

THE PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF ALGERIA
MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND RESEARCH

MENTOURI UNIVERSITY, CONSTANTINE
FACULTY OF ARTS AND LANGUAGES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

**An Investigation of Second-Year Students' View about Studies,
Listening Comprehension, Motivation, and Teachers' Styles,
Department of English, University of Constantine**

Thesis Submitted to the faculty of Arts and Languages in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the degree of "Doctorat Sciences" in Applied Linguistics

By

Azeddine BOULFELFEL

Supervisor

Pr. Hacène SAADI

Board of Examiners

Chairperson:

Pr. Said KESKES (university of Setif)

Members:

Dr. Hacène Hamada (E.N.S. Constantine)

Dr. Nacif LABED (University of Constantine)

Dr. Riad BELOUAHEM (University of Constantine)

To my beloved wife Djalila whose help, patience and encouragements allowed me to move forward.

To my daughters Dounia and Malak

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I am very grateful to Professor H. Saadi for his guidance, encouragements, patience and help.

I am also very grateful to Professor M. Benrabah, my co-supervisor when I was in France, for his help and guidance.

Finally, my thanks go to all my friends and colleagues for their encouragements and support.

Abstract

This research investigates motivation and listening through some significant correlations. It makes use of two questionnaires: one questionnaire for second-year students at the department of English, in the University of Constantine, the other questionnaire concerns teachers who teach at the department of English. Some teachers are teachers of oral expression and others are teachers of other modules. The results of the questionnaires have revealed that most students are unsatisfied with their studies at the university. Correlations have revealed that their dissatisfaction is, at least, partly due to their negative view about their teachers. From other respects, it has been shown that most students are rather motivated extrinsically towards their studies and this has affected their efforts to listen to English individually negatively. Furthermore, as their teachers rarely encourage them to listen to English individually as a prerequisite to level improvement, students globally undervalue listening. And on the basis of these observations and findings, some suggestions and recommendations have been made.

Table of contents

Introduction

1.1.Aim of the Study	01
1.2.Statement of the Problem	07
1.3.Hypotheses	07
1.4.The Rationale of the study	08
1.5.Tools of Analysis and Methodology	13
1.6.Steps of the Study	

14

Chapter I

Language Teaching Approaches: A Chronological Account within the Framework of more Efficient Teaching

1. Introduction	17
2. Old Beliefs and Purely Structural Approaches and Methods	20
2.1.The Grammar Translation Method	20
2.2.The Direct Method	22
2.3.The Methods Era	24
2.3.1. The Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching	25
2.3.2. The Audio-Lingual Method	29
3. Transitional approaches and Methods	32
3.1.Total Physical Response	32
3.2.The Silent Way	33
3.3.Community Language Learning	35
3.4.Suggestopedia	37

3.5. Whole Language	38
3.6. The Lexical Approach	39
3.7. Competency-Based Language Teaching	40
4. Current Communicative Approaches	41
4.1 Communicative Language Teaching	41
4.2 The natural Approach	42
4.3 Cooperative Language Learning	43
4.4 Content-Based Instruction	44
4.5 Task-Based Language Teaching	45
4.6 The post-Method Era	46
5. The Place and Role of Listening in Some Approaches to Language Teaching	47
5.1. The Writing Era	48
5.1.1. The Grammar Translation Method	48
5.2. The So-Called Spoken Era	49
5.2.1. The Direct Method	
5.2.2. The Grammar Approach	
5.2.3. The Oral Approach and Situational language Teaching	52
5.2.4. The audio-Lingual Method	53
5.2.5. The Discrete Item Approach	54
5.3. The Communicative Era	56
5.3.1. Communicative Language Teaching	56
5.3.2. The Natural Approach	57
5.3.3. The Task-Based Approach	58
5.3.4. The Learner-Strategy Approach	59

6. How different Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching Involved Self-Determination	61
6.1.The Writing Period	62
6.2.The Speaking Period	62
6.2.1. Structural Approaches and Methods	63
6.2.2. Transitional Approaches and Methods	63
6.2.3. Communicative Approaches and Methods	64
7. Conclusion	65

Chapter II

Listening Comprehension, Learning Styles and Listening Strategies

1. Introduction	66
2. Reasons for Past neglect	68
3. Definitions and Approaches to Listening Comprehension	69
4. Listening in L1 and L2	71
4.1. Listening in L1	71
4.1.1. The Bottom up Approach	71
4.1.2. The Top Down Approach	72
4.2. Some obvious and Latent Problems in L2 Listening	73
4.2.1. Fast Speech (Speed of Delivery)	73
4.2.2. Distortion of Word Boundary	74
4.2.3. Weak Forms	74
4.2.4. Elision	74
4.2.5. Assimilation	75
4.2.6. Gemination	76

4.2.7. Stress and Rhythm	76
4.2.8. Intonation	77
4.2.9. Some Less obvious L2 Listening Problems	78
5. Speech Versus Writing	79
5.1. Speech Varieties	83
5.2. Writing Varieties	85
6. British or American English?	86
6.1. Wide Use	86
6.2. Culture and Lifestyle	86
6.3. Pronunciation	87
6.3.1. Rhotic Accent	87
6.3.2. Nasalization	87
6.4. Which Variety Should Be Taught?	88
7. Authentic Versus Pedagogical Materials	89
7.1. What is a pedagogical Material?	89
7.1.1. Artificial Materials	89
7.1.2. More Natural Pedagogical Materials	89
7.2. Authenticity and Authentic Materials	89
7.3. Which type of Material may be Regarded as more Useful for Learners?	95
7.3.1. Opponents of the Use of Authentic Listening Materials	95
7.3.2. Advocates of Compromise	95
7.3.3. Advocates of Authentic Materials	96
8. Learning Styles, Learning Strategies, and Listening Strategies	97
8.1. Learning Styles	97
8.2. Learning Strategies	101

8.2.1. Meta-cognitive and Cognitive Strategies	103
8.2.1.1. Meta-cognitive Listening Strategies	105
8.2.1.2. Cognitive Learning Strategies	106
8.2.1.3. Socio-affective Listening Strategies	108
9. Individual Listening Prospects and Technology	109
9.1. Radio	110
9.2. Audio-Tapes	110
9.2.1. Extensive Listening Practice	111
9.2.2. Intensive Listening Practice	111
9.2.3. Language Lab	111
9.3. The Video	112
9.3.1. Benefits of Using the Video	112
9.3.2. Different Types of Video Materials	113
9.4. Computer-Assisted Language Learning	115
9.5. Television	116
9.6. Discs	116
10. Conclusion	117

Chapter III

Motivation: Definition, A Brief Historical Survey, and an Account of the Self-Determination Theory

1. Introduction	118
2. Definitions and Approaches to Motivation	120
3. Philosophical Perspective of Motivation	124

3.1.Ancient Greek Philosophical Reasoning	124
3.2.Behavioural and Cognitive Theories of Motivation	126
3.2.1. Behavioural Theories	126
3.2.2. Cognitive Theories	
4. A brief Survey about some Major Contemporary Approaches and Theories of Motivation	128
4.1.Some Approaches and Theories of Motivation	129
5. The Rising Interest in Motivation	132
5.1.The Role of Motivation in Learning and Achievement	132
6. Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination	134
6.1.Some Definitions of Intrinsic Motivation	136
6.2.Emergence and Development of Motivation and Self-Determination	136
6.2.1. Conceptualization of Intrinsic Motivation	137
6.2.2. The Organismic Approach	139
6.2.3. The need for Self-Determination	139
6.3.Cognitive Evaluation Theory	144
6.3.1. External Rewards	144
6.3.2. Monetary Rewards	145
6.3.3. Constraints and other Extrinsic Factors	146
6.3.3.1.Surveillance	146
6.3.3.2.Evaluation	146
6.3.3.3.Goal Imposition	147
6.3.3.4.Competition	147
6.3.3.5.Threats and Deadlines	148
6.4.Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation	149

6.5.Applications and Implications in Education	151
6.5.1. Factors Enhancing Intrinsic Motivation	151
6.5.1.1. Autonomy-Supportive Teachers	154
6.5.1.1.1. The Nature of Autonomy-Supportive Teachers	157
6.5.1.1.2. Autonomy-Supportive Teaching Behaviour	158
6.5.1.1.3. How Autonomy-Supportive Teachers can Help Learners?	161
6.5.1.1.4. Why Are Teachers Often Controlling with Students?	162

7. Conclusion

166

Chapter IV

Tools of Analysis and Methodology

1. The Questionnaire	167
1.1. The Population of the Students' Questionnaire	167
1.2. The Population of the Teachers' Questionnaire	169
2. The Pilot Study	169
2.1. Sampling in the Pilot Study	170
2.2. Types of Questions and results of the Pilot Study of the Students' Questionnaire	171
3. The main Study	184
3.1. Sampling in the main Study	184
3.2. The Aim of the Students' Questionnaire	184
3.3. The Aim of the Teachers' Questionnaire	185
4. Method of collecting Data	186
4.1. The Students' Questionnaire	186
4.2. The Teachers' Questionnaire	186

5.	Method of Analyzing Data	187
5.1.	The Students' Questionnaire	187
5.2.	The Teachers' Questionnaire	187
5.3.	The Questionnaire of the Main Study	188
5.3.1.	The Main Study of the Students' Questionnaire	188
5.4.	The Main Study of the Teachers' Questionnaire	191
5.5.	Discussion of Hypotheses and Some Other Relevant Correlations	193

Chapter V

A Qualitative Investigation of Students Opinion about Studies, Listening Comprehension, and their Teachers'

1.	Introduction	194
2.	Analysis and Interpretation of the Results of the Questionnaire	195
3.	Conclusion	240

Chapter VI

Listening Comprehension, Motivation, and Teachers' Styles

1.	Introduction	242
2.	Analysis and Interpretation of the Results of the Questionnaire	244
3.	Conclusion	295
4.	Discussion of Hypotheses and Some Other Relevant Correlations	296
4.1.	Discussion of Hypothesis 1: Correlation between the results of Students' view about their studies and those of their View Teacher	297
4.2.	Discussion of Hypothesis 2: Correlation between the Results of Students' Type of Motivation and those of their Individual Listening	301
4.3.	Some other Meaningful Correlations	302

4.3.1. Discussion of Hypothesis 1: Correlation between the Results of Students' View about their Studies and those of their View about their Teachers	302
4.3.2. Correlation between Students' Type of Motivation and their view about Studies	303
4.3.3. Correlation between Students' type of Motivation and their View about their Studies and their Teachers	304
4.3.4. Correlation between Students' View about Listening and their Individual Listening	305
4.4. Hypothesis 3: Correlation Between Students' view about Listening and if their Teachers Encourage them to Listen Individually	306
4.5. Some other Meaningful Correlations	307
4.5.1. Correlation between Students' View about their Studies and their Teachers' Style	307
4.5.2. Results of Students' View about their Studies	307
4.5.3. Results of Teachers' View about Autonomy-Support and Control	308
4.5.3.1. Results of Some Questions of the Teachers' Questionnaire, part 5, i.e., Teaching Styles:	
4.5.3.1.1. Results of Question 5	308
4.5.3.1.2. Results of Question 9	308
4.5.3.1.3. Results of Question 13	309
5. Evaluation of the Self-Determination Theory	310
5.1. Rewards	310
5.2. Competition	311
5.3. Autonomy-Support Versus Control	311

5.3.1. Teachers' Unfamiliarity and Lack of Training	311
Limitations of Autonomy Support	312
5.3.2. Merits of Autonomy-Support	312
5.4. Intrinsic or Extrinsic Motivation	313
6. Conclusion	315

Chapter VI

Some Useful Suggestions and Recommendations

1. Introduction	316
2. Listening Strategies, Tasks and Activities	317
2.1. Return to the Importance of Listening in L2 Learning	317
2.2. What Teachers of Oral Expression Need to Know	317
2.3. Some Approaches that Propose Interesting Insights about Teaching Listening Comprehension	319
2.3.1. Task-Based Approach	319
2.3.2. Strategy-Based Approach	320
2.3.2.1.1. Some Classroom Applications	321
Some Steps in the Preparation of a Strategy-Based Approach	321
2.3.2.1.2. Strategies to Determine Setting, Interpersonal Relationships, Mood, and Topic	324
2.3.2.1.3. Paralinguistic Features	324
2.3.2.1.4. Setting	324
2.3.2.1.4.1. Strategies to Determine Setting	325
2.3.2.1.5. Interpersonal Relationships	325

2.3.2.1.5.1.Strategies to Determine Interpersonal Relationship	326
2.3.2.1.6. Mood and Atmosphere	326
2.3.2.1.6.1.Paralinguistic Signals	326
2.3.2.1.6.2.The Linguistic Signal of Intonation	326
2.3.2.1.6.3.Strategies to Determine Mood and Atmosphere	327
2.3.2.1.7. Topic	327
2.3.2.1.7.1.Strategies to Determine Topic	327
2.3.2.1.8. Strategies for Hypothesis Formation, Predicting and Inferencing	329
2.3.2.1.8.1.Strategies and Activities for Predicting and Inferencing	329
2.3.2.1.8.1.1. Pre-Listening in the Form of a Group Discussion	329
2.3.2.1.8.1.2. An Utterance Completion Activity	329
2.3.2.1.9. Listening to Different Things in Different Ways	329
2.3.3. The Integrated Approach	330
3. Strategies that Enhance Motivation	332
3.1.Return to Autonomy-Support and Control	332
3.1.1. The Main Criteria and Advantages of an Autonomy-Supportive Teaching Practice	332
3.2.Cooperative Language Learning	333
3.3.Providing good Conditions to Enhance Motivation	334
3.4.The Teacher Style	334
3.4.1. Enthusiasm	334

3.4.2. Teacher Endorsement of Student Learning	335
3.4.3. Teacher Expectations	336
3.5. Advantages of the Motivational Strategies	337
4. Conclusion	339
General Conclusion	340
Limitations and Prospects	342
Appendixes	343
Appendix I: The Students' Pilot Questionnaire	344
Appendix II: The Students' Questionnaire	350
Appendix III: The Teachers' Questionnaire	363
Bibliography	384

Introduction

1.1. Aim of the study

This research investigates the importance of listening comprehension and motivation in learning. It analyzes some interesting issues, notably, the correlations between the students' view about their studies and their view about their teachers, listening, particularly, individual listening and the students' type of motivation, and students' view about listening and, implicitly, their teachers' attitude towards individual listening.

The importance of listening comprehension in L2 learning (we shall use in this research the term L2 learning to refer to both second and foreign language learning.) is now recognized. Researchers and textbook designers are more and more aware of its growing importance; they not only recommend that listening should be taught in L2 learning programmes but insist that adequate materials and strategies should be used to teach it efficiently.

Through my own experience with teaching oral expression, I have noticed that though listening comprehension is usually taught in the module of oral expression, it is either not taught adequately (this may be due to inadequate means and/or teachers' lack of training), or it is slightly ignored (a heritage from the audio-lingual method- to emphasize speaking and consider listening as a by-product of speaking), or that students themselves use haphazard

2

strategies. These haphazard strategies, such as concentration on individual words whatever the listening material, constitute a serious impediment to comprehension.

Another aspect, which has really aroused my interest and curiosity and which is important in this research, concerns individual listening. Individual listening is usually when a student goes home and starts listening to English through television, radio, etc. Through teaching, I have noticed that unlike students' individual reading which is often insisted on by most teachers as a prerequisite to level improvement, individual listening, however, is rarely referred to as a necessary practice.

We think that individual listening is not only important for level improvement in the language but, as it exposes learners to spoken language used by native speakers, it, at the same time, improves their receptive skills and reinforces their self-confidence. Consequently, individual listening needs to be encouraged and, most importantly, students must be shown the appropriate strategies when they are exposed to different listening materials.

The other important aspect that has caught my attention throughout my teaching route is motivation. When a student shows little interest in some lecture, we usually refer to this attitude as a lack of motivation. We rarely dare inquire about this lack of interest or this lack of motivation. Yet, when we tackle the problem more deeply, we realize that the student's lack of motivation is due to several factors, among them:

- a. Teachers' teaching style. It is now acknowledged that teachers' teaching style affects to a large extent students' interest and motivation. Although the self-determination theory has concentrated its investigation on children and adolescents, we think that the dichotomy autonomy support/control is best illustrated at the university level. It seems more

reasonable to discuss this issue at the university since students who are young adults understand it and respond to it better. This issue is thus discussed in this research, particularly, in the teachers' questionnaire so as to combine it with the students' questionnaire. Therefore, a teachers' questionnaire is very important in this research.

- b. Some external factors affect motivation too. These factors will be discussed, in due place, so that the problem is clearly identified. Some of these factors are external factors such as the learning conditions and some constraints such as deadlines, competition, etc.

In the investigation of motivation, one often wonders about the role played by such driving force (involving affective and cognitive factors) in learning and achievement. It is certainly not always easy to set the effects of motivation on learning. However, what is in our opinion inescapable is that most students who seem to display a low motivation towards their studies need to be shown how to enjoy their studies more, and mainly how their teachers can enhance their motivation by means of some motivational strategies.

Up till now, we have introduced motivation (the discussion will come in the chapters dealing with the concept) as if it were a fixed trait that does not change. However, people may be motivated towards a certain number of things and may not be motivated towards others. The same person can feel interest in and enjoyment for certain things and at the same time a lack of interest towards others. Teachers can, by means of motivational strategies, which are involved in their teaching styles, counteract students' low motivation towards studies.

This discussion leads us to the heart of the problem pertaining to motivation as a whole. Indeed, motivation isn't only one type and its enhancement or undermining depends on the

situation, the circumstances, and mainly the people who influence it (mainly teachers in the case of education). This deep interest in motivation has led us to distinguish between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. This distinction constitutes in our eyes an interesting one. Although the main interest of this research is in listening and motivation and how they are combined, knowing our students' type of motivation towards their studies is also an important issue to discuss. Let us just introduce briefly the main distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Intrinsic motivation implies engaging in an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction inherent in the activity. Students who are doing their homework because they enjoy it and find that learning new things is interesting and satisfying are said to be intrinsically motivated.

Reeve, Deci, and Ryan write:

“Intrinsic motivation is the innate motivation that emerges spontaneously from psychological needs, and is manifest as being interested in the activity itself.”
(2004, p.38)

In contrast to intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation refers to a broad array of behaviours.

Vallerand and Ratelle say:

“[B]ehaviours having in common the fact that activities are engaged in not for reasons inherent in them but for instrumental reasons.” (2002, p.42)

This simply means that extrinsically motivated behaviours and/or choices are undertaken to attain an end state that is separate from the actual behaviour or actual choice.

This research has no pretention to study motivation deeply. In actual fact, only some aspects of the self-determination theory have been discussed in some detail in this research. Firstly, the impact teachers' styles can have on their students' satisfaction with their studies and, in considering such aspect, their motivation will be discussed. Secondly, the distinction

between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation has been approached through a question in the students' questionnaire, notably, their motives for choosing to study English at the university. The purpose of this research is not to measure motivation accurately like psychologists do. It mainly investigates motivation through the self-determination theory in connection with some issues like teachers' styles (autonomy supporting styles and controlling ones), using a qualitative approach.

My experience with teaching brought me to think that our students are either motivated extrinsically or unmotivated. The reasons for this point of view are numerous and are basically connected to personal observation. Indeed, very few students seem to display a somewhat intrinsic interest in studies. This, in our eyes, is due to the learning environment which inevitably leads to dissatisfaction on the part of learners, and this state of affairs led us to investigate this issue.

This research investigates the importance of motivation and listening. We believe that though teachers are doing a very good job and are quite conscious of the importance played by motivation in learning and achievement, they are not well acquainted with autonomy-supportive behaviours and controlling ones, and their effects on motivation and, particularly, intrinsic motivation. This situation has led to students' dissatisfaction with their studies and all the negative effects of all this on learning and motivation. Furthermore, as I consider listening comprehension crucial in learning a foreign language, this investigation pairs up listening and, particularly, individual listening with the type of motivation.

I have considered over and over again the pedagogical situation that most of our students are not motivated intrinsically. Thus, very few of them would enjoy listening and

consider it very important for their studies it (a heritage: listening is rarely encouraged by teachers) and would hardly listen individually enough outside their classes.

1.2. Statement of the Problem and hypotheses

7

With the aforementioned consideration of teaching-learning situation, the present research came to the following questions underlying the main research problem:

1. Are students satisfied with their studies at the university?
2. Do students consider their teachers as autonomy supportive or controlling?
3. Are students motivated intrinsically towards their studies?
4. Do students listen to English quite enough outside the university?
5. Do students consider listening important for their studies?
6. Do teachers urge their students to listen individually?

1.3. Hypotheses

1.3.1. Hypothesis 1

Students' dissatisfaction with studies at the University of Constantine could be due, in part, to their teachers' teaching style.

1.3.2. Hypothesis 2

It would appear that students' lack of enough individual listening could be related to their type of motivation.

1.3.3. Hypothesis 3

If teachers do not encourage their students to listen to English individually, this could lead students to undervalue the importance of the listening skill.

1.4. The Rationale of the study

The rationale behind the two questionnaires can be schematically presented as follows:

1. The students' questionnaire: This questionnaire discusses three main issues :

A. Students' past education and environmental factors that influence learning, in general, and listening, in particular.

This part discusses students' past education in order to see if the students who come to study English at the University of Constantine are well-prepared to follow. Furthermore, some environmental factors are discussed. These environmental factors are:

- a. Whether the student's father and mother are educated or not
- b. At home, do students have the necessary conditions to listen to English reasonably enough?

B. Students' motives for choosing to study English at the university, their view about listening, and their individual listening.

This part mainly discusses the following issues:

- a. Students' motives behind choosing to study English at the university. This issue is extremely important for the research. The motive, indeed, indicates what type of motivation students have towards their studies. This is directly related to hypothesis 2- notably, the correlation between students' type of motivation and individual listening.
- b. Students' view about their studies. Students express themselves in connection with whether they are satisfied with their studies or not. The factors that are related to this issue are discussed. The results of such an issue can be correlated with those of the issue of students' motives behind choice to see if there exist significant links between both issues.

- c. Students' view about their teachers. This issue is extremely important too. Indeed, it may be assumed that students' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their studies is directly connected to their view about their teachers. All this is globally related to autonomy-support and control which are two different teaching styles whose effects on students' satisfaction with studies are inevitable.
- d. Students' individual listening. This issue is meant to determine whether students, outside their classes, listen to English reasonably enough or not. The results of this issue are correlated with the results of motive behind choice (type of motivation).

C. Students' opinion about listening and listening materials are illustrated in the following:

- a. Students' view about British English and American English in relation to their personal preference and understanding.
- b. Students reveal their level of understanding of both transactional and interactional listening materials and the difficulties they usually encounter with both types.
- c. Students express themselves on the issue of authentic and pedagogical materials.

2. The Teachers' questionnaire: This questionnaire discusses five main issues.

A. Approaches and methods. This particular issue discusses the following:

- a. The modules teachers have been teaching during the last three years. This issue is meant to reveal whether teachers do have some stability in relation to the modules they usually teach.
- b. Teachers express themselves on the different approaches and methods in language teaching they are familiar with. The importance of this issue is that it can reveal whether teachers are acquainted with this issue and whether they have taken some interesting insights from them in their teaching.

B. Listening. This part discusses the following:

- a. Teachers evaluate the situation in the department in connection with listening and the necessary equipment.
- b. Teachers say how they organize the module of oral expression in terms of sessions and time allotted to each session.
- c. Teachers highlight the most important and most difficult aspects involved in L2 listening.
- d. Teachers explain briefly what they actually do in their listening comprehension session so that we understand which aspects they really teach, how they teach them, and why.
- e. Teachers give their personal opinion about British English and American English in connection with their importance and usefulness for their students.

C. Listening materials, learning styles, and listening strategies. This part discusses the following issues:

- a. Teachers highlight the main criteria of selection of materials that they usually use in listening. The choice of materials in L2 listening is of paramount importance.
- b. Teachers state if they are reasonably familiar with the issue of students' different learning style. This issue is important because it indicates if teachers, on the whole, are conscious about this particular problem and if they find solutions to it.
- c. The last issue raised in this part represents, in our eyes, the other main building block of the teachers' questionnaire. Indeed, the issue of strategies is of equal importance to the fourth and fifth issues- motivation and teaching styles. Teachers express themselves on the strategies they use and justify.

D. Motivation. This part involves the following issues:

- a. The importance of motivation is expressed by teachers.
- b. Teachers say if they agree with the dichotomy intrinsic motivation-extrinsic motivation.
- c. Teachers say how they think their students are globally motivated, if at all.
- d. Teachers explain whether the learning environment is motivating or demotivating for their students.

E. Teaching styles. This part which is probably the main building block of this questionnaire discusses the following issues:

- a. Teachers give their opinion on the impact that teaching styles can have on their students' motivation.
- b. Teachers argue on the issue of autonomy-support and control, particularly, on the belief that controlling teachers are better rated than autonomy-supportive ones.
- c. Some features of teaching styles are then discussed through some questions. These questions raise the problems of feedback, competition, teachers' behaviour in class, etc.
- d. Motivational strategies are then discussed so as to understand how teachers manage to motivate their students.

1.5. Tools of Analysis and Methodology

This Doctoral research uses two questionnaires to investigate the research question. Firstly, there is a students' questionnaire which investigates some important issues in connection with listening comprehension and motivation. Secondly, there is a teachers' questionnaire which discusses the same issues from teachers' point of view. (Chapter IV provides a detailed illustration of all this). The whole thing is schematically illustrated as follows:

1.5.1 The Students' Questionnaire: It was preceded by a pilot study. The pilot study helped to clarify the main issues underlying the research question and corrected some weaknesses.

1.5.2. The Teachers' Questionnaire: This was not preceded by a pilot study because we considered that teachers were able to understand the issues being investigated well and to provide us with interesting information.

1.5.3. The Population of the Students' Questionnaire: The population of the students' questionnaire represents second-year LMD students at the University of Constantine who are preparing a three-year graduation.

1.5.4. The Population of the Teachers' Questionnaire: The Population of the Teachers' Questionnaire represents teachers of the oral expression module to answer all the questions in the questionnaire and other teachers (teachers who teach other modules) who did not answer the three first parts, i.e., the parts on listening comprehension since they were not teaching oral expression. All in all, twenty five teachers completed the questionnaire.

1.6. Steps of the Study

Following an introductory part, in which the aim of the research is expressed, the hypotheses are identified, and the rationale is elucidated, this research is divided into seven chapters.

Chapter 1 provides a chronological survey about different approaches and methods in language teaching, as well as, the place given to listening comprehension and to self-determination in some of those approaches and methods. This chapter is divided into three main eras. The first era- the structural era- tackles the main approaches and methods that were predominant. The second era-Alternative approaches and methods-describes some of the methods and approaches that characterize it and sees if improvements in language teaching methodology have occurred. The third era-communicative approaches-emphasizes the major changes that have brought about new insights in teaching.

Chapter 2 investigates listening comprehension. Firstly, it defines listening with reference to outstanding writers in the field. Secondly, it opposes L1 and L2 listening, putting a special emphasis on those factors that make L2 comprehension difficult. Thirdly, it compares and contrasts speech and writing. Fourthly, it analyzes the main strategies that an L2 learner is likely to use in connection with different listening materials. Fifthly, it raises the issue of British English and American English. Lastly, it provides a brief account of individual listening and the equipment an individual listener can use.

All this theoretical aspect is given so as to set the ground for the students' and teachers' questionnaires.

Chapter 3 investigates motivation. After providing some useful definitions about motivation, a concise picture of the main contemporary theories of motivation is then given. Following this, the self-determination theory is introduced with a special emphasis on three main issues: definition of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation; factors affecting motivation, and particularly, intrinsic motivation; and teachers' teaching styles and behaviours characterized by the opposition between autonomy-supportive teaching and controlling teaching.

This theoretical aspect prepares the practical aspect, and notably, the teachers' questionnaire.

Chapter 4 explains the methodology and the tools of analysis that have been used in this doctoral research, and the importance of the use of the two questionnaires.

Chapter 5 concerns the students' questionnaire. It investigates the following issues:

- Students' motive(s) for choosing to study English at the university and its relationship with their type of motivation
- The aspects involved in L2 listening that students consider important and difficult
- Students' opinion about the importance of listening for their studies (classification of the four language skills)
- students' view about their studies and their teachers
- students' opinion about authentic materials and pedagogical ones, and British English and American English
- The strategies students use when listening to English
- Some useful and relevant correlations

Chapter 6 consists of a teachers' questionnaire. It investigates the following points:

- Teachers' explanation of the aspects involved in L2 listening that they consider important for their students
- The type of listening materials and the criteria of choice
- The same as students, teachers express themselves on the issue of British English and American English
- Teachers answer some relevant questions on motivation
- Teachers express themselves on several teaching attitudes and styles that are directly related to some teachers' traits of character and specifically to autonomy-supportive teaching attitudes and controlling ones.
- Some significant correlations are made.

At last, some features of the self-determination theory are evaluated.

Chapter 7 provides some suggestions and recommendations for both teachers and learners. It first begins with some suggestions concerning listening comprehension and strategies and then moves to some motivational strategies that are liable to restore intrinsic motivation or maintain motivation globally.

At last, the research closes with a conclusion on the results of the research.

Chapter I

Language Teaching Approaches and Methods: A Chronological Account within the Framework of more Efficient Teaching.

I.1. Introduction

This chapter provides an overview about different approaches and methods in language teaching. The purpose of this chapter is mainly to provide a general view about how teaching has evolved and how different teaching approaches and methods have changed. This chapter is important for the present research because it traces back the evolution of teaching and provides a framework of past successes and failures, and potential improvements in the future in teaching and learning. It also provides a framework about the place given to listening comprehension in different approaches and methods, and briefly considers how the notion of self-determination could have been accounted for.

After giving a chronological account of teaching approaches and methods throughout different eras, and which are categorized as traditional, transitional and communicative eras, a brief overview about how some of these approaches and methods have accounted for listening and self-determination is then given.

It will be seen how the evolution of teaching approaches and methods has been slow and how some old approaches and methods have been long-lasting. This indicates that there have

been, in actual fact, no clear cuts between one era and another, and that the eras have overlapped and co-existed for decades.

This chapter is organized as follows:

- a. Traditional beliefs and purely structural approaches and methods
- b. Transitional approaches and methods
- c. Current communicative approaches
- d. Listening comprehension in some approaches and theories
- e. Some teaching approaches and self-determination

As far as the first point is concerned, it involves the Grammar Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching, and the Audio-Lingual Method. Concerning the second point- transitional approaches and methods- it comprises Total physical response, the Silent way, Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia, Whole Language, the Lexical Approach, and Competency-based Language Teaching. The third point, namely current communicative approaches, involves Communicative Language Teaching, the Natural Approach, Cooperative Language Learning, Content-Based Instruction, Task-Based Language Teaching, and the Post-Method Era.

Finally, the fourth and fifth points are about the place held by listening comprehension in some approaches and methods, and also the concerns of the self-determination perspective.

Before undertaking all this work, we think it is worthwhile introducing the terms approach and method so as to understand the main similarities and differences between them. For some writers, these terms refer to different matters. For instance, Anthony (1963: 63-67) identifies three levels of conceptualization, which he calls approach, method, and technique. He argues that a technique is somehow the practical characterization of a method which itself is derived

from the principles of approach.

An approach is rather a set of inter-related ideas and assumptions which studies how languages are learned and taught. A method is a kind of orderly plan of coherent parts. Approach is larger than method; within one approach, there could be several methods. At last, a technique is an actual implementation of the ideas and assumptions of approach, as well as the application of the content of a method. We will see below that some approaches have given rise to slightly different methods which themselves used different techniques in their implementation.

I.2. Old Beliefs and Purely Structural Approaches and Methods

I.2.1. The Grammar Translation Method

Before linguistics became a scientific study of language, language was studied subjectively. This subjectivity lied in the fact that language investigators, by the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century, had been prescriptive in their ideas- to say how a language or a teaching method should be or should be taught- rather than to be descriptive- to describe what really existed. This was very commonplace among traditional grammarians. Out of these traditional ideas and thoughts, the Grammar Translation Method emerged.

Among the very first methods that gained popularity then was the Grammar Translation Method. In this method, Latin was regarded as a model to follow- Latin was the language of Christianity; therefore, it was considered perfect and a model language.

As its name suggests, the main characteristics of this method were based on grammar, translation, dependence on native language, and rote learning. Below are the basic principles of this method proposed by some linguists: Richards and Rodgers (2001) propose some principles that we have enumerated below:

1. The goal of foreign language study is to learn a language in order to read its literature or in order to benefit from the mental discipline and intellectual development that result from foreign language study. Grammar Translation is a way of studying a language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language. It hence views language learning as consisting of little more than memorizing rules and facts in order to understand and manipulate the morphology and syntax of the foreign language. For Stern:

"The first language is maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the second language".(1983: 455)

2. Reading and writing are the major focus; little or no systematic attention is paid to speaking or listening.

3. Vocabulary selection is based solely on the reading texts used, and words are taught through bilingual word list, dictionary study, and memorization. In a typical Grammar-Translation text, the grammar rules are presented and illustrated, a list of vocabulary items is presented with their translation equivalents, and translation exercises are prescribed.

4. The sentence is the basic unit of teaching and language practice. Much of the lesson is devoted to translating sentences into and out of the target language, and it is this focus on the sentence that is a distinctive feature of the method. Earlier approaches to foreign language study used grammar as an aid to the study of texts in a foreign language (traditional grammar). But this was thought to be too difficult for students in secondary schools, and the focus on the sentence was an attempt to make language learning easier.

5. Accuracy is emphasized. Students are expected to attain high standard in translation, because as Howatt said:

"The high priority attached to meticulous standards of accuracy which, as well as having an intrinsic moral value, was a prerequisite for increasing number of formal written examinations that grew up during century".

(Howatt, 1984:132, cited in Richards and Rodgers (2001: 6).

6. Grammar is taught deductively- that is, by presentation and study of grammar rules, which are then practiced through translation exercises. In most Grammar Translation texts, a syllabus was followed for the sequencing of grammar in an organized and systematic way.

7. The student's native language is the medium of instruction. It is used to explain new items and to enable comparisons to be made between the foreign language and the student's native language. (2001: 5-6).

Grammar Translation Method has in fact dominated European and foreign language teaching from about 1840 to 1940, and in some modified forms, it continues to be widely used in many parts of the world today. The issue worth mentioning here is whether today's failures of teaching methods are due to the ever-lasting influence of archaic methods (like the grammar translation method) or to the inadequacies of new approaches which have more or less failed to improve teaching and learning.

I.2.2. The Direct Method

Before discussing the main characteristics of the direct method, it is important to mention that a shift in interest in language teaching occurred then. This shift was referred to as "the reform movement". Very briefly, this movement expressed its dissatisfaction with grammar translation and suggested that in learning a foreign language, speech should be given priority over writing and this had to be shown in the design of language teaching approaches and methods. Among the basic principles of this reform movement, Richards and Rodgers (2001: 9) list:

1. the study of the spoken language
2. phonetic training in order to establish good pronunciation habits
3. the use of conversation texts and dialogues to introduce conversational phrases and idioms
4. an inductive approach to the teaching of grammar
5. teaching new meanings through establishing associations within the target language rather than by establishing associations within the native language.

The Direct Method bears its name to a "natural method" that emerged out of the ideas of the reform movement early in the twentieth century. All these attempts to devise an approach that would provide the foundations for a teaching and learning method that would focus on the target language and speech and question and answer in the first stages gave rise to the birth of

the direct method.

Among the principles of the direct method:

1. Classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target language.
2. Only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught.
3. Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progression organized around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small, intensive classes.
4. Grammar was taught inductively.
5. New teaching points were introduced orally.
6. Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects, and pictures; abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas.
7. Both speech and listening comprehension were taught.
8. Correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasized.

The relative success of the direct method was almost restricted exclusively to private schools which were actually not very numerous. However, public schools dealt with this method rather with suspicion and care. Among the criticisms directed against this method—namely the avoidance of using the native language, the Harvard psychologist Brown states that one feels frustrated in observing a teacher performing verbal gymnastics in an attempt to convey the meaning of Japanese words, when translation would have been a much more efficient technique. (1973: 5)

In the same vein, many academic proponents of the reform movement of that time considered this method as lacking rigorous basis in applied linguistic theory. As for teachers, it required those teachers who were either native speakers or who had a native-like fluency in the foreign language. It was largely dependent on the teacher's skill, rather than on a textbook, and not all teachers were proficient enough in the foreign language to adhere to the principles of the method.

