) maintains: "Learning strategy or style are terms used to describe identifiable individual approaches to learning situations".

Before him, Keefe (1979) defined them as "... cognitive, affective and physiological traits that are relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment". (Keefe, 1979; in *ibid*).

While some consider styles and strategies the same, others however, clearly differentiate between them arguing that the notion of style is the 'traits' related to personality; where as the strategy is rather an action, an effort to try to perform a task. So, in this study, we will follow the path of the second category of linguists and will consider each term independently.

3.7.1 Learning styles

The notion of 'style' is closely related to the notion of 'personality'. Many methodologists put several categorizations of learner styles. Wright (1987), for example, sets four distinct learning styles:

- **The enthusiast:** is the learner who considers the teacher a point of reference, and who shares the goals of the learning group.
- **The oracular:** who focuses also on the teacher but is concerned more with satisfying his/ her own goals.
- **The participator:** who is committed to his group and concentrate on their goals.
- **The revel:** who works with his group only to satisfy his own goals.

Another researcher, Willing (1987), tried to describe students' learning styles based on his own adult-students observation. He made four categories, summarized as follows:

- The converger:** is by nature solitary, introvert but independent and confident in his/ her own abilities. He is analytic, cool and pragmatic.
- The conformist:** prefers competence in language learning. He likes working in non-communicative classes and, dependent on the teacher.
- The concrete:** is also dependent on the teacher but enjoys the social aspect of learning. He is interested in performance rather than competence.
- The communicative:** is interested in social interaction and is confident in using the language out of class. He works independently from the teacher.

The teacher has to take into consideration these differences in learning styles and treats them accordingly. Therefore, the teacher can plan

the appropriate activities, make the most suitable grouping, and give more attention, feedback to those who need it most. Harmer (2001: 44) states:

It is not possible to cater for each preference all of the time, of course. Yet, over a period of time the attention we give to different learning styles will ensure that we do our best not only for the wide group but also for the individuals within in.

3. 7. 2 Learning strategies

Many researchers were interested in studying learning strategies, their use and the way they can be implemented in instruction. “to help students achieve a greater academic success” (Coyne *et al.*, 2002: 28), as well as to increase their motivation to do well in school.

Prawat (1989) refers to learning strategies to routines that lead to “the acquisition and utilization of knowledge” (cited in Spolsky, 1989: 31). Hedge (2000: 19) defines them as they’re “techniques used by learners to deal with input, assimilate new language, store, retrieve, and practice using it”. As many appellations they can have (routines, operations, actions, steps, ...). Learning strategies have a single role: helping learners improve their learning. Hedge proposed four kinds of strategies.

3. 7. 2. 1 Cognitive strategies

These help learners use their mental capacities to understand, process, and store information. They include six subcategories.

- **Clarification:** used to check the correctness of a rule or a language item constructed by the learner.
- **Guessing:** it is the way learners make hypotheses about how a language works.
- **Deductive reasoning:** used by learners to understand language using general rules.
- **Practice :** It is concerned with storage and retrieval of language, such as repetition and rehearsal
- **Memorization:** it is concerned also the storage and retrieved of information such as organizing items of a language for storage.
- **Monitoring:** when learns are checking their own performances through the observation of personal errors and how messages are received.

3. 7. 2. 2 Metacognitive Strategies

They help learners regulate and control their learning, they include four sub-categories:

Planning for learning, thinking about learning and how to make it effective, self-monitoring during learning, and evaluation how successful learning has been after working on language in some way.

(Hedge, 2000: 78)

- **Communication Strategies**

They are used by learners to develop and promote their communication skills with others. They are used when a speaker comes across a difficulty in communication because of insufficient knowledge about the language. These strategies are valuable because they keep learners involved in conversations through which they practise the language.

- **Socio-affective strategies**

They provide learners with opportunities to practice the target language, such as initiating conversations with native speakers, collaborating on tasks, listening or watching programs in the target language, etc.

In fact, all these strategies and others are used by learners to succeed in the tasks of learning a language. Some of these strategies are used consciously, while others are used unconsciously. Whatever their labels and categorization, they are very useful in providing learners with more self-reliance and autonomy in their learning.

Unquestionably, individual learners' differences affect motivation and learning. The teacher, in class, has to consider the differences in

aptitude, developmental level, age, abilities, personality, work-mode preferences..., by introducing some degree of differential treatment to accommodate them.

Also, the teacher has to adapt instruction to students' individual characteristics. He has, then, has to achieve congruence between these individual differences and many other variables as teaching material, methodology, learning styles and his own personality.

4. Characteristics of good/ motivated language learners

Each learner is unique and differs from the others in terms of personality, back ground, past learning experiences, attitude towards the target language, etc. All these make it difficult to establish distinct features and categorize learners as good ones. However, there are some common features available among almost all learners. For Harmer (1998:7); for example, “...*doing homework is the trademark of a good learner*”. Thus, being a good learner is simplified at doing ones homework.

From another perspective, good learners are seen to be “*Students who can find their one way,...., who are creative, ...make intelligent guesses, ...make their own opportunities for practice,... make errors work for than not against them*” (Rubin and Thompson; in Harmer 2001:42)

Therefore, a learner is good because he uses some specific learning strategies in the study of the foreign language which lead him to success.

Oxford, R. (1994) argues: “The conscious tailored use of such strategies is related to language achievement and proficiency”.

These strategies wouldn't be really effective provided that motivation takes place because motivated students are much more likely to be successful learners and tend to use more strategies than less motivated students.

Many researchers investigated the effect of motivation on learner's achievement. They conducted a study to find out the characteristics of motivated learners. Skinner and Belmont (1991) characterized the motivated students to engage in school as:

- Select tasks at the border of their competencies.
- Initiate action when given the opportunity.
- Exert intense effort and concentration in the implementation of learning tasks.
- Show positive emotions during ongoing action (enthusiasm, optimism, curiosity, interest).

Based on the large study conducted by Naiman et al. in 1978 about successful learning, Carter and Nunan (2002) summarized some features proper to motivated learners.

- Positive task orientation: The learner is willing to tackle tasks and challenges, and has confidence of his success.

- Ego involvement: The learner sees his success in learning the target language important in order to maintain and promote his own self image.
- Need for achievement. The learner perceives achievement as a need. He overcomes difficulties and obstacles to attain the set goal.
- High aspirations: The learner is optimistic. He goes for demanding challenges, high proficiency, top grades, etc, in brief 'success'.
- Goal orientation: The learner has a total awareness of the goals of learning, and works toward achieving them.
- Perseverance. The learner continually invests high efforts in learning. Failure or lack of progress do not discourage him/her.
- Tolerance of ambiguity. Brudner (1962) describes it as "*the tendency to perceive, ...ambiguous situations as sources of threat*". (cited in Carter and Nunan, 2002: 141). The learner is not lost in confusing situations. He knows that it is temporary. He is patient and confident that clarity and understanding will come later.
- Tolerance for critic and correction. The learner uses feedback intelligently from the teacher, listens to his comments and accepts to be corrected.
- Focus on communication. The learner has a strong drive to communicate. He always looks for patterns in the target language and is aware of the message he wants to transmit. "*He realizes the need to go and seek opportunities to real people*". (*ibid.* , 150)

- Focus on practice. The learner seeks fluency. The need for communication makes him work for performance and not only for competence. He monitors his own speech and that of others.

Hogan et al. (2006) add some other features:

- Participation. Learners take an active part, working with each other on the set task, willing to 'have a go' even if they find the activity difficult or unfamiliar.

- Attention. Learners listen to the teacher and to other learners carefully.

- Preparation. Learners prepare before coming to class.

- Interest. Learners show interest in the material, asking questions and displaying their curiosity.

Success in language learning depends on the learner himself. A sort of autonomy should be present, added to a real interest and a strong motivation in the subject. The role of the teacher is great in motivating learners to be high achievers. Furthermore, their success in the process of learning can be achieved through the teacher's awareness and guidance.

5. Characteristics of demotivated language learners:

Before speaking about demotivated learner's features, we should first tackle with 'demotivation', a notion drawn by Dornyei (2001) who refers it as the first cause to language learning failure. Dornyei (2001:143)

says that demotivation concerns “the specific forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioural intention or an ongoing action”. It is also “*the various negative influences that cancel out existing motivation*”. (ibid. , 141). Furthermore, Dornyei distinguishes between ‘demotivation’ and ‘amotivation’ . This latter is a term used by Deci and Rayan (1985) in their ‘Self determination theory’.

Amotivation refers to “A lack of motivation brought by a realization that “ there is no point ‘ or ‘ it’s beyond me’ ...” (ibid. , 143). It is related to general outcome expectations that are deemed to be unrealistic. Demotivation, meanwhile, is related to specific external causes. Generally speaking, a ‘demotivated’ learner is someone who was once motivated but lost his or her interest for some reason. Whether caused by internal or external forces, ‘demotives’ affect the learner’s motivation (negatively) and this success.

There are certain outward signs that can’t be missed within a demotivated person; however, there are also inward signs difficult to perceive.

According to Denny (2006: 8), the most flagrant outward sign is the learner’s appearance. He says: “ People take less care o their hair , they

don't make an effort with their clothes,..., and either put on weight or lose weight”.

Moreover, demotivated learners show a sad facial expression, having “the corner of their mouth turning down instead of up” (ibid).

Another important indicator is what demotivated learners say. They express pessimistic thought, using expressions like’ *I can't* , ‘ *It's too hard*’, ‘*I am fed up*’, ‘*I don't want to*’, etc. Denny (2006), then, deals with less apparent signs as lack of confidence, which may be caused by childhood conditioning or someone’ hearting words. A demotivated learner worries all the time about failure consequences, he feels the fear that if he makes a mistake, he would lose face in front of the teacher and peers. Furthermore, he feels unimportant useless. This may be expressed by ‘*Nobody cares about me*’, ‘*I am insignificant*’ , etc. He has a low self-esteem; he is not self-confident and feels inferior to others. More than that, he is depressive and likes solitude.

Chambers’ (1993) study on low achievers in U.K was based on the assumption that “ the biggest problem is posed by those pupils who are quite able but do not want to learn a foreign language and make sure that the teacher knows it.” (Chambers 1993; in Dornyei, 2001: 147). Chambers bases his work on characterizing demotivated students on some teachers’ questionnaires outcomes.

- Demotivated learners make no effort to learn, show no interest, demonstrate poor concentration, produce little homework, fail to bring materials;
- Demonstrate lethargy and give negative response to praise.
- Are unwilling to cooperate, distract other students, throw things, shout out.

While teachers relate their students' demotivation to a variety of causes; students, however, put the blame on their teachers and asks for more attention. Chambers notes: "Pupils identified as demotivated do not want to be ignored or given up a bad job; in spite of their behaviour, they want to be encouraged." (Chambers 1993; in *ibid*)

Hogan *et al.* (2006) add other characteristics. They are summarized in the following points. Students:

- Tend to arrive late to class.
- Are listless and restless during the session.
- Disagree with each other and experience conflict.
- Do not retain what they have learned.
- Complain about the lack of relevance of learning materials.

Surely it is the role of the teacher to change this status: to implement motivation in learners and guide them to achieve success in

learning the target language. The success of the process can only be with the existence of awareness of teachers in doing their job. Gephardts (1992; in Kral 1994: 7) confirms:

Awareness of teaching is empowering. The more interest teachers have in gaining awareness of how they teach, the more freedom they have to direct their teaching toward successful student learning.