Because of all these limitations and constraints, the direct method lost its popularity and started to be replaced by new insights that could serve as the basis for teaching. These new

insights were actually brought about by the fresh ideas of the proponents of the Reform Movement which later laid the ground for new approaches and methods in second and foreign language teaching. Yet, among the merits of the direct method, was the emergence of the concept “method” which was introduced as a new element in second and foreign language teaching. Subsequent attempts to tackle the field of second and foreign language teaching owe a lot to this method in the design of approaches and methods.

I.2.3. The Methods Era

As it was stated above, one of the lasting legacies of the direct method was the notion of method itself. The controversy over the direct method was the first of many debates over how second and foreign languages should be taught. The history of language teaching throughout much of the twentieth century saw the rise and fall of a variety of language teaching approaches and methods. A brief overview of these is given below.

What is so characteristic about the different approaches and methods in language teaching in the 1960s was that they all believed that if language learning was to be improved, it had to be done through changes and improvements in teaching methodology. Yet, most of these approaches and methods displayed big discrepancies in relation to goals and assumptions about how second or foreign language is learned.

Many current linguists and applied linguists have criticized this era for its lack of deep research in the field of theory of language and its belief that a single approach or method could resolve all learning and teaching problems. For instance, Lange, states on this particular issue:

"Foreign language teacher development...has a basic orientation to methods of teaching. Unfortunately, the latest bandwagon "methodologies" come into prominence without much study or understanding, particularly those that appear easiest to immediately apply in the classroom or those that are supported by a particular "guru". Although concern for method is certainly not a new issue, the current attraction to "method" stems from the late 1950s, when foreign language teachers falsely led to believe that there was a method to remedy the "language teaching and language learning problems." (1988: 253).

The most active period in the history of approaches and methods was from the 1950s to the 1980s. In the following, two outstanding structural approaches and methods are discussed.

I.2.3.1. The Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching.

As its name suggests, the term oral approach and situational language teaching can be split up into oral approach which is an approach, and situational language teaching, which is rather a method. The oral approach is a set of assumptions and ideas about how second and foreign language can be taught whereas situational language teaching can be said to be a method and technique about how the oral approach's ideas and assumptions are implemented. Nevertheless, both terms are usually combined together and are rarely separated.

Few people in the world today are familiar with this approach. In actual fact, this approach has emerged out of the reform movement that was mentioned above. What should be noted about this "revolutionary" movement in the field of language teaching is that it took place in Britain and America as a reaction to grammar translation learning procedures. Though in theory this approach seemed revolutionary, in practice however, old ideas were reformulated and presented differently.

Yet, nobody can deny the everlasting influence of this approach on the design of textbooks and language teaching and learning curricula. Many ideas and even textbooks that

were designed at that time are still very popular in many parts of the world even today.

The origins of this approach began with the work of British applied linguists in the 1920s and 1930s. These applied linguists wanted a total change from previous teaching ideas. For example, Pattison argues in this direction:

"An oral approach should not be confused with the obsolete Direct Method, which meant only that the learner was bewildered by a flow of ungraded speech, suffering, all the difficulties he would have encountered picking up the language in its normal environment and losing most of the compensating benefits of better contextualization in those circumstances".(1964: 4).

Richards and Rodgers (2001) cite some of the basic principles of this approach:

1. Language teaching begins with the spoken language. Material is taught orally before it is presented in written form.
2. The target language is the language of the classroom.
3. New language points are introduced and practiced situationally.
4. Vocabulary selection procedures are followed to ensure that an essential general service vocabulary is covered.
5. Items of grammar are graded following the principle that simple forms should be taught before complex ones.
6. Reading and writing are introduced once a sufficient lexical and grammatical basis is established. (2001: 39).

As a matter of fact, it was the third point that became the key feature of the approach in the 1960s, and it was then the situational dimension that better reflected the oral approach. In addition to the situational dimension of this approach, practice drills also got the lion's share. This is explained by Pitman:

"Our principal classroom activity in the teaching of English structure will be the oral Practice of structures. This oral practice of controlled sentence patterns should be given in situations designed to give the greatest of practice in English speech to the

pupil".(1969: 179).

As it can be seen, this teaching approach is largely structural in its assumption and in its implementation. This seems to be quite logical as applied linguists then drew on insights from the dominating psychological theories which were purely behaviourist. To better illustrate the impact of behaviourist ideas on the design of teaching materials at this time, two influential and authoritative views referring to two proponents of this approach are hereby evoked. Firstly, Palmer (cited in Frisby, 1957) pointed out that there were three basic processes in language learning. At first, students receive the knowledge or materials. Second, they fix it in the memory by repetition. Third, they use it in actual practice until it becomes a personal skill. (1957: 136).

Almost in similar vein, French stressed habit formation which was a key feature of behaviourism. He writes:

"The fundamental is correct speech habits....The pupils should be able to put the words, without hesitation and almost without thought, into sentence patterns which are correct. Such speech habits can be cultivated by practice drills". (1950, vol. 3: 9)

Concerning what happens in the classroom, Pittman summarizes as follows:

- "1. timing
2. oral practice, to support the textbook structures
3. revision [i.e., review]
4. adjustment to special needs of individuals
5. testing
6. developing language activities other than those arising from the textbook". (op. cit: 177-178)

In addition to all this, a kind of model lesson illustrates better how this approach was used in language learning and language teaching. Davies et al (1975), illustrate very clearly how a model lesson is taught in the classroom.

1. Listening practice in which the teacher obtains his student's attention of the pattern or a

word in isolation clearly, several times, probably saying it slowly at least once (Where is...pen?), separating the words. Choral imitation in which students all together or in large groups repeat what the teacher has said. This works best if the teacher gives a clear instruction like "Repeat," or "Everybody" and hand signals to mark time and stress.

2. Individual imitation in which the teacher asks several individual students to repeat the model he has given in order to check their pronunciation.

3. Isolation, in which the teacher isolates sounds, words, or groups of words which cause trouble and goes through techniques 1-3 with them before replacing them in context.

4. Building up to a new model, in which the teacher encourages students to ask and answer questions using patterns they already know in order to bring about the information necessary to introduce the new model.

5. Elicitation, in which the teacher, using mime, prompt words, gestures, etc., gets students to ask questions, make statements, or give new example of that pattern.

6. Substitution drilling, in which the teacher uses cue words (words, numbers, names, etc.) to get individual students to mix the examples of the new pattern.

7. Question-answer drilling, in which the teacher gets one student to ask a question and another to answer until most students in the class have practiced asking and answering the new question form.

8. Correction, in which the teacher indicates by shaking his head, repeating the error, etc., that there is a mistake and invites the student or a different student to correct it. Where possible the teacher does not simply correct the mistake himself. He gets students to correct themselves so they are encouraged to listen to each other carefully. (1975: 6-7).

By and large, the oral approach and situational language teaching has not succeeded to

propose new insights in learning and teaching. Probably students who learned second or foreign languages through the oral approach's procedures were at a loss whenever they had to communicate with native speakers of the language. Unfortunately, this approach is still very popular in many parts of the world today.

I.2.3.2. The Audio-Lingual Method

While in Europe the oral approach and situational language teaching was tremendously dominating European language learning and language teaching, the audio-lingual method-its American counterpart-was flourishing in America. Undoubtedly, there could be no other method that has ever received such a deep influence of the ideas and insights of behaviourist psychology as the audio-lingual method did.

The audio-lingual method was generated by the U.S. Defense Forces language programmes during and after World War II. A number of factors influenced the way foreign languages were taught after the war (e.g., the emergence of several international languages, the greater mobility of people, and the expansion of education programmes. In order to meet these new needs for languages, the "Army Method" was developed in the United States.

In terms of approach to language teaching, this method was structuralist. Among the innovations that were brought about by this method, Rivers writes:

"Language is speech, not writing....A language is a set of habits....Teach the language, not about the language....A language is what its native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say....Languages are different". (1964: 5)

In terms of theory of learning, theoreticians and methodologists of the audio-lingual were not only convinced that their method would resolve all learning and teaching problems, but they were deeply influenced by a new trend in psychology- behaviourism that was thought to be able to explain all human behaviour including language. To illustrate the big impact of

behaviourism on the theory of learning of the audio-lingual method, let's just refer to reinforcement which was a key feature of behaviourism. The most central methodological practices of the audio-lingual method are given below by, Rivers:

1. Foreign language learning is basically a process of mechanical habit formation. Good habits are formed by giving correct responses rather than by making mistakes. By memorizing dialogues and performing pattern drills the chances of producing mistakes are minimized. Language is verbal behaviour- that is, the automatic production and comprehension of utterances- and can be learned by inducing the students to do likewise.
2. Language skills are learned more effectively if the items to be learned in the target language are presented in spoken form before they are seen in written form. Aural-oral training is needed to provide the foundation for the development of other languages.
3. Analogy provides a better foundation for language learning than analysis. Explanations of rules are therefore not given until students have practiced a pattern in a variety of contexts and are thought to have acquired a perception of the analogies involved. Drills can enable learners to form analogies. Hence the approach to the teaching of grammar is inductive rather than deductive.
4. The meanings that the words of a language have for the native speaker can be learned only in a linguistic and cultural context and not in isolation. Teaching a language thus involves teaching aspects of the cultural system of the people who speak the language". (ibid: 19-22)

The audio-lingual's neglect of cognitive learning made it such a mechanistic method of learning that it collapsed. Carroll explains briefly the shortcomings of the audio-lingual method:

"The audio-lingual habit theory which is so prevalent in American foreign language Teaching was, perhaps fifteen years ago, in a step with the state of psychological thinking of that time, but it is no longer abreast of recent developments. It is ripe for major revision, particularly in the direction of joining it with some of the better elements of the cognitive-code learning theory". (1966a: 105)

After having reached an unprecedented popularity as the most widespread foreign language teaching method especially in the United states around the 1960s, the audio-lingual method suddenly declined because, as was the case for the oral approach and situational language teaching in Britain, it failed to cope with real-life situations where a foreign language was actually used and how native speakers of a language used it.

I.3. Transitional Approaches and Methods

In the period of the emergence of communicative approaches to language teaching which utterly changed the focus of language learning and language teaching from grammar to

communicative competence, some "so-called" transitional approaches and methods appeared. What is so peculiar about them is that they rather lacked an elaborate theory of learning and mainly emphasized particular aspects in their teaching insights.

I.3.1. Total Physical Response

This particular teaching method was developed by a professor of psychology, at San Jose University, California, named James Asher. Asher believed that adult target language learning was quite similar to children's acquisition of mother tongue. As this latter consisted of commands directed to children, he thought, so should adult target language learning.

His teaching method was based on grammar and vocabulary. Asher writes:

"Most of the grammatical structure of the target language and hundreds of vocabulary items can be learned from the skillful use of the imperative by the instructor".
(1977: 4)

When we take a look at this learning theory, we realize that there was a return to stimulus-response procedures- a belief that was totally abandoned. In addition to this, Brown argues that Asher's approach states that language learning is more effective when it is connected with some physical movement to stimulate the right side of the brain in addition to the left side of the brain which is used for language; a view that needed to be proved scientifically. (2002: 2)

Among the basic principles of total physical response, Brown lists:

- "1. Commands and questions are given in L2.
2. Teacher directs all students' action and learning. For example, learners are directed by using commands (sit down, stand up, go to the door, bring me the book, or questions that require learners to point or move (Where is the book? Who is the teacher?
3. The teachers should make the classroom comfortable so that learners can learn more efficiently.
2. Learners should first listen and follow the teacher's instructions, but eventually they should become comfortable enough to answer questions and finally to ask questions" (2002: 2).

Total physical response enjoyed some popularity in the 1970s and 1980s especially with the support of researchers who advocated comprehension-based teaching materials in the second and foreign language. However, and though this particular method seems useful in many respects, it is rather very limited in terms of theory of language and its implementation is very demanding.

I.3.2. The Silent Way

This method was designed by Caleb Gattegno (1972) in America. It is based on the idea that if language learning and teaching are to be effective, the teacher should be as silent as possible in the classroom and learners are encouraged to produce as much as possible. At first sight, this looks rather counterintuitive in comparison with other methods where the role of the teacher is crucial. Brown summarizes some of the basic principles of that method in the following way:

1. The teacher presents information using Colour-coded posters and Cuisenaire rods, sticks of different sizes and colours.
2. The teacher may speak words or short sentences and then be silent while Learners analyze information.
3. Learners should analyze the posters and arrangement of the Cuisenaire rods to deduce grammatical structures.
4. Students should cooperate and work on problem-solving activities to learn the language. This helps them work independently of the teacher.

5. Learners study a sequence of information that is based on grammar and the vocabulary connected with that grammar. (2002: 2)

The silent way takes a structural approach in the teaching methodology. Besides this, the teaching of very specific vocabulary items that may have no equivalents in the learner's native language seems to be very important. Learners are supposed to develop independence, autonomy, and responsibility. Richards and Rodgers comment that independent learners are those who are aware that they must depend on their own resources and realize that they can use the knowledge of their own language to open up some things in a new language. (2001: 85)

Clearly, this method is very demanding on learners. Learners are expected to just rely on themselves and their own capabilities which is actually not the primary goal of language teaching at early stages. It is true that autonomy and responsibility are motivating and may enhance creativity, but this is effective only when learners have enough mastery and proficiency in the target language.

I.3.3. Community Language Learning.

Community Language Learning is a method that was designed by an American professor and his associates at Loyola University, Chicago, named Charles A. Curran. He used psychological counseling to somehow redefine the roles of teachers and learners in learning and teaching. His teaching methodology basically draws on more general insights of a trend in foreign language teaching described as humanistic techniques.

These humanistic techniques are defined by Moskowitz as being a way of life where

learners in the target language feel self-esteem and harmony which may push them to reinforce what they already know in being proud of themselves, which ultimately helps foster a climate of caring and sharing in the foreign language class (1978: 2). Of course all these words sound rather strange and sometimes unintelligible in the field of language learning and teaching.

Curran wrote very little about his theory of language. It was in fact one of his students named La Forge who wrote almost everything. La Forge argued that this method was not structure-based but rather social-based. (1983: 3). He states that communication is rather more than just conveying a message from a speaker to a listener. Rather, he thinks, communication involves an affective relation between speaker and listener who become listener and speaker because communication is an exchange of ideas and opinions and not a one way communication. (1978: 2)

This social-process view of language is then elaborated in terms of six qualities stated by La Forge:

“Language is people; language is persons in contact; language is persons in response”.
(1978: 3)

To give a clear idea of how CLL teaching procedures take place, let’s refer to this long quotation by Dieter Stroinig quoted in:

- “1. Informal greetings and self-introductions were made.
2. The teacher made a statement of the goals and guidelines for the course.
3. A conversation in the foreign language took place.
 - a) A circle was formed so that everyone had visual contact with each other.
 - b) One student initiated conversation with another student by giving a message in L1

(English).

- c) The instructor, standing behind the student, whispered a close equivalent of the message in the L2 (German).
- d) The student then repeated the L2 message to its addressee and played the tape recorder well.
- e) Each student had a chance to compose and record a few messages.
- f) The tape recorder was rewound and replayed at intervals.
- g) Each student repeated the meaning in English of what he or she had said in the L2 and helped to refresh the memory of others”.

Students then participated in a reflection period, in which they were asked to express their feelings about the previous experience with total frankness.

- 3. From the materials just recorded the instructor chose sentences to write on the blackboard that highlighted elements of grammar, spelling, and peculiarities of capitalization in the L2.
- 5. Students were encouraged to copy sentences from the board with notes on meaning and usage. This became their “textbook” for home study”. (Stevick, 1980: 185-186)

As we can see, Community Language Learning is a very interesting method as it has involved a new element, which is basically cooperative learning. This way of learning, as we shall see below, is very important in the self-determination perspective. Unfortunately, it is a little bit too demanding on teachers who need to be trained adequately to teach through this method.

I.3.4. Suggestopedia

Suggestopedia is a method that was designed by a Bulgarian psychiatrist-educator named Georgi Lozanov. It is based on the theory that the human brain can process information most efficiently in a relaxed state. Among the principles of this method, Brown writes:

- “1. The learners’ L1 does not have an important role in the classroom.
- 2. The teacher creates a relaxing environment by playing classical music to help the brain process the information
- 3. Teachers read texts to learners to help them absorb the language.

4. Learners should only relax and listen to the music and the text- they should not study or make any effort to learn.
3. Information is sequenced according to grammatical structures and vocabulary.” (2002: 2)

Another thing that is crucial in this theory is the authority of the teacher. This seems to be a return to some of the principles of grammar translation. Again, as with community language learning, this method seems to be very demanding on teachers. Lozanov (1978) himself states this. He lists several expected teacher behaviours.

1. Show absolute confidence in the method.
2. Display fastidious conduct in manners and dress.
3. Organize properly and strictly observe the initial stages of the teaching process- this includes choice and play of music, as well as punctuality.
4. Maintain a solemn attitude toward the session.
5. Give tests and respond tactfully to poor papers (if any).
6. Stress global rather than analytical attitudes toward material.
7. Maintain a modest enthusiasm. (1978: 275-6)

Suggestopedia which seems to be a mixture of grammar translation, community language learning and the silent way in some procedures may be efficient in some respects; but in terms of theory of learning, it seems very limited and too idealistic.

I.3.5. Whole Language

The term Whole Language was created in the 1980s by a group of U.S. educators concerned with the teaching of language arts, that is, reading and writing in the native language. Whole Language views language from an interactional perspective. This view has been explained by Rigg:

“Language use is always in a social context, and this applies to both oral and written language, to both first and second language use”. (1991: 523)

Some of the major principles of Whole Language are listed below:

- a. The use of authentic literature rather than artificial, especially prepared texts and exercises designed to practice individual reading skills.
- b. A focus on real and natural events rather than on specially written stories that do not relate to students' experience.
- c. The reading of real texts of high interest, particularly literature.
- d. Reading for the sake of comprehension and for a real purpose
- e. Writing for a real audience and not for the sake of the writing skill itself.
- f. Writing as a process through which learners explore and discover meaning.
- g. Student centred learning. They have choice over what they read and write.

As it can be seen, Whole Language, though it seems to have some interesting insights, cannot be regarded as a teaching method. Teaching is very specific as the teacher is free to use the approach according to the needs of particular classes.

I.3.6. The Lexical Approach

A lexical approach in language learning is one that believes that the basis of language learning and communication is not actually grammar, functions, notions, etc., but rather lexis, i.e., words and word combinations. The emphasis has been put on lexis both in first and second language acquisition research. Likewise, the role of collocation is crucial in this approach. Basically, collocation refers to the regular occurrence together, of words like “as light as a feather”; “busy as a bee”; “neat as a pen”, etc.

Lexis is thus believed to play a central role in language learning. Yet, if for native speakers who have thousands of pre-packaged phrases in their lexical inventory it may work, the situation is certainly different for foreign language learners who bitterly lack all those things.

Lewis recognizes that the lexical approach has lacked a coherent learning theory and proposes new assumptions about learning theory and the lexical approach:

“Encountering new learning items on several occasions is a necessary but sufficient condition for learning to occur. Noticing lexical chunks or collocations is a necessary but not sufficient condition for “input” to become “intake”. Noticing similarities, differences, restrictions, and examples contributes to turning input into intake, although formal description of rules probably does not help. Acquisition is based not on the application of formal rules but on an accumulation of examples from which learners make provisional generalizations. Language production is the product of previously met examples, not formal rules. No linear syllabus can adequately reflect the nonlinear nature of acquisition”. (2000: 184)

The status of lexis in language teaching and the design of syllabi that are lexis-based have been of considerable attention during the last decade or two decades. It is no doubt that lexis constitutes an important tool in the acquisition of language but it is only one component of communicative competence. Lastly, this approach has yet to demonstrate how acquisition occurs efficiently through lexis and lexical combinations.

I.3.7. Competency-Based Language Teaching

Unlike other approaches and methods which focus on inputs to language learning, competency-based language teaching focuses on the outcomes or outputs of learning in the development of language programmes.

This approach is based on a functional and interactional perspective on the nature of language. As language always occurs as a medium of interaction and communication between people for the achievement of specific goals and purposes, so this approach seeks to teach language in relation to the social contexts in which it is used.

This probably means that the approach’s designers accurately predict the vocabulary and structures likely to be encountered in those particular situations that are central to the life of

the learner and can use these in ways that can be used to organize teaching/learning units.

According to Richards and Rodgers there seem to be several advantages from the point of view of the learner. They write:

- “1. The competencies are specific and practical and can be seen to relate to the learner’s needs and interests.
2. The learner can judge whether the competencies seem relevant and useful.
3. The competencies that will be taught and tested are specific and public- hence the learner knows exactly what needs to be learned.
4. Competencies can be mastered one at a time so the learner can see what has been learned and what still remains to be learned”. 2001: 146-147).

Though this approach has gained some sympathy and enthusiasm in ESL circles, it has received many criticisms. Among the criticisms was a return to a disguised prescription in language teaching. Another criticism relates to the fact that this approach focuses on behaviour and performance and a neglect of thinking which is considered an important cognitive activity.

I.4. Current Communicative Approaches

This part deals with the communicative era characterized by communicative

competence as opposed to structural competence. This part discusses the following approaches and methods:

- a. Communicative Language Teaching
- b. The natural Approach
- c. Cooperative Language Learning
- d. Content-Based Instruction
- e. Task-Based Language teaching
- f. The Post-Methods Era

I.4.1. Communicative Language Teaching

The origins of communicative Language Teaching (CLT) go back to the 1960s' ideas and thoughts of British applied linguists who were still influenced by the famous situational language teaching. Both British and American proponents of the communicative approach see it as rather an approach and not a method. The aims of this approach are:

- a. Make communicative competence the goal of teaching.
- b. Develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication.

Communicative language teaching emphasizes both functional and structural aspects of language. This idea was put forward by Littlewood:

“One of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language”.
(1981: 1)

Howatt has distinguished between a strong version of communicative language teaching and a weak one. The strong version advocates the view that learners should use English in order to learn it while the weak version argues that learners should learn to use English. In addition to this, there have been attempts to create syllabus designs based on the

communicative approach's ideas and insights. However these attempts were still immature in practice. 1984: 279).

After the decline of situational language teaching in Britain and audio-lingualism in America, and the relative failure of alternative approaches and methods, there was a crucial need for new insights in language teaching. Consequently, as the proverb says, many hands make light work, the constant efforts of applied linguists in Britain and America set the ground for the emergence of communicative language teaching.

I.4.2. The Natural Approach

Among the approaches and methods that emerged during the communicative era was the natural approach. This approach was the outcome of combined efforts of Tracy Terrell, a teacher of Spanish in California, and Stephen Krashen, an applied linguist at the University of Southern California.

They proposed new ideas concerning learning and put vocabulary at the heart of learning. Out of these new ideas emerged their famous input hypothesis which basically refers to what the learner knows plus a bit higher level of that. This is illustrated as "I + 1", i.e., Input + 1.

They also referred to the dichotomy acquisition/ learning in which they state that acquisition of first language is natural and unconscious while learning is conscious. However, they add that Learning a foreign language can be made similar to acquisition of first language and thus leads to acquisition of second or foreign language.

Krashen and Terrell insist that their approach is communication based and not grammar based.

They write:

“The goals of a Natural Approach class are based on an assessment of student needs. We determine the situations in which they will use the target language and the sorts of topics they will have to communicate information about. In setting communication goals, we do not expect the students at the end of a particular course to have acquired a certain group of structures or forms. Instead we expect them to deal with a particular set of topics in a given situation. We do not organize the activities of the class about a grammatical syllabus”. (1983: 71)

What can be said about the natural approach is that it has focused on comprehension and meaningful communication which is clearly advantageous but it bitterly lacked an elaborate theory of learning.

I.4.3. Cooperative Language Learning

Cooperative Language Learning was developed by a group of theorists around the belief that maximum use of cooperative activities involving pairs and small groups enhances learning and motivates on. Olsen and Kagan, two of its theorists, explain the approach:

“Cooperative learning is group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others”. (1992:8)

Among the basic principles of this approach, Johnson, Johnson and Holubec mention: raising students’ achievements, developing positive relationships between students with cooperation and not competition, etc. (1994: 2)

To conclude, this approach seems very interesting in that it emphasizes cooperative values in learning at the expense of destructive competition values. Although it is partly true that in group works or pair works high level students dominate low level ones, it is undeniable that positive cooperation leads to higher self-esteem, motivation and performance.

I.4.4. Content-Based Instruction

This refers to an approach to second language teaching in which teaching is usually organized around the content of what students are supposed to learn rather than the linguistic component. This idea is highlighted by one of its proponents, Krahnke writes:

“It is the teaching of content or information in the language being learned with little or no direct or explicit effort to teach the language itself separately from the content being taught”. (1987: 65)

Expressed differently, this means that content, though used with different meanings in language teaching, usually refers to the subject matter that we learn or communicate through rather than the language used to convey it.

In terms of approach to language learning, content-based approach basically rests on these two principles:

- a. People learn a second language more successfully when they use the language as a means of acquiring information, rather than as an end in itself.
- b. Content-Based Instruction better reflects learners’ needs for learning a second language.

Content-Based Instruction being content-based rather than language-based is an innovation in language teaching methodology as it applies to several different purposeful learning. Very few criticisms have been directed against this approach namely the teachers’ lack of proficiency to teach through these new procedures since most teachers have a language-based formation.

I.4.5. Task-Based Language Teaching

Task-Based Language teaching refers to an approach based on the use of tasks as the

core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching. Among its most known proponents is Willis and Willis in their book published in 1996, “A flexible Framework for Task-Based Learning”.

Among the principles of this approach, there is a focus on activities that involve real communication, meaningful tasks promote learning, and comprehensible language to the learner supports learning. Tasks are usually proposed as useful vehicles for applying these principles. A task is being defined by Skehan:

“Tasks...are activities which have meaning as their primary focus. Success in tasks is evaluated in terms of achievement of an outcome, and tasks bear some resemblance to real-life language use. So, task-based instruction takes a fairly strong view of communicative language teaching”. (1996b: 20)

Furthermore, a task is regarded as something communicative in the way learners deal with language. This idea has been highlighted by Nunan who argues that the communicative task is rather a piece of classroom work where learners interact with the target language emphasizing on meaning and not form. (1989: 10).

Task-Based Language Teaching has introduced a new element which is task. It is undeniable that tasks are activities that when adequately used can constitute an efficient tool in language teaching and learning.

I.4.6. The Post-Method Era

Nowadays, there seems to be a consensus over the fact that there is no miracle method

that will resolve all teaching and learning problems. Probably, most approaches which have emerged after the advent of the communicative approach, display merits and shortcomings at the same time. What characterizes present time issues is that there is a focus on the learner and the strategies he uses to learn.

In this part, a brief historical survey about approaches and methods in language teaching has been given. We have seen that there has been a slow evolution from very old and prescriptive methods to more sophisticated approaches and methods. However, as the main goal of all these has always been to provide innovations in the field of teaching and learning, the question that seems of paramount importance is this: To what extent do new approaches in this post-method era provide efficient means to enable teachers embrace them and fulfil the aim which is to improve learning and teaching?

The methods we have gone through are hereby listed below:

- a. Audio-lingualism
- b. Situational language teaching
- c. The silent way
- d. Suggestopedia
- e. Total physical response.

A method by definition refers to a specific instructional design or system based on a particular theory of language and of language learning. It is rather rigid and allows little room for manoeuvre to teachers and learners. The teacher's role is basically to follow the method and apply it precisely according to the rules. What may explain the decline of methods which were very popular in the past is rather their fixed and rigid nature allowing little or no flexibility and therefore no creativity and individual interpretation. Yet, methods do have an advantage over approaches. This advantage lies in the nature of the method itself which is clear and detailed instructions.

The approaches that have been given in this part are:

Communicative language teaching, competency- based language teaching, content- based instruction, lexical approaches, the natural approach, task-based language teaching, and Whole language.

Perhaps the main advantage of an approach over a method is that it just provides a core set of theories and beliefs about the nature of language, of language learning, and language teaching. They are flexible and provide possibilities of variation of interpretation on the basis of the situation such as learners' needs, their attitude towards the language, their motivation, etc.

I.5. The Place and Role of Listening in some Approaches to Language Teaching.

In this part, the place given to and role played by listening is discussed. Different

approaches and methods in language teaching have always tried to propose alternatives in language teaching to older ones. Some have highlighted certain skills at the expense of others. This brief but interesting account tackles the way some influential approaches and methods in language teaching have considered the importance of listening in second and foreign language teaching.

As was done above with approaches and methods in language teaching, this part too will be divided to three main eras:

- c. The writing era, characterized by the grammar translation method
- d. The so-called spoken era after the emergence of the reform movement
- e. The communicative era characterized by a restoration of listening as an important skill in learning.

I.5.1. The Writing Era

I.5.1.1. The Grammar-Translation Method

In the grammar- translation teaching procedures, listening was completely ignored. As the focus was on grammar, rote learning, and translation, listening was not mentioned at all. In fact, the only listening that students would have to do, would be to listen to a description of the rules of the second language (L2) in the first language (L1). Consequently, if/when the L2 was used, the focus of any listening would have been on translation of lexical items or grammar structures.

According to J. Flowerdew and L. Miller, (2005: 4) the main reason for all this is due to absence of any real listening in the grammar-translation method because students were learning “dead” languages, languages that they would not have the opportunity to listen to; so

the purpose in learning those languages was to be able to translate and read literature. Moreover, teachers of Latin and Greek at that time had no training in teaching listening and also, there were no electronic means of recording.

I.5.2. The so-Called Spoken Era

I.5.2.1. The Direct Method

The Direct-Method to language teaching (also known as both the natural method, and the conversational method) came about as we saw above as a reaction to the Grammar-Translation Method. In relation to listening, it was almost limited to listening and answering questions and other language skills later. However, when we take a look at any monolingual teaching methods (among them this method), and though the target language was used for all purposes in the classroom, there was in fact no systematic attempt to teach listening or to develop listening strategies in the learners. Besides, listening comprehension was simply taught to develop pronunciation habits and accuracy in terms of the mastery of certain teaching points such as question-and-answer exchanges. The commonplace belief at that time was that listening was taken for granted. It was believed that the teacher taught and assumed that the students could hear what was being said and that comprehension would follow. Mendelsohn argues in this direction

“The argument supporting this is what I cynically call the “osmosis” approach: students are listening to the teacher all day in any case, and will therefore improve their listening comprehension through this”. (1994: 10)

A second problem with the Direct-Method is that although it seemed to be effective at encouraging beginners and perhaps intermediate level learners, it is rather a difficult method

to use above intermediate level because of the complexities which little by little become too challenging for the learners. For example, as grammar always had to be learned inductively, learners wasted a lot of time trying to work out complex rules for themselves, and teachers who spoke the learners' L1, spent a useless amount of time and energy to convey abstract meanings in L2.

I.5.2.2. The Grammar Approach

This particular approach which was not given in the part "Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching" has been introduced by Flowerdew and Miller who write:

"The main idea of grammar-based listening exercises is to analyse the language by its components and reconstruct an incomplete text. By understanding the grammar of a language and the principles of how words are put together, or parsing, we can make sense of spoken text." (2005: 6)

This syntagmatic or chain view of language was referred to by Rost who writes:

"In order to understand utterances, we must know how words and phrases are bound to each other." (1994: 35)

A grammar approach to listening usually has students look at a written text while they listen to a recording. This unfortunately obliges them to do many things at a time. Firstly, they have to identify words by their position in the sentence; secondly, they have to work out the relationship between words and phrases; thirdly, they have to use backward and forward inference cues; and lastly, they have to make intelligent guesses based on textual cues.

This approach is often favoured as a classroom approach to listening. The listening exercises are being treated as purely classroom-based activities, which usually have little or no relevance to the outside world, and the tasks students perform have no real-life function.

However, these tasks are intensively used in tests. According to Flowerdew and Miller:

“They are...popular as testing devices and are often used for this purpose (e.g., the International TOEFL test uses this method in the listening section of the test.” (2005: 7)

So the learning goals that were related to listening in this approach were merely restricted to pattern match and to test listening. To illustrate this idea, let's give a typical activity that was characteristic of this approach. The activity in question is taken from Flowerdew and Miller (2005: 7).

Activity 1- An activity illustrating the Grammar Approach

Listen to a medical doctor talk about staying healthy. While listening, fill in the missing words in the blank spaces below:

Getting and staying fit is important for-----It does not matter how-----or young you are; you can, and should, do things to-----yourself fit and healthy. Some simple ways to get fit are-----short distances instead of using a car or bus, cutting back on snacks like-----or chips and instead eating fruit and vegetables, and taking more active-----instead of watching television every day. If we start-----a healthy lifestyle, not only will we feel better, but there will be fewer visits to the-----Once you begin to get fit, you will want to make more changes to your-----and become more and more healthy.

Answers: 1. everybody 2. old 3. keep 4. walking 5. chocolate 6. hobbies
7. adopting 8. doctors 9. Lifestyl

Comment

In this activity, students are asked to use words from 1 to 9 to make the sentences grammatical. Sometimes, more than one correct answer is possible and, in this case, learners will have to choose the correct one. The major problem with such activities or exercises is that they are rarely related to each other. Consequently, each listening exercise is considered rather testing than teaching the listening ability. As a matter of fact, testing creates anxiety and undermines learning while teaching develops strategies and promotes learning.

As a conclusion, we can say that though this approach has somehow used listening in teaching, it is totally grammar-and structure-based. The so-called spoken texts that were used were utterly

different from genuine spoken language (see chapter 2) and did not prepare learners to cope with real language.

I.5.2.3. The Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching

We have said above that this approach emphasized habit formation and automatic repetition. We also saw that this approach is rather teacher-oriented because the teacher does everything and learners are just there to repeat and imitate controlled sentence patterns by means of oral drills.

Listening comprehension was actually taught but was in fact limited to separate words, and later to rigid grammatical structures. Yet, the teaching of pronunciation habits seems to be a new element. However, G. Brown argues that in this approach, the only interest in spoken language, insisted on in most courses, but largely ignored in most classrooms, was the teaching of pronunciation. She carries on and says that if the teaching of pronunciation took place at all, it concerned only separate words. She states that listening was limited to segment discrimination exercises which consisted of listening to a clearly pronounced triple of three words, two of which were identical and the third produced a phonemic contrast, as in “fin”, “thin”, “fin”. Similar discrimination exercises were constructed to distinguish different word stress patterns in triples like “convict”, “convict”, and “convict”. The student was required to state which word sounded different from the other two. (1987: 11).

It can be concluded, thus, that the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching, which was predominant during the so-called speech era, was in actual fact based on written

language. The grammatical structures which students were constantly exposed to were different from natural speech. Hence, listening was awkwardly taught.

I.5.2.4.The Audio-Lingual Method

The audio-lingual method to listening first emphasizes listening to pronunciation and then to grammatical forms by way of drills and exercises. Aural fluency was sought in this method as stressed by Richards and Rodgers:

“the teaching of listening comprehension, pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary are all related to aural fluency”. (2001: 58)

Dialogues and drills are commonplace in this method. Students listen carefully either to tape recording or teacher reading out. The purpose behind all this is to create good habits. These good habits can be achieved by verbatim reproduction. G. Brown writes:

“With the advent of audio-lingual procedures, listening was viewed as a problem of aural recognition of linguistic structures. Exercises to develop listening ability consisted of various types of identification and description, with verbatim reproduction.” (1987: 11).

Later, a more sophisticated addition was made to identify the meaning indicated by the intonation of a sentence. The sentence would be spoken slowly and clearly, in isolation and the student would be required to identify whether the sentence was intended, for example, as a statement, an instruction, or a polite request. M. Rost says that later variations of aural recognition exercises included recorded dialogues and read-aloud written texts often performed repeatedly by comprehension questions on the content. What makes these exercise variations belong to the more clearly structure-based activities is that essentially the spoken text is being made as similar as possible to the written one, where the learner can if necessary have repeated access to the text (1990: 27).

Lado and Fries in their book “English Pronunciation”, published in 1958, based their work on this approach. The audio-lingual method became in fact a very popular teaching method in the 1960s and early 1970s, when language laboratories were in fashion.

To sum up, the learning goals related to listening were pattern match (the same as the grammar approach), listening, imitation, and memorization. In the exercise below, an activity illustrating the audio-lingual method is given. It consists of practice of sentences by means of repetition- a central key feature in this approach- in view of establishing good pronunciation habits.

What is he reading?	He’s reading a book.
What is she reading?	She’s reading a book.
What are they wearing?	They’re wearing green suits.

This approach to teaching exemplified in the activity above is based on the stimulus-response theory of the American school of behaviourist psychology. Basically, there is no attempt to teach lexis or contextualize the sentences. As a consequence, the audio-lingual approach method cannot be said to have as main focus developing listening skills but rather emphasis on speaking and the manipulation of structure.

I.5.2.5.The Discrete-Item Approach

This approach may be said to have emerged out of the audio-lingual method. Unlike the audio-lingual method which focuses on drilling with the intent of learning grammatical structures, the discrete-item approach deals with the segmental and supra-segmental aspects of spoken text and their contextualization. Segmentals are basically individual vowel and

consonant sounds; whereas supra-segmentals are stress and tone.

These segmentals and supra-segmentals are dealt with in a highly structured way, and drilled over and over again till they are learned. One particular technique this approach uses is to compare and to contrast different features of spoken language so as to familiarize students with the sounds. This idea is highlighted by Ur who writes:

“It is essential for the learner to achieve familiarity with the common phonemes of the target language as soon as possible if he is to be an efficient listener.” (1994: 12)

On the basis of what we have seen, it seems that this approach is useful only at the beginning and must be forgotten afterwards. Yet experience shows that no sooner students move to a subsequent learning step than those discrimination problems reappear again and even persist right up to advanced levels.

A typical activity that was so characteristic of this approach concerned discrimination drills as regards the pronunciation of past tense regular verbs-ed. Learners listen to the words and then put them in the correct column as shown below:

asked	followed	started	jumped	accepted
finished	lived	looked	called	invited
/t/	/d/		/id/	
.....	
.....	
.....	

After having finished this, learners are required to mimic the sound by repeating the list of words. These exercises though seemingly structural and behavioural have proved useful and were re-actualized later in a book written by Cunningham and Bolwer in 1990 in which the authors reinforce the discrete-item approach's exercises with contextualization of individual sounds. Thus, most units start with a discrete-item approach to listening but then go on to encourage students to use more holistic listening strategies in later exercises.

I.5.3.The Communicative Era

What the communicative approach brought to listening was the notion of real-life listening. In other words, real-life aspects of communication which are above the sentence level should be sought (e.g., information gap, choice of what to say, and feedback to what has been said). In addition, the listening activity in this approach involves actions (e.g., filling in forms, answering a telephone, etc.).

I.5.3.1. Communicative Language Teaching

In this approach, it was believed that listening comprehension was a complex aspect in language learning but was given much more importance. Listening was thought to require understanding in several disciplines at the same time. For example, J. C. Richards writes:

“Listening comprehension draws on research from psycho- linguistics, sociolinguistics discourse analysis...” (1982: 2).

As far as the early beginnings of this approach, it seems that most textbooks were still structural in their teaching pedagogy such as:

3.4. Kernel Lessons Plus (1973) by O’Neil: In this textbook, English is presented in different situations (a long-lasting influence of the situational approach) based on written texts.

3.5. New Concept in English (1967) by L.G. Alexander: It consists of four books and recordings of stories read by a native speaker, who simply reads a written text or passage.

However, later on, new innovations were introduced and this affected the design of materials.

To illustrate what has been said, let's give a listening activity from the innovations of this approach.

Read this situation:

You and some friends want to go out for dinner together. Listen to each other give restaurant reviews and make some notes about each restaurant. Then discuss with your friends which restaurant you think you would all like to go to. Listen for information like price, location, and quality of food and service. This type of activities according to the proponents of this approach fulfils many of the communicative aspects such as to perform a dialogue, to listen for specific details like price, etc., and all this is followed by feedback. This is what is called the functional use of language.

I.5.3.2.The Natural Approach

This approach has given much importance to listening. Among the listening materials this approach referred to, Richards and Rodgers list:

- a. Basic personal communication skills: oral (e.g., listening to announcements in public places)...
- b. Academic learning skills: oral (e.g., listening to a lecture). (2001: 90).

Clearly, there is a concern with listening especially at more advanced levels but, in terms of how listening should be taught and reinforced, not much is said.

I.5.3.3.The Task-Based Approach

The main premise in this approach with relation to listening is that it is assumed that students become active listeners. Students are asked to listen to authentic situations and do something with the information. They can for instance complete a diagram or chart, fill in a table, or draw a picture. Because students are usually exposed to authentic speech, they are then exposed to all the irregularities of authentic speech such as hesitations, false starts, accents, etc. All this familiarizes them little by little with all the difficulties experienced by foreign learners with authentic speech. We will see below, in the students' questionnaire, how students express themselves on this issue.

In this approach, students are encouraged to use holistic inferential strategies so as to focus on the process of finding a successful outcome to the task rather than understanding the whole text. This idea has been reinforced by Kumaravadevilu who writes:

“In the context of task-based pedagogy the learning outcome is the result of an unpredictable interaction between the task and the task situation.” (1991: 100).

Just to illustrate this by an example, students learn how to use a public telephone. Students are given a line drawing for a public telephone. They then listen to a recorded conversation and label the drawing to show the steps in using the phone.

To sum up, there are two main points in this approach:

- 3.3.1. The tasks are real-life tasks
- 3.3.2. The texts although considered authentic are in actual fact semi-authentic or semi-scripted.

I.5.3.4. The Learner-Strategy Approach

The learner-strategy approach to listening actually rests on learner independence. Consequently, this approach reinforces learner autonomy because this would lead to his independence and individual listening after having shown him/her the appropriate strategies. Moreover, this approach emphasizes the different strategies that ought to be adopted with different listening materials. Mendelsohn explains this idea:

“All too often, the fact that we listen to different things in different ways is overlooked in listening courses for second-language speakers.” (1994: 116)

So the strategy-based approach places the emphasis on learners looking for which strategies are most effective for them and in which situations. Let’s give an activity illustrating this approach:

Listening for specific information

You want to go shopping. The shops are quite far away, but you can walk there. Listen to the weather forecast and decide if you should take the bus or walk.

How did you manage to get the information you needed? Talk with your group how you listened for the details. Did you use any special strategies?

This strategy-based approach is very popular in listening comprehension research nowadays. This shift to focus on learner’s strategies has given rise to new insights in the teaching of listening comprehension.

However, and in spite of all the innovations that research has witnessed in connection

with listening, it seems restrictive to rely on one approach only. In fact, the strategy-based and the task-based approaches have been quite innovative and have proposed some interesting and fresh insights and ideas but it is fairly more sensible to make use of variety. So, in addition to those, making use of an integrated approach- one that would offer a variety of possibilities liable to enable both teachers and learners understand better how comprehension of spoken language occurs- seems reasonable.

In this part, examples of some of the main approaches and how they viewed listening comprehension have been outlined and discussed. However, and in addition to all these teaching situations, it is undeniable that listening also takes place outside the formal context which is the university context in our case. Indeed, the research question of this research highlights the formal situation as well the individual effort made by students and also their motivation. Learners may work on listening with activities very similar to those used in class. Firstly, listening out-of-class provides the opportunity for extensive listening- listening for general pleasure or interest, usually to longer stretches of discourse (e.g., radio and television programmes or movies), (see chapter II). This aspect of listening should not be neglected and can be encouraged by the teacher because it promotes listening fluency and can be very motivating.

To summarize this part, it can be said that most language teaching methods initially almost completely ignored the need to teach listening, but subsequent approaches used a variety of techniques to develop specific or general listening skills. Some writers like Field believe that the change of attitude towards listening has occurred because of three main developments:

“First, there has been a shift in perspectives, so that listening as a skill takes priority over details of language content. Secondly, there has been a wish to relate the nature of listening practised in the classroom to the kind of listening that takes place in real life... Thirdly, we

have become aware of the importance of providing motivation and a focus for listening” (1998: 110-111).

As a conclusion, it can be said that this part has attempted to bring out how listening comprehension has been viewed in some approaches and methods in language teaching. This part was divided into three main eras:

3.6. The written era characterized by the Grammar translation method

3.7. The so-called spoken era characterized by some approaches and methods which continued to use writing in the place of speech

3.8. The communicative era characterized by a new place given to listening in language learning and language teaching.

From total neglect, to shy introduction, to wider use but with awkward teaching, to full recognition and better insights, listening comprehension is nowadays regarded as a basic skill in language learning and teaching.

I.6. How Different Approaches and Methods in Language

Teaching involved Self-Determination.

This part investigates briefly how the notions of intrinsic motivation, self-determination, and autonomy-support have been taken into account, hinted to, or at least,

implicitly referred to in some approaches and methods in language teaching. Of course, as these concepts are basically a little bit new, it is unreasonable to expect that they could have been taken into account explicitly. Rather, this part analyses some approaches and methods and tries to bring out their basic teaching principles; these latter will be analysed in connection with how the self-determination theory conceives of the role of students and teachers.

For the sake of practicability, it is perhaps better to divide them to periods and analyse them consequently. Minute investigations are made only when necessary.

The approaches and methods are again divided into the writing period and the speaking period which involves structural approaches and methods, transitional approaches and methods, and the communicative approach.

Let's start with the writing period.

I.6.1. The Writing Period

What characterized the writing period was the Grammar Translation Method. On the basis of what we have seen above about the basic principles of this method, it is undeniable that neither self-determination nor autonomy support were ever even hinted to. The relationship between the teacher and the student was that of teacher and learner, active and passive, decider and follower, etc. There was no possibility whatsoever for the student to

express himself.

I.6.2.The Speaking Period

The speaking period as we saw above begins with the so-called shift from writing to speech with the persistence of writing in real fact, moves on to transitional period where writing and speech co-existed, and, at last, to the communicative period where speech and writing were used in different contexts and for different purposes.

I.6.2.1.Structural Approaches and Methods.

During the beginning of the so-called speaking period, language teaching approaches and methods were structural. As far as self-determination ideas are concerned, we summarize the whole situation in the following:

2.1.1. Students' role: During this period, traditional ideas in language teaching were still very popular. Although new insights in language teaching appeared, the teaching methodology was still based on structuralism. As a consequence, students' role was very limited in the process of learning-teaching.

2.1.2. Teachers' role: Unlike students' role which was almost completely absent, teachers' role was crucial. Though slightly different from that in the Grammar translation method, teachers in this period did almost everything and students just followed and obeyed.

I.6.2.2. Transitional Approaches and Methods

What are often called transitional approaches and methods differ from each other in many respects, especially that they conceived of teaching and learning differently. In fact,

they explained teaching and learning with reference to specific principles and mechanisms. Some have undertaken quite revolutionary ideas while others continued to adopt old ideas, but just presenting them differently. On the whole, we cannot speak about self-determination in such approaches because the role of teachers and textbooks were still highlighted while the role of students was just beginning to be given some importance.

I.6.2.3. Communicative Approaches

During the communicative era, it can be argued that the shift in interest has really occurred. In fact, it has moved from teacher-centred to more learner-centred teaching. Besides this, some autonomy started to be given more importance so that students not only enjoyed more and more freedom to express themselves on several learning and teaching matters, but their motivation had become such an inevitable aspect that investigators, textbook designers and teachers could no more ignore. For instance, task-based and strategy-based approaches are good examples of reasonable shift towards interest in learners, their motivation and factors that can enhance their motivation. (In the chapter on suggestions and recommendations below, some concrete examples are given.)

I.7. Conclusion

This chapter has given a brief evolution of how the art of teaching has evolved through several different approaches and methods. It has also given a very brief account of the place held by listening comprehension in some of these approaches and methods and the notion of self determination in some more general eras.

It has been shown that the myth of a miraculous teaching approach or method is just a mirage. Yet, one cannot deny, as it has been seen, that some approaches and methods have really proposed quite realistic and advantageous teaching procedures. Indeed, the task-based approach, the strategy based approach, cooperative language learning, and the integrated approach can be regarded as approaches which can be interesting to take some insights from.

Chapter II

Listening Comprehension, Learning Styles, and Listening Strategies

II.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the importance of listening comprehension in L2 learning. It investigates different approaches to listening, putting a special emphasis on the aspects which make listening in L2 hard. It also discusses learning styles and learning and listening strategies so as to prepare the ground for some suggestions in chapter VII that get many useful insights from those theoretical assumptions. Speech and writing are then compared and contrasted because they constitute an important issue for discussion, especially in L2 learning in general and L2listening in particular. After that, authentic and pedagogical listening materials are discussed in relation to practical use in the classroom and individual listening. At last, individual listening is highlighted in view of providing techniques for helping students listen individually.

This chapter discusses the following:

1. Reasons for past neglect of listening comprehension
2. Some definitions and approaches to listening
3. Distinction between listening in L1 and L2.
4. Distinction between speech and writing
5. American English versus British English

6. Pedagogical and authentic materials: Differences and use
7. Individual listening: an intrinsic behaviour (prospects and equipment)

II.2.Reasons for Past Neglect

Listening has jumped from a neglected skill to a major one in second and foreign language curricula. Mendelsohn and Rubin insist on the necessity to teach listening:

“Listening has emerged as a major focus for the second and foreign language curriculum. As second and foreign language teachers recognize that development of the skill of Speaking does not necessarily promote competence in listening, they increasingly agree on the need to teach listening comprehension as a separate skill.” (1995: 7)

However, despite its growing importance in L2 learning, listening comprehension remains a

somewhat neglected and/or poorly taught skill in many teaching curricula. Mendelsohn calls it:

“The Cinderella skill of ESL.” (1994: 9).

Among the main reasons for this neglect:

- a. It is only recently that listening has gained in importance but is still probably poorly taught. Mendelsohn justifies this by what he calls the “osmosis” approach which states that students are listening to the teacher all day in any case, and their listening comprehension is thereafter improved. (ibid: 10). Of course, in reality, things do not usually happen like that. If listening is not taught adequately, students will not improve their listening skills.
- b. Focus of the audio-lingual method (see above chapter 1) on speaking has relegated listening to the situation of a by-product of speaking in L2 learning.
- c. Although the situation is much better today- students are more and more exposed to spoken language via language laboratories, videos, etc., - it is rather the teaching of listening which is still left to be desired.
- d. Traditional listening comprehension materials, which are still very widely used today, are in actual fact inadequate for the promotion of listening skills. Though materials designers insist on using natural and real-life materials in teaching listening, more often than not, most of them are still structure-based materials that are inefficient to improve listening.

II.3. Definitions and Approaches to Listening Comprehension.

Listening comprehension in L2 can be defined as simply the ability to understand language used by native speakers. This definition has been proposed by Mendelsohn who says that listening is:

“the ability to understand the spoken language of native speakers.” (1984: 64)

Although this definition departs from the procedures of the audio-lingual method (mainly to

listen and repeat), it is yet not enough to explain clearly how comprehension takes place.

Another definition was proposed by O'Malley *et al*:

“Listening comprehension is an active and conscious process in which the listener constructs meaning by using cues from contextual information and from existing knowledge, while relying upon multiple strategic resources to fulfil the task requirements.” (1989: 434)

This definition seems to be extensive and inclusive of several elements involved in the listening comprehension act. It involves the idea of active and conscious process. This means that a listener is active and conscious. Besides, the listener builds expectations on the basis of contextual and world knowledge by using different strategies. Yet, one element seems to be lacking here- notably schema. For the explanation of schema, let's give another definition of listening comprehension which has included schema. This definition has been put forward by Byrnes. He writes:

“Schema-based understanding, i.e., information stored in long-term memory as frames or scripts which directs the comprehension process.” (1984: 319).

In order to understand the meaning of schema, let's deal briefly with schema theory in listening comprehension. For example, Rumelhart provides a good explanation of this theory:

“A schema theory is basically a theory about knowledge. It is a theory about how knowledge is represented and about how this representation facilitates the use of the knowledge in particular ways. According to schema theories, all knowledge is packaged into units. These units are the schemata.” (1980: 34)

Almost in similar vein, Schank and Abelson define schemata as:

“Predetermined stereotyped sequences of actions that define well-known situations.” (1977: 37)

Chiang and Dunkel provide another explicit definition of schema. They write:

“The basic tenet of schema theory posits that written text, or spoken discourse, does not carry meaning in of itself. Rather, meaning occurs as a result of the interaction between the reader's or listener's prior knowledge about the world and the text or speech.” (1992: 350)

Another definition has been proposed by Lynch and Mendelsohn:

“Listening involves making sense of spoken language, normally accompanied by other sounds and visual input, with the help of our relevant prior knowledge and the context in which we are listening.” (2002: 193).

So, and on the basis of these definitions, we can say that listening comprehension in L2 involves exposure to L2 but with comprehension based on several factors such as schemata, active processing, etc. In a word, discourse knowledge, contextual clues, and world knowledge are necessary in listening comprehension.

II.4.Listening in L1 and L2

II.4.1. Listening in L1

Research (c.f. below) has shown that if listening in L1 and L2 seem to be similar in their basic mechanisms, there exist, however, big differences in terms of comprehension and processing on the part of learners.

The process of comprehension is said to start before we are even born. According to Flowerdew and Miller, babies who listened to stories before they were born would recognize and attend to such stories rather than other stories when they were born (2005: 21). This implies that foetuses listen to familiar sounds (mothers' speech) before they are born.

With constant exposure to L1 speech, children little by little develop the capacity to recognize different categories of speech and successfully relate them to the external world by means of world knowledge. People in general acquire their L1 without much effort and when exposed to their L1 speech, they do not encounter any comprehension and/or processing difficulties.

II.4.1.1. The Bottom up Approach.

This approach involves piecing together, in a linear fashion, the parts of what is being heard, so that ultimately the whole content will be clear. Actually, this model of listening was developed by researchers during the 1940s and 1950s. Flowerdew and Miller explain this model:

“Listeners build understanding by starting with the smallest units of the acoustic message: individual sounds, or phonemes. These are then combined into words, which, in turn, together make up phrases, clauses, and sentences. Finally, individual sentences combine to create ideas and concepts and relationships between them.” (2005: 24)

II.4.1.2. The Top down Approach

According to Rumelhart, this approach goes from whole to part. It is built on the premise that listening is an interpretive process (1980: 41). This model should be based on what is

heard, and linked to the listeners' background knowledge (schemata). In making a comparison between the two models, Anderson and Lynch, describe listeners in both models:

“Listener as tape recorder and listener as active model builder.” (1988: 9)

So, according to this comparison, in bottom up listening, the listener looks like a tape recorder while in top down, the listener is an active model builder. This suggests that top down listening is preferred to bottom up. It is obvious that when learners use their background knowledge to interpret what they are listening to is more efficient than when they move from phonemes to larger units.

Almost in a similar vein, Mendelsohn argues that bottom up and top down models relate to students' learning styles (discussed below). He believes that learners who tend to concentrate on fluency rather than accuracy will be most comfortable with the top down strategies, while those who value accuracy very highly will prefer the bottom up strategies. However, he argues that both models are complementary. (Op.cit: 25). This idea is reinforced by Peterson who writes:

“...proficient listeners use their knowledge of lexis and topic to the confusing sounds in the speech stream....On the other hand, they also use their basic decoding skills to check the progress of the argument.” (1991: 110)

II.4.2. Some Obvious and some Latent Problems in L2 Listening Comprehension

It is usually supposed that listening comprehension is difficult for L2 learners because of many aspects of speech which are more or less obvious. Some of these aspects are explicit enough and their difficulty is clear and therefore teachable while others are less. Undoubtedly, they complicate the situation and make L2 listeners' task arduous.

Whereas L1 listeners are constantly exposed to their native language, L2 listeners are not so privileged. In L2 situations, attending becomes part of the active learning process. To make this more explicit, we turn now to some of the obstacles that render L2 listening difficult.

II.4.2.1. Fast Speech (Speed of Delivery)

Listening comprehension develops with pronunciation training because the two skills are interrelated: two aspects of the same communicative system in English.

Bowen has discussed this issue focusing on important learners' effort to understand native pronunciation as it hinders comprehension:

“Of course the student must be capable of understanding native pronunciation under normal circumstances of production and not require of his interlocutors a special style for his personal use.” (1972: 85)

As L2 listeners are better prepared when exposed to authentic speech, they should be trained to get familiarized with rapid speech containing all the features of connected speech.

This issue is raised by Morley who writes:

“Specialized speech oriented listening tasks can help learners develop... their discriminative listening skills....Attention needs to be given to prosodic features and vocal features including the fast speech phenomena found in authentic speech patterns...” (1999: 505)

II.4.2.2. Distortion of Word Boundaries.

In rapid speech, word and syllable boundaries are often different from those in writing. These word and syllable boundaries often cause recognition problems to L2 listeners. For example, in the expression ‘fish and chips’, the preposition ‘and’ is often weakened to the extent that the [d] sound is not audible giving the impression that it is rather ‘fishing ships’ especially that most L2 learners can hardly distinguish [] from []. So, here the meaning

is going to be different and misleads L2 listeners.

II.4.2.3. Weak Forms.

Another serious difficulty concerns weak forms. Weak forms basically involve the weakening of some vowels in unstressed syllables to move to the centre of the mouth to be pronounced as schwa [ə]. For example, in connected speech, the following string of words is pronounced like this: ‘Tell them it’s not at all ready’. First, the vowel [e] in the word ‘them’ is pronounced schwa. Second, in the word ‘at’ the short [ɪ] is turned to schwa again. A high frequency of such weak forms in rapid speech makes L2 comprehension rather arduous.

II.4.2.4. Elision

Elision is defined by Brown as:

“The missing out of a consonant or a vowel”. (1990: 66)

So, elision represents the disappearance of a vowel or a consonant, certainly for the sake of ease of pronunciation of rapid speech. For example, ‘the needs of the people’ becomes ‘the nees of the people’. So, the [d] sound has totally disappeared. Unfortunately, L2 listeners who are not yet very proficient with L2 listening, do face big difficulties to recognize such alterations and fail to grasp the meaning of the message.

Brown (ibid: 66-77) provides a list of examples of elision out of which some examples have been selected:

	Elided sound	Full form	Elided form
a. first three	/t/	/	/ []
b. suspended from	/d/	/	/ []
c. of course	/v/	/	/ []
d. already	/l/	/	/ []

e. meeting in Rome /n/ / / []

II.4.2.5. Assimilation

It is usually the change of place of articulation of final consonants of a word under the influence of initial consonants of following word. For example, in the sentences below, we will see how some consonants change their place of articulation:

a. ‘because you have a plenty of time’. In the first word ‘because’, the last sound which is [z] whose place of articulation is alveolar changes to [ʃ] which is palato- alveolar under the influence of the first sound of next word ‘you’ which starts with [j].

b. ‘the green colour’. The last sound of the word ‘green’ which is [n] whose place of articulation is alveolar again, changes to the velar [ŋ] under the influence of the velar [k].

Brown (ibid: 66-77) provides a list of examples about assimilation from which some examples have been selected:

	Full form	Assimilated form
a. amount by	/ /	[]
b. armoured car	/ /	[]
c. Mexican games	/ /	[]

II.4.2.6. Gemination

This occurs when a word ends with a plosive (stop) and the following word begins with the same plosive. Plosives or stops in English are [p, t, k, b, d, g]. The first three are produced without voice (called voiceless), and the last three are produced with voice (called voiced). Moreover, they are called plosives or stops because in their production the air is completely blocked at the level of the mouth and then suddenly released in a small explosion. For example, in the sentence ‘John looks slightly tired’, in rapid speech, native speakers would pronounce ‘John look slightly tired’.

II.4.2.7. Stress and Rhythm

Unlike other languages where stress always falls on the same syllable (Arabic on the first syllable, French on the last syllable, etc.), English has a rather moving stress. Stressed syllables as defined by Brown (ibid: 54) represent syllables which are louder, longer, more prominent in pitch and very precisely articulated. In addition to this, Brown (1977: 45) argues that length seems to be the variable that most L2 learners easily recognize while the other variables tend to be more difficult to control.

Generally speaking in sentence stress in English, content words are stressed whereas function or grammatical words are unstressed. Content words on the one hand are usually nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and pronouns. They are called content words because they are said to carry meaning. However, if the content word consists of more than one syllable, only one syllable is stressed. Function or grammatical words on the other hand are usually prepositions, conjunctions, and articles. They are called so because they are solely used to link.

Both word stress (which syllable is made prominent) and sentence stress (which word is made prominent) convey crucial information. G. Brown puts it as follows:

“From the point of view of the comprehension of spoken language the ability to identify stressed syllables and make intelligent guesses about the content of the message from this information is absolutely essential.” (1977: 52)

Word stress according to Levelt is important because native English speakers tend to store vocabulary items according to their stress patterns. Therefore, a stress error is particularly damaging to communication. Only a little imagination is needed to realize that the following stress shifts could cause trouble: foreign/for rain, elementary/a lemon tree, history/his story.

1989: 5).

As far as rhythm is concerned, it is related to stressed and unstressed syllables. Standard English is said to be one of those languages that tends toward a stress-timed rhythm.

According to Flowerdew and Miller,

“In stress-timed languages like English, the unstressed word tend to be spoken more quickly between the stressed words, in order to maintain the overall rhythm.” (op.cit: 32)

This means that whatever the number of unstressed syllables between stressed ones, time will be the same. Unfortunately again, it is hard for L2 listeners to anticipate in that way unless they are shown all these aspects.

II.4.2.8. Intonation

Intonation may be defined as related to the variation of the voice of the speaker. Brown defines intonation as:

“The variation in the direction of the pitch of the voice of the speaker.” (1990: 89)

Students should be trained to distinguish between the tone of a statement and the tone of a question. For example, in the sentence ‘John returned home late last night’ is used with a falling tone; whereas, ‘Did John return home late last night?’ is used with a rising tone. More than that, there are other examples where sentence stress plays a primary role in comprehension. For example, ‘Who came home late last night?’ It is obvious that the word ‘who’ is the most important one here and, therefore, it must be stressed. As a possible reply to this question, we can have ‘John came home late last night’. Again, here too, it is obvious that the word ‘John’ is the most important word.

Although intonation plays a very central part in the communication of meaning, it is usually

given less importance. This neglect may be due to the inherent complexity of intonation. Nevertheless, simple or complex, as intonation is important for comprehension, it deserves to be given more importance and to be taught more adequately. Students may be helped in their comprehension if they are trained to distinguish between the rising tone, the falling tone, etc.

2.4.2.9. Some Less Obvious L2 Listening Problems

Generally speaking, teachers are aware of their students' difficulties associated with speech in general, but they have to bear in mind that other aspects like speakers' assumptions about cultural values, habits, humour, and institutions are all essential factors for L2 comprehension. Moreover, in listening comprehension, students are usually exposed to materials where native speakers discuss or debate or just talk about several different matters and topics without the students' participation. As students here are merely over-hearers, they can not ask for clarification or repetition.

II.5. Speech versus Writing.

Speech and writing display discrepancies that an L2 learner is not always aware of. As far as listening comprehension is concerned, and in spite of the everlasting heritage of the audio-lingual method which has taught writing in the place of speech and later speaking at the expense of listening, there seems to be now a growing awareness as to the teaching of speech in listening comprehension.

Most spoken texts differ in many ways from written texts. Among the main differences

between them, paralinguistic features found in speech constitute a major difference. Tannen points out in this direction:

“Unlike written discourse, spoken discourse establishes cohesion through paralinguistic features [not through lexicalization].” (1982: 41)

However, these paralinguistic features can be exploited only when listeners see the participants in the conversation. This indicates that television and video are recommended.

Flowerdew and Miller (op.cit: 48) propose two figures, one representing linguistic features of spoken text, and the other representing linguistic features of written text:

Linguistic Features of Spoken Text

- phonological contractions and assimilations
- hesitations, false starts, and filled pauses
- sentence fragments rather than complete sentences
- structured to tone units rather than clauses
- frequent occurrence of discourse markers at beginning or end
- tone groups
- high incidence of questions and imperatives
- first and second person pronouns
- deixis (reference outside the text)

Linguistic Features of Written Text

- longer information units
 - complex relations of coordination and subordination
 - high incidence of attributive adjectives
 - wider range of precise choice of vocabulary
 - high lexical density (normalization)
 - longer average word length
 - more frequent use of passive voice
 - high use of coherence and cohesive devices
-

According to these two figures, it seems that spoken language and written language are totally different from each other. Yet, when we take a more careful look at them, we realize that after all there is a sort of continuum ranging from casual conversation to philosophical writing. Clearly, some features which are usually associated with written language are present in certain forms of spoken discourse. However, before dealing with some similarities between writing and speech, let's first carry on with focus on other discrepancies:

- a. The purpose for which spoken discourse is used differs from that of written language. Spoken discourse has a more social function than a communicational one. This issue has been referred to by G. Brown and G. Yule who state:

“Transactional listening refers to listening to speech where the message being conveyed is very important and that a foreign language listener has to know in order to understand whereas interactional listening refers to speech where the message is not important but that the intention is to create social relations.” (1983:13)

Therefore, in teaching listening comprehension in L2, such a distinction must be borne in mind. When we socialize, speech is very simple structurally, lexically, and grammatically. As

was shown in the figures above, speech is full of redundancy, rephrasing, false starts, etc. Unfortunately, students are not taught such a distinction and, above all, very often give their similar listening tasks. As a consequence, students are lost and do consider interactional speech too hard to understand. In the students' questionnaire on listening, we will see if students suffer from this issue.

b. Syntax in speech is usually less elaborate and most of the time less correct than in writing.

L2 listeners must be aware of that.

c. The structure in speech is poorly organized or not organized at all. Moreover, as speech is usually not prepared in advance, and as the speaker concentrates on the message, what is said may be completely broken structurally to the extent that double negation may be used as well other aspects that render comprehension in L2 very hard.

d. In spite of all the difficulties and obstacles mentioned above, speech enjoys an advantage over writing. Indeed, speech contains what are called paralinguistic features, referred to above, that sometimes contribute to comprehension more than any coherence or cohesion in writing. This suggests that L2 listeners need to be exposed to Video sessions more frequently see below) more than just Audio sessions. Moreover, as is the purpose of this research, less intrinsically motivated students must be encouraged to go and listen alone to English outside their classes so as to be exposed to a wide range of accents and speech varieties.

e. As was seen above, connected speech has its own pronunciation including weak forms, elision, assimilation, etc.

f. Real, spontaneous spoken English is usually less formal and more colloquial. In designing and/or using L2 listening materials, teachers need to keep in mind that a written text used in speech is very hard to understand and process.

g. Coming back to paralinguistic features; it is undeniable that they play a vital role in

reinforcing comprehension. Tannen writes:

“In speaking, everything that is said must be said in some way: at some pitch, in some tone of voice.... All these non verbal and paralinguistic features reveal the speaker’s attitude... and establish cohesion.” (1982: 41)

This cohesion that is hinted to is not textual cohesion but rather non verbal cohesion.

As was mentioned above, spoken discourse and written language are not as clearly cut as this.

One reason to this is that spoken discourse hasn’t only one form. In fact, there are several different types of spoken language. This situation puts an extra load on students’ comprehension; probably the best way to overcome this difficulty is to familiarize learners with those types.

Flowerdew and Miller (op.cit: 49) propose a continuum where spoken language and written language are usually put. We have this list: Casual conversation, live or recorded interviews on television, political speech, university lecture, academic research article, postcard, radio and television news, telephone travel reservation, e-mail message, shopping list, school textbook, press conference, etc. Of course, this list may be extended to include other situations where speech or writing is used. Let’s first start with speech.

II.5.1. Speech Varieties

a. Casual Conversation. In a casual conversation, as the purpose is mainly to socialize and not to convey important messages or information, the features of pure speech as opposed to writing are present. It is very commonplace to encounter such features as hesitations, false starts, simple and short utterances, elision, assimilation, etc. It follows that materials which consist of casual conversations should not be too demanding in terms of vocabulary

recognition or other tasks that demand deep processing and analysis.

b. Telephone Travel Reservation. This type of speech is less casual but it is not written language either. A telephone travel reservation though spontaneous in its type, does not yet use colloquial expressions that are found in casual conversations and certainly not slang words. However, there will be a high frequency of “travel jargon”.

c. Press Conference. This type of speech may be situated mid-way between spontaneous speech and writing. A politician, for instance, who makes a press conference, is certainly an educated person. As such, and as a press conference takes place in rather a formal context, speech is likely to be of the type educated spoken language which is mostly spontaneous. As the questions asked to the politician are not known in advance, he cannot prepare what to say but he cannot use colloquial speech.

d. A University Lecture. This is rather a special situation. If the situation is teaching a particular content in L1, then the teacher is certainly going to switch from educated spoken language, written language read-aloud, and occasionally casual conversational language. However, if it is an L2 teaching situation, the teacher will probably use educated speech plus written language read-aloud.

e. Radio or Television News. This is the best example of written language read-aloud. This kind of speech is rather writing because it contains all the features of writing. Among these features, we have grammaticality, correctness, full sentences, clear articulation of words, distinct pronunciation, little or no use of assimilation, elision, etc. Such materials cannot be taken as efficient to train students to talk but are useful because they contain a wide range of topics and vocabulary and also pronunciation.

f. Live or Recorded Interviews on Television. Here too it depends on the type of the programme. If the programme’s purpose is interactional-used for entertainment- it is mostly

going to be spontaneous speech with all the irregularities that we have seen in casual conversations except that an educated speech will alternate from time to time with the casual one. However, if the programme is rather transactional-debate over an important issue- speech is going to be educated such as R.P in Great Britain.

g. Political Speech. This is another type of speech which is mainly based on features of writing. Either the politician reads from a paper and, in this case, it is merely writing read-aloud, or he has almost learned his speech just introducing from time to time some features of speech, but basically it is based on writing again.

II.5.2. Writing varieties.

a. E-mail Message. This kind of writing is not necessarily very grammatical. Though its features are slightly different from those of classical writing, it is not speech either. It is rather writing with a peculiar grammar and vocabulary. However, when an e-mail is sent to an official organization or service, or again if it is sent to people we are not familiar with, it becomes quite grammatical and reflects writing faithfully.

b. Postcard. This type of writing too is less academic. It is probably among the least grammatical writings that exist. Usually we send postcards to people we know; thus, style, grammaticality, etc., are less important than the message it carries, and more importantly the

affective ties that a postcard reinforces.

c. Shopping List. This is again a special type of writing. Grammaticality here is unimportant; basically, there is a list of items to be bought without any concern with writing rules.

d. School Textbook. This is purely written language comprising all the features of writing such as grammaticality, punctuation, cohesion, coherence, a logical flow in the move from one section or chapter to another, etc.

e. Academic Research Article or Book. This is another case of purely written language where all the features of writing must be scrupulously respected and executed.

II.6. British English or American English?

This issue has always excited my curiosity and I have often wanted to tackle it so as to raise a problem that seems to be either taken for granted or completely ignored in teaching English as a foreign language in our department. Do students need to be exposed to both varieties and therefore to know them both, or do they need to be exposed to one of them or both at the same time randomly without any systematic teaching of the similarities and differences between them?

Such a question we believe needs to be deeply approached and can not be answered

superficially. Before tackling this issue, let's first expose arguments for or against the use of this or that variety:

II.6.1. Wide Use.

As far as the “wide use” criterion is concerned, we think that both varieties are widely used. Indeed, if we take a quick look at most channels on television in English nowadays, we notice that they broadcast programmes in both varieties. If we add to all this, singing, discs, and so on, they are both widely used. However, as most films are American films, etc., it is rather American English that is rather used. This is why we think it is wiser to balance between the two.

II.6.2. Cultural Aspect and Lifestyle

Though purists consider British English as the original variety, many people, however, consider that the British variety reflects a rather different lifestyle from the American variety. British people are more conservative than American people. As a consequence, the American variety seems to be more open to the world and more dynamic than the British one.

II.6.3. Pronunciation

In terms of pronunciation, of course there are some big differences especially at the level of articulation. Probably, the most distinguishing features of American English as compared to the British one are mainly two:

II.6.3.1. Rhotic Accent

American English is said to be a rhotic accent in English. A rhotic accent (restricted to

pronunciation differences) is an accent that pronounces the [r] in all situations. American and Canadian English are said to be rhotic accents. For example, where British English R.P, i.e., (Received Pronunciation) pronounces the word ‘first’ without the articulation of [r], American English pronounces with the articulation of [r]. So, British English does not pronounce [r] when post-vocalic, i.e. occurring after a vowel in the same syllable.

II.6.3.2. Nasalization

When we are listening to English, more often than not, we recognize the accent as being British or American simply on the basis of whether it is nasalized or not. American English is usually nasalized whereas British English is usually not nasalized. Nasalization is a feature that is typical to American English where in Speech most Americans tend to produce some sounds sending out the air at least partly through their nose instead of their mouth.

Of course there are other features which distinguish British English from American English like the pronunciation of some short vowels as well as the peculiar American Pronunciation of [t] especially in medial position.

II.6.4. Which Variety should be Taught?