6. Causes of learners' demotivation

At an early age, children appear to be propelled by curiosity. They are driven by an intense need to explore, interact with, and make sense of their environment. Unfortunately, as they grow, they are seen to have their passion for learning decrease. They begin associating it with drudgery instead of delight, and start failing to invest themselves fully in the experience of learning. There is no question that there are motivational influences that exert a bad effect on learner motivation; that is, instead of energizing action, 'de-energize' it.

A wide research has been undertaken to find out what caused demotivation as it became a frequent phenomenon related to the teacher's interaction with students. However, what teachers see as causes to low motivation, students attribute them to the teachers themselves. Chambers's (1993) study on teachers and students of four schools in Leeds showed the opinion of both sides on causes of demotivation. From the teacher perspective, demotivation is due to psychological, attitudinal, social,

geographical and historical causes. Hence, the student can't be responsible for all of them. Some of these factors are summarized in the following points:

- Reduced self-confidence: Learners lack a belief in their own capacities. They are the fear of failure because of a past learning experience. They may also compare their results with those of their mates (having better average results).
- Negative attitudes towards L2: Learners think of the second/foreign language as compulsory; they do not perceive its relevance in their everyday lives. They dislike the way it sounds and/or operates.
- Negative attitude towards the L2 community: Learners see the foreign culture not attractive, perhaps because of a lack of information about it.
- Learn against their will: Learners feel forced to choose the foreign language course because they had no other choice or because of parental pressure.
- Peer group pressure: Learners are often underestimated by their peers or rejected of the group because of a low average level, a social disadvantage, etc.
- Irrelevant course book content: Texts are irrelevant to learner's culture, interests, and needs. They contain too easy or too difficult tasks.
- Inflexible timetables: These would permit learners work on their own pace and have extra-motivating assignments.

- Inadequate school facilities: The classrooms are too crowded; students are not all in the same level, frequent change of teachers, etc.
- Lack of parental support and encouragement.

From the student's perspective (191 students who were administered a questionnaire), the causes of demotivation totally differ. The whole responsibility of student's demotivation is thrown into teachers faces. "What emerges most clearly from the reports of inspectors of schools is that the pupils most likely to behave badly are those who have been badly taught" (Daily Telegraph, 1995; in Chambers, 1999: 7).

When asked about their demotivation to learn the foreign language, most answers depict the teacher to be the direct cause. He has been criticized about his personality, commitment, competence and teaching methods. A sample of students' answers is summarized in the following points:

- The teacher hypercriticizes students for failure and praises them less for success.
- He has a low expectation on students.
- He shows favouritism. The teacher is concerned with good students and pays less attention to individual learning difficulties.

- He publicly humiliates students and shouts at them when they do not understand.
- He asks unrealistic demands on students, gives them difficult tasks to make projects whereas necessary materials are unavailable.
- He gives irrelevant, insufficient feedback, or neglects to give it.
- He does not give sufficient explanations when asking students to do something.
- He does not give enough challenging tasks for high achiever students.
- He is boring and uses routine methods, old-fashioned teaching materials, repetitive and irrelevant activities, etc.
- He is not well prepared to present and conduct the lesson.
- He lacks enthusiasm and is close-minded or too open-minded.

What we can glean from the students' answers presented above is that demotivation is a salient phenomenon that should concern every classroom practitioner. It goes without saying that it is a complex issue that has to be deeply analysed. There are so many factors that affect student motivation, not the least of which is the role of the teacher. Effective teachers are not necessary those who successfully transfer information. Rather, the possible impact of 'good teachers' consists in their strong commitment towards the subject matter which becomes 'infectious'; i.e.,

instils in students the willingness to pursue knowledge. Only motivated teachers can 'produce' motivated learners.

Conclusion

In concluding terms, one could say that good knowledge of learners' different characteristics helps determine what role the teacher should play in class. Acting as a motivator and as a communicator are in fact the two most important teachers' roles, though they are not easy, especially in large classes. Teachers need to explore the findings of all aspects of language and psychology and need to know hundreds of strategies to know first the needs, difficulties and interests of their learners; then, start practising motivational strategies in all stages of the process of learning inside and outside the classroom.

CHAPTER THREE

Analysis of the Questionnaires and the Classroom Observation

Introduction	125
1. Research Design	128
1.1 Choice of the Method	128
1.2 Sample of the Study	129
1.3 Data Gathering Tools	130
1.3.1 The Questionnaires	130
1.3.1.1 Students' Questionnaire	130
a- Aim of the Questionnaire	130
b- Description of the Questionnaire	131
c- Analysis of the Results	133
1.3.1.2 Teachers' Questionnaire	157
a- Aim of the Questionnaire	157
b- Description of the Questionnaire	158
c- Analysis of the Results	159
1.3.2 Classroom Observation	182
Conclusion	185

Introduction

In this practical part of our research work, we try to prove the significance of the teacher's motivational role in the enhancement of the students' communication; i.e. helping students achieve better results in their communicative proficiency. Before doing so, we found it logical to investigate how students perceive motivation in learning English and promoting communication and how they consider their teacher's role in fostering motivation and developing their communicative abilities. We have also investigated how teachers judge motivation as a means to develop their students' communicative competence, and how they see their role in fostering it.

In order to conduct our investigation, we have relied on two data gathering tools: the questionnaire and classroom observation. The major tools were the questionnaires addressed to the first-year students of English at Mohamed Khider University of Biskra and to the teachers of oral of the same department. In addition we have used 'a classroom observation'; attending several sessions (eight) of oral expression with four teachers in order to observe both teachers and students in the teaching learning process. First, by observing students' behavior in class, their techniques, class management, etc, and by observing students' reactions and attitudes towards their teachers' styles, methods; techniques, etc.

This part is divided into three main sections. The first one is an introductory section with some basic clarifications about the field work, including the nature and choice of the research method used and the sample. The second section is devoted to the analysis of the questionnaires with both participants. This includes the aim; description and the analysis of the questionnaires results. And finally; the third section relates to the classroom observation during different oral expression sessions.

This part also provides an overview of the department of English in the University of Biskra. It ends, then, with a general conclusion that includes some pedagogical implications.

The present study is concerned with the first-year students of the classical system in Biskra University. Their number is 202 divided into 6 groups, each group contains between 32 and 38 students.

The first-year programme includes seven modules of 1 and ½ hour for each session.

- Written expression —————> 4 and ½ hours (3 sessions a week)
- Oral expression —————> 3 hours (2 sessions a week)
- Grammar —————> 3 hours (2 sessions a week)
- Phonetics —————> 1 and ½ hour (1 session a week)

- Linguistics —————> 1 and ½ hour (1 session a week)
- General Culture —————> 1 and ½ hour (1 session a week)
- Arabic —————> 1 and ½ hour (1 session a week)

We may observe that the time allotted to each module differs. The greater amount of time is devoted to written expression and to a lesser degree oral expression and grammar, whereas phonetics and linguistics are only given one hour and a half per week. More importance is given to W.E and grammar so as to develop linguistic competence, and less importance is given to phonetics though being essential besides oral expression to develop students' oral proficiency.

The lack of qualified teachers, the increasing number of students, their low level, the scarcity of resources, the bad distribution of sessions, the inadequacy of the syllabus programme and lesson contents,... etc, make the situation quite frustrating.

1. Research Design

1. 1 Choice of the method

The choice of the method is determined by the nature of the problem. This research work follows the Descriptive Method because it can determine the facts about the actual situation -students' difficulty in achieving communicative proficiency- and thereby to clarify the lack of motivation that is the source of the problem and that teacher's intervention as an essential motivator is probably the solution.

Furthermore, we think that this method is the most appropriate in conducting this work because of the following reasons:

- To describe the present condition of the Algerian university students' way of learning English, highlighting the actual role of the teacher in class.
- The impossibility to experiment all the elements that the teacher may use while acting as a motivational factor: we mean all the strategies and techniques such as audio-visual aids, computer assisted technology, games, etc.
- To state the different theories of motivation and to prove (through interpreting the results collected by the data-gathering tools) that the teacher is the best motivational source in the students' improvement of communicative learning.

- To state the different roles of the teacher in class.
- To enumerate the techniques and strategies that the teacher is to use to improve his students' motivation, focusing on what Harmer (2001: 64) states: "...apart from the roles which we adopt in the classroom and the way these roles are performed, we are also a kind of teaching aid ourselves, a piece of teaching equipment in our right."

1. 2 The sample of the study

Motivation is essential to success in any field. Therefore, it is needed by all learners at all levels. For this research work, we have selected a representative sample in an objective way. First-year students were chosen to be the center of the investigation for a number of reasons:

- They have already a background of five years (two years in Middle School and three years in Secondary School)
- They are preparing their BA degree and their future carries in the same time.
- They have to be introduced to the communicative aspect of learning English right from the first year.

The method used is Random Sampling in which there is no scope for subjectivity or bias. From a population of 202 students, 100 students were selected randomly to be our sample. This represents more than three groups, and equates to 49.5 % of the target population.

1.3 The data gathering tools

The objectives of data gathering tools depend on the overall objective of our research. The present research work aims first at diagnosing the students' motivation in learning English and their ability to communicate effectively. Second, it aims at showing that students really need an extra motivator factor (added to their intrinsic motivation) to develop their communicative abilities in speech. So, we have opted for two main gathering tools: a questionnaire and a classroom observation. The latter has been added to consolidate the questionnaires' findings.

These are going to be dealt separately in what follows:

1.3.1 The Questionnaires

1.3.1.1 Students' questionnaire

a- Aim of the questionnaire

We have designed a questionnaire for first- year students to investigate whether they dispose of any motivation that would help them

improve their level in communication and how they consider their teachers as motivators to make them achieve their goals.

The questionnaire is equally meant to find out and evaluate the needs of students at the level of motivation and their ability to use their communicative skills and to see how teachers can adopt the conditions to improve the situation.

b- Description of the questionnaire

The questionnaire is designed to gather information about the students themselves, their desire to learn English, their attitudes towards the language, their behavior in class, the classroom atmosphere, their perception of their needs, their teachers' roles, and their perception of communication and their ability to use English communicatively.

The questionnaire was handed to one hundred (100) first-year students at the English Department, Mohamed Khider University of Biskra during the academic year 2007- 2008. The sample represents 49.5% of the whole population (nearly the half) which includes 202 students, among them 135 girls, 61 boys and 5 foreign students. Only 87 papers were returned.

Students who received the questionnaire in their classes have been provided with explanations of all the terms in each question as well as the aim underlying each question. With some students (60 that equals 29,7%), we had the opportunity to spend a whole session with them. We gave them the time and the opportunity to think and fill the questionnaire, and then we gathered the papers. The rest of the students (40 that equals 19,8%), however, filled the questionnaire at home because they did not have enough time to do it in class. Some students returned the papers back; others did not as they forgot or kept absent because it was the end of the year and found it unnecessary to come again to university.

The questionnaire contains 39 questions divided into 3 main sections: background information, motivation and communication and an additional section for suggestions. The questionnaire consists of 29 closed questions that require from the students to answer from a number of possibilities. Students, in most cases, have to justify their choices. And there are 10 open questions which require from the students to give full answers or to express their opinion. What follows is a detailed description of the sections:

Section one: It consists of 6 questions which seek for personal information about the student himself: age, sex, the reason of the choice for learning English, ability to understand the language, etc.

Section two: It is related to the students' motivation to learn the language. It consists of 10 questions. In this section, students are asked about their attitudes and motivation to learn English as well as how they evaluate their motivation in class and what they prefer as the modules, methods, materials,...etc.; and their opinion about what qualities a teacher should possess .

Section three: It refers to the communicative abilities and the ways of promoting them. It consists of 13 questions which closely deal with communication: the subjects, methods, activities, and techniques implied. It also seeks at knowing the difficulties students have with communicative skills.

c - Analysis of the students' questionnaire

Item 1: Age

Age	17/20	21/23	24/39
N	47	28	12
%	54.02	32.18	13.79

Table 1: Age Distribution

We notice that the majority of first year students (included in the sample) are between 17 and 20. A few are between 21 and 23; and a little

number transgresses 24 years to reach till 39. This distribution leads us to infer the different levels of ability and the diverse backgrounds.

Item 2: Sex

Sex	males	Females
N	22	65
%	25.28	74.71

Table 2: Sex Distribution

The great majority of respondents are females. Indeed, the number of boys in classes is very few (we may sometimes find only 2 boys in a class).

Item 3: Why have you chosen to learn English?

Reason	Travel to foreign countries	Get a job	Read and listen to media	Parental pressure	Finding no other choice	other	2+3
N	6	25	32	2	2	3	19
%	6.89	28.73	36.78	2.29	2.29	3.44	21.83

Table 3: Reasons for choosing to learn English.

We remark that the majority of students have chosen to learn English in order to read and listen to English speaking/writing media for information or pleasure. This proves that they process a high intrinsic

motivation. A less number have chosen English for getting a better chance to have a job, because they know that in many domains, mastering English is required. For those who made a tick on the ‘other’ case, reasons differ: some have chosen English because they like the language, others because they want to continue their studies and graduate; another student wants to write stories in English. Whatever the reason, mastering the language means mastering the language skills especially speaking. This needs more motivation by the teacher, as well as by parents, peer or society.

Item 4: Have you ever been to an English speaking country?

Visiting an English speaking country	Yes	No
N	5	82
%	5.74	94.25

Table 4: Number of students who visited an English speaking country

Unsurprisingly, the majority of respondents answered ‘no’, simply because it is not so easy to travel to such countries (it’s too far, too expensive, language and culture barriers, etc). For those who answered ‘yes’, they’ve been asked to mention the country they visited and for what reason. One student went to Nigeria for personal reasons, another went to the USA for tourism, and the 3 others went to England for holidays or to visit a relative.

Item 5: Do you correspond with a person from an English speaking country?

English pen friend correspondence	Yes	No
N	5	82
%	5.74	94.25

Table 5: Number of students corresponding with an English speaking pen friend

We notice that the results of this table and the one above are identical for the simple reason that those students who already visited an English country have a pen-friend there or elsewhere. These (more than the rest of students) are greatly more motivated to be in direct contact with the authentic source of English. Two students said to have a pen-friend in Canada, another said to have one in the USA, another has a pen-friend in Burnei (Australia) and the last one has a pen-friend in England.

Item 6: Do you listen/ watch an English program outside the classroom?

Listening/ watching to English programs	Yes	No
N	75	12
%	89.20	13.79

Table 6: Number of students listening or watching English programs outside classrooms.

89.20% of the sample do listen or watch to English programs outside the classroom. When asking them orally during the session about explaining the questionnaire, most students said to ‘love’ MBC2 (in which they can see action films) and also MBC4 where they like the daily ‘Oprah’ show. This great percentage shows the students’ motivation to learn the language as well as to identify with the native speakers. For those who follow the English programs, they were asked after that about how much they understand the language used. Answers differ:

Percentage of understanding English	25%	50%	75%	100%
N	49	21	4	1
%	65.33	28	5.33	1.33

Table 7: Percentage of learners in understanding the English programs

The greater numbers of students confess that they understand only 25% of the language used. This can be explained by many factors such as difficulty of language, the non-correspondence of culture, etc. 28% of the students said to understand 50% of the language. It is, in fact, a relatively good percentage when considering that they’re only first year students.

For the rest of the sample (13.79) who confessed not to follow English programs because they do not understand English mentioned other reasons. Almost all of them referred their difficulty to understand the

language because of unclear pronunciation, while others pointed to the rate of speaking which goes, (up to them) too fast.

Item 7: What really motivate you to learn English?

Reason	Passing exams	Parents' approval	Satisfying the ego	The teacher	1+2	2+3	3+4
N	9	20	36	11	3	6	2
%	10.34	22.98	41.37	12.64	3.44	6.89	2.29

Table 8: Motivation to learn English

In addition to what we have seen in table 3 (that most students have chosen to learn English to get advantage from the media for information and pleasure), this table confirms the students' intrinsic motivation. Indeed, 41.37% are motivated to learn English to prove themselves they're able to achieve something. However, more than 22% seek parental approval. These have an extrinsic motivation. We may notice also that 12.64% of students answered that they're motivated by the teacher whom makes them appreciate the language.

Item 8: Do you evaluate your motivation toward learning English as: high-medium- low?

Degree	High	Medium	Low
N	32	51	4
%	36.78	58.62	4.59

Table 9: Students' self evaluation of motivation

We remark that almost all students perceive well their level of motivation in learning English; the majority considers having a medium level a motivation (which is not so bad, especially when we consider the factors that may interfere in the process of learning like the difficulty of modules, different teaching methods, crowded classrooms, etc). 36.78%, however, are highly motivated to learn English, which is a good foreboding for success.

Item 9: Reasons for low motivation

We see it no need to draw a table here, because only 4 students consider having a low motivation. Two referred to the teacher as being the reason for their de-motivation when he doesn't care about their needs, desires, etc. One student considers himself the cause because of his parents' disinterest and non care.

Item 10: Do you think you have to like the teacher in order to like the module he teaches?

Necessity	Yes	No
N	87	0
%	100	0

Table 10 : Students' opinion about the necessity to like the teacher in order to like his module.

Unsurprisingly, 100% of the sample agrees to the fact that it is necessary to like the teacher in order to like the module he is teaching. By liking the teacher we meant liking his personality, style, techniques, etc.

Many studies have demonstrated that students achieve better and faster when they feel at ease with their teachers; indeed, the questionnaire result confirmed that: Students wrote about the inspiration, interest, satisfaction, and desire to learn in order to impress the teacher(s) they like. They also mentioned the loss of shyness and hesitation in front of a 'gentle' teacher.

Item11 : Do you think that the use of authentic materials in class increases your motivation to learn?

Students' opinion.	Yes	No
N	81	6
%	93.10	6.89

Table 11: The use of authentic materials increases motivation

The great majority of students find authentic materials motivating. Only 6% of them put that their use do not increase motivation arguing that if the teacher is a good/fluent speaker of English, it is sufficient to motivate them acquire the language correctly.

Item 12 : From the list of materials mentioned below, which do you think is the most motivating to make you learn English?

Types of materials	Computers	Books	Pictures	Board	Mime, gestures	Other	1+2	1+3
N	67	7	3	0	2	3	3	2
%	77.01	8.04	3.44	0	2.29	3.44	3.44	2.29

Table 12: Types of most motivating materials

The table indicates that the majority of students (77.01%) find computers the most motivating material. This could be explained that it is considered as a means of modern technology, gathering sound and image in a very interesting and attractive way. 8.04% of students consider books motivating while they are generally referred to as boring and not lively.

The board had not any success with students who totally ignore it as a means to motivate them, because perhaps they see it as a static object that serves to be written and then erased: it is not lasting, for those who chose 'others' , student mentioned songs, plays, CDs or put 'all of them'.

Item 13 : Do you think the learning environment (classroom) influences your motivation to learn?

Classroom influence on motivation	Yes	No
N	85	2
%	97.70	2.29

Table 13 : The relationship between the environment (classroom) and motivation.

The overwhelming majority of students consider that the classroom atmosphere influences motivation. Logically, when students are comfortably set, in a calm, well-lighted, no crowded classroom; they'll see their motivation to learn increase. Indeed, they'll feel at ease and in security, learning at their rate and receiving sufficient attention and feedback. Most students agreed on that belief (in their justification). They added other factors as active/passive class, the weather, furniture and materials availability, pictures in the walls and most important the chance of interaction between themselves and with their teacher.

Item 14 : Do you prefer studying with/ in.... ?

Preference	Whole class	Groups	Pairs	Individually	1+4	2+4
N	21	52	3	4	3	4
%	24.13	59.77	3.44	4.59	3.44	4.59

Table 14: Students' preference for grouping leaning.

Most students (59.77%) prefer to study in small groups and 24.13% with the whole class. They explained their choice arguing that they learn more and easier when they're 'together', exchanging ideas, correcting one another, etc. Other students (4.59%), in contrast, prefer to study individually far from mates' noise and stress. They argue that they feel free alone, can think at their ease, and have better chance for better teacher's attention and feedback.

Item 15 : What qualities do you think a teacher need to have?

Quality	Sense of humour	Sensitivity to learners	Self-confidence	Methodical	Authenticity	Other
N	33	21	11	2	2	18
%	37.33	24.13	12.64	2.29	2.29	20.68

Table 15: Students' opinion about a teacher's necessary qualities

We remark that the majority (37.93) of the sample sees 'sense of humor' as the most important quality a teacher needs to have.

Certainly learning in a funny, friendly atmosphere where the teacher is humorous, kidding, telling jokes (but not at the expense of a pupil) release tension, facilitate the lesson's absorption and increase motivation. 24.13% of students wish their teachers to be sensitive to them: respecting them, considering their needs and difficulties and being patient with low achievers. Only 12.64% consider self confidence important. For the 20.68 % who tick on 'other', students made 'all of them'. Indeed, they see all these qualities very important and added others like honesty, focusing on the lesson and believing he is doing a holy job.

Item 16 : Do you consider yourself active or passive in the teaching learning process?

Participatrion	Active	Passive
N	25	62
%	28.73	71.26

Table 16: Students participation in the teaching-learning process.

The great majority of respondents confess to be passive in participating in class (they referred only to the classroom). They give many reasons; one (which was mentioned by almost all of them) was shyness. They are shy to talk in front of their teacher and mates because of fear of making mistakes and being laughed at. The rest of students (28.73%) said to be active in the teaching- learning process. They said to participate in

class by answering questions, giving opinions, doing home works, etc in order to practice the language and master it.

Item 17: From the six modules you are studying, which do you find the most useful to help you communicate in English?

Module	O. E	Phonetics	General culture	Grammar	O.E+ W.E	1+ 2 +5	Grammar + G.C
N	9	3	1	2	57	13	2
%	10.34	3.44	1.14	2.29	65.51	14.94	2.29

Table 17: Module(s) that help the communication in English

The table shows that the vast majority of students (65.51 %) consider the modules oral expression and written expression as the most useful to help them communicate in English. They justified their choice saying that the former helps develop fluency and the latter helps constructing sentences correctly. 14.94% of the students see oral and written expression and phonetics as the basic module for communication for the same reasons cited above. Here they added phonetics which help pronouns well the language. 10.34% see oral expression sufficient to use the language communicatively, arguing that it is the only module that helps them express themselves freely. Other students added General Culture because they consider knowing the target culture makes them know the traditions and conventions and thus to know what to say, when and how.

Item 18 : What do you consider the most important to master in order to achieve communication?

Point	Form	Meaning	Both
N	1	7	79
%	1.14	8.04	90.80

Table 18 : Important point(s) to achieve in communication

We notice that the major part of the sample agrees on the fact that both form and meaning are important to achieve communication successfully.

Item 19: Which skill(s) do you think you should focus on to be communicatively competent?