This question cannot be answered with a straightforward choice of this or that. In the module of phonetics, students are usually taught the British accent; the reason to this lies in the fact that most teachers at the University of Constantine who teach this module either had their Master Degree in England and are therefore influenced by their place of education or are influenced by those who studied in England. Nowadays, however, the hegemony of the American accent is such that perhaps it is wiser to reconsider all these things and try to balance between the two accents.

One thing that should be done in our opinion is to familiarize students with both accents and to show them the main similarities and differences between them. Concerning now the issue whether students should stick to one accent or the other, or combine them, there seems to be no consensus. In our opinion, students should be left free to choose the accent that appeals to them; but with insisting on the fact that both accents should be introduced to them so that they get acquainted with their main similarities and differences.

II.7. Authentic versus Pedagogical Listening Materials

The term authenticity has become a controversial issue lately. As a consequence, many views in connection with this issue, in second and foreign language learning and teaching, have tried to define what the concept authenticity means; then, how it can be used in second and/foreign listening comprehension sessions and especially in materials design.

II.7.1. What is a Pedagogical Material?

Pedagogical materials are those materials which have deliberately been designed for the sake of learning and teaching purposes. However, this definition seems incomplete because there are different types of pedagogical materials. In order to define more explicitly

pedagogical materials, let's categorize them to artificial materials and more natural ones.

II.7.1.1. Artificial Materials.

In these materials, the written text usually replaces the spoken one. They basically consist of dialogues and paragraphs which are mostly structure-based and rarely communication-based. Their tasks and activities look like those of reading comprehension, i.e., general information questions. Such materials were very popular in the oral approach and the audio-lingual method in the past and continue to be widely used in many parts of the world today.

II.7.1.2. More Natural Pedagogical Materials.

If the definition of pedagogical materials as those prepared in advance for pedagogical ends is not enough to distinguish them from authentic ones, then there are other criteria which ought to be taken into account. Thus, when a material which is originally designed for learning purposes but which contains many of the features of an authentic material, then it is not a pedagogical material in the classical sense, i.e., artificial. So the meaning given to pedagogical materials may vary from artificial to semi-authentic. In any case, what seems to be of primary importance in all this, is rather an awareness about students' needs and their ability to understand and exploit different sorts of listening materials.

II.7.2. Authenticity and Authentic Listening Materials.

There have been different attempts to define the concept "authentic". For example, M. Callamand *et al* propose the following definition:

"The authentic has been defined as 'any text' not composed for pedagogical ends...whose

Author was not intending its use in teaching the language.” (1954: 12).

This definition which is a classical one but which is still considered as a reference, sees the authentic as being the opposite of pedagogical in its classical sense, i.e., not designed for teaching purposes.

Almost in a similar vein, H. Fish states:

“By authentic language material I mean, quite simply, material that was not initially designed for language- learning purposes. This means that in the narrow linguistic sense there is no grading on a purely structural or lexical basis.” (1981: 10).

This definition is partly similar to the previous one. However, Fish has involved the notion of grading which is characteristic of pedagogical materials. This grading may be done at the lexical level, at the grammatical level, at the phonological level, etc, or at all these levels at the same time.

In L2 listening comprehension, there have been some ways to make the spoken text easier called “easification” strategies in order to make L2 potentially more accessible to listeners. M. Rost (1990: 163) presents “easification” strategies at different levels in the form of a table:

In Phonology:

Slow down speech in order to allow learner more time to process the language, more deliberate articulation in order to allow learner to identify ideal phonemes more readily, pause between phonological phrases in order to allow learner to identify salient boundaries of constituents.

In Morphology:

Use verbs in base form so that learner has less syntactic processing to perform.

In Syntax:

Omit unstressed words (e.g., copula) in order to avoid learner problems with distressed syllables, use topic reinstatement rather than anaphoric reference in order to allow learner to

keep references clear, avoid complex constructions.

In Text Structure:

Use paratactic connections between utterances ('and', 'then', etc.) rather than hypotactic connections ('in spite of', 'although', 'the one who' ...) in order to avoid continuity problems, topicalize familiar items (i.e., state" familiar items first) in order to allow ideal given-new pattern of processing, explicitly signed new topics, provide frequent repetition and rephrasing of key propositions.

In Vocabulary:

Avoid low frequency words in order to avoid learner search for new words, provide paraphrase or simple definition for new words.

In Communication Strategy:

Avoid tangential topics or libels to be unfamiliar, recycle topics frequently, mark clearly any major shifts, structure short turns to ensure listener response.

In Paralinguistic Features: Use more of intonation range to provide contrasts to listener; provide gestural cues for redundancy. (163)

These "easification" strategies are probably helpful but must not be used on all occasions. It is better to avoid them at advanced levels. As our students are specialized in English, we think it is better to limit this interference with the text unless it is necessary.

The meaning of authentic materials is seen slightly differently by J. Edge who states that the most common use of the expression authentic materials refers to examples of language use that were not originally produced for language learning purposes but which are now being used in that way. (1993: 46). This explanation shows that for Edge, even an authentic material becomes a pedagogical one the moment it starts to be used for pedagogical ends.

Other writers have defined authenticity in relation to naturalness of message and

genuineness of situation. For instance, Abé *et al* argue that an authentic material is one which has been produced (as a message) in a real communication situation. (1985: 322). This again means that it is not pedagogical and the situation is completely genuine.

The term authentic also refers to the text itself as being natural and not artificial. In other words, the text must contain all the features of speech seen above, such as false starts, hesitations, repetition, etc. Among the best proponents of this view is G. Brown who believes that authenticity concerns the materials in listening which have to do with the natural, spontaneous speech that has normal irregularities, hesitations, and simplification. (1987: 80). Although this definition is somehow complementary with the previous ones, it seems that Brown rather favours naturalness and spontaneity of speech than authenticity and original purpose of the message.

Other writers rather highlight what is sometimes called “original authenticity” and integrity of a text. For instance, E. White says that in order for a text to be authentic, it should neither be cut, nor reworked, nor modified in any way in its written or oral form; it should include all the material features of the text itself, whether it is simple or highly elaborated, natural or mannered. (1981: 20).

For Brown, the integrity of a text can obviously be transferred to the classroom without much difficulty, by means of photocopying, tape-recording, video recording, etc. However, the transfer will lack what might be called the original authenticity of a text. It includes the moment, the place and the context of a particular message (1987).

Others have attempted to differentiate between genuineness and authenticity. Widdowson,

for example, states that genuineness is a characteristic of the passage itself and is an absolute quality, while authenticity is characteristic of the relationship between the passage and the reader, and it has to do with appropriate response (1978: 80).

Similarly, Lee highlights the importance of text authenticity and learner authenticity. For him, a text is usually regarded as textually authentic if it is not written for teaching purposes, but for real-life communicative purposes, where the writer has a certain message to pass on to the reader. Because of this intrinsically communicative quality, many teachers assume all textually authentic materials are authentic to learners, and that continuous exposure to such materials will provide for their longer-term communicative needs. He considers that authentic texts are often regarded as more interesting than textbook materials because they can be more up-to-date, and related to everyday issues and activities. Linguistically, however, they tend to be more difficult, being non-simplified, with ungraded syntactic patterns and vocabulary (1995: 323-324).

He continues and refers to features of learner-authentic materials. This issue has also been discussed by Breen who states that the nature, type, and topic of a text decide whether it is authentic, not just its authentic quality. He illustrates his argument by pointing out that a poem in a course-book which might be used for teaching purposes is authentic in nature, and provides learners with a basis for genuine communication because the poet uses language to stimulate our interpretation of his message.(1985: 463-464).

Young reinforces this view by saying:

“From the learner’s viewpoint, authentic materials are motivating, interesting, and useful, with content that does not cause them culture shock or discomfort.” (1980: 224).

Widdowson also talks about the rhetorical structure and says that it must be appropriate to learner's needs and learning purposes (1980).

II.7.3. Which Type of Material may be regarded as more useful for Learners?

Some writers have expressed themselves in connection with this controversial issue which has given rise to three types of views:

II.7.3.1. Opponents to the Use of Authentic Materials in Listening.

As an example, let's use what Ur has said on this issue. She believes that authentic materials in listening do not necessarily lead to a better learning on the part of learners. (1984: 23).

S. Kellerman reinforces this idea and writes:

“[f]irstly, spoken texts which consist of ‘naturalistic textual data’-... which will be referred to here as genuine texts- are likely to present greater difficulties to the second (L2) learner in terms of processing than equivalent printed texts. Secondly, it must be borne in mind that ‘outside broadcast style’ interviewers, and unscripted, informal conversations sound, a microphone, outside a recording studio, may present greater problems in terms of auditory perception than carefully-controlled studio recordings. The technical quality of the recordings used for listening comprehension purposes is of paramount importance: good recording equipment and professional expertise is required, as is good quality reproduction in the classroom...” (1992: 10).

II.7.3.2. Advocates of Compromise

Some writers recommend authentic listening materials but prefer to ask for a compromise. Among these is Whitney thinks that a balance has to be struck between authentic listening materials and traditional listening materials. He justifies this by saying that the former are sometimes too difficult for foreign learners while the latter are often uninteresting and different from the way native- speakers speak. The solution in his eyes would be to create materials that are quite similar to spontaneous ones but simplify them for the sake of learners (1994: 357-361). (c.f. “easification” strategies above).

II.7.3.3. Advocates of Authentic Materials

Proponents of authentic materials argue that it is better to keep the text as it is and rather simplify the task. They are in favour of task-based approaches. For instance, McGregor proposes to present the listener with the context of the listening material. He writes:

“[i]n order to bring the eavesdropper into the discourse framework-which is where authentic information is being exchanged- it is necessary to provide a frame of reference by which the listener can establish who the participants in the original exchange are and what they are perceived to be doing from their own point of view. As such, it will generally be preferable to use texts in a series in which the context has been established, or texts recorded in familiar contexts, over recorded texts selected simply on basis of immediate interest and value.” (1986: 161).

G. Brown insisting on naturalness again and somehow reinforcing the idea of using authentic materials gives an overview of the features which make spontaneous speech and insists on the indispensability of certain features no matter whether the material is fully authentic or semi-authentic. She writes:

“My own preference...is for using typical materials as far as possible so that one of the features that students may incidentally pick up is what constitutes “Typical” usage in English by different sorts of speakers, in different sorts of circumstances, for different purposes.” (1990: 13).

What is, in our opinion, important in teaching L2 listening, is that learners need to be exposed to a variety of materials. This variety must include topic, language, culture, etc. Authentic materials that display the normal irregularities are recommended; but, other semi-authentic ones are also interesting to expose learners to.

II.8. Learning Styles, Learning Strategies and Listening Strategies

This part discusses students’ learning styles, learning strategies, and listening strategies. Learning styles are first introduced, categorized, and explained in view discussing whether they can be changed by the introduction of efficient learning strategies.

II.8.1. Learning Styles

Learning styles are usually the approaches students prefer to adopt when learning and they are usually consistent behaviour. According to Flowerdew and Miller:

“Learning style is a concept that has been developed from the extensive work into cognitive styles, that is, how people think and act in certain ways.” (2005: 62)

Another definition was made by Carver who writes:

“This category [learning style] is concerned with the learner’s preference for ways of organizing his learning, and with the interaction between his personality and his situation as a learner.” (1984: 124)

A third contribution in the definition of learning styles was made by Keefe:

“Cognitive, affective, and psychological traits that are relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment.” (1979: 4)

What seems to be important in this issue of learning styles is that these are usually stable and almost always permanent. These stability and permanence features are very resisting traits that are very difficult to change but, we think, with conscious and extensive teaching, they can be modified and improved. This idea has been highlighted by Reid who states:

“many individuals can change their strategies in response to the unique contextual demands of the instruction, context, and the task.” (1987: 100)

He goes on and explains:

“Subconscious learning styles can become conscious learning strategies.” (1987: 101)

He insists that students must be helped to discover their learning styles and, as we will see below, with meta-cognitive strategies, students can be helped to improve their leaning styles.

In relation to students’ learning styles, there seem to be two main distinctions that emerged in cognitive styles which are field-dependency and field-independency as proposed by Wilkin *et al* (1977).

a. Field-dependent students: A field-dependent student is one who likes to learn step by step in a sequential way.

b. Field-independent students: A field-independent student is one who likes to learn in a holistic way, preferring to get the big picture rather than the details.

This cognitive attempt served as a ground for other ways and means to develop other instruments, which in fact gave rise to the following main types of learning styles shown in the table below:

Deep Approach Approach	Surface Approach	Strategic
Learners who put all their efforts into trying to understand something. They believe everything they learn is worthwhile.	Learners who try to gain only enough information to complete a given task.	Learners who focus on assessment and grades and learn only to pass a test.
Field-Independent (Holistic)		Field-Dependent (Serialist)
Learners who attempt to gain an overall understanding by focusing on general features. They often approach their learning in a personal way and relate new knowledge to existing knowledge.		Learners who try to build up their knowledge in a systematic step-by-step way.
Converger		Diverger
Learners who believe that there is a “correct” answer or a “correct” way to do things.		Learners who are creative in their thinking and approach their

They develop patterns of learning and keep to these established patterns.

learning in an open- ended manner.

Concrete

Abstract

Learners who like to have examples and Conceptualize their learning in terms of their own experiences

Learners who like to generalize and rely on developing overall principles for their learning

Reflective

Active

Learners who build up their knowledge by stopping to consider what they have learned They deliberately think about their learning.

Learners who like to explore and experiment with their learning. They like to find solutions to their own tasks and problems.

Solitary

Social

Learners who like to learn by themselves.

Learners who like to learn with others.

In addition to these types of learners, Biggs (1987) determined that there were three types of learners:

- a. Those who are intrinsically motivated to learn (intrinsic motivation will be dealt with in depth in chapter 3) and who would employ a range of strategies to gain as full an understanding as possible-deep learners.
- b. Surface learners who are driven by fear of failure and relied heavily on rote learning devices (extrinsically motivated students).
- c. Strategic learners; those who employ strategic approaches to their learning. Such learners are usually well organized and had a competitive drive to their learning (extrinsically motivated learners).

On the basis of the table above and the three types of learners given by Biggs, it seems that there is a wide variety of learning styles and types of learners. Yet, there are in our opinion two questions that seem worth-while: Firstly, are the students who are thought to have an inefficient learning style able to change it and adopt a more efficient one? Secondly, Should we interfere at all to change the inefficient learning style or should we adapt our teaching method to students' learning style?

The answer to the first question is rather positive. We saw with Reid above that subconscious learning styles can become conscious learning strategies. In addition, meta-cognitive strategies can help learners adopt efficient strategies which will in turn improve learning styles. (Learning and listening strategies will be discussed below).

Concerning the first part of the second question, interference is normally sought if it leads to some awareness on the part of learners. As for the second part of the second question, teachers should adapt only reasonably; it is hard to conceive how a teacher can adapt his teachings and satisfy all students with their several different learning styles. To back up this view, Flowerdew and Miller, have said that some studies emphasize the role of teachers to create a better learning environment and to help and encourage learners to take part in their learning. (2005: 64). So, creating a better learning environment is possible but adapting one's teaching to meet all students expectations is yet a bit of a feat.

II.8.2. Learning Strategies

Interest in learning strategies has increased considerably over the past ten to twenty years.

As a consequence, many books having a link with learning strategies have been published in this period. Firstly, Oxford (1990) states that research on strategies hasn't really settled the problem of how learning strategies should be defined and organized, and how many they are.

(1990: 17)

In spite of all these complexities, she defines learning strategies as:

“Procedures used by learners to improve their learning” (1990: 1)

Further, she adds that learning strategies are tools used by learners for the sake of active and autonomous involvement. (1990: 1).

So Oxford sees learning strategies as procedures to improve learning and tools to enable learners to become active and autonomous. Being autonomous is of paramount importance in the self-determination perspective. This implies that the learner is provided with a set of strategies, which help to understand and use them, and encourage him to be autonomous in his learning.

For Chamot:

“Learning strategies are techniques, approaches, or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content area information.”
(1987: 71)

On the basis of this definition, learning strategies are first of all techniques. A technique may be defined as a trick, a way, a manner, etc., that people use when dealing with an activity. It is also an approach which is a general scheme or plan that people use to tackle something.

Deliberate actions means that the actions students use to learn are intentional and not fortuitous. In other words, when learners use strategies they are completely conscious of what they are doing.

Chamot proposes another definition in which she focuses on the potential use of these strategies.

She writes:

“Learning strategies are steps, plans, insights, and reflections that learners employ to learn more effectively. Learning strategies are intentional on the part of learners, and are used for the purpose of facilitating learning.” (1995: 13)

This definition seems more inclusive of the different operations, mental and behavioural that learners use when struggling to understand first and perform some tasks to associate this understanding with the performing of a task.

Willing proposes a more specific definition of learning strategies related to a categorization of mental process involved in using strategies. He writes:

“Processing, associating, and categorizing information.” (1988a: 7)

He adds (1988b: 142) that the term strategy involves the idea of struggle or difficulty and that difficulty can only be coped with if an appropriate mode of attack is used. So in addition to some cognitive work which consists of mental processing, associating, etc., Willing has introduced the idea of struggle and difficulty.

II.8.2.1. Meta-Cognitive and Cognitive Learning Strategies

The literature on learning strategies usually distinguishes between two main types of learning strategies: meta-cognitive and cognitive.

II.8.2.1.1. Meta-cognitive Learning Strategies

Wenden defines them as:

“Meta-cognitive strategies are defined as strategies that can be used to regulate learning, i.e., plan, monitor, and evaluate the range of cognitive strategies used to learn.” (1987: 160)

Learners need to define their learning goals. Lund (1990) has pointed out that there are many goals (identification, orientation, main idea comprehension, detail comprehension, or replication) learners can have while they are listening, however, the main goal of a particular

listening should be defined in advance.

After learning to determine the general goal, learners should develop an action plan. They also need to know what to do with a source of difficulty. They may decide that the difficulty at hand is not critical and, therefore, can be ignored or ask information about how to resolve it.

One thing that is crucial in meta-cognitive listening strategies is monitoring. Chamot writes:

“Learners need to learn to continually monitor (or notice) their degree of comprehension and try to define what the source of difficulty can be.” (1995: 158).

According to what Chamot has said, it seems that monitoring consists of always asking oneself about the degree of comprehension and link it directly or indirectly with the difficulties encountered in L2 listening. This suggests that learners need to be made aware of such operations so as to develop in them this self-awareness that is so sought.

Another thing that is of huge importance in meta-cognitive listening strategies is evaluating. This means that learners need to evaluate their listening approach so that they find out whether the strategies that they are using are effective or not. Comprehension or lack of comprehension can determine whether the strategies being used need to be revised or not. If learners find that they have serious problems, they may need to modify their plans, goals, or strategies.

Among the things that they can do is to activate schema or background knowledge (see above). They need to be trained to use the strategies that they usually use in their first language. Basically, in the first language, comprehension is aided by such factors as background knowledge and schema which are beyond the actual text they are listening to.

II.8.2.1.2. Cognitive Learning Strategies

Cognitive learning strategies, however, are techniques for managing particular materials being learned. Unlike O'Malley and Chamot (1990) who use the term “practice” to refer to

cognitive learning strategies, Oxford (1990), uses the term “repeat”. She considers that, as learners practice language, this is in itself a direct cognitive strategy because it includes “to repeat” as well as “to practice” in a natural situation (1990: 18). However, she did not study listening strategies much.

In addition to meta-cognitive and cognitive strategies, there is a third type of strategies which concerns socio-affective aspect of learning.

Vandergrift’s taxonomy (1997: 392-4) of the three types of strategies is hereby given in the tables below:

II.8.2.1.1. Meta-cognitive Listening Strategies

Planning	Focus on the Learner	Focus on the Teacher
Strategy		
Advanced organization	Decide what the objectives of a specific listening task are. Why is it important to attend to this message?	Write a topic on the board (e.g., Train Announcements) and ask learners why it would be important to listen to this type of announcement.
Directed attention	Learners must pay attention to the main points in a listening task to get a general understanding of what is said.	In setting up a listening task, ask learners what type of information they would expect to hear. “You are listening to the news. What would you hear at the beginning of the news?”
Selective attention	Learners pay attention to details in the Listening task.	Before listeners listen a second time, to a recording, set specific types of information for them to listen for. “Listen again to the tape and find out what type of relationship the speakers have.”

Self-management	Learners must manage their own motivation for a listening task.	Before setting up a listening task , the teacher chats with the students in the L2 so that they get their mind frame around listening to the L2
Monitoring		
Comprehension monitoring	Checking one’s understanding	The teacher sets up a task that requires listeners to understand one part of the task at a time. They monitor in stages so that the final part is easily understood.
Auditory monitoring	Learners make decisions as to whether something sounds “right” or not.	The teacher asks learners to use the L1 to determine their perception of spoken text. For example, the teacher asks learners to listen to a tape and decide how the characters feel; then students check with one another in their L1.
Double-check monitoring	Checking one’s monitoring across the task.	At the end of a task, the teacher asks learners to review their previous knowledge about the speakers and make any changes to their perception of what the message is about.
Evaluation	Focus on the Learner	Focus on the Teacher
Performance evaluation	Learners judge how well they perform a task	The teacher can use a variety of techniques to get students to judge their individual performance. For instance: “Raise your hand if you think that you understood 100%; 75%; 50%.”
Problem identification	Learners decide what problems still exist preventing them from completing the task successfully.	After completing a listening task, the teacher asks students to identify any part of the text that was difficult to comprehend.

II.8.2.1.2. Cognitive Listening Strategies

Inferencing	Focus on the Learner	Focus on the Teacher
Strategy		
Linguistic inferencing.	Guessing the meaning of unknown words by linking them to known words.	Before a listening task, the teacher writes some difficult vocabulary on the board so as to draw attention to these words. The teacher then plays the tape and asks students to listen to the new vocabulary and to guess the meaning from their understanding of the whole text.
Voice inferencing	Guessing by means of the tone of voice	The teacher focuses the learners’ attention not on what is said but on how it is said.

Paralinguistic or kinesic inferencing	Guessing the meaning of unknown words by referring to paralinguistic clues.	Teacher discusses with the learners how certain features of the speakers' actions in the video can help them guess the meaning of the message.
Extra-linguistic inferencing	Guessing based on other clues, such as what is required in the task.	The teacher informs the learners that they will listen to a long stretch of speech. The teacher then writes some questions on the board to direct the learners' attention.
Inferencing between Parts	Making use of certain words in the text that may not be related to the task to get more information about the task.	The teacher points out that the information at the beginning of the text will help the learners understand the later sections of the text.
Elaboration		
	Focus on the Learner	Focus on the Teacher
Personal Elaboration	Learners use prior knowledge experience to comprehend the task	At the beginning of a lesson, the teacher asks learners to talk about any experiences they have had that relate to the topic.
World elaboration	Learners use their world knowledge to comprehend the task.	At the beginning of the lesson, the teacher activates the learners' schemata on certain topics by asking general question about a topic.
Academic elaboration	Learners use knowledge gained during their formal learning experiences.	During a listening task, the teacher can ask learners if they have encountered similar experiences in other disciplines, such as knowledge of countries in their geography lessons.
Questioning elaboration	Learners question themselves about what they do know, and what they do not know about a topic.	The teacher sets up brainstorming sessions before, during, or after a listening task for learners to question themselves about what they know about the situation.
Creative elaboration	Learners try to adapt what they hear to make the story more interesting to themselves	The teacher has learners brainstorm different endings of a story and then listen for the real ending.
Imagery	Learners use mental imagery to create a picture of what is happening.	The teacher asks learners to keep their eyes closed while listening to a story and try to picture what is happening.

	Focus on the learner	Focus on the Teacher
Summarization	Learners make a mental or written summary of what they hear.	The teacher asks the learners to give an oral summary to each other, or to write one sentence to summarize what they have listened to.
Translation	Learners translate from the first language verbatim what they hear in the second language.	The teacher asks learners to talk with each other in the L1 and try to translate what they have listened to. Or, if the teacher is bilingual, the learners can translate what they heard for the teacher to check.
Transfer	Learners use knowledge about their first language to facilitate listening to the second language	The teacher could draw students' attention to words in the L2 that are similar to words in the L1

Repetition	Learners repeat words they listen to so that they become familiar with the sounds.	The teacher sets up a shadow listening task.. In this task, the learners look at the text while listening to a story. While listening, they read the text quietly to themselves.
Resourcing	Learners use any resources to aid them in their understanding (e.g., dictionaries, diagrams, notes, peers).	When appropriate, the teacher focuses the learners' attention on artifacts that will help them understand the task. For instance, "Look at the diagram before you listen to the story."
Grouping	Learners group words together based on common attributes.	The teacher activates the learners' schemata on certain areas so that they are aware that the information they hear will have something in common with their previous knowledge.
Note taking	Learners write notes as they follow some spoken text.	The teacher assists the learners in making notes that will help them comprehend the message. These notes can be in skeleton form or free form.
Deduction/ induction	Learners apply rules they have learned or have developed themselves to follow a text	The teacher either explains the rules of a particular part of speech or has learners guess what the rules are by listening to a text.
Substitution	Learners substitute words they to fill in gaps in their listening to see if their overall comprehension makes sense.	The teacher asks students to give a variety of words or expressions to compensate for certain parts of the text they listen to. For instance, "The man said 'Could you close the door?' What else could he have said?"

II.8.2.1.3. Socio-Affective Listening Strategies

Strategy	Focus on the Learner	Focus on the Teacher
Questioning for clarification	Learners find out more about the text by asking questions	The teacher gets learners to ask questions related to the task before, during, or after their listening to a text.

Cooperation	Learners work together to pool their comprehension	The teacher asks learners to work in pairs or groups to discuss what they heard and find out from each other what they understand about the text.
Lowering anxiety	Learners try to relax before listening to the message.	The teacher has the learners close their eyes for one minute before beginning the listening task and asks them to think of something that makes them feel happy.
Self-encouragement	Learners develop a positive attitude toward the task and believe that it is possible for them to understand what they will hear.	The teacher asks the learners to set themselves a personal standard for the listening task. For example, “if you only understand 20% of the text, that’s OK.”
Taking emotional temperature	Learners realize that sometimes they will not feel happy about listening in a second language.	The teacher asks learners to keep a journal about how they feel during their listening tasks. These journals can be private, so that no one else will read them, or they may be open for the teacher and/or learners to read and comment them.

II.9. Individual Listening: Prospects and Technology

This part emphasizes the immense importance that individual listening ought to be given. It is undeniable that listening is very important in learning an L2 (second or foreign). Individual listening implies taking charge of one’s own learning (more autonomy). Mere reliance on teacher

and the formal context are in our opinion not enough to prepare learners to cope with L2.

The same as individual reading is regarded as very important to enable learners to improve their level, individual listening too, though unfortunately rarely encouraged, can be an efficient way to develop one's receptive skills and improve one's level in the language.

Thus, in addition to the issues of knowing learners' learning styles and strategies, teaching learners how to make use of technology at home in their individual listening is of paramount importance. This is usually done by teaching those strategies that they can use in the classroom (lab, multimedia room, etc.) as well as in the informal context which is usually home. Listening at home implies using some technology. This can be of great help specifically learners who listen alone at home. Among the tools and equipments that learners may be familiarized with in a formal or an informal context are radio, audio tapes, language laboratory, video, and computer-assisted language learning.

II.9.1. Radio.

Though it is basically losing ground because of an overwhelming invasion of more sophisticated equipment, the radio yet remains the equipment of the poor and modest people who cannot afford to buy more sophisticated and therefore more expensive equipment. According to Flowerdew and Miller, the radio is one of the most accessible ways a learner has of developing

listening skills. They write:

“Perhaps because of the real-time listening aspect of the radio, one of the most important dimensions it has to offer learners is the experience of listening to nonstop language. Learners are able to develop an “ear” for the language and tune in and out whenever they wish.” (2005: 165)

In addition to all this, radio broadcasts allow learners to listen to native speakers in a variety of contexts, from the news read in simple English (see above written language read aloud) (Voice of America and BBC both have such programmes) to interviews, debates, etc., on specific topics.

On top of all, radio programmes can motivate students to listen more and more regularly and individually, so that they develop regular listening habits, and this will certainly enhance their interest in learning English and will enhance their motivation.

II.9.2. Audio Tapes

Audio tapes may be regarded as among the cheapest way to provide listening practice opportunities for students in the classroom and at home. Since two or three decades there have been intensive course books with accompanying audiocassettes, an audiocassette has become a means to enhance listening in class and outside.

The advantages of the audio tape are discussed below:

II.9.2.1. Extensive Listening Practice:

- a. Students can practice their extensive listening in several ways such as guessing the general meaning of spoken text and gathering new information in order to do something.
- b. Students can listen for pleasure like for example listening to a song.
- c. Attending to fast speech especially at home and not being obliged to carry out any task or

activity.

d. Distinguishing among a variety of voices. This activity is very important as it trains listeners to learn to recognize different voices. Obviously, as was stated above, there should be a careful selection of materials so as to avoid learners' incapability to distinguish speakers.

II.9.2.2. Intensive Listening Practice:

- a. Listening for key words.
- b. Listening to pronunciation and intonation patterns.
- c. Listening to complete a classroom task (true/false questions, picture matching).

II.9.3. Language Laboratory.

With the advent of tape recorders in the 1950s and the rise of the audio-lingual method of teaching (see chapter 1), language laboratories became popular facilities in many schools. Because of the failure of such a method, new teaching methods brought about fresher ideas which did not exclude the use of language laboratory in listening. Flowerdew and Miller (2005 : 172) explain why the language lab has regained some importance:

- Material writers have produced quality materials that can be used in the laboratory.
- Students have been encouraged to take more responsibility for their learning, and they can control the type of listening exercises they wish to do in the language laboratory, which in many institutions has taken on features of a self-access centre. Examples of quality materials that can be used in the language laboratory are "Headway", "Pronunciation series" (Bowler and Cunningham 1991).

II.9.4. The Video.

II.9.4.1. Benefits of Using the Video:

Perhaps among the benefits of using the video in L2 listening is that it provides sufficient context where students can use their background information to the maximum (schema), and understand much more than their linguistic knowledge alone might permit (paralinguistic features). This means that learners often experience instant success because of all this, and this will enhance their motivation.

Another advantage of using video is that because it is contextualized, it facilitates memory.

Rubin writes in connection with this issue:

“Video gives learners a better framework for remembering as audio tapes. Further, it puts less of a burden on processing because listeners don’t have to attend to every word since the video can supply some of the missing pieces.” (1995: 153)

She carries on and explains that another obvious advantage is that video provides access to many kinds of scenes and situations which are difficult to recreate in the classroom. Further, along with audio, it provides exposure to many accents and to gender differences rather than to only one native speaker (or none) in the classroom.

More often, this type of viewing is done at home, or as part of private study time. (This relates very closely to individual listening which is central in this research).

Often, viewing of videos is related to listening for pleasure, as in watching a movie. But careful choice of movies is recommended.

II.9.4.2. Different Types of Video Material.

Different types of video material can be used to develop L2 listening. The table below, drawing from ideas in Lonergan (1984), provides the advantages and disadvantages of types of

video material.

Types of video material	Advantages	Disadvantages
Video for video Learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Video can be fully exploited through teacher control. . New videos have high quality of visuals and sounds. . Language in the video has been graded. . Videos have accompanying written materials. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Language may be viewed by learners as unauthentic, as it has been specially prepared. . Videos can become dated quickly. . Videos are expensive to buy.

Video from domestic broadcasts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Learners are exposed to authentic language. . The speakers in the video may be from the learners' own country so learners may tune in to the accent easily. . Learners can use this medium outside the classroom. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . The language level may be too high for learners and so demotivate them to try and listen. . For copyright reasons, it is difficult to record off-air programmes and show them in class. Therefore, the viewing must be done in real time.
Documentary Videos.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Documentary videos are helpful in tertiary-level contexts because learners can get extra information by seeing the pictures (e.g., the life of a whale for biology students). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Voice-overs can prove very difficult and even hinder comprehension (see MacWilliam 1986). . Documentary videos are usually made for L1 listeners, so social and cultural contexts may not be explained.
Teacher-produced videos	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . These can focus on students' specific needs (see Brennan and Woodbury Miller 1982). . If the teachers are the actors, then the learners may be familiar with their accents. . Teacher investment in making videos may mean that they are used more. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Unless a high level of technical support is given them, the videos may look and sound unprofessional. . Making videos is time consuming.
Student-generated videos	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . These videos help learners integrate their listening skills because they need to produce something. . Students usually work in groups and so establish a support system to help one another. . Editing requires intensive listening skills. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Students may require much assistance in learning about the technology before they can use it. . Teachers have to be on hand to ensure quality control. . Students may feel shy about speaking on film.

After this review of advantages and disadvantages of the types of video material, one can say that the video is still an equipment that is highly recommended in L2 learning especially that its cost and expenses are certainly far less than its contribution in fostering good learning habits and its facilitation of potential exposure to spoken English used by native speakers.

II.9.5. Computer-Assisted Language Learning.

Although computers appear to facilitate language learning in a new dimension, the skill of listening via computer programmes has not yet been researched much. Probably, the reason to

this is that computers with sound capabilities were not in widespread use until recently. Among the few studies that have been conducted in connection with computer, Brett made a comparative study of three media-audio, video, and multimedia. He writes:

“...performance on tasks showed more effective comprehension and recall while using multimedia than either audio or video plus pen and paper.”(1997: 39)

The use of the computer in language education is said to have started by the 1960s. During this forty- to fifty- year period, Flowerdew and Miller (178) argue could be divided into three main stages: behaviourist computer-assisted language learning (CALL); communicative CALL; and integrative CALL. Each of these stages corresponds to the available technological and the prevailing pedagogical theories.

a. Behaviourist CALL, as its name implies, was informed by behaviourist theory. The type of learning exercises students were asked to perform via the computer was repetitive language drills. Most of the activities students were asked to perform on the computer at this time were reading and writing based.

b. Communicative CALL was the next stage of computer use. With the advent of personal computers, students could have greater freedom to engage in language learning activities in their own homes. Flowerdew and Miller (ibid) argue that the type of exercises focused more on the use of forms than on the mechanical manipulation of the forms. The focus was still very much on written texts.

c. Integrated CALL according to Warschauer and Healey who write:

“Integrated CALL aims to integrate various skills (e.g., listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and also integrate technology fully into the language learning process.”
(1998: 58).

Nowadays, teachers are encouraged to make learning a process that involves technology.

II.9.6. Television

In addition to the equipments we have seen above, and which offer students opportunities to listen to English at home, television seems perhaps the most widely used listening tool outside the classes. It provides students with individual listening possibilities. Nowadays, there are several channels which broadcast a wide range of programmes in English, ranging from written language read-aloud found in news bulletins and information news to more sophisticated and more complex casual programmes such as quizzes and other entertainment programmes. Students who listen individually are certainly motivated to improve their listening skills and will certainly improve their learning level (this issue will be discussed deeply in the practical aspect).

II.9.7. Discs

Discs are getting very popular nowadays. Because of their less cumbersome nature, they represent another very efficient tool that can be used in individual listening. Discs are basically very similar to video cassettes, with the advantage that they are more practical and less expensive. They may be said to constitute the cheap and practical alternative to video cassettes because they enjoy the same advantages of video referred to above.

II.10. Conclusion

This chapter has discussed listening comprehension and its importance in L2 learning. It has been shown that listening was neglected in the past, and that today, researchers and textbook designers emphasize more and more its importance in L2 learning and recommend a wider and more efficient use of it.

Researchers stress the importance of distinguishing listening in L1 and L2 and highlight the main obstacles that hinder comprehension in L2. Besides this, learning styles and strategies have been discussed in order to understand better how L2 learners come to terms with L2. At last, individual listening which is considered of paramount importance has been discussed briefly, with a special emphasis on technology that individual listeners can use to develop their listening abilities and their learning capabilities in general.

Chapter III

Motivation: Definitions, a Brief Historical Survey, and an Account of the Self-Determination Theory.

III.1. Introduction

Motivation has emerged as a key element in determining success or failure in learning. Many researchers and educationalists have emphasized the necessity to understand and explain motivation and to understand what factors affect it. They also emphasize the fact that it should be taken into account in any endeavour to investigate and explain potential successes or failures in learning and teaching.

Our interest in motivation is justified by the fact that our students seem to display lower and lower interest in studies, and their motivation seems decreasing tremendously. As a consequence, this research attempts to tackle motivation and how it can be enhanced.