Skill	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	All	1+2	2+4
N	0	31	3	11	7	8	27
%	0	35.63	3.44	12.64	8.04	9.19	31.03

Table 19: Needed skills for communicative competence

Almost two equal portions of the sample were split between considering speaking as the skill they should focus on to be communicatively competent, and between seeing both speaking and writing as the two necessary skills to achieve communication. In both cases speaking is seen as the means to convey and transmit information in a communicative way.

Item 20: How often are you given the opportunity to speak English in the classroom?

Frequency of speaking English	Always	Rarely	Never
N	4	83	0
%	4.59	95.40	0

Table 20: Rate of speaking English inside the classroom.

Unfortunately, the majority of students consider having a very little opportunity to speak English in the classroom. They consider having it only during oral expression sessions; we may attribute the reason to the student himself who is shy of speaking or afraid of making mistakes. Only 4.59% of students say they always have the opportunity to speak, generally in all modules.

Item 21 : Do you feel at ease when you speak English in front of your teacher and your mates?

Feeling at ease	Yes	No
N	8	81
%	9.19	93.10

Table 21: Students feeling when speaking English publicly

The majority of students confess not to be at their ease when they come to speak English in front of their teacher or their mates mainly because they feel shy or are afraid to make mistakes when they're not able yet to pronounce well or construct a grammatically correct statement. Other students explain that they lose all their capacities, forget vocabulary, rules, etc though they know them quite well, when they speak in public.

On the contrary, the students who responded by 'yes' (they are only 4,59%) feel comfortable when speaking the language even if they know it is not totally correct, by they are convinced that the teacher is here to help them and correct them.

Item 22: Do you think you need to study more hours oral and written expression to better communicate with others?

The need for more O.E and W.E sessions	Yes	No
N	87	0
%	100	0

Table 22 : The need of more hours in oral and written expression to ameliorate communication

Because of their difficulties to use English correctly and fluently, all students without exception complained about the need for more hours/sessions of oral and written expression modules considering them the

basis for communicative ability. Here, it is out of the control of the teacher to make such decisions but rather that of the administration or the ministry of education to implement additional sessions in order to satisfy the students' needs.

Item23 : What do you find the most difficult when speaking English?

Difficulties in speaking English	Prononciation	General vocabulary	Specific vocabulary	Sentence structure	All
N	31	17	2	8	29
%	35.63	19.54	2.29	9.19	33.33

Table 23 : Difficulties encountered when speaking English

When asked about difficulties, a great number (31) stressed pronunciation, whereas 17 of them concentrated on general vocabulary and 29 were really aware that speaking English involves all of these components.

Item 24: Which course do you think helps you most develop oral proficiency?

Course	Phonetics	Oral expression	Other	1+2
N	9	43	4	31
%	10.30	49.42	4.59	35.63

Table 24: Courses that help developing oral proficiency.

We remark from the table that the vast majority of students consider oral expression to be the module that helps developing oral proficiency. Only 9 students chose phonetics though they considered it (above) the cause of their difficulty to speak English, however, they associated it with oral expression as the two tied modules that help achieve their goals to speak English fluently. Concerning those who put ‘other’ (they are only four), they put grammar and written expression because they consider that we cannot speak correctly a language without mastering the form.

Item 25 : What do you find the most difficult when writing English?

Difficulties in writing English	Right spelling	Right vocabulary use	Sentence structure	Coherence	Other
N	10	27	12	36	2
%	11.49	31.03	13.79	41.37	2.29

Table 25 : Difficulties encountered when written English.

Students, here, were asked about the point (s) in which have problems when they come to write English, most of them 41.37% answered coherence, they claim to have the ideas, know a range of vocabulary but do not know how to put these ideas in the logical construct, where as 31.03% complained about the difficulty to use the right vocabulary in order to

express a meaningful sentence. 13. 79% cannot write a sentence structured correctly; they may have problems with the position of the subject and the verb (especially in the negative form) may do not master English tenses, may not put correctly the adverbs,...etc. For the students who put 'other' (they are actually two), they mentioned the interference of French in English words, where as the other student put 'all of them'.

Item26: Do your teacher of oral/written expression use authentic materials to teach you English and achieve communicative competence?

Use of Authentic Material	Yes	No
N	69	18
%	79.31	20.68

Table 26: The teacher's use of authentic materials

The majority of students assert that their teachers of oral and written expression use authentic materials to teach them English and help them achieve communicative competence. 18 of them denied. For those who answered 'yes', they were then asked about the appropriateness of these materials, results were as follows:

Appropriateness of authentic materials	Yes	No
N	8	61
%	11.59	88.40

Table 27: the appropriateness of authentic materials

Almost all respondents claimed for the inappropriateness of the materials used in class and most of them argue that they are too difficult: the text books contain a lot of difficult terms, the recordings played are unclear or the rate of speaking is going too fast. In brief, they are beyond their level. Other students state that the materials used do not fit our culture because they deal with foreign / non Islamic traditions, conventions, etc.

Item 27: Do you think the teacher's method to develop your communicative skills satisfy your needs?

Degree of students satisfaction	Completely	Partly	No at all
N	14	60	13
%	16.09	68.96	14.94

Table 28: Degree of students' satisfaction with the teacher's method to develop communicative skills.

From the answer, we notice that the majority seem to be partly satisfied with their teacher's method and only (14) stated that they are completely satisfied.

Item 28: choose the most appropriate reason for the teacher's inappropriate method

Reason	No variation of techniques	Unappropriate materials	No variation in activities	Weak interaction teacher/student	Not enough focus on writing, speaking skills	other
N	8	27	9	18	22	3
%	9.19	31.03	10.34	20.68	25.28	3.44

Table 29: Reason for dissatisfaction with the method.

Concerning the dissatisfaction indicated in (term 27), studies attribute that to many factors. 27 spoke about the teaching materials to be inappropriate in teaching, writing and speaking. 22 found that there is not enough focus on the communicative skills. 18 state that there is not enough interaction between the teacher and his students and vice versa. 9 criticized the types of activities as being not varied and 8 blamed the teacher's techniques to be not varied too. For the 3 students who put 'other' they mentioned the insufficient time allotted to the writing and speaking modules.

Item 29: From the list of the activities below which do you think are the most useful for improving your English?

Type of activity	Role plays	Singing	Debates	Dictation	Reading	Research papers
N	21	14	18	0	7	14
%	24.13	16.09	20.68	0	8.07	16.09

Pronunciation practice	Improvisation
9	4
10.34	4.59

Table 30: Types of activities useful to improve English.

24.13 % of students see role plays as the most useful activity to improve writing and speaking English, 16.09 prefer singing, 20.68 like debates, and 16.09 opt for research papers and are less favorable to reading, pronunciation practice and improvisation. We remark that the students are turned to activities that require pair or group work, thus preferring cooperative learning, this what the teacher should take into consideration when planning his lesson.

Item 30 : Being at the end of your first year at university, do you think your performance to communicate in English has improved compared to the first day?

Improvement in performance	Yes	No
N	79	8
%	90.80	9.19

Table 31: Students' evaluation of the degree of their improvement in performance in English

Almost all students (79) are satisfied with their actual level of performance because they perceived a real improvement comparing with the beginning of the year. Only (8) of them said not perceive this improvement because they still have difficulties to speak and write English without making mistakes. They referred them to such reasons as their lack of motivation; difficulty of the modules taught; the teacher's disinterest of their problems, needs, etc.

1.3.1.2 Teachers' questionnaire

a. Aim of the questionnaire

The questionnaire aims at identifying the teachers in charge of the oral and written expression modules, their qualifications, their methods, techniques, the materials they use and what problems they encounter. In

addition, we seek to answer questions about teachers' awareness of motivation and how they apply it through different motivational strategies.

Moreover, we want to know how teachers look at communication and what methods and activities they use to teach it to their students through oral and written expression modules.

b. Description of the questionnaire

The questionnaire has been distributed to twelve teachers of oral and written expression (almost all teach them both) at the English department. Only eight papers were handed back, which make a percentage of loss of about 38 %. The papers were answered anonymously. The questionnaire is a mixture of closed and open questions. It consists of three main sections and an additional one for suggestions.

Section one: This section contains questions from 1 to 4 including sub-questions. They seek general information about teachers, i.e. their qualifications, their experience in teaching English at the university and in teaching oral and written expression.

Section two: It consists of 14 questions. They all concern the students' and teachers' motivation. Questions from 1 to 4 seek information about the teachers' evaluation of their students' motivation. The remaining questions are concerned with the teachers' evaluation of their own motivation in

class, in teaching in general and in the materials they use to increase the students' motivation.

Section three: This section deals with communication. It contains 13 questions concerned with the teachers' evaluation of their students' level of communicative competence, and with the methods, techniques they use to develop learners' communicative skills. Moreover, the last questions try to find out information about the oral expression and written expression methodology and how teachers try to solve the problems encountered in both modules.

Section four: In this section, teachers are offered a chance to give their personal opinions and suggestions concerning the subject under investigation: the way to motivate learners and how their communicative abilities may be improved.

c. Analysis of the teachers' questionnaire

Item 1: your qualification

Qualification	Licence	magister	doctorate
N	3	5	0
%	37.5	62.5	0

Table 1: Teachers' qualifications

We notice from the table and from our reality at the English Department at Biskra University that most of our teachers are not enough qualified and experienced to foster the process of language learning.

Among the participants, we have 3 with BA (Bachelor of Art) degree, 5 with a magister degree and unfortunately no one has a PHD (Doctor of Philosophy) degree.

Item 2: How many years have you been teaching English at the university level?

experience	1 year	2 year	3year	4year	5year	more than 5 years
N	1	1	0	3	0	3
%	12.5	12.5	0	37.5	0	37.5

Table 2: Experience in teaching English at the university level

Most of the teachers questioned have an experience of less than 5 years, a period in which it is not sufficient to have an effective training and reflective teaching and in which teachers are still acquiring knowledge for themselves more than searching knowledge for their students. Therefore, it will be difficult for the teacher to teach students strategies of learning and communicating before teaching them components of the language.

Item 3 : How many years have you been teaching oral expression?

Experience in teaching O.E	1year	2year	3year	4year	5year	More than 5 years
N	2	1	0	2	1	2
%	25	12.5	0	25	12.5	25

Table 3: Experience in teaching oral expression

We notice from the table that only 2 teachers said to have an experience of more than five years (one has 6, the other 9). These results indicate that our teachers are not specialized in teaching one subject.

Item 4: Is it a personal choice or imposed by the administration?

Choice	yes	no
N	2	6
%	25	75

Table 4: Teacher's choice to teacher Oral Expression.

Among the eight teachers questioned, six declared to have been imposed by the headmaster of the department the teaching of this module and that it was not a part of their choice or decision.

Item 5: How many years have you been teaching Written Expression?

Experience in teaching W.E	1year	2year	3year	4year	5year	More than 5 years
N	2	1	0	0	1	4
%	25	12.5	0	0	12.5	50

Table 5: Experience in teaching Written Expression

In the case of teaching written expression , however , the majority of teachers have been teaching the module more than 5 years, they are thus enough experienced to master the language (at least its written form) , its syntax and lexis .The other participants are completely novice, having taught the subject less than 5 years.

Item 6: Is it a personal choice or imposed by the administration?

Choice	Yes	No
N	1	7
%	12.5	87.5

Table 6: Teacher's choice in teaching Written Expression.

The objective of asking such a question is to determine the degree of teachers' motivation to teach the module. Almost all of them were

obliged (by the administration) to teach Written expression and it was not their personal choice.

Item 7: How do you evaluate your students' motivation to learn English?

level	high	medium	low
N	1	6	1
%	12.5	75	12.5

Table 7: Students' level of motivation

We remark that 75 % of respondents consider their students' motivation to be medium. This can be explained by many reasons as the difficulty of the subjects taught, the classroom environment, teachers' method, etc. Only one teacher considers his students to be highly motivated because, perhaps, of their enthusiasm and participation in class. One teacher, finally, sees his students having a low motivation. He referred that to their unwillingness and inappropriateness of the method (s) used because of the big difference in students' levels in one class.

Item 8 : Do you consider your students' motivation as extrinsic or intrinsic?

Type of motivation	intrinsic	extrinsic
N	2	6
%	25	75

Table 8: Students' type of motivation

75 % of participants consider their students' motivation to be extrinsic because their only aim is to pass exams, make their parents happy because they need someone or something to motivate them. Only 25% find their students intrinsically motivated because they feel they're really enjoying the language and study it for the sake of acquiring it and communicating with it.

Item 9 : When you teach, do you feel your students have pleasure listening to you?

Students' enjoyment	Yes	No
N	7	1
%	87.5	12.5

Table 9: Students' enjoyment in listening to the teacher

Almost all questioned teachers feel their students to have pleasure listening to them. They mentioned many reasons:

- The use of different voice tones, facial expressions, body language, energy, motivation to make students enjoy the session and the teacher's presence.
- Students are involved in the discussion questions; they participate, express opinion, do classroom activities and home works.

- Students search about (extra) information, books, etc, the teacher has mentioned in the class. They demonstrate interest and curiosity about everything the teacher says or does even if it is out of subject.
- Students express overtly their pleasure to be with the teacher by thanking him after the session, saying that they like him.

Item 10: Do your students like to be challenged?

Students' like of challenge	Yes	No
N	6	2
%	75	25

Table 10: Students' like to be challenged

The great majority of teachers agreed that their students usually like to be challenged especially when they try to do their best in doing an activity or making reports and research papers (through reading books, searching on the Internet,...). For those teachers who do not see their students to like challenges, they explained that by stating many reasons as a fear of failure and a fear of not doing well in front of their teacher and mates.

Item 11: Are you always motivated to teach?

Always motivated	Yes	No
N	5	3
%	62.5	37.5

Table 11: Teachers' own motivation

The results to this question show that 62.5 % of teachers feel themselves always motivated to teach, mainly because they love their job and are committed to motivate their students to make good results and this will be impossible if they are not themselves motivated. However, 37.5% of them said not to be always motivated because it is hard to keep the same of enthusiasm the whole year especially when they are confronted to problems as students' demotivation, disruptive behaviour or administrative constraints.

Item 12: Do you think it is possible to motivate all students in a class?

Possibility to motivate all the class	Yes	No
N	4	4
%	50	50

Table 12: The possibility of motivating all students in class

This question divided the participants into 2 groups: one group claims for the possibility to motivate all students in class, by introducing fun and humour, varying activities, being sensitive to students; in brief, being motivating. The other group considered it impossible to motivate the whole class at once, mainly because of the difference between students (in gender, attitudes, language level, ...). Thus, they are not motivated the same way because they can't be all interested in the same subject or keen of the teacher's style.

Item 13: Do you think the learning environment (the classroom) influences your students' motivation?

Influence of the learning environment on motivation	Yes	No
N	8	0
%	100	0

Table 13: Influence of the learning environment on students' motivation

All respondents without exception agreed on the fact that the learning environment has a great influence on students' motivation to learn. Indeed, they argued that a clean, well lighted, organized and equipped classroom tend to bring motivation. On the other hand, a too small or too

large class, crowded, not well equipped make a boring and non safe atmosphere.

Item 14: How do you evaluate your interaction with your students in class?

Evaluation of teacher-student interaction	good	Not so bad	bad
N	7	1	0
%	87.5	12.5	0

Table 14: Teachers-students interaction

Almost all teachers said to have a good interaction with their students. They have no real problems with them, and are satisfied with the rate of participation an involvement during the course.

Item 15: What kind of teacher do you consider yourself?

Role	controller	assessor	observer	prompter	other
N	0	1	2	2	3
%	0	12.5	25	25	37.5

Table 15: Teacher's role in class

First, we notice that none of the questioned teachers consider themselves controllers as they are applying a learner-centred approach. 25% consider themselves to be observers or prompters because they intervene in class only when necessary, giving thus the opportunity for students to be self-learners and autonomous. For those teachers who made ‘other’, they mentioned different roles as:

- Team member/participant by putting out the barriers and making students feel at ease as they feel their teacher a ‘normal’ member of the class.
- Tutor (especially in written expression courses) when helping students organize written compositions. The teacher, here, has a private relationship with the student(s) as he stands beside, ready for any question.
- Motivator, by increasing students’ interest and desire to learn through binging humour, fun and many other motivational tricks.

Item 16: When you teach what do you take into account, your students’...?

Characteristic	Personality	Needs	Background knowledge	Abilities	Learning styles	All these	other	1+2 + 3
N	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	1
%	0	0	0	0	0	87.5	0	12.5

Table 16: Teachers’ consideration of students’ differences

The great majority of teachers consider all the characteristics mentioned above important while teaching. Indeed, knowing these characteristics helps the teacher cope with differences and difficulties through establishing an appropriate method and techniques, and choosing the right type of activities and groupings.

Item 17: Which theory of motivation do you apply while teaching?

Theory of motivation	Behavioristic	cognitive	constructivist	humanistic
N	0	1	0	6
%	0	12.5	0	75

Table 17: Theories of motivation followed by teachers

Among the eight teachers, six follow the humanistic theories of motivation arguing that they help build the human aspect of the teacher as an individual as well as that of the learner. Moreover, they mentioned the necessity to satisfy students' hierarchical needs to achieve success. One teacher follow the behaviourist path as he works with drills and repetition activities and believes in rewards and punishment to make good results with students. One teacher didn't choose any of the propositions given, but rather mentioned 'eclectic' arguing that the students do not have the same personalities and abilities and they should be treated according to them.

Item 18: Do you use extra back-up materials to support and motivate your students?

The use of extra back-up materials	Yes	No
N	8	0
%	100	0

Table 18: The use of extra back-up materials to motivate students

All teachers do use extra back-up materials in class to support and motivate their students, and they all agree that these materials are effective in achieving the set objectives. One of the respondents added ‘sometimes’. This surely depends on the way and the frequency these materials are used. If they are not appropriately used (too difficult to use or too easy) or if they are too frequently used, students will get bored.

Item 19: From the list of materials cited below, which do you think is the most appreciated by your students?

Type of material	The Board	Pictures/ images	Mime/ gestures	The computer	The tape recorder	Other	3+4 +5	2+4 +5
N	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	3
%	0	0	0	0	0	12.5	50	37.5

Table 19: Students’ most appreciated materials

None of the teachers questioned chose one answer but rather combined between several ones. One teacher, however, mentioned ‘videos’ as the most appreciated material by his students. Whatever the type of material: audio, visual or audiovisual they all have the same aim: motivating students to learn far from a classic way.

Item 20: How do you explain your students’ demotivation?

Reason	Inappropriateness of the teaching method	Unvaried techniques	Learning environment	Too Difficult Subject	Too Easy subject	Other	3+4
N	0	2	4	0	0	1	1
%	0	25	50	0	0	12.5	12.5

Table 20: Reasons for students’ demotivation.

50 % of teachers explained their students’ demotivation by the inappropriateness of the learning environment. 25 % referred to the lack of variety of materials, activities, etc. One teacher pointed to both the learning environment plus the difficulty of the subject (oral/written expression). The remaining teacher referred to the mood of each student during the course as the reason of demotivating all the class.

Item 21: What suggestions can you make for a successful course when your students are tired and demotivated?

The participants proposed many things to make a successful course when the students are tired and demotivated:

- Changing the atmosphere of the class.
- Taking some rest, telling stories, jokes.
- Carrying on an external discussion about life experiences.
- Varying activities in the classroom.

Item 22: As far as first-year students are concerned, how do you evaluate their level of communicative competence?

Students' level	Good	Acceptable	Still poor
N	1	2	5
%	12.5	25	62.5

Table 21: Students' level of communicative competence

The majority of teachers see their students' level of communicative competence still poor especially after a whole year of study. 25 % of teachers see the level acceptable and 12.5 % consider it good.

Item 23: Are the students really aware of the notion of ‘communication’?

Students’ awareness	Yes	No
N	0	8
%	0	100

Table 22: Students’ awareness of ‘real communication’

All the questionnaire participants agree that their students are not aware of the notion of real communication and what it implies.

Item 24: What method of teaching do you find it the most appropriate to teach communicative skills?

Method	Grammar translation	Audiolingualism	Communicative language teaching
N	0	0	8
%	0	0	100

Table 23: The most appropriate method(s) to teach communicative skills

100 % of the participants pointed to the communicative approach as being the most appropriate method to teach students and help them develop their communicative skills, mainly because of the procedure (method, technique) that help achieve the set goals.

Item 25: How would you characterize your teaching style?

Only two teachers answered this question. One stated that he has no particular style, that he only seeks at motivating students and developing their skills and that he changes techniques, uses different materials to satisfy their needs. The other teacher, however, considers himself eclectic and opts for cooperative learning in which interaction and cooperation between all the students in class is encouraged.

Item 26: Has it proved its effectiveness in helping students achieve communicative competence?

We found no need to draw a table here because only two teachers answered (the same who answered the previous question). Both teachers put ‘yes’, but one of them added ‘to some extent’.

Item 27: Which do you think is the most important in teaching communication?

Important point	Form	meaning	Both	other
N	0	0	8	0
%	0	0	100	0

Table 24: Important point(s) in teaching communication

All participants put that both form and meaning are important in teaching communication.

Item 28: Which skill do you feel your students are more at ease with when they come to communicate?

Skill	Speaking	Writing
N	2	6
%	25	75

Table 25: Students' comfort with communicative skill(s)

We notice from the table that 75 % of respondents feel their students more at their ease when they write, because they feel free. Even if they do mistakes, it is not apparent (when generally it is only the teacher that sees the result). Students are not exposed to an audience; they are not under 'spot lights' where they can feel shy and confused. Whereas 25 % of respondents claimed that their students prefer speaking because they are poor in writing. They are not obliged to make grammatical correct sentences when the most important is meaning (i.e. a message can be transmitted even if its form is not totally correct).

Item 29: do you think the time allotted to teach oral and written expression is sufficient for students to develop communicative competence?

Sufficient time	Yes	No
N	3	5
%	37.5	62.5

Table 26: Sufficient time allotted to Oral and Written expression to develop communicative competence

Not all teachers agree about time allotted to teach oral and written expression. 37.5 % say that it is sufficient (3 hours a week for oral expression and 4 and ½ for written expression). However, 62.5% say that this amount of time is not sufficient especially when considering the weak level of the students in communicating with the language.

Item 30: Do you think it is important for students to know the target language culture in order to engage in real communication?

Importance of the target culture	Yes	No
N	8	0
%	100	0

Table 27: Importance of knowing the target culture to achieve Communication

All teachers agree that it is crucial for the students to know about the target culture in order to engage in real communication.

Item 31: What strategies do you use to implement ‘culture’ in your course of oral or written expression?

Again, for this question, there were few respondents. It maybe because the others do not know these strategies or are not aware of their importance. For those who answered , they suggested introducing topics which deal with the target language to show the students the values, traditions, conventions, etc; or by using authentic materials as songs, videos, newspapers, recordings to get students in touch with native speakers. Another suggestion has been made around the use of role plays, simulations to practise the language in context.