This work nonetheless has no pretention to investigate different approaches of motivation deeply. On the contrary, it just attempts to treat the matter putting a special emphasis on the self-determination theory and the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

This chapter is divided into two parts:

1. Part one discusses the following points:
 - a. Some definitions and approaches of motivation
 - b. A brief historical account about motivation
 - c. The emergence of behavioural theories in psychology
 - d. Behavioural theories versus cognitive theories
 - e. A brief account about major contemporary theories of motivation
 - f. A brief survey about the role of motivation in education including the rising interest in education and the important role motivation plays in learning.

2. Part two discusses the following points:

- a. Some definitions of intrinsic motivation
- b. Developments and conceptualization of intrinsic motivation and self-determination theory
- c. Cognitive evaluation theory giving an exhaustive account of factors undermining intrinsic motivation
- d. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation
- e. Factors enhancing intrinsic motivation
- f. Autonomy-supportive teachers: their nature and pressures exerted on them

III.2. Definitions and a Brief Historical Survey

III.2.1. Definitions and Approaches to Motivation

The definitions of motivation are numerous and diverse. They are usually connected to different schools of psychology. Motivation is basically regarded as very complex concept whose definition is very difficult to approach. This complexity is mainly due to the inherent characteristics of motivation which are regarded as very to disentangle, and also to the fact

that motivation is not actually directly observed; it is rather manifested through behaviours and/or emotions.

Scheidecker and Freeman argue that the main problem with motivation is that most people whose interest is pedagogical or else try to reduce the concept to a simple meaning. They write:

“The real problem with motivation, of course, is that everyone is looking for a single and simple answer. Teachers search for that one pedagogy that, when exercised, will make all students want to do their homework, come in for afterschool help, and score well on their tests and report cards. Unfortunately, and realistically, motivating students yesterday, today, and tomorrow will never be a singular and simplistic process.” (1999: 117).

Below are just but few attempts to highlight some approaches about motivation made by specialists in the field of psychology, motivation, education, and English language learning. The definitions can be grouped into those that stress complexity of motivation, those that emphasize internal processes, those that highlight external processes, and, at last, those that highlight both internal and external processes, or all mechanisms and processes gathered together.

Pintrich *et al* write that the term motivation actually derives from latin which means that the tern in question is very old. They write:

“The term motivation is derived from the Latin word *movere* (to move)”. (2002: 5)

This etymological precision, which emphasizes the idea of movement that drives human behaviour towards action and behaviour, derives, in actual fact, from Latin philosophical reasoning.

Another view about motivation is given by Vallerand *et al*, who argue that it is difficult to define the concept of motivation accurately...They go on and wonder about this driving force that influences human behaviour (1993: 17). Here the focus is on those hidden forces that push human beings to behave in certain ways rather than in others.

Behavioural theories explained motivation with reference to external processes. For example Skinner, Thorndike, and Pavlov saw behaviour as mechanical and as a reaction to external stimuli. For example, Thorndike (1913) writes:

“When a modifiable connection between a situation and a response is made and is accompanied or followed by a satisfying state of affairs, that connection’s strength is increased. When made and accompanied or followed by an annoying state of affairs, its strength is decreased.” (1913: 4).

Let’s move now to approaches that stress internal processes only. Fenouillet for example thinks that in the Hullian theory of Drive, the notions of energy, dynamism, and mobility are highlighted and are considered responsible for people’s actions. (2003: 6). Hull mainly based his theory of motivation on drives; so, he more or less based his reasoning on internal processes rather than on external ones. The notions of energy, mobility, and dynamism are presumably pushed by external stimuli.

Other researchers such as Pantanella stress internal processes. He defines motivation as something like an energy that makes us run. (1992: 10).

Now concerning the views that have stressed both internal and external processes, Deci and Ryan who are the proponents of the self-determination theory, stress both internal and external processes with a special emphasis on action made towards needs. So the term “needs” is crucial in their conception of the meaning of motivation. They write:

“The exploration of the energization and direction of behaviour...energy in motivation theory is a matter of needs...direction in motivation theory concerns the processes and structures of the organism that give meaning to internal and external stimuli, thereby directing action toward the satisfaction of needs”.(1985: 3).

Simply stated, then, the field of motivation explores all aspects of an organism’s needs and the processes and structures that relate those needs to behaviour.

Other approaches which have taken into account both internal and external processes are sketched below: Among the scholars who have included both internal and external processes, Arkes and Garske define motivation as activation, power and direction of behaviour (1977: 3). So, there is activation which is when motivation starts, after that, there is power, which means that motivation has to be strong to take a direction.

This approach seems to include different kinds of influences, i.e., internal, external, and behaviours directed towards a goal. However, it seems that this definition has omitted to make a mention of persistence of behaviour. In fact, it is of big importance to deal with how behaviour starts; its intensity and its direction; yet, a neglect and ignorance of the reasons of its persistence seems prejudicial to a clear definition of the concept of motivation. Thus, Weiner (1992) argues that motivation involves four components. It must be triggered by a stimulus (internal or external or both, it takes a direction towards a goal, it must be intense and must persist. He puts it that motivation is:

“Triggering, direction, intensity, and persistence of a behaviour directed towards a goal.”
(1992:1).

This attempt takes account of internal and external processes as well as the moment motivation starts, its direction, its intensity, and its persistence. Stated differently, this direction in research on motivation somehow adds a new element which is persistence. It seems important to know why some kinds of behaviours are persistent and others are less.

On the basis of these approaches, Vallerand *et al* (1993), as well as Pintrich *et al* (2002), to a large extent adopting Wiener's view state that the concept of motivation represents the hypothetical construct used for the sake of describing the internal forces and/or external ones giving rise to the triggering, direction, intensity and persistence of behaviour. They go on and propose what many psychologists consider a more or less precise definition of motivation:

“Motivation is the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained.”
(1993: 7).

This view has been completely reproduced by Pintrich *et al* (2002: 5).

III.3. Philosophical Perspectives on Motivation

As far as we can go into human historical thinking, it seems that motivation has always caught the attention of thinkers. These thinkers were most of the time philosophers, since philosophy used to involve all sorts of thinking.

III.3.1. Ancient Greek Philosophical Reasoning

Actually, the very first writings on motivation go back to the Greeks. At this time, two positions emerged. First, the Sophist position whose best proponent was Thrasymache. This

position postulated that the organism's behaviour was motivated by personal interest, particularly, by the search of pleasure and the avoidance of pain. This perhaps explains why kings and rulers of this time constantly used rewards and punishments towards their subjects. This search of pleasure and avoidance of pain was actually found in the first writings on hedonism; a position that would later be adopted by Thomas Hobbes in the 17th century.

Yet, not all Greek philosophers adhered to this hedonist philosophy. In fact, Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle conceived of things differently. They postulated that reason was in actual fact the first determinant of human behaviour. As we can see, this philosophy has become the source of traditional rationalism (Descartes, Leibniz, Spinoza...). Hence, and according to Socrates, it was indeed not personal interest that dictated human behaviour, but rather what was judged "good". As it is indicated here, cognitions in Socrates' thinking played a vital role in Greek philosophical reasoning then. These cognitions were used in an attempt to explain motivational behaviour.

Almost in a similar vein, Plato, Socrates' disciple, adopted a rationalist position too. He emphasized man's constant search of happiness. But, as happiness did not necessarily correspond to pleasure, Plato thought, he did not actually adopt a hedonist position. For him, happiness suggested the development of all pleasures and the satisfaction of three degrees of knowledge: lower knowledge (feelings, the body or the organs); knowledge of the heart leading to the love of "good" and dislike of "evil"; higher knowledge (philosophical knowledge). It is rather at this last level that we find in man the highest level of knowledge which allows man to act with wisdom and to step to the most intense happiness.

Aristotle was the last Greek philosopher to subscribe to the rational school of thought but with a more empirical orientation. While following his predecessors' ideas, he proposed a more scientific formulation. Hence, he stated that to say that a thing existed was not enough; rather, it was more interesting to grasp its real value. As such, reasoning required an observational phase- ideas that preceded by many centuries the positivist thought. Besides, as he considered thought to be blank at birth (tabula rasa), what we are and our behaviour depend to a large extent on our experience and our learning. For him, behaviour was goal-directed- a reasoning that would be adopted by several modern theories of motivation in the 20th century.

The philosophical positions dealt with above throw light on several contemporary theories of motivation:

- a. Thrasymache brought about the first ideas of hedonism- a position that is found in certain proponents of the affective dimension of motivation.
- b. The teachings of Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle gave a crucial role to the cognitive dimension since the intellect and knowledge played an important role. Moreover, Plato stated that thoughts were innate setting the ground for future "nativist" or hereditary conceptions. Besides, Plato argued that such thoughts were acquired through experience. Such ideas were adopted later by empiricists.
- c. As Plato and Aristotle considered the search of happiness of primary importance, this position was somehow adopted later by Tolman (1930) and others in "expectations-value" of behaviour.
- d. The search of happiness presupposes the relative satisfaction of human faculties that are hierarchically ordered-a theory reasonably quite similar to that of Maslow (1954). In addition to all this, Aristotle's position towards self-actualization which suggests that there is an

evolution towards a more refined intellect, corresponds to a large extent to the humanistic thought. Lastly, the debate of Greek philosophers over pleasure, passions, and happiness puts emotions and cognitions at the heart of a theoretical debate that is always up to date.

III.3.2. Behavioural versus Cognitive Theories of Motivation

Historically, theories of motivation have been grouped into two large groups dealing with the concept. On the one hand, are the behavioural theories and, on the other hand, are the cognitive ones. Let us deal with both groups trying to highlight the main discrepancies between these two basic psychological currents of motivation.

III.3.2.1. Behavioural Theories

Behavioural theories view motivation as a change in the rate, frequency of occurrence, or form of behaviour (response) as a function of environmental events and stimuli. Pintrich *et al* argue in this direction that a response to a stimulus becomes more likely to occur in the future as a function of how it has been paired with the stimulus or what has happened following it. (2002: 21)

Reinforcing consequences make behaviour more likely to occur in the future, whereas punishing consequences make it less likely. From a behaviouristic standpoint, motivation is then defined by the rate or likelihood of behaviour.

III.3.2.2. b Cognitive theories

In contrast to behavioural theories, cognitive theories stress the causal role of mental structures and the processing of information and beliefs. Motivation is internal; we do not observe it directly, but rather its products (behaviours). Although cognitive theories share many similarities, they nonetheless display several differences and opposing views as to which processes are important. Different cognitive theories of motivation stress such processes as attributions, perceptions of competence, values, affects, goals, and social comparisons.

III.4. A Brief Survey about some Major Contemporary Approaches and Theories of Motivation

The approaches and theories of motivation are numerous and diverse. We saw above how motivation was conceived of in many historical ideas and thoughts. However, from the beginning of the twentieth century onwards, there have been differing theories of motivation according to the main currents of ideas and thoughts. As we saw above, during the first half of the 20th century, behavioural ideas were dominant, giving rise to a couple of approaches and theories such as Skinner's, Pavlov's, etc. These approaches and theories of motivation were characterized by their focus on external behaviour and their disregard of internal factors.

Following this, appeared drive theories which were mainly based on internal processes related to physiological needs such as hunger, thirst, etc. By the 1970s, new trends of thought in connection with motivation reacted violently against behavioural and drive reduction thoughts. Such new ideas introduced the cognitive aspect as a key element in determining motivation. The table below gives a very concise picture of some of those approaches and theories. Our purpose in this research is not to undertake a deep study of motivation, nor is it an opportunity to describe all approaches and theories with reference to their similarities and differences. Rather, it is just a light trip over the main currents which have more or less undertaken the study of motivation.

III.4.1. Approaches and Theories of Motivation

Dornyei argues in the table below that all approaches to motivation are convincing and defensible. On the whole, all the different theories make a lot of sense; the only problem with them is that they largely ignore each other and very often do not even try to achieve a synthesis. This leaves us with a rather overall picture.

Dornyei (2001: 10-11) summarizes the most outstanding contemporary theories and approaches in the table below:

	Good Summaries	Main Motivational Components	Main motivational tenets and principles
Expectancy-value theories	Brophy (1999), Eccles and Wigfield (1995)	Expectancy of success; the value attached to success on task	Motivation to perform various tasks is the product of two key factors the individual's expectancy of success in a given task and the value the individual attaches to success on the task. The greater the perceived likelihood of success and the greater the incentive value of the goal, the higher the degree of the individual's positive motivation.
Achievement Motivation theory	Atkinson and Raynor (1974)	Expectancy of success; incentive values; need for achievement; fear of failure	Achievement motivation is determined by conflicting approach and avoidance tendencies. The positive influences are the expectancy (or perceived probability) of success, the incentive value of successful task fulfilment and need for achievement. The negative influences involve fear of failure, the incentive to avoid failure and the probability of failure.
Self-efficacy theory	Bandura (1997)	Perceived self-efficacy	Self-efficacy refers to people's judgements of their capabilities to carry out certain specific tasks, and, accordingly, their sense of efficacy will determine their choice of the activities attempted, the amount of effort exerted and the persistence displayed.
Attribution theory	Weiner (1992)	Attributions about past Successes or failures	The individual's explanations (or 'causal attributions') of why past successes and failures have occurred have consequences on the person's motivation to initiate future action. In school contexts ability and effort have been identified as the most dominant causes, and it has been shown that past failure that is ascribed by the learner to low ability hinders future achievement behaviour more than failure that is ascribed to insufficient effort.
Self-worth theory	Covington (1998)	Perceived self-worth	People are highly motivated to behave in ways that enhance their sense of personal value and worth. When these perceptions are threatened, they struggle desperately to protect them, which results in a number of unique patterns of face-saving behaviours in school settings.

Goal setting theory	Locke and Latham (1990)	Goal properties: Specificity, difficulty and commitment	Human action is caused by purpose, and for action to take place, goals have to be set and pursued by choice. Goals that are both specific and difficult (within reason) lead to the highest performance provided the individual shows goal commitment.
Goal orientation theory	Ames (1992)	Mastery goals and performance goals	Mastery goals (focusing on learning the content) are superior to performance goals (focusing on demonstrating ability and getting good grades) in that they are associated with a preference for challenging work, an intrinsic interest in learning activities, and positive attitudes towards learning.
Self-determination theory	Deci and Ryan (1985), Vallerand (1997)	Intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation	Intrinsic motivation concerns behaviour performed for its own sake in order to experience pleasure and satisfaction such as the joy of doing a particular activity or satisfying one's curiosity. Extrinsic motivation involves performing a behaviour as a means to an end, that is, to receive some extrinsic reward (e.g., good grades) or to avoid punishment. Human motives can be placed on a continuum between self-determined (intrinsic) and controlled (extrinsic) forms of motivation.
Social-motivational theory	Weiner (1994), Wentzel (1999)	Environmental influence	A great deal of human motivation stems from the socio-cultural context rather than from the individual
Theory of planned behaviour	Ajzen (1988), Eagly and Chaiken (1993)	Attitudes; subjective norms; perceived behavioural control	Attitudes exert a directive influence on behaviour, because someone's attitude towards a target influences the overall pattern of the person's responses to the target. Their impact is modified by the person's subjective norms (perceived social pressures) and perceived behavioural control (perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour).

III.5. The Rising Interest in Motivation.

The field of motivation has undergone many changes in recent years as psychological theories have increasingly incorporated cognitive concepts and variables. Explanations of behaviour have moved away from stimuli and reinforcement contingencies, as was the case with behavioural theories, to learners' constructive interpretations of events and the role that their beliefs, cognitions, affects, and values play in achievement situations. More recently, in the field of educational research, there has been an interest in social and cultural models of learning that stress the situated nature of learners' beliefs and cognitions. In the students' questionnaire below, the questions basically investigate students' cognitions, beliefs, values, etc., towards their studies and their teachers.

III.5.1. The Role Played by Motivation in Learning and Achievement

As we saw above, motivation consists of processes that occur as individuals instigate and sustain goal-directed actions. Nowadays, motivation is regarded as an important quality that pervades all aspects of teaching and learning. Motivated students display interest in activities, feel self-efficacious, expend effort to succeed, persist at tasks, and use effective task, cognitive, and self-regulatory strategies to learn. Students who are motivated to learn about a topic are apt to engage in activities they believe will help them learn, such as attending carefully to the instruction, mentally organizing and rehearsing the material to be learned, taking notes to facilitate subsequent studying, listening individually (using strategies), checking their level of understanding, and asking for help when they do not understand the material (see chapter II above, learning strategies).

In contrast, unmotivated students are not apt to be as systematic in their learning efforts. They may be inattentive during the lesson and not organize or rehearse material. Note taking may be done haphazardly or not at all. They may not monitor their level of understanding or ask for help when they do not understand what is being taught. Learning in this case suffers.

Likewise, teachers are also affected by motivation. Motivated teachers feel that they can help students learn, put extra time to instructional planning, and work with students to help ensure their learning and mastery of knowledge and skills. Unmotivated teachers, on the other hand, rather lack all these educational qualities. As a result, educational outcomes suffer a lot. So, in teaching situations, teachers must not only teach skills, strategies, and knowledge; they must also establish a motivating environment for learning. In the second part of this chapter, factors enhancing and those undermining motivation and particularly intrinsic motivation are discussed.

III.6. Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination

III.6.1. Definitions and Development of Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination.

People are by nature active, and through their natural activity, they learn. Deci and Ryan state that by spontaneously exercising their capacities, people expand and refine those capacities and also acquire new knowledge. This learning proceeds at its own pace. (1994: 9).

In motivational terms, it is said that this learning is intrinsically motivated. The innate psychological needs to be competent and self-determining are manifested such as curiosity and interest, and this leads people to explore and manipulate. For Pintrich *et al*:

"[i]ntrinsic motivation refers to motivation to engage in an activity for its own sake" (2002: 245)

In a similar vein, Vallerand *et al*, state that intrinsic motivation signifies that we do an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction that we get. A person is intrinsically motivated when she does an activity voluntarily and for the sake of this activity alone (1993: 254)

Deci and Ryan propose quite an explicit definition of intrinsic motivation:

“Intrinsic motivation is the energy source that is central to the active nature of the organism.” (1985: 11)

This definition explains that intrinsic motivation is an energy source that derives from the organism which is itself active and ready to engage in challenges driven by this inner source of energy which in turn is fed by curiosity, exploration, control of the environment, etc.,

In the empirical tradition, psychologists are most apt to refer to the non-drive-based motivation as intrinsic motivation, suggesting that the energy is intrinsic to the nature of the organism. Although there has been considerable debate over the best way to conceptualize this motivation source, there seems to be a convergence towards the view that intrinsic motivation is based in the organismic needs to be competent and self-determining.

III.6.2. Emergence and Development of Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination

The most basic source of human motivation is physical need- for food, oxygen, warmth, and sleep. Hunger motivates us to seek food; cold and fatigue compel us to fulfil other basic life requirements. Recognition of this physical component of motivation was an integral part of Pavlov's investigations in classical conditioning and of Skinner's research of instrumental conditioning.

Behaviourists consequently attempted to explain all human behaviour in terms of fundamental bodily needs, but this is regarded as only one dimension of complex human behaviour. Motivation researchers, then, tried to explore other aspects of human motivation, and as a result, two early theories emerged out of this endeavour.

Freud proposed one major drive theory three decades prior to Hull. Freud's pioneering work with the clinical method allowed him to uncover the importance of the sexual and aggressive drives- drives that are usually frustrated by socio-cultural inhibitions- and to comprehend their psychodynamic activity. Stressing particularly the sexual drive, Freud developed a theory of personality where he thought that the heart of one's personality is a constant conflict between the sexual drive and the socializing environment.

The structural aspect of psychoanalytic theory suggested that the id, which is present from birth, is the origin of drives. Through continual conflict between the id and the environment, the ego develops to play a mediating role, with capabilities to moderate and even redirect energy.

The other major drive theory was that of Hull. As has been mentioned above, Hull considered behaviour to be based on four primary drives: hunger, thirst, sex, and the avoidance of pain. These drives, which are non-nervous-system physiological deficit, activate behaviours that have previously been successful in reducing drives. In fact, drives provide the energy for behaviour and what develops between drive stimuli and behaviours provide the direction of behaviour.

Around the 1950s, investigators began to investigate why individuals, whose bodily needs were satisfied, nevertheless engaged in goal-oriented behaviour.

Pitman and Boggiano write on this issue:

"One line of inquiry assumed that curiosity was natural as the drives for food, warmth, and sleep...In a seminal paper, Robert White suggested a second fundamental motive: the desire for effective commerce with and control over the environment" (1992: 2).

In the first line of inquiry which concerns curiosity, Pitman and Boggiano argue that curiosity is able to move a satisfied person with physical needs to read a novel or seek some form of stimulating entertainment. In the second, in a classic paper now, White writes:

"Fitness or ability, and the suggested synonyms capability, capacity, efficiency, proficiency, and skill. It is therefore a suitable word to describe such things as grasping and exploring, crawling and walking, attention and perception, language and thinking, manipulating and changing the surroundings, all of which promote an effective-a competent- interaction with the environment... The behaviour... is directed, selective, and persistent, and it is continued not because it serves primary drives... but because it satisfies an intrinsic need to deal with the environment."(1959: 317-318)

In this assertion, White argued for a different kind of motivational concept, one that would complement drives and could be the basis of a motivational theory with greater explanatory power. He went on and asserted that people have an inherent need to feel competent and interact effectively with the environment. The goal of "effectance" motivation is a feeling of personal mastery or efficacy. This is best seen in babies and small children who are

curious to control their immediate environment by touching, feeling, tasting, etc., objects that are found in their environment.

Moreover, these babies and especially these young children explore the environment around them in view of having some kind of control over it. So this new motivational propensity could in fact account for play, exploration, and a variety of other behaviours that do not necessarily require reinforcements for their maintenance.

White referred to this new tendency as “effectance” motivation, because, as he argued, organisms are innately motivated to be effective in dealing with their environment. As a reaction to drive theories, White said that the feeling of “effectance” that follows from competent interactions with the environment is the reward for this class of behaviours and can sustain behaviours independent of any drive-based reinforcements.

III.6.2.1. Conceptualization of Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination

As was said above, children are intrinsically motivated to learn, to undertake challenges, and to solve problems. Adults are also intrinsically motivated to do several things. They spend a long time on paintings, research, writing poems, practising sport, etc. For all these activities there are no external rewards whatsoever; the only rewards are in the pleasure of doing the activity itself.

III.6.2.2. The Organismic Approach

An organismic theory begins with the assumption of an active organism; it assumes that human beings interact with the environment actively so as to be efficient and to satisfy a wide range of their needs. Deci and Ryan say in dealing with intrinsic motivation:

"[T]he life force or energy for the activity and for the development of the internal structure is what we refer to as intrinsic motivation"(1985: 8)

However, Deci recognizes that though the organism is acting with energy on the internal and external forces, it is vulnerable to those forces (1980: 149). We will see below those vulnerabilities.

III.6.2.3. The Need for Self-Determination

In intrinsic motivation, the terms competence and interest are very important. As was seen above, children and babies interact with the environment so as to control and manipulate it. These interaction, control and manipulation indicate that competence is a crucial element in the theory of intrinsic motivation and self-determination. However, as Deci and Ryan argue that to be truly intrinsically motivated, and in addition to competence, a person must also feel free from pressures, such as rewards or contingencies. They carry on and suggest that intrinsic motivation will not be operative unless action is experienced as autonomous free from external pressures. (1985: 29).

As this issue- intrinsic motivation needs to involve competence and control- several theorists suggested that intrinsic motivation is based in the need for self-determination. For example, DeCharms writes:

"Man's primary motivational propensity is to be effective in producing changes in his

environment. Man strives to be a causal agent, or the origin of, his behaviour; he strives for personal causation"(1968: 269).

In this quotation, DeCharmes states that the basic desire to be in control of one's fate is a decisive factor in all motivated behaviour. DeCharmes carries on in the same direction i.e., dealing with the concept of intrinsic motivation and its vicissitudes, uses Heider's (1958) concept of perceived locus of causality:

"Whenever a person experiences himself to be the causality for his own behaviour...he Will consider himself to be intrinsically motivated. Conversely, when a person perceives the locus of causality to be external to himself...he will consider himself to be extrinsically motivated". (1968: 328)

DeCharmes argues that the postulate of a basic motivational propensity for self-determination is, of course, closely related to the postulate of a need for "effectance".

Coming back again to the notion of physiological needs, Deci and Ryan explain that as human beings engage in a substantial amount of intrinsically motivated behaviour, so theories of motivation must be able to explain behaviours that are motivated by rewards that do not reduce physiological needs. They explain that this requires an adequate conception of intrinsic motivation and a general theory of motivation that includes intrinsic as well as other types of motivation (op. cit: 32). The conceptualizations that have been proposed are summarized in the table below:

Approach

Proponents

Drive Naming

Exploratory drive	Montgomery, 1954
Avoid boredom	Myers and Miller, 1954
Manipulation drive	Harlow, 1953a
Sensory drive	Isaac, 1962
Visual exploration	Butler, 1953
Physiological arousal	Hebb, 1955; Leuba, 1955;
Optimal arousal	Fiske and Maddi, 1961

Psychological Incongruity

Dissonance reduction	Festinger, 1957
Uncertainty reduction	Kagan, 1972; Lanzetta, 1971
Discrepancy from	McClelland, <i>et al</i> 1953
Optimal incongruity	Dember & Earl, 1957; Hunt, 1965
Optimal arousal potential	Berlyne, 1971a

Psychoanalytic

Instinct to master	Hendrick, 1942
Anxiety reduction	Fenechel, 1945
Ego energy	Hartman, 1958; White, 1963

Competence and Self-Determination

Effectance	Harter, 1978a; White, 1959
Self-determination	Angyal, 1941
Personal causation	deCharms, 1968
Competence and self-determination	Deci & Ryan, 1985

Emotions

Interest-excitement	Izard, 1977
Enjoyment and flow	Csikszentmihalyi, 1975

This table shows how the notions of intrinsic motivation and self-determination have emerged and developed little by little. According to Deci and Ryan, intrinsically motivated phenomena could not be integrated by Hullian drive theory and Freudian instinct theory. It was necessary to propose a fundamentally different motivational source. (1985: 32)

At the physiological level this was done by arousal theories; at the psychological level it was done by incongruity theories and by theories that focus on the needs for competence and self-determination, or the emotions of interest and enjoyment. Deci and Ryan state that when we take all the above works and theories together, it is possible to offer a more satisfactory definition of intrinsic motivation. They define:

"Intrinsic motivation is based in the innate, organismic needs for competence and self-determination".(1985: 32)

To be competent and self-determining also means to seek challenges; for otherwise, life becomes boring. A challenge is something that requires stretching one's abilities, trying something new. The challenge must not be too easy or too difficult. When it is too easy, it is no more challenging and leads to boredom. When it is too difficult, it leads to frustration and loss

of feeling of perceived competence. Both too easy and too difficult challenges play a negative effect on intrinsic motivation.

Now let's move to extrinsic factors that are liable to undermine intrinsic motivation. These extrinsic factors range from monetary rewards to constraints.

III.7. Cognitive Evaluation Theory.

Intrinsic motivation is the innate, natural propensity to engage one's interests and exercise one's capacities, and in so doing, to seek and conquer optimal challenges. In actual fact, such motivation emerges spontaneously from internal tendencies and can motivate behaviour even without the aid of external rewards or environmental controls. Intrinsic motivation is also an important motivator of the learning, adaptation, and growth in competencies that characterize human development.

Research has always tried to gauge the effects of external rewards on intrinsic motivation. Perhaps asking an important question and attempting to give a reasonable answer to it will throw light on the effects of external rewards on intrinsic motivation. The question worth asking is quite simple: If a person is involved in an intrinsically interesting activity and begins to receive extrinsic rewards for doing it, what will happen to his or her intrinsic motivation for the activity? Is it enhanced, diminished, or left unaffected by the rewards?

III.7.1. External Rewards.

Intrinsic motivation is based on four sources: challenge, curiosity, control, and fantasy. Much research has shown that engaging in an intrinsically interesting activity to obtain an extrinsic reward can undermine intrinsic motivation.

III.7.1.1. Monetary Rewards

After having referred to several studies on the influence of external rewards on intrinsic

motivation, Deci and Ryan have proved that external rewards and particularly monetary rewards exert a negative influence on intrinsic motivation. They write:

“When subjects received monetary rewards for working on a variety of activities, under a variety of circumstances in and out of the laboratory, their intrinsic motivation for the rewarded activity decreased.” (1985: 48)

They reinforce this idea by referring to a simple fable. In a small town, a shop-owner was annoyed by a bunch of kids who came to his shop every day and insulted him. He was so annoyed that he had to think about a way to stop that. One day, he addressed the kids and told them that he would give them an amount of money each if every morning they called him with vulgar language. On the first day he gave them a sum of money; on the second day he gave them less; on the third day the sum of money he had given them was so small that they refused to insult. That’s how he got rid of them.

What does this story tell us? It simply tells us that when monetary rewards are involved, people’s intrinsic motivation for an interesting activity (for them, in the tale at least, insulting is regarded as interesting by kids) is negatively affected when those rewards are stopped or even decreased. It is true that rewards can be an incentive that pushes people to undertake an activity that is inherently not interesting. But what is also true is that when people are engaged in an interesting (for them) activity and whose intrinsic motivation is high will see their intrinsic motivation decrease if external rewards are involved.

So, besides monetary rewards, what are the other external factors and/or constraints that can affect intrinsic motivation?

III.7.2. Constraints and Other Extrinsic Factors.

We have said above that external and particularly monetary rewards have been found to

decrease intrinsic motivation by making the activity dependent on the extrinsic reward, thereby decreasing self-determination, and changing the perceived locus of causality from internal to external. So, if external rewards have been found to affect intrinsic motivation negatively, how about constraints?

III.7.2.1. Surveillance

Pelletier and Vallerand state that some studies made by Pittman *et al* (1980) revealed that the presence of a person who watches, even with the absence of rewards, affected intrinsic motivation negatively. They state that similar results have been found in other studies made by Lepper and Green, (1975) on children and Plant and Ryan (1985) on college students. (1993: 266)

III.7.2.2. Evaluation

As long as people's work is being critically evaluated by an external agent, people usually lose self-determination. Deci and Ryan write:

“Evaluations are the basis for determining whether people are complying with external demands, so evaluations themselves are likely to connote external control and therefore to undermine intrinsic motivation.” (1985: 55)

The other drawback of evaluations is that they negatively affect creativity which is a characteristic inherent in intrinsic motivation. When people are conscious that what they are doing is under scrutiny and will eventually be evaluated, they become less creative. This argument is reinforced by the work of Amabile (1979) who found that performance evaluation had a deleterious effect on subjects' creativity.

III.7.2.3. Goal Imposition

A study made by Manderlink and Harackiewicz (1984) explored the effects of

imposition of goals on subjects' intrinsic motivation for an interesting activity. They used two kinds of goals: proximal goals and distal goals. They found that only proximal goals affected intrinsic motivation negatively while distal ones did not. The reason is that these proximal goals are more intrusive and confining than distal goals.

III.7.2.4. Competition

Competition is regarded as the incentive for practicing sport and can be applied to education too. People generally seem to be more interested in such activities when there is an explicit competition in progress than when there is not. One might think, therefore, that competition would enhance intrinsic motivation. However, Deci and Ryan, rather see the opposite effect. They write:

“We suggest that a focus on winning *per se* is typically an intrinsic goal. It may follow from competent and self-determined behaviour, but insofar as one undertakes the activity specifically “to win” and/or “to avoid losing”, one is doing the activity for an extrinsic reason in much the same way that one is when one undertakes an activity “to get money and/or “to avoid punishment.” (1985: 56)

According to Deci and Ryan, It is actually this pressure to win or not to lose that constitutes a control and a constraint that affect intrinsic motivation. To some, these arguments seem counter-intuitive; they may think that winning makes people more motivated to carry on with practice. When you win a lot you may be encouraged to try and win again. However, the problem here is that the activity becomes just an instrument and not an end in itself.

III.7.2.5. Threats and Deadlines

Some studies have examined the effects of threats and deadlines on intrinsic motivation.

For example, Deci and Cascio (1972) found that subjects who had to complete an interesting task in order to avoid an unpleasant noise were less intrinsically motivated than subjects who had no such threat of unpleasant noise. Other studies carried out by Amabile, De jong and Lepper (1976), found that imposition of deadlines as well as threats, undermine intrinsic motivation.

III.8. Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

For a long time, two distinct types of motivation have been of interest to researchers in psychology: intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Vallerand and Ratelle define intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in this light:

“The concept of intrinsic motivation (IM) refers to behaviours performed out of interest and enjoyment. In contrast, extrinsic motivation (EM) pertains to behaviours carried out to attain contingent outcomes.” (2002: 37).

When we take a quick look at this definition, it seems that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are different in nature and that the same person can be intrinsically motivated for certain activities or behaviours and extrinsically motivated for others. In order to illustrate better this plurality and diversity in one person’s motivation, Vallerand and Ratelle (ibid: 37-38) tell the following anecdote.

There is a sixteen-year old girl named Amanda. In general, she is the kind of person who engages in activities because she likes them (she is intrinsically motivated). Therefore, these activities are a great source of enjoyment and satisfaction for her. This is, however, not the case when it comes to playing the piano. Amanda plays the piano because she feels obliged to, certainly not because she likes it. In fact, she really plays the piano for her parents (especially her father, a former virtuoso). In addition, she feels pressure by her piano instructor who never appears to be satisfied by her performance. Ever since she started piano lessons, Amanda has had Ms. Verkawski, a very controlling woman, as an instructor. The teacher never provides her pupils with opportunities to experience choice, and she gives poor competence feedback. She always pushes Amanda to play musical pieces that are out of the realm of her skills. Playing the piano is thus associated with feelings of being controlled and lacking autonomy and competence. As a consequence, her performances were never very good and the satisfaction derived from playing music has been virtually absent.

However, things have changed recently. Ms. Verkawski has been replaced by another instructor called Mr. Mc Connell. Unlike Ms. Verkawski who was controlling, Mr. Mc Connell was more autonomy-supportive, giving her more freedom to express herself and letting her explore new avenues. As a result, Amanda went to her piano lessons out of choice and sometimes even experienced pleasure. Consequently, her performance has improved dramatically and she has started to enjoy herself more at her lessons.

Several motivational features can be derived from this anecdote:

1. The first feature is that motivation is a very complex construct. Thus, to refer to motivation as a general, unitary concept is insufficient to explain such complexity. Instead, we need to focus on a collection of motivations differing in types and levels of generality. For example, Amanda manifests intrinsic motivation toward school, interpersonal relationships, and sports. At the same time, she displays extrinsic motivation toward playing the piano.
2. Teachers' teaching styles affect to a large extent learners' motivation and, particularly, intrinsic motivation.

III.9. Applications and Implications in Education

In learning, curiosity may be regarded as a basic characteristic in human functioning. The desire to explore, to discover, to understand, and to know is intrinsic to people's nature and

is a potentially central motivator of the educational process. Yet, all too frequently, educators, parents, and policymakers have ignored intrinsic motivation and viewed education as an extrinsic process. Deci and Ryan write:

“Intrinsic motivation is in evidence whenever students’ natural curiosity and interest energize their learning. When the educational environment provides optimal challenges, rich sources of stimulation, and a context of autonomy, this motivational wellspring of learning is likely to flourish.” (2002: 245)

They add that there are plenty of learning and behavioural goals which are not necessarily inherently interesting and which learners are compelled to learn. Their learning is likely to be extrinsically motivated: in order to meet requirements or to avoid punishment and/or reprimand.

III.9.1. Factors Enhancing Intrinsic Motivation.

Intrinsic motivation is actually characterized by four features which when available is really enhanced: challenge, curiosity, control, and fantasy.

- a. Challenge: Activities that challenge students’ skills are usually intrinsically motivating. Pintrich *et al* state that challenging activities should be intermediate in level of difficulty, and as students develop skills, difficulty level must be adjusted upward to maintain this intermediate level. Attainment of challenging goals conveys to learners that they are becoming more competent, which raises self-efficacy and perceived control over outcomes. In turn, learners are apt to set new, challenging goals, which serves to maintain intrinsic motivation (2001: 268).
- b. Curiosity: Curiosity is usually helped by activities that offer students discrepant to the information or ideas that students have. However, again, the discrepancy must not be too big. Lowinstein proposed that curiosity is a feeling of cognitive deprivation that occurs when one becomes aware of a gap in information. It is necessary for students to have a pre-existing

knowledge base so that they will be aware of a gap (1994: 85). In the absence of prerequisite knowledge Pintrich *et al* say that prompting students to ask questions- a technique often advised to raise curiosity- should not have much effect. Students also must believe that the gap is manageable, which can be fostered through moderate discrepancies. Curious learners who believe that the gap is attainable should feel efficacious and motivated to manage the gap and learn (2002: 269)

c. Control: Activities that provide students with a sense of control over their academic outcomes may enhance intrinsic motivation. Allowing students' choices in activities and a role in establishing rules and procedures fosters perceptions of control. Perceived control can also engender a sense of self-efficacy for performing well. In contrast, students are not motivated to engage in activities when they believe their actions bear little relationship to outcomes. A perceived lack of control may lead to learned helplessness.

d. Fantasy: Intrinsic motivation can be reinforced with activities that involve learners in fantasy through simulations and games that present them with situations that are not actually present. By identifying with fictional characters, students can derive a vicarious pleasure not ordinarily available to them.