Item 32: From your experience in teaching Oral Expression, what difficulties do your students encounter when speaking?

Difficulty	pronunciation	Use of Appropriate vocabulary	Sentence structure	Social context	Other	1+2+3
N	0	0	0	0	3	5
%	0	0	0	0	37.5	62.5

Table 28: Students’ difficulties in speaking

62.5 % of participants agree that students have problems with mastering the pronunciation of English, appropriate vocabulary and sentence structure when they come to speak. For the 37.5 % who put ‘other’, they referred to all the aspects mentioned as being hard to master for 1st year students.

Item 33: What kind of activities do you use to improve your students’ speaking skill?

Types of activity	Role plays	Discussion	Improvisation	Pronunciation Practice	Reading	Exposés	1+2 +3
N	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
%	0	0	0	0	0	0	37.5

Table 29: Activities that improve the speaking skill

We remark from the table that three teachers use role plays, discussion, and improvisation to improve their students’ speaking skill. Whereas the 5 remaining teachers say to use all the mentioned types of activities, and another one added other types as telling stories and pictures interpretation.

Item 34: From your experience in teaching Written Expression, what difficulties do your students encounter when writing?

Difficulty	Manipulation of FL letters	Structuring	Choice of appropriate vocabulary	Including the social context	Other	2+3
N	0	1	0	0	2	5
%	0	12.5	0	0	25	75

Table 30: Students' difficulties in writing.

The majority of teachers say that composing a grammatical correct sentence and the choice of appropriate vocabulary (far from translating from Arabic) are the two most common difficulties students encounter when they come to write. One teacher declared that his students have difficulties with structuring the language. They could convey meaningful sentences but they are grammatically incorrect. The two remaining teachers considered other problems as spelling mistakes, the translation from the mother tongue to the target language and coherence in ideas when producing a dissertation.

Item 35: What activities do you use to improve your students' writing skill?

Type of activity	dictation	Book report	Research paper	Writing dialogues	Other	1+3
N	2	0	1	0	3	2
%	25	0	12.5	0	37.5	25

Table 31: Activities that improve the writing skill.

Concerning this question, views differed. 25% see dictation as the best activity to improve the writing skill. 25 % again see both dictation and research papers as the most appropriate activities to improve writing. 37.5%, however, chose dictation, research papers and proposed other kinds of activities as writing résumés, answering comprehension questions about texts, or writing paragraphs.

Item 36: What do you suggest to improve the students' communicative competence at the level of first year?

This open question allowed us to collect a number of interesting answers and suggestions concerning the way to improve the students' communicative competence. These suggestions are summarized as follows:

- To make students practice the language as much as they can by convincing them they shouldn't be afraid of using the language even with mistakes.
- To teach idiomatic expressions and put students in real situations.
- To teach grammar inductively.
- To expose students to authentic materials.
- To make intensive and extensive listening sessions, because a good listener is a good speaker.
- To devote special sessions for reading comprehension at least once a week.

Item 37: General suggestions

Almost all teachers gave their suggestions in the above section and had no other thing to say in this part. There were only some remarks about the design of this questionnaire and the need for teachers of all modules to collaborate together.

1. 3. 2 Classroom Observation

It is quite obvious that each teacher, whatever the subject he teaches, has his own way of preparing or designing a course, his own way of preparing materials, as well as his own way of dealing with the students and coping with their differences and difficulties.

Indeed, our attendance to different oral expression and written expression sessions with 1st year students proved that teachers transmit differently knowledge and students react differently to them.

As far as motivation is concerned, we noticed that some of our teachers lack motivation; they present their lesson in a monotonous way, keeping the same facial expression from the beginning, till the end of the course and this was clearly remarked on students' themselves who seemed passive; speaking and writing in a mechanic way and only when asked to. This was especially remarked in W.E sessions in which the course taught is purely grammar. The teacher wrote examples on the board, explained new vocabulary then put the rule; the students had just to listen then copy down on their copybooks.

With the other teachers, however, things were different. They entered the class with a large smile, asking about students' health then discussed with them for a while about their previous day's makings. Students were engaged right from the beginning of the course through speaking and narrating about things they did or want to do. The classes were noisy but we felt a good energy and motivation from the part of the students who were ready to start the course.

In Oral Expression sessions, the teacher proposed a topic or let students choose one. Most of them had the opportunity to speak and give their opinion. The teacher gave feedback from time to time and prompted students not to lose the thread of ideas. In Written Expression courses, teachers (who were the same, talked about in the previous point) acted a situation to induce the grammar point, students had to guess and deduce rules and exceptions. They had the chance to work in pairs or in groups and to practice the new language form through producing sentences and paragraphs. Therefore, while some students looked demotivated and fed up because of their teachers' personality or methods used, other seemed to enjoy greatly the sessions because of the same factors cited above.

Concerning the communicative aspect of learning, first year students revealed to have real problems in using the language in its context. Students revealed to be shy, especially boys who were afraid of being laughed at by their male classmates. Others were afraid of making mistakes even if the teacher reassured them. With some teachers who were using mechanical activities of filling the gaps, repetition patterns, etc. Students had no chance to express themselves but have only to repeat what have been already set.

On the other hand, in those classes where teachers used authentic materials as bringing English magazines, English songs, dialogues, Students were really excited to be exposed to them, they enjoyed listening to native speakers and were trying to imitate them. Through the latter aids, the teacher aimed at making students accustomed to authentic English through real life situations which increased greatly their motivation.

Before ending our observations, we should talk about the tasks given to learners to be done as home works. As far as the practice in these particular modules is concerned, some teachers gave their students some activities, in the form of an oral report of the topics dealt in class or another topic assigned to different groups of students. It could also be research papers about a given topic or collecting information about a topic to be dealt with the next session. This was about oral expression courses. Concerning written expression, students were generally given grammar activities to practice the new language.

Conclusion

The analyses of the questionnaires allow us to make a summary of our students' and teachers' needs and difficulties. The needs of first year students vary in general, but almost all of them lack motivation. Moreover, the great majority seems to be extrinsically/ instrumentally motivated and

not intrinsically /interactively. Indeed, through the first question of the students' questionnaire, these latter claimed to have chosen English to pass exams and/or to get a job, and no one was interested in the English speaking people's culture or attitudes. This is why our learners need to learn something beyond the linguistic items of the language to help develop their communicative abilities. Another fact which proved the students' lack of motivation (according to them and through our experience as teachers) is that they consider themselves passive in the teaching-learning process bringing no newness or variation. Also, they do not participate in class, because of an over shyness or a lack of self-confidence.

Concerning communication, the questionnaire revealed the following: First-year students are not able to use the language communicatively (in context) because of many reasons they stated; for example, having problems with the structure of language, specific vocabulary according to the context, etc. They do not use communicative strategies that help them deal with language. Furthermore, they feel more at ease when writing, because they are not enough self-confident to speak publicly.

The second concerned analysis was about teachers. Although being motivated in doing their job, they tend sometimes to be demotivated,

too, because of some reasons which they set: personal problems, students' misbehavior or administrative constraints. In fact, most of the teachers seemed to be not aware of motivation, motivational strategies and the new findings in the field of psycho-pedagogy and education. Moreover, they use old methods and traditional techniques in teaching, but keep claiming that they are applying communicative methods. Added to that, teachers do not vary in techniques and activities.

CHAPTER FOUR

Pedagogical Implications

Introduction	187
I- Motivating Learners	188
1. Creating Motivational Conditions	188
1. 1 the Teacher: A personal Example with his own Behavior	188
1. 2 Establishing a Good Learning Environment	191
2. Generating Motivation	193
2. 1 Promoting Students’ Intrinsic Motivation	193
2. 2 Enhancing the Prestige of Foreign Language	196
2. 3 Making Teaching Materials and Curriculum Relevant to the Learners	197
2. 4 Making Students have Realistic Expectations	198
3. Maintaining and Sustaining Motivation	199
3. 1 Increasing Learners’ Self-Confidence	199
3.2 Promoting Learners’ Autonomy	200
3. 3 Encouraging Self-Evaluation	201
II- Motivating Teachers	201
1. The Role of Administration in Motivating Teachers	202
2. The Role of Parents’ Support in Motivating Teachers	204
Conclusion	204

Introduction

The research means-the questionnaires and the classroom observation- used in this research work, come out with some important results about the subject under investigation: the role of the teacher as a motivator to improve student's communicative abilities.

Results have show that students lack motivation to learn English and use it as a means to communicate , mainly through speaking this as due to the lack of teachers' awareness in the way of teach students . Indeed, most teachers seen not to aware that motivation is a key to learning and success . Even if they claim to be motivational factors; their style, methods and techniques do not really reveal and serve motivation. In addition, teachers seen to ignore the factors that affect motivation whether the internal or external. Even if it is not possible to rebuild the internal factors such as gender or age , it is, however, possible to influence a few of them such as needs or interests through controlling environment. These are considered to be influential in the contrary of other factors as time , space or administration that are out of the teacher's control .

There is a wide range of strategies that help motivate students and improve their communicative capacities; few of them that are related to the teacher (as we investigated his role as an agent of change) have been

discussed in chapter two of our dissertation. Other strategies which serve the same goal - motivating students- are not a few. These concern external factors as parents, the environment, the administration, etc that affect the student but also the teacher to be himself motivated.

Therefore, this chapter consists of several suggestions and recommendations, especially for teachers, to help them improve their status and facilitate the process of teaching English by transmitting knowledge through motivation.

I- Motivating learners

1. Creating motivational conditions to engage students in the teaching-learning process. These are related to the teacher himself and to the learning environment.

1.1 The teacher: A personal example with his own behavior.

The teacher is seen as a model in class. He embodies knowledge, values, and success; thus, all what he does have a motivational impact on his students. The teacher has to be enthusiastic. Bennett defines enthusiasm as it is: "...excitement with inspiration, motivation and a pinch of creativity". (cited in eric.ed.gov). The teacher is enthusiastic by showing his deep interest in the course and material and by sharing it with his students. Such a passion and commitment is often infectious. Students get

easily engaged and pensioned themselves. The teacher has to show that he is approachable and accessible by behaving as a normal member of the class and not as an authoritative figure. He should be committed also to his students through showing them love, care, attention and concern and by being sensitive to their problems, helping them and being available inside and outside the classroom.

In addition, teachers need to have high expectations about their students' ability for success through being committed to their learning and progress. Students should be felt that they are important by remembering their names, smiling at them, greeting, showing interest about their hobbies, personal experiences. Teachers should accept his students' differences in backgrounds, attitudes, levels of ability, etc, and should not judge them according to their appearance or socioeconomic status. He should expect success for all students in class and should manage to help achieve their goals.

In addition to considering the psychological side of students, the teacher should focus on the educational side as well, i.e., he should know how to teach the language. Teaching the language is communicating it in an effective way. The teacher should first structure the target language as clearly as possible; he should then analyze the students' production of

language as well as some aspects of their culture and backgrounds through understanding fields as sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, discourse analysis and applied linguistics.

The teacher should adapt course books and textbooks according to the needs and interests of his students. He should select educational materials and activities at the right level and of the right type for all students in the class. The teacher should also teach the cultural context of the target language. In the Algerian university, the teacher has to consider the great mismatch between the Algerian culture and the culture of the target language speakers through improving their integrative motivation. This could be done through making students think as native speakers do and understand and accept their traditions and values in order to learn the language. The teacher may use authentic materials to achieve this goal.