Fantasy can also enhance learning compared with instruction without fantasy elements.

The whole situation is hereby summarized in the table below suggested by Pintrich *et al*, (ibid: 268)

Sources of Intrinsic Motivation

Source	Implications

Challenge	Present learners with tasks of intermediate difficulty that they feel about accomplishing
Curiosity	Present students with surprising or incongruous information that will motivate them to close a gap in their knowledge
Control	Provide learners with choices and a sense of control over their learning outcomes
Fantasy	Involve learners in fantasy and make-believe through Simulations and games

III.9.2. Intrinsic Motivation in the Classroom

The main question is how to maintain and enhance learners' intrinsic motivation for learning. Actually this question has already been posed and tackled by some psychologists and education specialists. For instance, Bruner believes that extrinsic rewards are rather harmful because they lead learners to fail to develop the capacity to transform their learning into flexible, useful cognitive structures. They may memorize well, but they will not develop their capacity to think creatively. He states that when learners are learning intrinsically they will be rewarded by the activity itself. He writes:

“To the degree that one is able to approach learning as a task of discovering something Rather than learning ‘about it’ ...there will be a tendency ...to work with the autonomy of self-reward or, more properly, be rewarded by discovery itself.” (1962: 88).

Almost in similar vein, Neill, founder of the well-known Summerhill School in England, criticizes rewards and punishments, writes:

“To offer a prize for doing a deed is tantamount to declaring that the deed is not worth doing for its own sake.” (1960: 162).

Neill asserts that effective learning occurs when the primary reward is one’s intrinsic satisfaction with one’s accomplishments.

Other writers have also cautioned against reliance on rewards for motivating people to learn.

Actually, what works for children equally works for students who are young adults. For example, Montessori suggested that rewards are not necessary and are potentially harmful, whereas Holt was even more condemning of their use. He writes:

“We destroy the...love of learning...in people by encouraging and compelling them to work for petty and contemptible rewards-gold stars, or papers marked 100 and tacked to the wall, or A’s on report cards, or honor rolls, or dean’s list, or Phi Beta Kappa Keys.” (1964: 168).

In addition to external rewards, all constraints that were mentioned above undermine intrinsic motivation for learning.

III.9.2.1. Autonomy-Supportive Teachers

Two or three decades of empirical research support the following established fact that:

1. Autonomously motivated students thrive in educational settings.
2. Students benefit when teachers support their autonomy.

Concerning this established fact, Reeve (2004: 184) provides a table in which he shows the merits and benefits of autonomy-motivated students and autonomy supportive teachers backed with major supportive reference.

According to Reeves, the quality of a student’s motivation explains part of why he or she achieves highly, enjoys school, prefers optimal challenges, and generates creative products.

This essentially means that students achieve highly, learn conceptually, and stay in school in part because their teachers support their autonomy rather than control their behaviour. Likewise, he believes that the quality of a student's motivation depends, in part, on the quality of the student-teacher relationship.

The utility of self-determination theory is that it can explain why students benefit when teachers support their autonomy. According to Deci and Ryan (1991) and Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, and Ryan (1991), (a) there are different types of motivation, some are autonomous while others are controlled, (b) those motivations that are autonomous are associated with more positive educational and developmental benefits than other types of motivation that are controlled.

So, for them, instead of arguing that motivation *per se* is the key resource that allows students to thrive in educational settings, research on self-determination theory shows that students benefit specifically from autonomous motivations (i.e., intrinsic motivation).

The table below illustrates this autonomy:

How students benefit from autonomous motivation (left side) and from teachers' autonomy support (right side)

Educational Benefits shown by Autonomously Motivated Students, Compared to Control-Motivated Students

Educational Benefits shown by Students with with autonomy- Supportive Teachers, Compared to Students with Controlling Teachers

Educational Benefits	Supportive Reference	Educational Benefits	Supportive Reference
Higher Academic Achievement	Miserandino, 1996 Fink <i>et al.</i> , 1992	Higher Academic Achievement	Fink, Boggiano, & Barret, 1990 Boggiano, <i>et al.</i> , 1993
Higher Perceived Competence	Ryan & Grolnick, 1986	Higher Perceived Competence	Deci, Schwartz <i>et al.</i> , 1990 Ryan & Grolnick, 1986 Williams <i>et al.</i> , 1994
More Positive Emotionality	Ryan & Connell, 1989 Garbarino, 1975 Ryan, 1982	More Positive Emotionality	Patrick <i>et al.</i> , 1993
Higher Self-Worth	Ryan & Grolnick, 1986	Higher Self-Esteem	Deci, Schwartz, <i>et al.</i> , 1981 Deci, Nezlak, & Sheinman, 1981
Preference for Optimal Challenge	Shapira, 1976 Boggiano, Main, & Katz, 1988 Pitman <i>et al.</i> , 1982	Greater Conceptual Understanding	Beware & Deci, 1984 Boggiano, <i>et al.</i> , 1993 Grolnick & Ryan Fink <i>et al.</i> , 1992
Pleasure from Optimal Challenge	Harter, 1974, 1978	Greater Flexibility in thinking	McGraw & McCullers, 1979
Stronger Perceptions of Control	Boggiano & Barret, 1985	More Active Information Processing	Grolnick & Ryan, 1987
Greater Creativity	Amabile, 1985	Greater Creativity	Koestner <i>et al.</i> , 1984
Higher Rates of Retention	Vallerand & Bissonette, 1992	Higher Rates of Retention	Vallerand <i>et al.</i> , 1997

III.9.2.1.1. Nature of Autonomy Supportive

Teaching

According to self-determination theory, there are three sources of influence on a person's interpersonal motivating style:

a. Motivating style is partly a matter of personality. Deci thinks that some people have personalities oriented toward controlling others. He believes that autonomy-support on the other hand is:

“A personal orientation you take toward other people.” (1995: 142).

b. Autonomy support is an interpersonal style composed of acquired skills. Just as behaviour modification (a controlling style) requires practiced skill, supporting the autonomy of others also requires deliberate practice. Reeve says that requisite skills include some qualities. He writes:

“Requisite skills include, for instance, taking the other person's perspective acknowledging feelings, using non-controlling language, making information available for decision making, and so on.” (1998: 313).

c. Motivating style partly depends on the social context. When teachers feel pressured, they often react by pressuring (i.e., exerting control over) their students.

While it is clear now that students benefit from their relationships with autonomy-supportive teachers, it is nevertheless not very clear of how this actually works in practice. The question that is perhaps worth asking is this: What exactly are the “so-called” autonomy-supportive teachers doing in the classroom that their “so-called” controlling counterparts are not doing? Are they listening more, using less rewards and/or constraints, etc? Do they use rewards in different ways and for different purposes? So long as we can understand what

autonomy-supportive behaviours consist of, we can argue how and why it is beneficial to students.

III.9.2.1.2. Autonomy-Supportive Teaching

Behaviour.

The argument here turns around which acts are characterized as autonomy-supportive, and which are characterized as controlling. Reeve (1998: 187), in the table below, highlights the behaviours or acts of both autonomy-supportive teachers and controlling ones:

Teaching Behaviours Shown More Often by Autonomy-Supportive (AS > C) or by Controlling (C > AS) Teachers

Results From Reeve et al. (1999).

Results from Deci *et al.* (1982).

Teacher's Instructional Behaviours

Time spent talking	AS = C	AS < C
Time spent listening	AS > C	n/a
Time spent holding instructional materials	C > AS	n/a
Time given to students for independent work	AS > C	AS > C
Solutions given	C > AS	C > AS

Teacher's Conversational Statement

Directives/Commands	C > AS	C > AS
Should, Must, Have to statements	AS = C	C > AS
Deadlines Statements	n/a	AS = C
Praises of quality of performance	AS > C	AS > C
Praises of students	AS > C	C > AS
Encouragements	AS = C	n/a
Criticisms	n/a	C > AS
Hints		
Solutions given	C > AS	C > AS
Questions of what the student wants	AS > C	AS=C
Controlling questions	AS = C	CAS
Responses to student-generated questions	AS > C	n/a
Self-disclosure statements	AS = C	AS= C
Emphatic, perspective-taking statements	AS >c	n/a

Raters' Subjective Impressions Of Teacher's Style

Supported intrinsic motivation	AS > C	AS > C
Supported internalization	AS > C	n/a
Seemed demanding and controlling	C > AS	C > AS

Note. AS > C, autonomy-supportive teachers engaged in the behaviour significantly more than did controlling teachers; C > AS, controlling teachers engaged in the behaviour significantly more than did autonomy-supportive teachers; AS = C, this behaviour showed no significant difference between autonomy supportive and controlling teachers; n/a, this behaviour was not assessed in the study.

According to this table, twenty-two possible behavioural differences between autonomy-supportive and controlling teachers are provided. The first column lists the results from a social

psychological investigation. Among the set of instructional behaviours, autonomy-supportive teachers distinguished themselves by listening more, spending less time holding instructional materials such as notes or books, giving students time for independent work, and giving fewer answers to the problems students face. Among the set of conversational statements, autonomy-supportive teachers distinguished themselves by avoiding directives, praising mastery, avoiding criticism, giving answers less often, responding to student-generated questions, and communicating statements rich in empathy and perspective-taking. Among the set of subjective impressions, autonomy-supportive teachers distinguished themselves by supporting intrinsic motivation, supporting internalizations, and coming across as less demanding or pressuring.

These findings allow us to begin to understand what autonomy-supportive teachers are doing during student-teacher interactions. In essence, autonomy-supportive teachers are:

- a. Responsive (e.g., spend time listening)
- b. Supportive (e.g., praise the quality of performance)
- c. Flexible (e.g., give students time to work in their own way)
- d. Motivate through interest (e.g., support intrinsic motivation)

Controlling teachers, on the other hand, essentially are:

- a. Essentially take charge (e.g., hold the instructional materials)
- b. Use directives/commands
- c. Shape students toward a right answer (e.g., give solutions)
- d. Evaluate (e.g., criticize)
- e. Motivate through pressure (e.g., seem demanding and controlling)

III.9.2.1.3. How Autonomy-Supportive Teachers can Help Students?

Now that an attempt has been made to understand what autonomy-supportive teachers do and how they act, it seems that the job is done. In actual fact, this is merely half of the job. The concern now is how these behaviours help students. In other words, it's quite beautiful to identify autonomy-supportive teachers, but it seems indispensable to grasp the impact of all this on students' motivation, achievement, etc.

According to the self-determination theory, intrinsic motivation is fostered, reinforced and enhanced by means of self-determination and competence. We argued above that self-determination means autonomy and choice, and competence means control and efficacy.

Hamm and Reeve (2002) conducted an investigation in this light and found that:

- a. The way a teacher teaches and motivates has a substantial and direct impact on how free and self-determining each student perceived himself or herself to be. Behaviours like listening and affording time for independent work nurtured autonomy, while behaviours like holding instructional materials and teacher-dominated problem solving frustrated autonomy.
- b. How instruction affected students' perceived competence. Mostly, students felt competent when they performed well. Moreover, students felt competent when teachers provided opportunities for independent work, opportunities to talk, timely hints, and perspective-taking statements; students felt increasingly incompetent when teachers hogged instructional materials, gave answers, and solved problems for the student.

III.9.2.1.4. Why Are Teachers often controlling with Students?

It seems reasonable to say that students benefit in their studies more when their teachers are autonomy-supportive than when they are controlling. Yet, it seems that it is rather quite the opposite that usually takes place in classrooms, i.e., most teachers are rather controlling. There are obviously reasons to this. Reeve (1998: 191) provides eleven reasons illustrated in the table below:

Eleven Reasons to Explain Why Teachers Are Sometimes Controlling with Students

1. Prevalence and popularity of behaviour modification principles in teacher training programmes.
2. Relative absence in those teacher-training programmes of how to design instruction to promote students' autonomy.
3. Recognizing interest in others is difficult. So teachers, like everybody else, have a difficult time coordinating their instructional decisions with how interested/disinterested students are.
4. Teachers are themselves subjected to controlling, pressuring conditions within their jobs.
5. The more disengaged students are, the more they pull controlling behaviours out of the teacher.
6. Both parents and students adhere to the "maximal-operant" principle of motivation, which is basically the belief that "the larger the incentive, the greater the motivation."
7. Teachers sometimes underestimate students' abilities to motivate themselves.
8. Some teachers view motivation as a fixed trait in students. Accordingly, when motivation is low, controlling motivational strategies are used to overcome the perceived deficit.
9. The culture (U.S.) identifies teachers as powerful actors and students as relatively weak actors.
10. Both parents and students rate controlling teachers as significantly more competent than autonomy-supportive teachers.
11. Some teachers deeply and sincerely believe that researchers just don't really understand, as in, "If you tried that (i.e., autonomy support) in my classroom, chaos would break loose.

Let's comment the above table. Reasons 1 and 2 illustrate the inappropriateness of the teaching programmes (they are often rigid and rarely promote students' autonomy). Moreover,

teachers themselves lack instruction to promote autonomy support, mainly because of received ideas.

Reasons 3, 4, and 5 basically evoke teachers' personality, pressure and control. The more teachers are pressured, the more they control their students; likewise, the more students show little interest the more teachers exert pressure to motivate them. This of course is the consequence of false understanding of motivation and pedagogy.

Reason 9 –mainly society's conception of education, seeing teachers as providers of knowledge and students as receivers-is rather a universal view. This is not actually limited to the USA or other advanced countries. On the contrary, in developing countries, like Algeria, the situation is perhaps worse. The reason to this is that education in most developing countries is still exercised traditionally; and the use of new approaches and methods of teaching (see chapter 1) have not been adopted as yet widely.

Reason 10 is very important. The commonplace belief is that controlling teachers seem more competent than autonomy-supportive ones. With my experience with teaching, and when I started teaching English at the university in the 1980s, I taught at the institute of Arabic culture and literature (as it was called then). There I tried to teach English in a modern fashion, trying to avoid teaching grammar deductively, etc. Unfortunately, I realized that students then did not appreciate it and I felt that they rather preferred traditional lectures. I may even say that they probably considered me as an incompetent teacher who had no experience to teach conventionally, according to how teaching was conceived of. Unfortunately, things haven't

changed much. Teaching is still regarded as a relation of dominator and dominated or that of knower and learner.

Reason 11 is also very important. There is actually no clear cut between autonomy and disorder in the mind of many people. If, in the middle school, and probably, in the secondary school, it is very hard to apply autonomy support because most pupils will take advantage of this to create a chaos, the situation, at the university, is fortunately much better. It is in our eyes still possible to strike a balance between autonomy support and order. It is not easy at all but it is feasible. The main problem remains though with received ideas and clichés which are very hard to combat and to eradicate. It is yet our duty to move forward and propose to learners more advantageous teaching methods and teaching behaviours that are liable to promote their learning.

III.10. Conclusion

In the second part of chapter 3, the following points have been approached:

- a. Intrinsic motivation has been defined from the point of view of some writers and specialists in the field.
- b. The emergence and development of intrinsic motivation and self-determination have been highlighted in view of providing a perspective of how they emerged, were nurtured and expanded.
- c. The necessity to provide a hierarchical model of motivation including amotivation, the continuum of extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic motivation.
- d. Factors affecting intrinsic motivation positively or negatively. Among these factors, a focus was made on teachers' attitude in the classroom. So teachers were categorized as controlling and autonomy-supportive. This dichotomy allowed us to determine the effects of both types of teachers on students' motivation (this issue will be discussed deeply in both students' and teachers' questionnaires).

Chapter IV

Tools of Analysis and Methodology

In this chapter, the tools of analysis used and the methodology adopted are explained.

IV.1.The Questionnaire

The questionnaire is among the tools of analysis that can be used in a research. For R. Mucchielli, the questionnaire can be an efficient tool of analysis as it enables the researcher to gather a wide range of information through different but inter-related and inter-dependent questions (1975: 35). This research has made use of two questionnaires: one questionnaire about students' attitude towards learning and teaching in general and listening comprehension in particular, and the other, a teachers' questionnaire about listening, motivation, and teaching styles. Any investigation that uses a questionnaire as a tool of analysis starts usually with a pilot study.

IV.1.1.The Population of the Students' Questionnaire

The population of this research involves second-year LMD students who are preparing a three- year graduation at the department of English, in the faculty of literature and languages, at Constantine University. There are thirteen groups in the second- year with approximately a number of thirty students in a group. These students have different kinds of modules that are compulsory and go through two examination periods: one in winter and the other in summer. Among the modules that these students have is the module of oral expression. This module is basically, in theory, well balanced between oral expression sessions and listening comprehension ones. The oral expression session usually takes place in the classroom where

teachers introduce learners to discuss a wide range of topics. Besides this, learners present an oral report on a given topic usually in pairs. The main objective of the oral expression session lies in the fact that it enables learners to express themselves (we will see in the analysis of the questionnaires of students and teachers below whether such students are somehow given the opportunity to express themselves freely and if, as the self-determination theory states, these students do have some choice in the learning process so as not to undermine their motivation in general and their intrinsic motivation in particular).

On the other hand, the listening comprehension session, though complementary with oral expression, is different in nature and, as was seen above in listening strategies, requires different types of strategies. In listening, students are introduced to different kinds of listening materials which expect them to use different strategies that are appropriate to listening in L2 learning. However, and in addition to different listening materials in the formal setting, i.e. language lab or multimedia room, where discs and tapes can be played, listening outside classes which is also considered of paramount importance plays in our eyes a crucial role in developing learning in general, and may be regarded as an indicator of motivation in particular.

IV.1.2. The Population of the Teachers' Questionnaire

As this questionnaire concerns teachers, my colleague teachers have been invited to complete it. However, not all teachers of the department have completed the questionnaire. The choice of teachers rests on two criteria:

- a. Teachers of oral expression have been given the questionnaire to complete (10 teachers)
- b. Other teachers (experienced ones) have been given the questionnaire to complete. (15 teachers)

However, only teachers of oral expression have completed the entire questionnaire. The remainder is not concerned with the part on oral expression and listening comprehension.

All in all, 25 teachers have completed the questionnaire, 10 of which are teachers of oral expression, and 15 are teachers of other modules.

All teachers who have completed the questionnaire have, at least, a magister.

IV.2.The Pilot Study

In conducting an investigation by means of a questionnaire, the researcher needs to make a pilot study. The pilot study may be regarded as a trial and error step. It enables the researcher to get a clear idea about the questions to be asked in the main study, their potential usefulness and relevance, and the population's reaction to them. Moser and Kalton state that the pilot study allows the researcher to gauge the rate of non-response to be expected: i.e., the probable number of refusals can roughly be estimated from the pilot study (1971: 49).

Almost in similar vein, Stephen and Michael argue that the pilot study may lead to changing some hypotheses, dropping some, and developing new hypotheses when called for. They add that the pilot study may help the researcher to be aware of some weaknesses related to the

wording and context of the questions: Is the wording simple, clear, free from technical terms? Are there signs that some people are misunderstanding the questions or are insufficiently informed to give sensible answers? (1981: 34-5). In this research, a pilot study has preceded the students' questionnaire on listening. However, the teachers' questionnaire has not been preceded by a pilot study because we considered that the questions were clear enough, and teachers, in general, were able to understand what is expected from them when they completed the questionnaire.

IV.2.1. Sampling in the Pilot Study

As the pilot study is a first step before the formulation of the main study, sampling is used to gauge the population's response to the questionnaire. Only one group was chosen to answer the survey. Sampling was made so as to reduce the population to a manageable proportion, using the criteria for selecting a representative sample. The choice was totally random as the thirteen groups were written in slips of papers and then a draw followed. The group corresponding to the number in the slip of paper that was drawn randomly was given the survey. Consequently, 30 students completed the pilot study.

Sampling did not concern teachers, since their number is largely representative of the total number of teachers of oral expression and listening comprehension. The total number of teachers is 25, out of which 10 have been teaching Oral expression for at least three years. The remainder are teachers who teach other modules. The criteria of selection have been that the teacher must be a full time teacher, and experienced ones. In the teachers' questionnaire, more details will be given about the population.

IV.2.2. Types of Questions and Results of the Pilot Study of the students' questionnaire

The students' pilot study consists of two parts:

- a. Part 1 about general information
- b. Part 2 about listening

Part 1: There are eleven questions. Let's deal with the questions one by one so as to justify their usefulness, and eventually comment on the results and display the shortcomings.

Question1: This question inquires about students' age. It is of relative importance for the research but it is interesting to have an idea about students' age range. The analysis of the results of this question has shown that the students' age is approximately 20.

Question2: This question inquires about sex. The aim of this question is to check whether- as has always been for several years now- in the department of English, University of Constantine, at least, girls by far outnumber boys. When this question has been analyzed, it has been found, as is expected, that girls indeed are more numerous than boys. In terms of percentages, boys constitute 20.6%, while girls represent 79.3%.

Question3: This question concerns the type of "Baccalaureat" students came with when they enter the university. Actually, there are two assumptions:

- a. Students coming with a natural sciences "Baccalaureat" are less motivated because their choice isn't self-determined, i.e., free because their choice to study English is perhaps the third or fourth choice.

- b. Students coming with a natural sciences “Baccalaureat” are more motivated intrinsically to study English because it would mean that these students have completely changed their speciality for the sake of learning English. In any case, this issue deserves to be further investigated

Question4. Did you choose personally to study English at the university?

Yes no

If your answer is no, state who took part in the decision?

This question is deeply interesting as it can reveal the possible link between free choice (self-determination) and intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation.

Question5: Why did you choose to study English at the university?

- a. Future career
- b. You like English very much
- c. Travel and leisure
- d. English is an International language

Other, please specify

This question is directly related to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. It inquires about students’ motives behind their choice to study English at the university. Students have four possibilities to choose from: a- ‘future career’ (obviously, there seems to be a partiality towards extrinsic motivation); b- ‘you like English very much’ (inexorably, tending towards intrinsic motivation), c- ‘Travel and leisure’ is not really clear whether it reveals intrinsic motivation or extrinsic motivation, ‘English is an International Language’ is also not very

clear whether it is intrinsic or extrinsic motivation, 'other, please specify'. The assumption here is that if students study English because they like it very much, their motivation is probably intrinsic. However, if their motives are material -job in this case- then their motivation is rather extrinsic. However, for the third and fourth options, it is not very clear. When we know that intrinsic motivation is sought and probably leads to more conceptual learning away from pressure, we understand that those students who are intrinsically motivated need to be helped to consolidate this intrinsic motivation towards studies. Similarly, those who are extrinsically motivated also need to be encouraged so as not to undermine their motivation. The issue of intrinsic and extrinsic motivated is discussed in correlations. As a consequence to all this, this question needed to be restricted so as to have one option for intrinsic motivation and one option for extrinsic motivation.

We deliberately avoided any question or option about amotivation because it would have been awkward to make students reveal that they were amotivated towards their studies. They may be dissatisfied but they cannot say that they are not motivated at all.

Questions 6 and 7:

Question6. What is your father's job?

Question7. What is your mother's job?

These two questions inquire about students' parents' job. These questions may be important as they reveal if students, in general, have educated parents. This issue may be important especially for individual listening. It may be assumed that educated parents understand better the importance of individual listening when learning a foreign language. Consequently, they may encourage their children to listen very often and, perhaps, take part in listening.

Question8. How do you find studies at the university?

- Very interesting
- Interesting
- A bit interesting
- Not interesting

Would you please explain why, briefly?

This question is very important. The importance of this question lies in the fact that students are invited to express their opinion about their studies. This, in fact, relates directly to the first hypothesis when it is correlated with question 10. In other words, are they satisfied with their studies or not? This way of providing four possible options made categorizations difficult and did not allow us to reveal the tendency. Presumably, an unsatisfied student is one whose motivation has been undermined, and who probably would not make that extra effort to reinforce his learning by individual listening to English outside the university. As it is explained above in the chapter II, listening has become a very important skill in L2 learning. When, in the main questionnaire, appropriate correlations are made and discussed, we will see if the assumptions that we have raised are relevant or not. This question, when correlated with question 10- students' view about their teachers, will be discussed in relation to hypothesis 2.

Question 9: How do you find the teaching programs?

- Very interesting
- A bit interesting
- Not interesting

Would you please explain why, briefly?

This question though a bit vague seems to be important too. Nonetheless, this weakness can by no means affect its relevance and its importance. It can reinforce or refute the assumption in the preceding question. Actually, the same as was done with the preceding question, this question too needs to be restricted. Thus, the option ‘a bit interesting’ was abandoned because ‘a bit interesting’ is not a sharp answer and does not indicate a tendency. In any case, many assumptions creep to mind. Firstly, a boring programme, in the eyes of students of course, will certainly jeopardize their motivation. Secondly, if students develop a negative attitude towards the content of what they are learning, this will inexorably undermine their motivation and their interest. In the self-determination theory, if students cannot feel self-determined- being in a position to take part in choice- and are not attracted by a challenging programme (content), they will lose interest in what they are learning. Thirdly, if the programme is above their current level (though their current level is somehow disparate), they will inevitably feel frustration and their motivation will crumble. Likewise, if the content of the programme is “trivial”, they will feel no challenge and fall into boredom. This being said, we think that

Question10: How do you find your teachers? Here students have two possibilities:

- a. Authoritative
- b. Not authoritative

We have chosen only these two options because in the self-determination theory, the role of teacher is crucial in either reinforcing motivation or undermining it. Teachers according to this theory (see chapter III) are of two sorts:

First of all, we have chosen the words authoritative and non-authoritative instead of controlling and autonomy supportive because we considered that students understand better the meaning of the first words than the second. As a consequence, there is no risk of lack of understanding and, thus, non-response. Now concerning the two types of teachers:

- a. Authoritative teachers: They rarely allow students to express themselves freely. Such teachers create an atmosphere of fear in which students lose their self-confidence. According to some researchers, such teachers fall into the category of classical teachers (see chapter I). The teacher teaches and the learner learns. Unfortunately, though such teaching styles are no longer recommended (more learner-centred teaching), they are still very widely used as the better alternative to all innovations in learning and teaching.
- b. Non-authoritative teachers: Such teachers invite their students to take part in everything their students learn. Consequently, the students are allowed to express themselves freely on the teaching method, teaching programme, content, etc. In a word, teaching and learning are co-operative (see chapter I). According to the results of the pilot study, the tendency is unfortunately negative in that most students do consider their teachers authoritative. When, in the main study, this question is analysed, relevant correlations will be made. Indeed, the results will be combined with those of question 8 so as to check hypothesis 2.

Question 11: In your free time, what do you usually do?

This question is in actual fact about listening. It has deliberately been slipped into the first section so as not to arouse students' suspicions about the subject matter of the questionnaire; thus, to avoid bias. Up till now, students do not know what the questionnaire is really about. By avoiding bias, students' answers may be expected to be genuine.

Part 2: It is about listening comprehension and consists of six questions:

Question1: When you are watching television, what channels do you usually watch?

This is completely an open question whose interest lies in inquiring about what students watch on television. The interest of this question lies in trying to know if they often listen to English individually. This question is deeply tied hypothesis 2 - students who listen to English individually are probably intrinsically motivated- deserves to be investigated deeply and to be further correlated with other questions of the questionnaire.

This question seems yet a little bit ambiguous and incomplete. Probably, and in order to say that a given student listens to English individually regularly or not, we think that this regularity and/or frequency needs to be measured and/or quantified. The measurement and/or quantifying of individual listening could be calculated in terms of the number of days students listen to English in a week, and the time spent (duration) on listening, i.e. exposure to English each day. Thus new questions which illustrate both frequency and duration need to be elaborated and introduced.

Question2: Classify the four language skills in terms of importance for your studies...

Traditionally, and through our personal experience, listening may be called the neglected skill (see chapter II). If it is not neglected, it is underestimated. Again, if it not necessarily neglected and underestimated, it is not well taught. Anyhow, and on the basis of the results of the pilot study (c.f. below), it has been found that listening does not actually occupy a good position in the classification.

Question3: When you are watching a channel in English, say what you do exactly to understand.

Listen selectively: concentrate on what you consider important to understand and disregard the rest.

Concentrate on the general idea.

Concentrate on all words.

Write down words and/or expressions you do not know the meaning of and check them up in a dictionary afterwards.

Other, please specify.

Probably question 3 is one of the most important questions because it is mainly concerned with strategies. Listening in L2 learning expects certain strategies and not others depending on whether listening is transactional or interactional. If it is the former, which basically takes place in a formal setting whose speech is less casual; it is usually followed by certain activities and tasks. However, if it is rather the latter, then we understand that it is more casual and does not necessarily require the same strategies on the part of the listener. Consequently, some new questions must be introduced so as to cover the aspect of listening strategies exhaustively.

Question4: When you are watching a channel in English, state approximately how much you think you understand. Students have four possibilities:

a. Approximately 25% or less

- b. Approximately between 25% and 50%
- c. Approximately between 50% and 75%
- d. More than 75%

At first sight, this question seems awkward. In fact, a quantitative evaluation though approximate of one's comprehension of any input is very difficult to make. Even teachers can hardly evaluate their comprehension quantitatively. This implies that either this question needs to be reformulated or split up into two or more questions. In any case, when students' answers to this question have been analyzed, it has been found that there is no tendency towards showing off (lying) or answering haphazardly because in questions 5 and 6 they would explain and justify their percentage. Nevertheless, a reformulation of question 4 and, inevitably, questions 5 and 6 is necessary.

Question5: If your answer is "a" or "b", say what the reasons are.

- a. Speed of delivery (rapid speech)
- b. Pronunciation(not very clear)
- c. Difficult words
- d. Other, please specify.

Question6: If your answer to question 4 is c or d, say what the reasons are.

- a. It is because you listen to English quite often
- b. You pay particular attention to pronunciation
- c. You can anticipate (you know the subject matter and you can guess what is coming

Questions 5 and 6 are very interesting ones because they tackle an aspect which is very important in listening and in motivation. This aspect concerns students' own explanation of the causes of their good comprehension or poor comprehension (cognitions). However, a fruitful exploitation of questions 4, 5, and 6 combined puts us in a dilemma. Firstly, if we leave the questions completely open-which is actually very tempting- so as to gather as much information as possible from students, we run the risk of collecting incongruous answers that will be hard to analyse and categorize.

Secondly, if the questions are completely closed, though an additional option, 'other, please specify' is added, we know perfectly well that most students will choose from the options proposed to them. As a consequence, we will miss some of students' arguments about what they consider are the causes of their ease or difficulty with English used by native speakers on television. Perhaps, a balance between the two will be a better choice. Thus, new questions with slightly different orientations need to be elaborated so as to have both congruence and expression of personal opinion.

Now concerning the results and percentages, and shortcomings that have been revealed in the pilot study, they are illustrated and explained below:

All in all, there are two sections. One section is called general information and the other is called listening. Nine questions are open and eight questions are closed or semi-closed.

The pilot study which basically contains a great deal of interesting ideas and insights has shown its limitations and shortcomings. Some questions have not provided the information sought. Some other questions, though prepared with much interest, seemed a little bit

awkward or ill-formulated. In any case, as the pilot study is a trial and error step, some questions have been voluntarily been provocative. However, a more comprehensible reformulation or alteration seems necessary.

Let's see some results and percentages that have been revealed by the pilot study and the solutions that have been proposed. The following results and percentages have been restricted to the most important questions only, i.e., the questions that are directly related to the three hypotheses.

Firstly, in question 5, part 1, in the pilot study, the question was:

Why did you choose to study English at the university?

- a. Future career
- b. You like English very much
- c. Travel and leisure
- d. English is an International language
- e. Other, please specify.

The results show that out of the 30 students who completed the pilot study, 15 opted for 'future career', 50%; 7 opted for 'I like English very much', 20% approximately; 2 opted for 'travel and leisure', 6% approximately; 5 opted for 'English is an International Language', 10%; and One students said 'I have no idea'.

These results and percentages are quite interesting but, in relation to the issue of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (hypothesis 2), they are very difficult to analyse and, more

importantly, to categorize and to correlate with other questions. As a consequence, the options ‘travel and leisure’ and ‘English is an international language’ have been omitted because they did not indicate clearly whether they refer to intrinsic or extrinsic motivation.

Another question which is directly related to hypothesis 1 is analyzed below:

How do you find studies at the university?

- a. Very interesting
- b. Interesting
- c. A bit interesting
- d. Not interesting

Would you please explain why?

This question gave the following results and percentages:

Out of the 30 students who completed the pilot study, 3 opted for ‘very interesting’, this gives a percentage of approximately 10%; 3 said ‘interesting’, with a percentage of 10%, 10 said ‘a bit interesting’, with a percentage of 33% and 14 said ‘not interesting’, 46%. As this question is directly related to Hypothesis 1, it was important to replace it by a sharp question that is easy to categorize and, eventually, to correlate with other questions. These results are significant but the following drawbacks justify the reformulation of this question:

- a. We felt that it was unnecessary to provide two options ‘very interesting’ and ‘interesting’. The difference between them is not significant.
- b. The option ‘a bit interesting’ could not indicate a tendency
- c. The adjective ‘interesting’, i.e., the wording of the question was ill-formulated. Thus, it was simpler to ask students if they were satisfied with

their studies at the university or not. There are two options only, and students explain their choice.

IV.3.The Main Study

After having done a pilot study to gauge the relevance and the efficiency of the questions asked and the population's response to them, the main study has been elaborated on the basis of the pilot study's shortcomings. The aim of teachers' questionnaire is also discussed.

IV.3.1. Sampling in the Main Study

As the number of groups in the second-year is 13, three groups were randomly chosen using the criteria for a representative sample. When the students in the three groups were counted, it made a total of 97 students which represented the population of this research. Consequently, the sample population represents approximately 25% of the whole population.

IV.3.2.The Aim of the students' questionnaire.

The aim of the questionnaire of listening is mainly to investigate listening comprehension from the students' point of view. Although the questionnaire attempts to approach listening trying to involve several matters, it puts a special emphasis on four main issues:

1. Students' view about their studies, i.e., whether they are satisfied or not with their studies.
Satisfaction or dissatisfaction can have a big influence on motivation.
2. Students' view about their teachers, i.e., whether they consider their teachers as controlling or autonomy supportive. When these two questions are correlated, they can discuss hypothesis 1.

3. Students' opinion about the four language skills. The main issue here is to see if students consider listening important for their studies or not. When the results of this questions are combined with those of the issue whether teachers urge their students to listen individually, hypothesis 3 will be discussed.

4. Whether students listen to English outside their classes enough or not.

When students' answers are analysed and categorized, it will be possible to make appropriate correlation with the question on type of motivation and, eventually, discuss hypothesis 2.

IV.3.3.The Aim of Teachers' Questionnaire

The aim of the teachers' questionnaire is mainly to investigate teachers' views and impressions about listening comprehension (teachers of oral expression only), students' learning styles and listening strategies. Besides this, teachers are invited to express themselves on motivation (all teachers). At last, they are introduced to the most important issue- teaching styles, which, in the self-determination perspective, is crucial in the enhancement or undermining of motivation.

IV.4 Method of Collecting Data.

IV.4.1.The Students' Questionnaire

The method that has been used to collect data has been basically to give the questionnaire on listening to the students to complete for all groups on the same day:

- a. If different sessions probably on different days- one day for one group and other days for the other groups had been used, it would have been hard to avoid bias.
- b. The questionnaire is anonymous (students do not actually write their names) and students have been informed about this. Consequently, students are not inhibited whenever a question seems personal or embarrassing.

IV.4.2.The Teachers' Questionnaire

The questionnaires have been given to teachers to complete after explaining to them that only those who are teaching oral expression complete the entire questionnaire; whereas those teachers who are not teaching oral expression, do not complete the part on listening comprehension. After that, teachers have been given enough time to complete the questionnaire so as to enable them to put forward relevant opinions and arguments.

IV.5 Method of Analysing Data.

IV.5.1.The Students' Questionnaire

The method of analysing data of the questionnaire is as follows:

- a. In questions like age, sex, and type of “Baccalaureat”, numbers, percentages, and tables have been used.
- b. In half- closed questions with options to choose from as well as the options “other, please specify”, or “why”, again, numbers, percentages and tables have been used, as well as analyses and comments.
- c. In additions to all those methods of analysing data, useful and significant correlations between different questions have been used so as to tackle the issue of learning, teaching, and listening from different angles according to how they are conceived of by students.

IV.5.2.The Teachers' Questionnaire

Most teachers' questionnaire consists of more or less open-ended questions. The purpose of choosing such a type of questions is to gather as much information as possible. However, some half-open questions which propose options to choose from are also used. The choice of the first or the second type is dependent on the nature and purpose of the question, and the information that is sought; so, the type of questions is mainly dependent on the research question and hypotheses.

IV.6.The Questionnaires of the Study

IV.6.1.The Main Study of the students' questionnaire

On the basis of the shortcomings of the pilot study, some changes have been made in the main study:

1. First of all, the whole organization of the questionnaire has been slightly modified. The pilot study is divided into two parts: general information and listening; the main study is divided into three parts: general information; learning, teaching, and motivation; listening, listening materials, and listening strategies.

We think that, on the basis of students' answers to the pilot study, this new organization is clearer and allows a better coverage of different issues on listening, listening materials, and listening strategies.

2. In part 1, in the pilot study, some questions have either been reformulated or utterly replaced by others.
 - 2.1. Question 1 which was formulated as 'age' has been reformulated as 'How old are you?'
 - 2.2. Question 4 has completely been removed to part 2 'learning, teaching, and motivation' in the study.
 - 2.3. Question 5 has also been removed to part 2 in the study
 - 2.4. Question 8 has also been removed to part 2 in the study and has undergone a reformulation. In the pilot study, the question is 'how do you find your studies at the university?'
 - a. Very interesting
 - b. Interesting

- c. A bit interesting
- d. Not interesting

Would you please specify why.

This way of asking such a question did not allow preciseness and accuracy. As a consequence, it was necessary to reformulate this question in such a way to be directly related to motivation. Thus, it was reformulated as: "Are you satisfied with your studies at the university?" Though this seems restrictive, it is rather easier to categorize and to analyze. Besides, further correlations are much easier to make. Students are either satisfied or not and this is quite enough.

Questions 9 and 11 of part 1, and question 1 of part 2, have been omitted altogether. They actually did not allow to investigating listening better.

Questions 4 and 5 of part 2 have been enlarged to two questions. In question 4, in the pilot study, students were asked to say how much they understood whenever they listened to English. However, in the main study, this question was split up into two questions: One question about transactional speech and one question about interactional speech. The purpose behind this categorization is to see if students are aware of the differences and, therefore, the difficulties encountered with these two types of listening materials and if teachers have taught them such differences.

Question 5 underwent the same changes, i.e., whether the problems they encounter are similar in both types of listening materials..

Now, let's deal with the new questions:

- a. A question about the number of brothers and sisters at home
- b. A question about the number of rooms at home
- c. A question about the number of TV sets at home
- d. A question about the number of satellite receivers at home

The purpose of all these questions is to see whether students in general do have the ideal conditions to listen to English at home or not.

Two questions about the variety of English (British English, American English) students prefer and understand better. The relevance of these two questions lies in the fact that they can reveal if students distinguish British English from American English.

Two questions, one about the number of days students listen to English and the other about the number of hours-per-day, have been introduced. The main purpose of such question is to find out if students listen individually enough or not and, ultimately, to correlate the results with other questions, (c.f. hypothesis 2).

Question 10 of part 3 has a similar counterpart in the pilot study. However, in the main study, the question is open-ended because the results of the question in the pilot study did not allow a wide range of possibilities. As this question concerns strategies, it was important to give students enough room of manoeuvre so that they reveal their own strategies. Thus, the purpose was to gather as much information as possible from students.

A question about whether students think that they listen to English the same as to Arabic. This question is also related to strategies.

For more details, see the appendix.

IV.6.2.The Main Study of Teachers' Questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire which aims to investigate listening, teaching styles and motivation, is divided into five main parts:

A. Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. This part contains 3 questions. The purpose of this part is mainly to inquire about teachers' knowledge and awareness about some new teaching approaches and methods. As teaching styles constitute an important aspect in this investigation, an idea about teachers' acquaintance with new teaching approaches seems of paramount importance. In addition to this, teachers are asked to state whether they teach the same modules every year or whether they change.

B. Listening. This part contains 7 questions. This part investigates how teachers consider the following:

- a. Whether the learning conditions and learning environment are suitable or not
- b. How teachers of oral expression divide the oral expression module between oral expression and listening comprehension
- c. In listening, which aspects are considered by teachers important and which are difficult for their students
- d. Which activities teachers usually give their students to improve their receptive skills
- e. Do teachers prefer to use British English or American English?

C. Listening Materials, Learning Styles, and Listening Strategies

This part gets slightly in depth with listening comprehension and contains 7 questions. It investigates the following:

- a. The criteria of teachers' selection of type of materials that they usually use in listening.
- b. How teachers deal with the issue of students' different learning styles
- c. The strategies teachers themselves favour and the purpose of those strategies

D. Motivation

This part which contains 7 questions investigates the following issues:

- a. Teachers' view about the importance that motivation plays in learning and achievement
- b. Teachers express themselves on the factors that enhance motivation and those that undermine it
- c. Teachers are questioned on the categorization of motivation into intrinsic and extrinsic and how they think their students globally are
- d. As the external environment is of paramount importance in connection with motivation, teachers state if the environment in which they are working is motivating for their students

E. Teaching Styles

This probably constitutes the other very important part since it is directly related to the relationship between teaching styles and students' motivation. It contains 14 questions and discusses the following issues:

- a. Teachers express themselves on the issue of the impact of teachers' styles on students' motivation
- b. External factors that basically hinder motivation and which constitute a part of a whole of teachers' styles are discussed. Such factors are competition, rewards, and students' behaviour in the class.
- c. Some teaching styles are raised in connection with autonomy-support and control.
- d. Some motivational strategies are discussed

IV.7. Discussion of hypotheses and some Relevant Correlations

After the analysis of both students' and teachers' questionnaires, some useful and relevant correlations are made to discuss the hypotheses. Among the correlations that are raised in this research:

- a. Students' view about their studies and their teachers.
- b. Students' type of motivation and their individual listening.
- c. Students' view about listening and their teachers' attitude towards individual listening.

Chapter V

A Qualitative Investigation of Students' Opinion about Studies, Teachers' Styles, and Listening Comprehension

1. Introduction

This questionnaire investigates students' point of view about some important issues that are basically related to learning, listening, and motivation.

After providing some information about students' age and sex, which can be of particular interest for subsequent questions and issues, students' past education is then questioned. The issue raised here is that students' past education, particularly their speciality, when they were in the secondary school, can, in part, explain students' current level in English.

Listening, motivation, and individual listening are then investigated so as to shed light on many issues that are related to learning and listening.

2. Analysis and interpretation of results

General Information.

This part concerns general information questions and consists of eleven questions.

Question: 1.How old are you?

This question investigates students' age range. The results indicate that the mean age is 20 years and five months.

Question: 2

Sex Female Male

This question is of some relative importance. It tries to check the view which says that most students who study English are girls.

The results are shown in the table below:

Table 1

Total number of students: 97	
Number of girls: 82. 82%	Number of boys: 15 15.46%

As it is indicated, the results are really not a surprise. Hence, the assumption that most students who choose English are rather girls is checked and validated. One possible explanation to these results is that most pupils who pass in the “Baccalaureat” are again girls. Although this is not the concern of this research, it seems that many boys have let down studies when they are in the middle and secondary school because they probably believe that studying is no more interesting and also because studies do not guarantee a future job any more. (This needs a serious study about such state of affairs. This is not in the focus of the present research).

Question 3 investigates students’ past education and speciality. It tries to check the assumption that a big number of students who completed the questionnaire were rather specialized in a scientific speciality when they were in the secondary school. The relevance of this assumption is that it may explain the rather low level in English that students come with at the university. As the number of hours allotted to English in the scientific and technical specialities, in the secondary school, is far less than that of literary specialities, students are not well prepared to cope with studies in English at the university. This, perhaps, explains why many teachers are nowadays frustrated by their students’ level. With the students’ low level, it has become almost impossible to teach correctly. The results of the question are shown in the table:

Table 2

Total number of Students: 97	Number of students who were specialized in Human sciences: 41. Percentage: 42.26%
	Number of students who were specialized in Natural sciences: 40. Percentage: 41.23%
	Number of students who were specialized in Islamic sciences: 06. Percentage: 06.18%
	Number of students who were specialized in Languages: 09. Percentage: 09.27%
	Number of students who were specialized in Economics: Management: 01. Percentage: 01.03%

As we can see, the results show that the number of students who were specialized in a literary speciality is virtually equal to that of those who were specialized in a scientific speciality. This may not be very significant for motivation and hard work, especially that those scientific students are often said to be hard working. Yet, and through our personal experience, it is undeniable that, at least in terms of level, there exist some differences. These differences are mainly due to the bigger importance given to English in literary disciplines coupled with the bigger number of hours per-week that are allocated to English.

There is yet another issue that I would like to raise here. It concerns basically the negative attitude that, at least, some teachers and even some headmasters have towards English. These teachers and headmasters do not give English the importance it deserves.

Question 4 asks students to determine their father's occupation. This question is important because it can reveal if students' fathers are educated. Having educated fathers is certainly advantageous in connection with studies in general and listening comprehension in particular. The results are shown below:

Table 3

Total number of students: 97	Number of students whose father exercises an educated Occupation: 30. Percentage: 30.92%
	Number of students whose father exercises an uneducated occupation: 60. Percentage: 61.85%

According to the above results, it is clear that the number of students whose father is uneducated is twice the number of those whose father is educated. What do these scores reveal? They simply reveal that most students have uneducated fathers. How are these results significant? It is assumed that an educated father probably provides better his children with educational convictions than an uneducated one.

As the results are incomplete, the rest of fathers are dead, retired or unemployed.

Question 5 is similar to question 4. This time, it is rather the mother's occupation that is sought. However, in this question, the distinction is between career women and housewives and not educated and uneducated. The results are again shown in a table:

Table 4

Total number of students: 97	Number of students whose mother has an occupation: 20. Percentage: 20.61%
	Number of students whose mother is housewife: 75. Percentage: 77.31%

The results are quite logical. Our society which is still very traditional, basically conceives of the place of women at home. Although the situation of women is much better today than in the past- women have the right for education, traditions are so powerful, at least in Constantine, that women are better seen as housewives than career women. The results shown above confirm this tendency. Of course, these results concern the students' mothers at the University of Constantine.

Now, the results of questions 4 and 5 have been combined so as to see which students have both parents educated, which have the father educated and mother housewife, and which have both of them uneducated. The results are shown below:

Table 5

Total number of students: 97	Number of students whose father and mother are educated: 10. Percentage: 10.30%
	Number of students whose father is educated and mother housewife: 10. Percentage: 10.30%
	Number of students whose father and mother are uneducated: 57. Percentage: 58.76%

The results give the total of 77. The remainder as we said are dead or retired or unemployed. The rest does not fit this categorizing, i.e., career women but not educated.

What do such results point to? They point to the conclusion that the highest majority of parents are rather uneducated. Would this have repercussions on their children's education? It is possible but not inevitable. In any case, the rate of children whose parents are both uneducated and who succeed in their studies is less important than that of those who have educated parents. This issue needs to be investigated deeper in other researches.

Questions 6, 7, 8, and 9 inquire about the average number of brothers and sisters at home, the average number of rooms at home, the average number of TV sets, and the average number of receivers. These four questions are very important because they allow to inquiring if, at home, students do have the ideal conditions to listen to English whenever they want to. A small house with three or four brothers and sisters and with a limited number of TV sets

and receivers makes it hard for students to have the opportunity to listen regularly. The results are shown in the table:

Table 6

Total number of students: 97	Average number of brothers and sisters: 04 04.75%
	Average number of rooms: 03 03.09%
	Average number of TV sets: 01 01.51%
	Average number of receivers: 01 01.28%

These results show that globally the picture is rather negative. A small house, composed of four brothers and sisters, does not provide the student with the optimal conditions for studies in general, and regular listening to a channel in English in particular.

3. Learning, Teaching and Motivation.

This part consists of six questions.

Question1: Did you choose personally to study English at the university?

The main purpose of this question is to know whether students, when deciding to study English, did it freely or not. When we know that autonomy is one important criterion of the self-determination theory, we understand the importance of this question. The feeling of autonomy in the self-determination perspective reinforces motivation towards studies and even enhances intrinsic motivation which is particularly considered responsible for better learning by the proponents of the self-determination theory. The results of this question are indicated in the table below:

Table 7

Total number of students: 97	Number of students who said they chose freely: 75. Percentage: 77.31%
	Number of students who said they didn't: 22. Percentage: 22.68%

The results indicate that a high majority of students rather chose freely. At first sight, this is rather encouraging. We may assume that such students were rather motivated to study English. We may also assume that being motivated means that they would probably make extra efforts to go and listen to English individually. Individual listening and reading have a quality that speaking and writing do not have. This quality concerns the individual effort

characterized by listening alone and reading alone. Speaking needs other people to talk to and writing is rarely exercised by students outside the university or outside assignments.

Below are some answers of students who did not choose freely:

- a) “At first, I wanted to study ‘Interpretariat’ (Interpreting) ”
- b) “My father participated in the choice of study in English”
- c) “My old brother and my uncle”

According to the students’ answers, it seems that it is rather the family which usually takes part in the choice or imposes it. When we look at how (a) answered, we interpret that the student wanted to choose interpreting but probably his family decided for him.

We said above that free choice may indicate motivation. This issue has, unfortunately, not been pursued in this research because it does not constitute the main object of investigation. In any case, in spite of the fact that most students said that they had chosen freely to study English at the university, many of them, perhaps, had done it randomly, haphazardly, or simply to imitate others (friends, neighbours, etc.). This issue is presumably an interesting track to follow in future investigations.

Question2: Why did you choose to study English at the university?

This question is no doubt the most important question in the students’ questionnaire. With the shift to the study of motivation from a cognitive point of view, researchers in the field of motivation have explained that it is not always necessary to measure motivation accurately. They state that as motivation is nowadays more approached from the point of view of cognitions, questions that allow the population being investigated to reveal its cognitions,

ideas, thoughts, perceptions, and emotions are very important and probably more important than any motivation scale that measures motivation. Hence, this question invites students to express themselves on this issue and, thus, to reveal their type of motivation. The motive behind choice may be regarded as an indicator of type of motivation. We may assume that those students who chose the option “Future career”, are more interested in the external drive, which is a future job with a good salary in our case, i.e., motivated extrinsically, while those who chose option “I like English very much”, are more interested in English for its own sake- motivated intrinsically.

Now let’s see how our students answered and how their answers can be interpreted. Let’s give first the results in a table and then comment on them.

Table 8

Why did you choose to study English at the university?		
(a)	(b)	(c)
Future Career: 70 72.16%	You like English very much: 20 20.61%	Other: 07 07.21%

According to the results shown in the table above, it appears that a high majority of students is rather motivated extrinsically. 70 out of 97 represent a high majority. If the option

‘future career’ which, as it was explained above, indicates really extrinsic motivation (the main purpose behind this choice is an external desire, i.e., to find a job in the future), then it would mean that most of our students are rather motivated extrinsically. This implies that a big number of the students who chose this option are not completely interested in English for its own sake, but are rather more interested in what English can bring them-an extrinsic purpose.

If this assumption is true, it means that many students have chosen English not because they like it but because they think it is profitable.

What are the reasons which may have pushed most students to opt for this extrinsic motive? When we take a quick look at how society is built up, such results are no surprise. As people are getting more and more materialistic (only the material benefit is valued), it is no surprise that this damaging state of mind affects all aspects of life, even education. When further correlations are made, we will see if such students, who were pushed by an extrinsic desire, listen to English individually (a supposedly intrinsic behaviour) or not, and how they conceived of listening for their studies (could be an educational heritage: to consider listening of little importance, see above in chapter II, Mendelsohn, 1994).

The number of students who chose option (b) (you like English very much) and who may be said to be motivated intrinsically is only 20 out of 97. The number as it appears is quite small. The reasons are again those mentioned above.

Seven students opted for ‘other’. Their full answers are found in the appendix.

Question 3: Are you satisfied with your studies at the university?

Table 9

Are you satisfied with your studies at the university in general?	Satisfied: 35 Percentage: 36.08%
	Unsatisfied: 62 Percentage: 63.91%

These results prove at least one important thing: most students are indeed unsatisfied with their studies at the university. What are the possible interpretations of such results? Firstly, the fact that most students are not satisfied with their studies may not be so dramatic. Indeed, it may just be a matter of pedagogy where teachers can skilfully familiarize students with those modules to the extent that these latter will appreciate their studies gradually. We think it is just a matter of teaching style and a motivational problem (some motivational strategies are given in chapter VII). Secondly, it is more serious than that. Many students do not see the usefulness of certain modules and/or their programmes for their studies. If this is so, it means that the teachers' task is harder. Nonetheless, as we said in the theoretical aspect, teachers can with their teaching styles, capture the attention of students and enable them to see more clearly the importance and value of each module. Yet, one cannot jump over the consequences of such an attitude. Motivation and all the positive behaviours that are associated with it are certainly jeopardized. Further significant correlations will analyze many issues and will discuss hypotheses.

Another important issue to add, concerns teachers' pedagogical training. Indeed, if many teachers do have the necessary pedagogical training to teach correctly and to motivate their students, a big number of "vacataires" teachers, who have just graduated, bitterly lack such training and may be one of the causes of students' dissatisfaction with studies. All this may be related to students' expectations. In any case, when students answered 'why', they revealed that most of them were complaining about teachers' styles, teaching programmes, and teachers' pedagogical training and (c.f. Appendix III)/

Question 4: This question is slightly similar to the preceding one. Here, the concern is with the programmes of the modules in question. If most students are not really satisfied with their studies in general, are they, at least, satisfied with the programmes of these modules?

The results in the table below are not very encouraging.

Table 10

Total number of students: 97	Satisfied: 37 Percentage: 38.14%
	Unsatisfied: 60 Percentage: 61.85%

The results illustrated in the table above are slightly better than those in the preceding question. If the number of students who are satisfied has risen a little bit, conversely, the number of those who are not satisfied has fallen from 65 to 60. What do these results mean? In our opinion, they indicate that the tendency is still negative. How do we expect to motivate

students who are globally unsatisfied with their studies, the modules they are taught, as well as the programmes of those modules? This being said, it is no doubt that the situation is far from being hopeless. As is motivation and particularly intrinsic motivation partly dependent on teachers and some other factors, the restoration of good learning conditions and particularly motivation is not out of reach. As teachers play a crucial role in undermining or enhancing motivation, the question that follows will probably provide a part of the solutions to this state.

Another important point is that students' expectations are somehow disappointed. In spite of the fact that students' level in English in Constantine is coming down each year, there are fortunately few students who are not only motivated but come with an appreciable level in English. However, with dense programmes, many less well-trained teachers especially in the first year, students' expectations little by little die out and their motivation is undermined.

Question 5, which is a very important question in this questionnaire, asks students to express themselves on their teachers' teaching styles-notably if these latter are autonomy-supportive (a condition that is necessary for the enhancement of motivation in the self-determination perspective) or controlling. The results are illustrated in the table below:

Table 11

Total number of students:97	Number of students who consider their teachers authoritative: 65 Percentage:67.01%
	Number of students who consider their teachers not authoritative: 32 Percentage: 32.98%

The above results were slightly predictable. From the point of view of the self-determination theory, such results are tremendously devastating. Two-thirds is a very important number. How can such scores be interpreted and analyzed? With their general dissatisfaction with their studies, the modules they are taught, the programmes of these modules, and their view that their teachers are rather authoritative, students have perhaps hit the nail on the head. In any case, students' answers' to 'how' revealed that those students who considered their teachers authoritative (controlling) and who represented a majority, basically complained about three aspects:

- a. Their teachers lack pedagogical training, especially when they were in the first year (in the preceding year). Most of their teachers were "Vacataires".
- b. Many of their teachers are severe (not very autonomy-supportive)
- c. Dictation

Teachers' teaching styles (it will be discussed deeply in the teachers' questionnaire) constitute perhaps one answer to this situation. It was important to get an idea about teaching styles from the point of view of learners. It should be noted here that autonomy-support and control, which constitute the backbone of successful or unsuccessful teaching in the self-determination

perspective, is in our eyes only one aspect, though very important, of successful teaching. Therefore, competence is not solely dependent on it. Yet, and on the basis of what we have seen in chapter III, the impact of teachers' style on students' motivation, achievement, and success is undoubtedly big.

Question 6 introduces listening comprehension from the point of view of importance in studies. In this question, students are asked to express themselves on the four language skills in connection with their importance for their studies. This question has been slipped in this part so as to avoid bias. As a matter of fact, up to this question, students have no idea about the subject matter of this questionnaire. In so doing, there is no partiality towards listening at the expense of the other skills. In any case, the results prove that there was no such a bias. The results are illustrated in the table below:

Table 12

	Number of fours	Number of threes	Number of twos	Number of ones
Speaking	31	31	24	11
Reading	24	24	25	24
Listening	19	14	26	38
Writing	23	28	22	24

The above results indicate that listening is really lagging behind. It gets only nineteen times (4), i.e., the most important skill; fourteen times (3), the second most important skill; 26 times

(2) the third most important skill, and 38 times (1), the fourth most important skill. It may be said that listening, compared to the other skills, is still underestimated by students in connection with its importance for their studies. Again, in our opinion, such results are quite logical. Mendelsohn (1994), in chapter II above, argued that listening was still regarded as the Cinderella of L2 learning. Furthermore, we will see below if teachers ask their students to listen individually or not. When this issue of importance of listening is correlated with the issue of whether teachers urge their learners to listen individually, a part of the answer, at least, is probably given.

These results in any case prove that listening is considered by a big number of students of little importance. As a consequence to this, it is no surprise that most students probably rarely listen to English individually. This individual listening which characterizes motivation towards studies must be restored and promoted. Some significant correlations will be investigated below.

4. Listening, Listening Strategies, and Listening Materials

This part investigates listening comprehension deeply from the point of view of learners in order to understand how they conceive of it and what they do to understand when they are listening.

Question1 How many days in a week and hours in a day do you watch a channel in English?

This question concerns the issue whether students listen to English regularly or not and how often per-week.

The results are shown in the table below:

Table 13

Total number of students: 97	Average number of day per-week: 2 day.
	Average number of hour per-day: Half an hour.

The first remark that can be made is that though the question looks slightly awkward, it is, nevertheless, the most efficient way to collect the necessary information. We could have asked a more subtle question and make guesses as to students' frequency of listening. However, this would mean to run the risk of being misunderstood and miss the important information. In any case, as we said above, the pilot study is used to gauge the population response to the questionnaire, and to see how effective the questions are. In the pilot study, this question was asked in a less straightforward fashion and the result was disappointing.

These results which combine questions 4 and 5 reveal that the students who have said that they listen to English outside their classes do listen but not much. Indeed, 2 days in a week is, in our eyes, not enough to develop the receptive skills adequately. Besides, half an hour daily is again not very satisfactory. Such results can be explained as follows:

1. When we take back again the results of questions on number of rooms, number of brothers and sisters at home, number of TV sets and receivers, we think that such results are not as discouraging as that after all.
2. Students have several modules to mind and, therefore, devoting two hours per-week to listening to English outside their classes, though far from being enough, is not that insignificant.
3. As most students have uneducated parents, listening to English, mostly on television, may be regarded by these parents as a waste of time, and is, then, not very encouraged.
4. In the previous question, it was shown that most students do not consider listening very important for their studies. As a consequence, they probably do not think that listening and, particularly, individual listening is so important in L2 learning.

When further correlations with other questions are made, we will see how significant these results are.

Question 2 analyses the capacity of understanding of English by students in class and outside. The importance of this question lies in its capacity to reveal if students understand what they are listening to. However, and before knowing how much they understand, it is important to distinguish first between two types of listening materials. The first type of listening material is what linguists call transactional text and the second type is called

interactional. This distinction is very important because it is directly related to strategies. Human beings in general use different strategies according to what they are listening to.

Before all that, let's again come back to this distinction.

1. Transactional speech. A transactional text is one whose purpose of discussion, as well as content, matter for understanding. For example, a political, economic issue, etc., is a good example of a transactional speech. When a student is listening to such a text, he/she needs to understand the deep meaning of what is being talked about. Thus, and besides lexical, grammatical, semantic, etc., understanding, students must be informed about what the participants are talking about from their own point of view and how they argue in connection with a particular issue. In a word, students have to be informed about the major events that have taken place in politics if the issue is on politics, and so on.

2. Interactional speech. An interactional text is one whose purpose is to socialize and not to convey important information. As such, students' strategies towards this text should be different from those used in the first type. A quiz game is one type of interactional speech; a friendly discussion between two people is another one.

The results are shown below:

Transactional speech	Number of students who said 25% or less: 25. Percentage: 25.77%
	Number of students who said 50%:40. Percentage: 41.23%
	Number of students who said 75% or more: 32. Percentage: 32.98%
Interactional speech	Number of students who said 25% or less: 45. Percentage: 46.39%
	Number of students who said 50%: 35. Percentage: 36.08%
	Number of students who said 75% or more: 17. Percentage: 17.52%

The above results prove at least one thing: When the material is transactional, students said that they understood it better. These results are in our opinion quite normal because an interactional material though in principle less heavy than a transactional one, is, however, more difficult for the following reasons:

- a. Pronunciation is rather much less distinct because the language is not really RP. The initials R.P stand for “received pronunciation”. This expression means that it is the educated spoken variety of British English that is supposed to be understood by all English people. However, only educated people can use it because uneducated people usually use dialects only. It is important to add that educated people probably use their dialects in informal situations and RP in formal ones.

- b. As it is not RP, it is usually full of unexpected ways of pronunciation. For example, the constant use of the glottal stop [ʔ] which is a feature of accents.
- c. Interactional speech uses more of informal speech (words and expressions) than transactional. Sometimes even slang words are introduced. For example, in interactional speech, words and expressions like these are commonplace: guy for man, pal for friend, I don't give a damn for I don't care, etc.
- d. Interactional speech does not usually respect grammar much. What really counts is neither grammar nor content but it is rather the social dimension.
- e. There is yet one advantage of interactional speech. It concerns the strategy to adopt. Students are not obliged to concentrate very much to understand. This is basically called listening for leisure where, in listening, listeners are exposed to English without being obliged to concentrate on everything.

On the basis of all these results and comments, it can be argued that students in general do not understand very well spoken English used by native speakers in an informal situation. The reason to this lies in our opinion in the general negative attitude towards listening and students lack of experience with individual listening to a foreign language.

Question 3 inquires about students' own view about the causes of their own difficulties to understand or their own reasons for understanding both transactional speech and interactional speech.

The results are shown in the table below: First, when the speech is transactional:

Table 15

Difficulties encountered by the 25 students who said they understood 25% or less.	Number of students who chose option (a) 'A high frequency of unfamiliar words': 02. Percentage: 08%
	Number of students who chose option (b) 'Your knowledge of English is still limited: 04. Percentage: 16%
	Number of students who chose option (c) 'Difficult pronunciation': 02. Percentage: 08%
	Number of students who chose option (d) 'Speed of delivery: 03. Percentage: 12%
	Number of students who chose option (e) 'Topic and different culture': 01. Percentage: 04%
	Number of students who chose options (a), (b), and (c): 04. Percentage: 16%
	Number of students who chose options (a), (b), (c), and (d): 08: Percentage: 32%
	Number of students who chose all options: 01. Percentage: 04%

The above results indicate that most students who find problems to understand transactional English think that speed of delivery, pronunciation, and their limited knowledge of English constitute the main impediments. We have seen above in chapter II that listening and pronunciation are really interrelated and a failure in understanding and recognizing pronunciation leads to failure in understanding the spoken text. As a consequence,

pronunciation plays in our opinion a crucial role in listening even to transactional speech which is somehow less complex than interactional. When this indistinct pronunciation is paired up with rapid speech and other aspects, the situation gets more and more complicated for L2 listeners.

Now, let's move to interactional speech. The results are shown in the table:

Table 16

Difficulties encountered by the 45 students who said the understood 25% or less	Number of students who chose option (a) ‘A high frequency of unfamiliar words’: 02. Percentage: 04.44%
	Number of students who chose option (b) ‘Your knowledge of English is still limited’: 04. Percentage: 08.88%
	Number of students who chose option (c) ‘Difficult pronunciation’:02. Percentage 04.44%
	Number of students who chose option (d) ‘Speed of delivery’: 03. Percentage: 06.66%
	Number of students who chose option (e) ‘Topic and different culture’: 01. Percentage: 02.22%
	Number of students who chose options (a), (b), and (c): 08 Percentage: 17.77%
	Number of students who chose options (a), (b), (c), and (d): 22. Percentage: 48.88%
	Number of students who chose all options: 03 Percentage: 06.66%

The results show that this time the number of students who think they can hardly understand more than 25% has really increased from 25 to 45. The reasons are explained above (interactional speech is basically more difficult than transactional). Now let’s stop a moment and analyse these results. It appears that the options (a) ‘a high frequency of unfamiliar words’, (b) ‘your knowledge of English is still limited’, (c) ‘difficult pronunciation’, and (d)

‘speed of delivery’ combined together get the lion’s share. These results are in our opinion quite logical because when all these aspects are combined, students think that their combination is responsible for their failure to understand well.

Now let’s move to the 32 students who said that they could understand 75% or more of transactional speech. The results are in the table below:

Table 17

Students who said that they could understand 75% or more of transactional speech: 32	Number of students who chose option (a) 'You listen to English very often': 08. Percentage: 25%
	Number of students who chose option (b) 'You pay particular attention to pronunciation': 08. Percentage: 25%
	Number of students who chose option (c) 'You think you have a good level in English': 01. Percentage: 03.12%
	Number of students who chose option (d) 'You usually have background knowledge about topic and culture: 02. Percentage: 06.25%
	Number of students who chose option 'other': 00
	Number of students who chose options (a) and (b): 12. Percentage: 37.50%
	Number of students who chose options (a), (b), and (d): 01. Percentage: 03.12%

These results indicate that among the main reasons of success raised by students are:

1. Individual listening. This personal effort is in our eyes crucial in developing the receptive skills. Furthermore, as the self-determination theory states, competence is a basic component in enhancing motivation in general and intrinsic motivation in particular. When students listen individually and feel that their level is little by little improving, their motivation is enhanced and this pushes them to work more.
2. Pronunciation is also considered an important aspect by these students. These students think that, by paying particular attention to pronunciation, they will be able to understand. This may be true to a certain extent. However, when we take into account the fact that pronunciation involves several aspects at the same time, we understand that it is probably not the concern given to pronunciation which has led to this success but rather regular exposure to spoken English which is the first responsible.
3. The results show that pronunciation and individual listening combined together get the lion's share. Indeed, 12 students out of 32 constitute more than a third.

At last, let's see how students answered in relation to interactional speech:

Students who said that they could understand 75% or more of transactional speech: 17	Number of students who chose option (a) 'You listen to English very often': 06. Percentage: 35.29%
	Number of students who chose option (b) 'You pay particular attention to pronunciation': 03. Percentage: 17.64%
	Number of students who chose option (c) 'You think you have a good level in English': 01. Percentage: 05.88%
	Number of students who chose option (d) 'You usually have background knowledge about topic and culture: 01. Percentage: 05.88%
	Number of students who chose option 'other': 00
	Number of students who chose options (a) and (b): 06. Percentage: 35.29%

These results are not very different from the preceding ones. Students still consider individual listening as being the most important reason for success. It is indeed a reasonable approach because, probably, when these students listen and listen over and over again, they realize that they can grasp long strings that they were unable to do before. This again plays a crucial role in the enhancement of motivation and success.

Question 4: Do you prefer material in listening that is natural and spontaneous?

Yes

No

If your answer is yes, say why?

This question inquires about students' perception of the two main types of listening materials that we have opposed here (in fact, we can say that there is actually a continuum ranging from totally artificial listening materials to completely authentic ones, see chapter II).

The results of this question are indicated in the table below:

Table 19

Total number of students: 97	Number of students who said yes: 40. Percentage: 41.30%
	Number of students who said no: 57. Percentage: 56.76%

As we can see, there are no significant differences between the number of students who prefer natural materials and those who do not prefer them. Yet, the balance is slightly for those who do not prefer them. However, when this question has been correlated with the question on whether students listen to English or not, it has been found that, on the whole, most students who do not listen to English individually rather do not prefer natural materials while a big number among those who listen more or less regularly individually prefer them. These scores in our humble opinion correspond to the general tendency that students who

listen individually (are more exposed to spoken English which is basically natural) are better equipped to cope with spoken English than those who listen less regularly. This means that somehow mere exposure to spoken English constitutes a big achievement that is liable to enhance students' self-confidence and feeling of competence.

Now concerning the reasons behind such a choice, let's just pick out some answers given by students:

1. "I prefer easy materials so as to understand"
2. "Natural materials are very difficult to understand"
3. "In natural materials, understanding many words is impossible"
4. "I prefer natural materials because they help us to improve our level"
5. "Natural materials are what we need"
6. "Although they are difficult, natural materials are important"

On the basis of students' answers, it appears that most students who do not prefer natural materials justify this by their incapability to understand them (possibly due to lack of exposure to them). On the other hand, most of the students who prefer them insist on their importance but not necessarily on the pleasure they can feel when listening to them. This again, in our opinion, may be due to the hegemony of the scholastic tendency in learning which tends to highlight the importance of learning something useful at the expense of the pleasure component one can get from learning English through audio-visual media.

Question 5: Do you prefer material in listening that is simplified so that foreign learners can understand? Yes No

If your answer is yes, say why?

The results are put in the table below:

Table 20

Total number of students: 97	Number of students who said yes: 57 Percentage: 56.76%
	Number of students who said no: 40 Percentage: 41.30%

The results are opposite to the preceding question. Again, let's pick out some arguments put forward by students as an answer to why:

1. "These materials are the ones we need at this stage"
2. "Yes they are not natural but they are easier to understand"
3. "We are native speakers of English so we need something easy"
4. "These materials do not help us"
5. "They are different from what native speakers say"
6. "unnecessary for learning"

These arguments along with the remainder put the accent on two main issues:

- a. The students who prefer simplified materials insist on their own current level which, in their opinion, corresponds to such materials. They argue that they are not native speakers and, as such, need more such materials than natural ones.

b. The students who do not prefer them consider them unnecessary, useless, and unhelpful for them.

Question6: Which variety of English do you prefer?

British English

American English

In this question, students express themselves on which variety of English- British English or American English- they prefer. The importance of this question lies in the fact that it raises an issue that is often taken for granted and that I personally regard as important (see chapter II). The results are shown in the table below:

Table 21

Total number of students: 97	Number of students who chose: British English: 56. Percentage: 57.73%
	Number of students who chose: American English: 41. Percentage: 42.26%

As it is shown in the table, there is some difference (not very important, but still an appreciable difference. 15% more for the first category is something which reveals a beginning of a tendency. How can we explain such scores? We have explained above, in chapter II, that most teachers who teach oral expression are rather inclined toward the British accent for two reasons:

- a. Some of the teachers, at least, had their Master's degree in England and were, of course, influenced by their place of education.
- b. Most teachers hardly think about the issue and choose British English out of mere habit.
- c. Most PHD teachers rather studied in England and somehow influenced the rest.
- d. In the module of phonetics, it is rather the British phonological system that is taught. Consequently, teachers are more familiar with the British accent.

Coming back again to the students' percentages, it can be argued that, probably, students too have been influenced by their teachers' attitude. Concerning now those who have chosen American English and who constitute almost half of the population, they are probably influenced by individual listening in which American English is dominant, particularly, Songs which are very popular among young people like students. The results of the question which follows will be combined with these results and will perhaps shed light on this issue.

Before that, let's give a few arguments made by students for their choice:

- a. British English
 1. "I prefer British English because I think it is more easy to understand."
 2. "I am studying it in my branch and it is the correct one."
 3. "I like stress that is used by British native speakers then I think that English language from England. Origin."
- b. American English
 1. "I always watch American action movies all the time and somehow I get use of it."
 2. "Easier than the British. America is the first country in the world so its language will be spread more than Britain's one."
 3. "Because Americans speak quickly."

On the basis of these sample answers, it is clear that students are aware of the differences and do have different motives for choosing this or that variety.

Question7: Which variety of English do you understand better?