The students' questionnaire has revealed they have difficulties in speaking and writing the language because they encounter problems with its structure, its pronunciation or with the use of specific vocabulary in special contexts. Teachers can remedy to this problem by cooperating with each other through pedagogical committees or cooperation sessions. A teacher of oral expression should agree with teachers of grammar and phonetics in order to search for common methods to improve the speaking

skill. A teacher of written expression, as well, can agree with teachers of grammar, linguistics or general culture to improve the students' writing skill.

1. 2 Establishing a good learning environment

Another condition to motivate students is to establish a pleasant, secured and supportive atmosphere. This starts with preparing the physical environment: the classroom. The teacher's role, here, is to make the classroom attractive and efficient. Priority should be given to seating arrangements. Seats should be placed in a way that facilitates for the teacher to monitor all areas in the same time, to keep attention on all students and to minimize disruption and maximize interaction. Seats arrangement depends on the intended objectives. Students can seat in rows, individually or in pairs facing the teacher. This is appropriate for private compositions and testing. Students can also form a big circle or arrange small circles or ovals in group work. It facilitates communication among members of the group.

After preparing the space, the teacher improves the attractiveness of the course by making it sound light and funny through telling jokes, anecdotes or taking breaks from time to time in order to decrease the level of anxiety and create confidence among students.

A good interaction between teacher-student and student-student is also necessary. A norm of tolerance should be set for students to be comfortable with taking risks in being creative even if making mistakes is quite probable. It has also to do with group cohesiveness which refers to the members' commitment to the group and to each other. The teacher may encourage students' interaction and cooperation through group work or extracurricular activities. These advantage proximity and solidarity and improve their motivation to learn from each other. It also calls for fair intergroup and intragroup competition.

Another important element in making and keeping a good learning environment is to set rules and limits, and clearly communicate expectations. Teachers and students should agree on some rules of work and behavior right from the beginning of the year. These rules concern participation in class, doing assignments and homeworks. These norms should be minimal (for students to remember), explicit (to avoid confusion), and flexible (depending on the situations' changes). However, the teacher has to pay attention to the enforcement of the established rules, for students to take them seriously; otherwise, they would feel that they're not really important and would rapidly discount them.

Keeping a quiet environment is also dealing with misbehavior through appropriate punishment. Suspensions from school, forcing to do extra class work, or physical punishment are all generally ineffective. Instead, threat of punishment proved to be more effective than punishment itself. The teacher should use punishment deliberately and systematically and not as a means of revenge or provocation. He should also avoid face-threatening acts as humiliation or criticism. Moreover, punishment should be accompanied with positive statements of expectations about how the student should behave.

2. Generating motivation

2 . 1 Promoting students' intrinsic motivation:

Individual and interpersonal factors have been identified as to promote students' intrinsic motivation to learn the language. Indeed, the teacher's challenge is to make students go beyond their desire and will to learn the language solely for grades or any other extrinsic reward.

The most powerful factor influencing intrinsic motivation is 'Challenge'. Learners are challenged when they direct their activities toward personally meaningful goals whose attainment requires activity at a continuously optimal level of difficulty. The teacher challenges his students by:

- Eliciting cooperation or competition.
- Giving an enough difficult task but not impossible to achieve. The best to do this is giving students easy tasks at first and gradually build on more difficult tasks.
- Making the attainment of the goals probable but not uncertain. The best degree of certainty is seen to be intermediate, when neither success nor failure is guaranteed.
- Giving performance feedback. This reminds students of their status with regard to the challenge posed by the goals. It should be clear, constructive and encouraging.
- Relating goals to students' self-esteem. Self-esteem is related to motivation because learners consider themselves to be good to the extent that they succeed at challenges.

A second factor influencing motivation is 'Curiosity'. It is stimulated when something in the environment attracts attention or when there is an optimal level of discrepancy between the learner's present knowledge or skills and what these skills could be if the learner engaged in some activity. The teacher can raise the learners' curiosity through:

- Stimulating sensory curiosity by making abrupt changes that will be perceived by the learners' senses through emitting sounds, using animation (using computer) to attract their attention.

- Stimulating cognitive curiosity by making learners wonder about something to catch their interest.

A third factor is ‘Control’. It refers to the tendency to want to control what happens to them. It is a fact that students are strongly motivated to learn when they decide themselves what to learn and how to learn it. This requires some time discussing with the students. The teacher can help students make use of control by:

- Being aware of the students’ interests and match units of instruction to their choices.
- Explaining why the subject matter is worth learning.
- Letting the students choose how the subject matter will be studied.

A fourth factor that influences motivation is ‘Competition’. It is an interpersonal factor which arises from interaction with students. It is a strong motivator because students can enhance their own esteem when they can compare their own performance to that of their peers. The teacher can, for example, record them doing a task then challenge them to beat their own record.

Another factor is 'Cooperation'. Students derive satisfaction from working toward group goals. The teacher should manage to promote cooperation among learners through:

- Setting up tasks in which groups of learners are asked to work together to achieve common goals.
- Taking into account group products not only individual products in assessment.
- Providing the students with some special training for working in groups.

Last but not least is 'Recognition'. It is an interpersonal factor that increases intrinsic motivation. Learners enjoy having their efforts and accomplishments recognized and appreciated by others (teacher, classmates, and parents). The teacher should recognize his students' efforts through positive comments on approval and appreciation like 'you did great', 'it's really good', 'excellent', etc through rewards and prizes, good grades or simply through a smile.

2. 2 Enhancing the prestige of the foreign language and familiarizing learners with the target language culture:

The teacher should first promote integrative values by encouraging a positive and open-minded disposition towards the target language, its speakers and culture. To achieve that, the teacher may include a socio-cultural component in language curriculum. He can quote positive views

about language learning through influential public figures, or can encourage students exploring the L2 community by their own through searching on internet, reading books, corresponding with native speakers, organizing cultural excursions or visits to the target language country. The use of authentic materials, inviting (occasionally) native speakers to the classroom and helping establish penpals for the learners are all important to make them accustomed to the foreign culture. Therefore, the teacher should provide a natural, 'real world' context for language use and thus help learners become confident using the language for real. This serves the communicative use of language.

2. 3 Making teaching materials and curriculum relevant for the learners:

Achieving goals, adapting interests and activities, orienting values, etc will be all of nonsense if learners cannot work with the practical side of language. Indeed, it is very demotivating for learners to learn something that they cannot see the point of because it has no clear relevance to their lives. Therefore, it is necessary to make the teaching materials relevant to students. Chambers (1999: 37) argues: "... if the teacher is to motivate pupils to learn, then relevance has to be the red thread permeating activities."

The teacher should first relate content to the students' interests and experiences. This requires asking students about their hobbies, likes, dislikes, preferences, etc through group discussion, interviews or questionnaires. Content should also be related to students' needs by designing appropriate activities, focusing on weaknesses and managing to improve learning.

2. 4 Making students have realistic expectation:

It is widely acknowledged that learners' beliefs about how much progress to expect, and at what pace, can lead to disappointment. Therefore, it is important to help learners get rid of their preconceived notions that they are likely to hinder their attainment. To this end, learners needs to develop an understanding of the nature of second language learning, and should be conscious of the fact that the mastery of L2 can be achieved in different ways, using diverse strategies.

The teacher's role is to make learners aware of the difficulty of the learning process in order to put realistic and expected progress rates. In the same time he should reassure them about their abilities and skills to overcome difficulties and to attain success.

3. Maintaining and sustaining motivation

Unless motivation is sustained and protected, the natural tendency to succumb to tiredness and boredom will result in demotivation. Fortunately, it exists several motivation maintenance strategies. Teachers are strongly recommended to use them not to lose all what they have achieved in the previous steps.

3. 1 Increasing learners' self-confidence:

There are some approaches (like those set by Dornyei, 2001) that seek to maintain and increase learners' self- confidence. For example:

- Fostering the belief that competence is a changeable aspect of development.
- Providing regular experiences of success through favorable self-conception of L2 competence.
- Encouraging students' contribution and involvement in a task or the course.
- Giving personal words of encouragement.

A safe learning environment affects also greatly learners' self-confidence. It is important for them to realize that they are in a safe and secured place. The teacher should also protect his students' self esteem by making them, experience success, and giving them opportunities to demonstrate positive features through accessible tasks.

Another important thing is to reduce anxiety. This is very common in foreign language classroom where students have to communicate with a 'strong' language, and are likely to make mistakes. The teacher's role here is to help learners accept the fact that making mistakes is apart from the learning process. Anxiety is also reduces when social comparisons are avoided, and when cooperation is promoted instead of competition.

Moreover, the teachers should build his students' confidence in their learning abilities by teaching them multiple learning strategies including communicative strategies to help them overcome communication difficulties.

3. 2 Promoting learners' autonomy:

Teachers should encourage students to have creative and imaginative ideas, encourage questions and share responsibility involving them in learning and let them free to choose the topics and materials they want. However, this is not always possible when we consider the constraints of the syllabus, the time and the administration. Autonomy is commonly referred to as self-determination, "It is the notion of thinking in the sense of reflecting, calculating, memorizing, predicting, judging and deciding." (Barrow and Woods, 1988; in Hedge 2000: 82)

3.3 Encouraging self-evaluation:

Students' self-evaluation is often difficult for the first few attempts; they want to achieve a huge evaluation but are most of times reluctant to 'brag' about their success. Furthermore, students tend to be too hard on themselves, yet some other students can be unrealistically generous.

The teacher should, however, supply students with strategies to fairly evaluate their own performance and progress. He can also help student establish standards for themselves by comparing their own assessment with that of their teacher.

II- Motivating teachers

The recommendations and pedagogical implications suggested in this chapter are not restricted only at motivating students but concern, as well, to motivating teachers themselves and provide them with the necessary tools to be key motivators. Indeed, teachers must have resources to access their students' views on their learning.

Teachers have both intrinsic and extrinsic needs. A teacher who is intrinsically motivated may be observed to undertake a task for its own sake, for the satisfaction it provides, or for the feeling of accomplishment and self-actualization. On the other hand, an extrinsically motivated teacher

may perform the activity/duty in order to obtain some reward such as salary. Extrinsic motivation is pre-eminent in influencing a person's behavior. Therefore, the aim of the organization should be to build on and to enhance the intrinsic motivation for teachers in order to teach effectively and at the same time to supply some extrinsic motivation along the way for school improvement. However, even the most intrinsically motivated teacher will become discouraged because he faces every day new difficult challenges without receiving proper support the administration or the parents.

1. The role of administration in motivating teachers

The administration has to manage to keep good teachers motivated and inspire them to keep in learning and to improve their skills. Helping the teacher do effectively his job and encouraging him to keep his enthusiasm, commitment and energy has many forms and can be achieved through several ways.

- Reassuring the teacher from time to time that his is doing a good job.
- Developing a positive school climate by providing good working conditions, including discipline conditions, security, class size, etc.
- Providing all necessary conditions to facilitate the teacher's work such as housing, good salary, transportation, good time planning, etc.

- Serving the teacher and helping him to conduct successfully his course through supplying him with the materials he requires.
- Providing teachers with autonomy by giving them the freedom of the method and materials.
- Encouraging cooperation and collaborative curriculum development between teachers of the same department or with teachers of other departments in other universities through organizing weekly or monthly meetings or committees to discuss common issues and new findings and to exchange ideas.
- Giving teachers opportunities for development and encouraging self-improvement and trying out new practices through organizing training sessions inside or outside the country.
- Compensating the teachers' efforts and recognizing their achievements through financial rewards, offering free trips, prizes, promotions or organizing celebrations at their honor.
- Encouraging peer supervision, peer coaching in order to help teachers with advice and recommendations.
- Encouraging action research for school-wide change.
- Increasing teachers' involvement and participation in school decision making through making them attend administrative meetings.

2. The role of parents' support in motivating teachers

It is important that parents and teachers communicate about how to best help children learn. It is also necessary to set exact roles for teachers, parents and learners, and to search for the best kind of involvement parents can have to facilitate the teachers' job and to support them working with their children.

Parents' involvement in the teaching-learning process can take many different shapes and can have a tremendous role in motivating teachers and helping them work to motivate students. They can do so through:

- Recognizing and appreciating the teachers' efforts rather than accusing them for their children's failures.
- Encouraging their children to be self-motivated and autonomous and look for intrinsic benefits that arise from learning different subject matters.
- Teaching their children to respect the teacher and to have a good behavior in class.
- Providing a warm and secured home environment free of stress and tensions.
- Providing children with the supplies they need (material and psychological).

- Showing a good attitude towards the subject matter, the teacher, and the school in general because the behavior of children reflects generally the behavior of those around them, namely the parents.
- Offering and providing children with the help to do their homeworks and to be successful with work at home and at school.

Conclusion

Teaching and applying motivational strategies in the language classroom is a complex task, but the teacher can succeed to do that by following some common foreign language principles and by remembering that motivation is one of the key factors in students' success. Motivation is something all our students bring in one form or another. It is not the case that all what we need to do as teachers is to identify motivation, encourage it, feed it, then watch it grow. However, our job is also to teach the students how to cultivate motivation, find it in expected areas, and reflect upon their own motivational process so they can take charge of it. It is also necessary for teachers to be motivated in order to motivate and to accomplish good results with learners. This requires some support from administration, parents and society.

General Conclusion

The investigation carried out in this study has tried to confirm the hypotheses states in the introduction, i.e., students are more motivated to learn and more communicative if the teachers apply a few strategies to enhance their motivation and adopt appropriate approaches to improve their communicative abilities.

As language learners, the first-year students of English at Biskra University lack motivation, more precisely intrinsic and integrative motivation. Indeed, the students' questionnaire results revealed that students study English mainly for passing exams and not for the sake of learning the language and knowing about its culture and history. Besides their lack of motivation, students have trouble with language itself: its structure, phonology, vocabulary,...etc. Because of these, our students lack both self-confidence and self-satisfaction which are two variables essential for learning to occur. The investigation revealed that learners are shy to speak the language but are more at ease when they come to write.

Another important fact is the lack of methodology with all its components. Indeed, teachers claim not to have a specific style, not to use

authentic materials and contradict between the methods they follow and the types of activities that normally go with.

Moreover, teachers say to feel sometimes demotivated because of several reasons they mentioned in the teachers' questionnaire: students' disruptive behavior or administrative constraints. Teachers' demotivation can be the direct cause of the students' loss of interest and desire to learn. The teacher is considered to be a model for his students; his enthusiasm in class is greatly contagious.

Concerning communicative proficiency, although teachers see their students 'weak' at communicating, they do not manage to use and to vary activities that promote communicative skills. Speaking and writing as the two communicative productive skills that should be focused on as well as on listening and reading as the two related receptive skills. The four skills are complementary to each other and are of the same importance when dealing with them to teach communication.

This research work does not propose a new way of teaching and does not aim to elaborate new strategies of motivation as well. It serves as a reminder of the views and theories on motivation, but also of the most effective and applied motivational strategies. Moreover, the study provides

an overview on findings in the field of language teaching and learning, those that concern the ways to enhance students' motivation and methods to improve their communicative abilities.

We would like also to remind our teachers that they are doing a holy job and that from the wide range of roles they may perform in class; those of facilitator and motivator are the ones to be played most, because they proved to provide learners with self-confidence and easy access to their teacher. Students are given more attention and feel more at ease when they come to speak publicly or when they make mistakes.

Moreover, we would like to focus on Communicative Language Teaching and Task-Based Teaching as the two approaches that seem to be the most effective to teach communication. They provide the teacher with a wide range of techniques and activities that help develop and improve the students' communicative skills. These, however, require from the teacher to have a sense of practice especially when using authentic materials.

We hope that the suggestions and recommendations stated in this work will be helpful and useful for teachers of oral and written expression in particular, and for all teachers in general. They deal with ways to motivate students to succeed in learning English, but also how to motivate

teachers to keep doing a good job, because we must be motivated to motivate.

Bibliography

Bibliography

- Alderfer, C. (1972). *Existence, Relatedness, & Growth*. New York. Free Press.
- Bentham, S. (2002). *Psychology and Education*. East Sussex. Routledge.
- Brown, D . H. (2000). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* (4th edition). London: Longman.
- Candlin, C. M. (1981). *Designing Modular Materials for Language Learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Carter, R & Nunan, D. (2002). *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages* . Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Celce-Murcia, M. (2001). *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* (3rd edition). USA. Heinle & Heinle.
- Chambers, G. N. (1999). *Motivating Language Learners*. Clevedon: Multilingual matters.
- Chan, E. (2004). Student Motivation/Teacher Motivation. Vol 7, n° 3, pp.3-7. Faculty of Human and Social Development. University of Victoria, Canada.
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. The Hague: Mouton.
- Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second Language Classroom: Research on Teaching Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Covington, M.V. (1992). *Making the grade: a Self-Worth Perspective on Motivation and School Reform*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Coyne, M. D & Kame'enui, E. J & Carine, D. W. (2002). *Effective Teaching Strategies that Accommodate Diverse Learners* (3rd edition). USA: Pearson Practice Hall.
- Davies, P & Pearse, E. (2000). *Success in English Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Deci, E. L & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behaviour*. Plenum, New York.
- Denny, R. (2006). *Motivate to Win: How to Motivate Yourself and Others* (3rd edition). London: Longman.
- Dornyei, Z. (2001a). *Teaching and Researching Motivation*. USA: Pearson Education limited.
- Dornyei, Z. (2001b). *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dornyei, Z & Csizér, K. (1998). Ten Commandments for Motivating Language Learners: Results from an Empirical Study. *Language Teaching research*, 2(3), 215-223.
- Dornyei, Z & Otto, I. (1998). Motivation in Action: a Process Model of L2 Motivation. *Working Papers in Applied Linguistics*, vol 4, n° 05: pp. 43-69. Thames Vally University, London.

- Ellis, R. (1994). **The Study of Second Language Acquisition**. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Fontana, D. (1995). *Psychology for Teachers* (3rd edition). MacMillan Press Ltd (in association with the BPS)
- Galloway, A. (1993). *Communicative Language Teaching: A Introduction and Sample Activities*. Digest.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social Psychology and Second Language Learning. The Role of attitude and Motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Gardner, R. C & Lambert, W. E. (1959). *Motivation in Second Language Learning*. Longman.
- Gardner, R. C & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and Motivation in Second Language Learning*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.
- Gardner, R. C & Glikzman, L & Smythe, P. C. (1978). *Attitudes and Behaviour in Second Language Acquisition; a Social Psychological Interpretation*. London: Longman
- Gardner, R. C & MacIntyre, P. D. (1993). *Student's Contribution to Second Language Learning*. London. Longman.
- Gils, H, St.Clair & Robert, N (Eds). *Language and Social Psychology*. Oxford: Black Well.
- Glikzman, L. (1976). *Second language Acquisition: The Effects of Students' Attitudes*. USA: University of Antario.

- Good, T. M & Brophy, J. (1990). *Educational Psychology: a Realistic Approach* (4th edition). London. Longman.
- Harmer, J. (1998). *How to Teach English: An Introduction to the Practice of English Language Teaching*. London: Longman.
- Harmer, J. (2001). *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. London: Longman.
- Hassett, M. F. (2000). What Makes a Good Teacher. *Bricolage, Inc*, Jamaica Plain, MA. Vol 12. pp. 2-7. SABES/ World Education, Boston, MA.
- Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ho, Ching-Meng. (1998). Culture Studies and Motivation in Foreign and Second Language Learning in Taiwan. *Journal of language, culture and curriculum*, vol 11, n° 02: pp. 2-3.
- Hubbard, P *et al.* (1991). *A Training Course for TEFL*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Huitt, W. (2001). Motivation to Learn: an Overview. *Educational Psychology Interactive*. Vol 12. Valdosta, GA: Valdosta State University.
- Hymes, D. (1971). *On Communicative Competences* . USA: Pride & Holmes (eds).

- Keller, J. M. (1983). *Motivational Design of Instruction*. Inc. M. Reigeluth (E.d).
- Keller, J. M. (1987). Strategies for Stimulating the Motivation to Learn. *Performance and Instruction*, 26(8), 1-7. (EJ 362 632).
- Kral, T. (1994). Teacher Development: Making the Right Moves. *Selected Articles from the Forum of ELT*, pp. 89-93. Information Agency- Washington DC.
- Khier, N & Molstad, S & Donahue, R. (1990), Using Humor in the College Classroom to Enhance Teaching Effectiveness in Dread Courses. *College Student Journal*, vol 33. pp. 400-417.
- Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics. (1981). MCDonogh, Steven. H. *Psychology in Foreign Language Teaching*. London. Longman.
- Niederhauser, J. S. (1997). Motivating Learners (at South Korean University). *ELT Forum*. vol 35, no 1, January – March.
- Oxford, R. (1994). *Language Learning Strategies: an Update-Digest*. October 94. USA. University of Alabama.
- Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary. (1995). Crowther, J. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Richards, J. C & Rodgers, T. S. (1986). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching: A Description and Analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Richards, J. C. (2006). *Communicative Language Teaching*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.
- Rivers, W. (1981). *Integrative Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ryan, R.M. & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions. *Contemporary educational psychology*, 25(1), 54-67.
- Spolsky, B. (1989). *Conditions for Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Stevena-Long, J & Cobb, N. C. (1983). *Adolescence and Early Adulthood*. USA. Mayfield Company.
- Underwood, M. (1991). *Effective Class Management*. New York. Longman.
- Ur, P. (1996). *A Course in Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Wade, C & Travis, C. (1990). *Psychology*. NEW York. Harper & How Publisher.
- White, R.V. (1985). *The English Teacher's Hand Book*. London. Nelson House.
- Winke, P. M. (2005). Promoting Motivation in the Foreign Language Classroom. Vol 9, n° 2. Michigan State University.

Websites

- Brooks *et. al.* (1998) in www.nwrl.org
- Bundura (1997) in <http://www.edletter.org/past/issues/1999-mj/abstracts.shtml>
- Harris, R. (1991). Some Ideas for Motivating Students. in www.virtuall.com
- Kleinginna & kleinginna (1981) in <http://chiron.valdosta.edu.html>.
- Maslow, A, H. (1968). Toward a Psychology of Being. In www.college.cengage.com/education
- Oxford & Shearin (1996) in <http://chiron.valdosta.edu.html>.
- Shah, K & Shah, P. (1994). Motivation. In www.laynetworks.com
- The Internet TESL Journal, vol 6, n°7, July 2001.
in [http:// itselj.org/Techniques/Zhenhin-Teaching Styles.html](http://itselj.org/Techniques/Zhenhin-Teaching Styles.html).
- Wang, S, K. (2001). Motivation: General Overview of Theories. in <http://www.coe.vga.edu/eplh/motivation-html>).
www.csun.edu
www.sunburst.com
www.telus.net