Here, the situation is slightly different. It is rather understanding or lack of understanding that are questioned. The results are again shown in the table below:

Table 22

Total number of students: 97	Number of students who chose: British English: 65 Percentage: 67.01%
	Number of students who chose: American English: 32 Percentage: 32.98%

These results show that this time the difference between the two options is bigger than in the preceding question, but it is always in favour of British English. This shows that most students consider British English much easier to understand than American English. Again, such results are no surprise since students are basically exposed to the British variety at the university. They have therefore got familiarized with it. The American variety may be said to be almost totally missing in the formal context.

Now let's see if the same students have proposed different answers whether it is preference or understanding. The results are given in the table below:

Table 23

Total number of Students: 97	Number of students who chose British English for both preference and understanding: 52 Percentage: 53.60%
	Number of students who chose American English for both Preference and understanding: 28. Percentage: 28.86%
	Number of students who chose British English for Preference and American English for understanding: 04 Percentage: 04.12%
	Number of students who chose American English for preference and British English for understanding: 13 Percentage: 13.40%

The above percentages are very significant. The first remark to make is that most students did not change. Indeed, 80 students stick to their first choice and consider preference and understanding equally. Out of these 80 students, 52 choose British English for both preference and understanding and 28 rather American English. It appears that it is rather American English which has lost ground when both questions are compared. From 41 for preference and 32 for understanding, it falls to 28 for both. We believe that such scores are quite understandable because American English which is rarely used in the classroom and whose pronunciation is rarely taught is much more difficult to understand, students may have

thought. We have said above that American English displays phonological, lexical, grammatical, and even semantic differences. Let's just give some examples:

1. Phonological level:

1.1. Nasalization (it was explained above in chapter III)

1. 2. Rhotic accent (it was explained above in chapter III)

1. 3. The different pronunciation of some vowels:

1.3.1. Difference in the pronunciation of the short [ɪ]. In American English, this particular sound is somehow pronounced like the long [i], e.g., dog.

1.3.2. Difference in the pronunciation of the short [ʊ]. In American English, it is lowered and lengthened, e.g., cat.

1.4. The different pronunciation of some consonants:

1.4.1. Difference in the pronunciation of [ɹ]. In British English, there are two types of [ɹ], clear and dark. The clear [ɹ] occurs usually in initial position of words and before vowels in medial position, but never in final position. The dark [ɹ], however, occurs in final position of words and in medial position before consonants, but never in initial position. In American English, however, it is always dark. The clear [ɹ] is completely missing in American English. For example, in the word 'little', in British English, the first [l] is pronounced clear and the second is pronounced dark. However, in American English, both are dark.

1.4.2. Difference in the pronunciation of [t]. In American English, when used in medial position is pronounced something like [d]. For example, in the word letter, in British English, it is alveolar non-aspirated whereas in American English, it is pronounced like [d].

2. Lexical differences: Listening comprehension in L2 does not suffer from pronunciation problems only, but lexical problems also may constitute an impediment. Among the lexical differences between British English and American English:

British English: lift, railway, motorway, tin, caretaker, trousers, soccer, coach.

American English: Elevator, railroad, highway, can, janitor, slacks, football, bus.

3. Semantic differences: Sometimes, English and Americans use similar words but for different meanings. For example, the word floor is understood differently whether you are in Britain or in America. In Britain, the first floor is equivalent to the American second floor; and the ground-floor is the first floor in America. There is no ground floor in America.

4. Grammatical differences: The present perfect is usually replaced by the simple past in America. For example, when British English uses “I’ve just done it”, American English uses “I just did it”.

In addition to all these differences, one particular obstacle has just to be added. It basically concerns the differences that exist between different dialects and, therefore, accents (dialect differences include syntactic, morphological, phonological (pronunciation), semantic, lexical, and pragmatic differences while accent includes pronunciation differences only). When a student is listening individually at home, for instance, he/she is usually exposed to such difficulties.

Now concerning the students who have chosen British English for preference and American English for understanding, they are 04. Four students out of 97 is a very small number. But it may be interesting to imagine their motive.

1.
 - a. Preference: “We are studying it. Then it is the correct one”
 - b. Understanding: “Most films or movies that I watch are in American English”
2.
 - a. Preference: “I am studying it in my branch and it is the correct one”
 - b. Understanding: “It is the most useful especially in films”
3.
 - a. Preference: “I prefer BE because I consider it the original one and the pure one”
 - b. Understanding: “Its pronunciation is clearer than British English”
4.
 - a. Preference: “That’s better”
 - b. Understanding: “We understand it better”

We notice in students’ answers that they prefer to study British English because either they consider it the original and the pure form or because they are studying it. However, they understand American English better because this variety is used in films and because of its easier pronunciation. This simply means that students indeed know the difference between the two varieties and have developed their own opinion about them.

Now let’s see how the 13 students, who prefer American English and who understand British English better, argue.

2.
 - a. Preference: “The pronunciation”
 - b. Understanding: “They articulate better”
- 3.

- a. Preference: "More melodious"
- b. Understanding: "Clear and easy"
4.
 - a. Preference: "Pronunciation"
 - b. Understanding: "clearer"
5.
 - a. Preference: "Because we are learning the British one"
 - b. Understanding: "Because we are studying its phonetics and practice it more than the American one"
6.
 - a. Preference: No comment
 - b. Understanding: No comment
7.
 - a. Preference: "I prefer American English because the American way of speaking is very nice"
 - b. Understanding: "I understand British English better because American English is very difficult in its pronunciation and Americans swallow the letters"
8.
 - a. Preference: No comment
 - b. Understanding: No comment
9.
 - a. Preference: "The American English is in my opinion doesn't follow rules it has many synonyms for the same word"

b. Understanding: “Because it is the formal English and the articulation of sounds is better; it allows us to understand better”

10.

a. Preference: “I prefer AE because it is easy and I like the way they pronounce”

b. Understanding: “There’s not stop its grammar is clear”

11.

a. Preference: “Because Americans speak quickly”

b. Understanding: “Because I can’t understand people who speak quickly”

12.

a. Preference: “Because I enjoy when I listen to American English especially when I listen to Music”

b. Understanding: “For me it is easier and clearer to understand without much efforts”

13.

a. Preference: “I always watch American action movies all the time I get use of it”

b. Understanding: “It is the one we study in class, and the American one is just listen it in TV, but I do not know it well”

14.

a. Preference: “It is very attractive and beautiful. It is very easy to learn”

b. Understanding: “They speak all the letters”

If we want to summarize briefly students’ comments, we will say that most of them prefer American English because they consider it more melodious and more beautiful. They also think that the pronunciation of American English is nicer. However, when it comes to

understanding, they choose British English because it is the variety they are usually exposed to and the one they consider easier to understand.

This reinforces the argument put forward in chapter II that to strike a balance between the two accents is the sound decision.

Question 8: Do you listen to English the same as you listen to Arabic?

Yes No

This question is meant to get some information about how students consider listening in a native language and listening in a foreign language. Again, according to the self-determination theory, perceived competence is very important. The whole matter is in our eyes closely related to the good use of appropriate and efficient listening strategies or not. We have seen in chapter II that listening in a native language and listening in a second or foreign language are not the same. Listening in L2 (second or foreign) is much more difficult. Thus, if students adopt the appropriate strategies, they will feel competent enough to overcome all the impediments that are linked to L2 listening.

The results are shown in the table below:

Table 24

Total number of students: 97	Number of students who said yes: 20 Percentage: 20.61%
	Number of students who said no: 75 Percentage: 77.31%

The above results clearly indicate that a very high majority of students thinks that listening in the mother tongue is quite different from listening in a foreign language. These results seem predictable. However, when the reasons put forward by students have been analyzed, it has been found that most of them argue that when they are listening to Arabic, they neither concentrate on individual words nor on specific details nor on pronunciation and yet they manage to understand. However, when they are listening to English, the situation is utterly different. They think that if they adopt the same strategies for listening to English as they do with Arabic, they are lost. They justify this by the fact that they do not get in enough to understand. This lack of comprehension is mainly due to the factors that have been discussed above- mainly lack of exposure to English, pronunciation, rapid speech, vocabulary, etc.

Question9. When you are listening to English on television or other audio-visual media, do you:

Concentrate on details to understand?

Yes

No

The purpose of this question, which is more specific than the preceding ones, is mainly to get an idea about some of the strategies students prefer to use when they are listening to English individually. The commonplace belief is that when learners are exposed to a foreign language, they tend to focus on all details in order to understand. As we have seen above, with transactional and interactional listening, people in general do not always listen in the same way; it all depends on the listening material, the listening purpose, and the listening situation.

Thus, the strategies they use are usually dependent on and in accordance with the context of situation. We rarely listen for the same purpose. The results are shown in the table below:

Table 25

Total number of students: 97	Number of students who consider Concentration on individual words Necessary: 70. Percentage:73.68%
	Number of students who consider Concentration on individual words Unnecessary: 27. Percentage: 27.87%

The above table shows that 73% (a high majority) think that focus on all words is a prerequisite to overall understanding. When students' arguments about the reasons have been analyzed, they reveal that, basically, when the material is more or less difficult (in terms of speed of delivery, pronunciation (rather American English), etc., they tend to concentrate on all words. As most listening materials outside the formal context (the university) are rather difficult (probably authentic) according to their view, concentration on all details is probably regarded by students as the only resort to understand.

According to the research question, the receptive skills are developed by individual listening and the use of appropriate strategies which are taught by teachers. Efficient exposure to English contributes to helping the students' good mastery of the language. Furthermore, constant exposure to spoken English coupled with efficient and appropriate listening strategies lead to reinforcement of motivation (self-determination theory: perceived competence) and enable students to acquire some self-assurance which can only be beneficial.

5. Conclusion

In this questionnaire, listening comprehension, motivation, and teaching styles have been discussed from the students' perspective.

The questionnaire has been divided into three main parts, each focusing on particular issues.

It has been shown that most students have an extrinsic motive towards studying English. In connection with their attitude towards their studies and their teachers, it has been shown that most of them are not really satisfied with their studies and consider their teachers rather controlling. Furthermore, most of them do not indeed regard listening as a very important skill for their studies. As a result, most of them do not listen to English individually enough. At last, concerning the strategies, students in general do not know which strategies ought to be used in listening in general.

When the results have been analyzed in connection with the hypotheses, they have given the following comments:

Hypothesis 1 combines the results of students' view about their studies and their teachers. Indeed, the results of question 3, part 2, revealed that 62 students out of 97 were unsatisfied with their studies. Furthermore, the results of question 5, part 2, revealed that 65 students considered their teachers as rather controlling. When both results were combined, they revealed that most students who were unsatisfied with their studies regarded their teachers as controlling and vice versa. This indicates that hypothesis 1 has been confirmed by the above results. It is true that students' dissatisfaction with their studies may be due to other factors, such as teachers' pedagogical training and/or disappointment of students' expectations, etc. (c.f. above)

Hypothesis 2 combines the results of question 2, part 2 and those of question 1, part 3. The results proved that most students, who were found to be extrinsically motivated, did not listen individually much. Again the hypothesis is somehow confirmed.

Hypothesis 3 combines question 6, part 3 in the students' questionnaire and whether, in the teachers' questionnaire, teachers when they were explaining several issues related to listening and motivation, ever mentioned individual listening as a prerequisite to level improvement. Indeed, no teacher did. So, the hypothesis that students' underestimation of listening probably, partly, stems from their teachers' lack of encouragement.

Chapter VI

Listening Comprehension, Motivation, and Teachers' Styles

VI.1. Introduction

This questionnaire investigates teachers' opinion on many issues, particularly the relationship between teachers' styles and students' motivation. Through several questions, teachers' answers are discussed and compared to the existing literature on the subject.

To achieve this, the questionnaire has been organized around five parts:

b. Teaching approaches and methods: This part investigates teachers' awareness about the main teaching approaches and methods that have emerged, especially, during the communicative era and the post-method era. The purpose of this part is not to give a full account of teaching approaches and methods; it is more about the useful teaching and learning insights that teachers may get from an acquaintance with the subject.

c. Listening: This part investigates teachers of oral expression conceive of listening comprehension. It tries to shed light on the way our teachers in the English department, University of Constantine, organize the oral expression module. Among the aspects that this part of the questionnaire tackles, we have the difficulties that are inherent in L2 listening, the tasks, and the activities that are used in listening sessions, and a focus on the issue of British English and American English.

d. Learning strategies/styles and listening strategies: This part investigates how teachers consider students' learning styles and strategies and listening strategies. This part gets deeper than the preceding one into what happens in a listening comprehension session and what teachers actually do to develop their students' listening abilities.

e. Motivation: This part inquires about teachers' view about motivation and learning. It investigates the importance given by teachers to motivation. Teachers are then invited to say if they consider their students motivated intrinsically or extrinsically according to the categorization proposed by Deci and Ryan. At last, teachers express themselves on the factors

that enhance motivation and those that undermine it, and state if the environment in which they are exercising their job is motivating for their learners.

f. Teaching styles: In this part, teachers' teaching styles are investigated in connection with autonomy-support and control. Firstly, it questions teachers about the impact of teachers' styles on students in general; secondly, it tacitly investigates teachers' view about some autonomy-supportive attitudes versus some controlling ones; thirdly, it tackles intrinsic and extrinsic motivation through some external factors and some constraints that subtly indicate whether the teacher's attitude is autonomy-supportive or controlling.

g. Some useful correlations are made:

1. Correlation between teachers' styles and students' satisfaction with their studies (in the students' questionnaire.). (Hypothesis 2).
2. Correlation between teachers' attitude towards individual listening and students' view about listening. (Hypothesis 3).

VI.2. Analysis and Interpretation of Results

VI.2.1 Teaching Approaches and Methods

Question 1: Which modules have you been teaching in the last three years?

The purpose of asking such a question to teachers is mainly to get an idea about the modules that they have been teaching during the last three years. Teachers who have been teaching the

same module or modules during a period for at least three years may be said to have developed some proficiency in that module or those modules.

The results are to a large extent disappointing. It has been found that teachers, in general, change modules almost every year and teach more than one module at a time, usually distributed over two and sometimes three years. Actually, most teachers take two or even three modules. Some change one module only; others can take completely new modules. Fortunately, the situation is getting better. Yet, there is still one big obstacle to teachers' proficiency in modules. The situation is actually like this:

- a. Teachers who are specialized in the civilizations (British Civilization and American Civilization) or the Literatures (British Literature and American Literature), whether they have a PhD degree or not, usually teach the modules of their specialities.
- b. Teachers who are specialized in linguistics usually teach different sorts of modules such as linguistics, applied linguistics, phonetics, oral expression, written expression, grammar, E.F.L. This category of teachers, though they have some choice in the modules they want to teach, are nevertheless in a situation where they are expected to teach several different modules over a couple of years and, therefore, cannot become proficient in some module.
- c. Teachers who are specialized in psychology, psycho-pedagogy, and education usually teach in their specialities.
- d. The main problem remains with "vacataires" teachers and other post-graduate students who teach in the department because the number of students in the department of English is increasing tremendously. Firstly, these teachers have neither experience nor proficiency to teach whatever module(s). Secondly, each year new faces of

“vacataires” teachers arrive and replace others. Consequently, it is no surprise that students get unsatisfied with their studies. Though this issue is not the main concern of the present research, the main concern is rather teachers’ styles (autonomy-support versus control), it is nonetheless an interesting track to pursue hopefully in future investigations.

On the basis of teachers’ answers to the first question and our own experience as a teacher in the department of English, let’s deal briefly with the situation.

1. Most teachers are given different modules almost every year. This of course does not help teachers to develop some proficiency in a particular module.
2. The number of students in a room is very high. Most groups are constituted of no less than thirty students and the tendency is rather rising.
3. The language laboratories to exploit listening sessions are partly out of order and the number of students is usually larger than the number of booth recorders.
4. Scarcity of rooms and laboratories is such that teachers are obliged to teach oral expression and listening comprehension in inappropriate hours of the day (for example, in the late afternoon when students are tired).
5. The multimedia room, which may be regarded as a good opportunity to expose learners to a wide range of listening materials and topics, is in actual fact, overused by teachers of oral expression and even teachers of other modules like literature and civilization (to play plays or programmes connected to the American or British history). Thus, to organize sessions in this room is not always possible. Besides this, as this room is used as a conference room by the faculty of literature and languages, defence of Magister dissertations and Doctoral theses are planned there; this, of course, disturbs teaching.

It is no doubt that in such conditions teachers' involvement and efficiency is to a large extent negatively affected. Their motivation too is undermined. How can teachers motivate their students if they themselves are not exercising their job in good conditions? The answer to this question is in teachers themselves. In spite of all these hard and inappropriate conditions, our teachers are doing a very good job. Most of them have the experience to provide their students with substantial and useful lectures that indeed meet their students' expectations and aspirations. Had the teaching conditions been better, teachers would have given much better results. In any case, with limited means, they are very successful.

Question 2: Which teaching methods are you acquainted with? Which do you prefer to use in your teachings?

This question is closely related to chapter I on approaches and methods in language teaching. It is meant to inquire about teachers' knowledge about the evolution of teaching methods and the most successful methods that teachers may draw insights from. Again, before commenting teachers' answers, let's again give some sample answers:

- a. "The 'teacher method' is so far the best method. It so depends on the type of students one has in his/her class. It's not that easy to really and frankly decide upon a strait-jacket method, isn't it?"
- b. "There is no one specific teaching method I am familiar with. I assume that my teaching is eclectic: I use a combination of different methods that could be communicative and interactive, structural, task-based, more students/learners centred ways of teaching. I have no preference of any particular method of teaching; I prefer the one that students derive some learning benefits from."

- c. “My approach is rather eclectic in the sense that every aspect of the course will require one particular method.”
- d. “Learner-centred methodology which focuses on learners’ commitment.”

According to teachers’ answers in general, it seems that most of them are well acquainted with different kinds of teaching methods. The main problem lies in their belief that an eclectic way of teaching is so far the best way of teaching. Out of the 25 teachers who completed the questionnaire, 18 referred to eclectic way of teaching. It is true that being eclectic means being dependent on no particular method. As a consequence, teachers enjoy some freedom and a room of manoeuvre that allows them to adapt their teaching to the teaching situation at hand.

However, an eclectic method is almost devoid of meaning. Eclectic means everything and nothing at the same time. It is not clear and the risk here is an improvised and/or random way of teaching. Moreover, only the “jack of all trades” can manage to meet his students’ expectations and at the same time enhance their motivation with such an eclectic method.

Very few teachers referred to some methods or approaches that they themselves adopt. For instance, the learner-centred method is given by six teachers. In actual fact, there is such learner-centred method. It is more an approach than a method. This particular method (as teacher call it) is learner-centred in the sense that it starts with the belief that the learner is an active agent in the learning-teaching process and the role of the teacher is mainly to promote his involvement by means of a motivating environment and a clear definition of the learner’s role and the objectives to achieve.

Question3: What exactly do you do in your teaching session?

This question concerns both teachers of oral expression and teachers of other modules. The aim of this question is to understand how teachers proceed in their teachings. Concerning teachers who teach the oral expression module, which of course involves listening comprehension, they have said that they basically distinguish between oral expression and listening comprehension. In oral expression, most of them focus on the speaking aspect. For them, making students speak and expressing themselves is an end in itself. In order to do that, they make use of motivating devices to invite learners to express themselves.

Let's give some teachers' arguments:

a. "-Introducing a topic

Assigning tasks for learners (individual + group work)

Whole class activity

Feedback for corrections"

b. "I think that my teaching sessions are not routinised; they are different and mostly dictated by my students learning objectives. I constantly attempt to center my teaching sessions around my students' needs and interests and create suitable and good learning conditions. Depending on the main objectives of my teaching session, the following could be the possible steps I go through:

1. Firstly, correcting a homework

2. Introducing new writing tasks and giving them instructions

3. Inviting students to read out samples of writings

4. Discussing different linguistic or organizational aspects, the samples of the target essays/paragraphs

5. Organizing collaborative writing

6. Conferencing: discussing the students' output

7. Getting students to listen and take notes on rules and principles of planning, writing and revising a given type of essay, among others.”

8. “A lot of things. A pinch of theory, and a great deal of practice with a zest of feedback.”

According to their answers, it seems that although our teachers are very dynamic and quite aware of how teaching ought to be, they, nevertheless, willy-nilly controlling. Their teaching styles are more teacher-centred. Moreover, other less experienced teachers aren't abreast with new ideas and approaches which focus on motivation and cooperative learning. In any case, teaching and learning have to be in harmony if students are to be motivated and to improve their achievement

VI.2.2. Listening.

This part investigates how teachers of the oral expression module view and teach listening comprehension.

Question1: Does the department of English possess the equipments to teach listening comprehension adequately? Explain briefly.

All teachers, with no exception, complain about this issue. It has been said above that equipments are either out of order or overused or not exploited adequately. This is largely confirmed by teachers. Let's first give some arguments proposed by some teachers:

- a. “Absolutely not. Listening requires adequate equipments and an adequate environment.”
- b. “The equipment we have is either old or not used (the computerized lab is not used as it should be: not enough booths for our battalion groups).”

a. “No! The learning environment and conditions in the so-called labs are horrible: overcrowded and oversized classes, very bad quality of the used teaching media, sound and all the equipments to teach listening.”

The above comments along with others insist on the unsuitable teaching conditions with those inadequate listening equipments. Besides all this, some teachers evoked the absence of listening materials that teachers may use. This unavailability of listening materials leads to a situation where every teacher creates his/her own listening materials and, therefore, coordination between teachers will be difficult to achieve. It is true that there are sub-committees of modules where teachers can coordinate their teachings; but, again, without various and recent listening materials that are prepared by professionals (see distinction between authentic and artificial materials in chapter 2) whose exploitation is well structured.

It is also true that when teachers create their own materials, in sub-committees, they can enrich each other by fresh ideas about tasks and strategies that will be used. However, this may lead to disagreement and a listening material prepared by professionals under the supervision and advice of a linguist or applied linguist is likely to better cover all important aspects of listening as well as create a compromise as to which aspects should be emphasized.

Question2: In your oral expression module, how do you divide time between oral expression and listening comprehension? Explain briefly why you proceed like that.

Let's give some teachers' answers:

- a. “This depends on the level of the students. It is fifty-fifty for advanced students, and more listening for less advanced ones. The belief behind this approach is that listening is more important in early stages.”
- b. “As a session lasts only 90 minutes, every session is devoted either to listening comprehension or to oral expression.”
- c. “All depends on where to teach oral expression either in the lab or a classroom. In a lab, I focus more on listening comprehension tasks however in a ordinary classroom listening and oral expression are integrated. Here I give more opportunities to my students to express their ideas and use English. I devote more time to oral expression.”
- d. “We already have 1h and 30 minutes for each! It’s not enough anyway.”

This question is very important in that it can reveal if teachers treat listening and speaking equally or if listening is still considered a by-product of speaking. Basically, most teachers consider listening of equal importance to the other skills. Yet, some of them cannot again help invading the listening session with speaking. Listening for its own sake and for developing listening skills is not yet on the agenda. Some argue that it all depends on whether you are in the lab or the classroom. If it is the lab, it is rather listening and speaking. However, if it is the classroom, it is rather speaking. They said that listening is also taught in the classroom. I personally wonder how? Indeed, listening is difficult to teach in the classroom. In spite of the fact that it is still possible to teach it in the classroom, its teaching is likely to be inefficient since the classroom is not really the appropriate place for its teaching.

Some teachers raised another very important issue that if learners have an advanced level, speaking and listening are equally taught. If, on the other hand, the level is less advanced,

listening is taught more. This is not a stupid approach. On the contrary, constant exposure to English used by native speakers is likely to help learners accelerate their learning process.

Question 3: Which aspects that are involved in L2 listening, are considered important that students need to know?

Here are some teachers' answers:

- a. "How to make a forest out of a certain number of trees, pronunciation is also important and so students ought to be attentive to both the form and the content."
- b. "First and foremost, before we expect anything from our students in listening comprehension or oral expression, we should first give them enough time to do it- which they don't have on their timetable. We should not be too demanding."
- c. "Students may not have similar aspects in listening that they need to know. Their needs are different according to their individual differences. Their needs, in listening however, should be identified and analyzed by the teacher."
- d. "Focus on general meaning first; ignore those aspects of speech which seem to be difficult at the beginning; focus attention on features of speech which create difficulties later in the session."

Teachers in general have referred to many aspects that they consider important for their students. Among these aspects, pronunciation has been referred to several times. Pronunciation is very complex. It includes articulation (place and manner), stress and rhythm, intonation, and other aspects like different accents within Britain and America. We saw above in chapter II that pronunciation may be responsible for lack of comprehension on the part of foreign learners.

Teachers also referred to time aspect. In listening comprehension, time is probably the first enemy. When time is not enough to teach listening comprehension correctly, the outcome is certainly not brilliant.

Question 4: In listening to English, which aspects do you consider difficult for students?

The options that were given to teachers were:

- a. Pronunciation
- b. Vocabulary
- c. Speed of delivery
- d. Cultural aspects
- e. Other, please specify

On the basis of teachers' answers, it appears that pronunciation, speed of delivery, and vocabulary combined together, get the lion's share. The answers look reasonable when we know how important these aspects are in listening to a foreign language (these answers are very similar to those of students in chapter V). Thus, and besides pronunciation, frequent use of unfamiliar vocabulary and expressions play an important role in hindering comprehension. One strategy to overcome this obstacle is usually to ask students to overlook the unfamiliar words and expressions and concentrate on the gist. This strategy may work if overall understanding is not destroyed and is therefore still possible. However, as S. Rixon states, what if those bits and pieces that students do not understand constitute more than 50% of what is being said, comprehension will be impossible. (1989: 38). This suggests that choice of listening materials (preferably prepared by professionals but nearly authentic) is crucial. This choice must take account of topic as well as linguistic difficulties.

A third aspect that is liable to impede comprehension is speed of delivery. It basically involves natural speech that most foreign learners of English find troublesome. The fact that most foreign learners find natural speech hard to understand is by no means an invitation to use slow and artificial speech. Natural speech is in our eyes the only alternative that students need. Yet, natural speech is of different sorts as was explained in chapter 2. We have, for example, written language read-aloud found in most information news and news bulletins, spoken language in stories, spoken language in conversations, debates, interviews, etc., and the speech we usually find in interactional speech such as a conversation between friends, which is mainly to socialize.

What teachers, however, omitted to mention, is the cultural aspect. Culture, indeed, can be an impediment when it creates negative feelings in students. But this is only one aspect of culture. Culture also refers to those behaviours that are typical to some people and are hardly understood by other people.

As far as English is concerned, and besides the western culture in general which itself is alien to most of our students whose travelling possibilities are limited or none, there are specificities that are peculiar to British people, American people, and so on. A text that involves some English people's cultural habits like tea-time, pick-nicking, and many other activities are hardly understood by our learners because these are completely missing in their environment.

Likewise, American people's fever for base-ball, or some demonstrations claiming for some kind of freedom are devoid of sense for our students who have quite a different culture. One

thing that struck me personally in the western world is western people's refusal of proximity. In a public garden, for instance, people would not appreciate that you sit on a bench that is already occupied by a person, even if the bench is half empty. In our society, this is considered normal. Such things are not easy to teach or even to explain, especially, as was said above, if the students' attitude towards the people who speak the foreign language is relatively negative.

Question 5: In your listening comprehension session, state briefly what you do exactly.

As an answer to this question, we got a mosaic of answers and suggestions.

Again, let's pick out some answers and then comment the whole thing.

a. "I give the students some recorded material to listen to but only once. I will then ask them some general questions. Then, a discussion follows of a topic that is connected to the recorded material."

b. "Introducing the material to be listened to.

Assign listening tasks: for gist, for details, for specific expressions, modelling learners' speech according to some extracts from the material itself."

c. "1. First, make sure that there is no problem with the listening equipment in the lab.

2. Elicit some information about the topic to be dealt with: having a brief discussion with my students about their personal experience and knowledge on the topic.

3. Invite the students to listen twice to the content of a cassette or else with a purpose. It could be yes/no questions, information questions or making a summary of what the students have been listening to or fill in the gaps as writing activities.

4. "Listening for specific purpose (listen and find out specific information), name of character, date of birth, etc."

d. "Record for the students the material they have to listen to and give them questions on a printed sheet. Then I give them all the time (1h and 30mn) to listen and answer the questions. On my part, I ONLY MONITOR."

Those are only some answers given by some teachers. When all teachers' answers have been taken together, it was possible to make such remarks:

1. Listening comprehension which is part of the oral expression module is very difficult to teach (probably because of inefficient equipments, large groups of students, time aspect, etc).
2. Unless the equipments are in good order, listening cannot be taught adequately.
3. We feel that there exists no real coordination between oral expression teachers.

Now, let's analyze deeply what has been proposed by teachers. Firstly, teachers in general do not agree on the number of times their students should be exposed to the listening material. Some think it should be once. They probably think that, the same as in real-life situations people usually listen once; their students therefore should do the same. However, what these teachers overlook is that, in real-life situations, native speakers talk or just listen to other native speakers while their students are just over-hearers or eavesdroppers in a lab in a foreign language.

Some think it should be twice. What made them choose twice? Probably, it is experience or feeling. Some proposed as many times as the students want, etc. What has never been referred to yet, is the fact that listening materials are of different sorts and, therefore, require different tasks and activities and different strategies. We have seen above that transactional and interactional speech are different in nature, are used in different contexts and for different

purposes and are thus not listened to in the same way. Likewise, the tasks, activities and strategies that follow should be different.

Secondly, many teachers who completed the questionnaire argued that, usually, after their students have listened to the material, they carry out some tasks and the rest of the time is devoted to discussing the topic, etc. One wonders about listening. Where is it? We know that the oral expression module is divided into oral expression sessions and listening comprehension ones. Why is oral expression taking the time of listening comprehension? It is true that one cannot teach listening without speaking. However, at least 75% of the time allotted to listening should focus on listening and how to develop the receptive skills.

Thirdly, only one teacher out of 15 referred to the term monitor. Monitoring in listening comprehension is very important and it is a feature of autonomy-supportive teaching. The main aim of a listening session is to expose learners to a material and then exploit it in some way. However, it is also important to expose learners to spoken English as much as possible and to monitor with a focus on the appropriate strategies. The purpose of listening in a foreign language is mainly to make learners listen and not as some teachers said to make them speak.

Fourthly, how to cope with routine and boredom? The danger in teaching in general and in teaching oral expression in particular is boredom. We said above that that most teachers rely on their knowledge, experience and feeling to select listening materials and exploit them in some way. It is no doubt that these materials are more or less various. Yet, if teachers repeat every time the same procedures, their students will get fed up and bored (some useful motivational strategies are proposed in chapter 8). As boredom and motivation do not usually

get on each other, listening, in this case, becomes an uninteresting session that students consider a bit of a punishment.

Question 6: Do you prefer to use American English or British English? Why?

Let's give some teachers' answers:

- a. "I try as much as I can to expose them to both "Englishes". The two are worth studying and using."
- b. "British English because it is more economical (the post-vocalic "r" for instance is not always pronounced); It is also more distinctive (no confusion between "hot" and "hat"; some "odd" sounds such as the flap /t/ do not exist in RP.)"
- c. "British English, because we have been exposed to it during our studies high school learning of English to university studies. We are more familiar with British English and it sounds easier to use."
- d. "British English because I was trained in British English."
- e. "I would prefer British English as it is on the whole a lot simpler than American English. In fact, American English includes some sounds that prove to be hard to pronounce, namely retroflex /r/."

According to teachers' answers, British English seems to be most preferred. The arguments against American English mainly centre on its relative difficulty and teachers' unfamiliarity with it. Very few teachers chose American English and, surprisingly, very few opted for both. As it was explained in the theoretical aspect (chapter 2), most teachers are influenced by their place of post-graduation (England) and their background education (middle school, high school, and university). However, this, in our opinion, is no argument. We think that both

accents deserve to be used. Besides, teachers who teach oral expression must make an extra effort to know the differences between the two varieties and to inform students about that. It is not a matter of likes and dislikes. It is rather a matter of usefulness for studies.

Question 7: Which activities do you usually give students? What is the purpose of these activities?

Let's again give some teachers' answers:

- a. "Listen to conversations, ads, radio programs to make them aware of the different Englishes, accents (UK; US), and different subjects and jargons."
- b. "The listening skills I tend to develop in my students are generally integrated with other speaking and writing skills. Therefore, I generally provide my students with a variety of listening, reading, writing communicative tasks (individual, pair work, group work activities. The purpose is to get the gist of the listening text/conversation. To look for specific information while listening. To listen for a purpose in a form/card; to achieve a concrete purpose."
- c. "-Answering questions orally
-Answering questions in writing
-Note-taking, filling the blanks
-Transcriptions for phonetics/pronunciation."
- d. "Besides answering some general questions, I sometimes give them written exercises where they have to answer these questions in IPA and sometimes the questions themselves are in IPA. Using IPA is more revealing about their performance."

According to teachers' answers, some remarks need to be made:

1. Although listening is getting more and more important and teachers elaborate a wide range of activities to promote listening skills, we feel that some age-old views about how listening is viewed and taught are reappearing. Teachers (this may be due to their education) cannot help treating listening as a by-product of the other skills, especially speaking (audio-lingual habits). More so, they think that writing is a necessary skill in listening-which actually is not. Of course, one cannot deny that note-taking is a strategy that most researchers of the field recommend. Likewise, in face to face interaction, we usually listen and speak simultaneously. However, what teachers in general underestimate is that listening can be taught for its own sake.

This issue takes us to the distinction between teaching and testing listening. The main purpose of a listening session is to teach and rarely to test listening. One might wonder, how can listening be assessed then? It all depends on the purpose of listening. Testing listening is usually tedious and creates anxiety. However, teaching listening should be delightful. It should appeal to the students' creativity if the listening material is provocative, challenging and, at the same time, within students' reach. We have seen above in chapter 3 that challenge, innovation, and relative difficulty are all important factors in the enhancement of motivation.

2. The teaching of IPA and phonetic practice (in general) suggested by some teachers is an interesting issue indeed. However, it must not become part of listening. We think that it can be used only occasionally and when relevant. If the listening session becomes a phonetic transcription session and if students are not necessarily proficient in phonetic transcription, the listening session is then turned away from its initial purpose, which is mainly to listen to a variety of spoken English.

3. We think that using several activities and tasks in a listening session of 90 minutes is not necessarily an efficient approach. Listening is like growing plants. It requires care, time, patience, and above all, perseverance. The same as the other skills require time, it also requires time; for otherwise, the learning process will be hastened through the use of several tasks in so a short time. Probably, one or two tasks per session are quite enough with a special focus on variety and challenge to cope with boredom and routine.

VI.2.3. Listening materials, Learning Styles, and Listening Strategies.

In this part, learning strategies, listening strategies and learning styles are investigated in connections with teachers.

Question1: Before you choose a listening material to be used in the lab or in the multimedia room, what are your criteria of selection? Is it:

- a. The topic (interesting)
- b. The listening material (authentic)
- c. The variety of English (British English or American English)
- d. Other.

Most teachers chose options a, b, and d together. Very few proposed other possibilities. For instance, two teachers raised the problem of length of material which in their opinion is troublesome. The shorter the material, the easier it is to listen to and exploit.

Concerning the first option- topic, it is probably the most difficult choice to make. What teachers consider an interesting topic may prove to be out of interest for a large number of students. This may be due to age differences between students and teachers (they may have different likes and dislikes and different attitudes towards things that are mainly related to age). In addition to this, students themselves sometimes display big discrepancies as to their likes and dislikes and as to their interest or lack of interest in a particular topic.

One possible way to cope with this particular problem could be to invite students to make proposals on the topics they would like to listen to (autonomy-support). Teachers can then analyze them and select some of them in view of finding some and probably preparing some others to be used.

Most teachers opted for authentic materials rather than simplified ones. We think that this is the sound approach because simplified materials are artificial and display two big drawbacks:

- a. As they are different from how native speakers speak in everyday situations, they do not actually prepare learners to cope with spontaneous English.
- b. Exposing learners to simplified materials will be prejudicial to those who are motivated to endorse their own learning progress by listening regularly to English individually. We believe that individual listening is crucial because it helps learners to improve their mastery of spoken language.

At last, those teachers who referred to option (d), i.e., “The variety of English (British English or American English)”, have put light on a very important issue. Indeed, introducing learners to both varieties with from time to time a brief explanation of the similarities and differences

and insisting on the fact that it is what they will find when they listen alone, is in our opinion the sound track to follow.

Question 2: Once you have chosen a listening material, what makes you think that it would be better exploited in some way and not in another?

Let's again give some teachers' answers:

- a. "The possibility of extracting a number of activities suitable to learners' interest, motivation and communication."
- b. "There is a variety of factors that influence the way I exploit a listening material. The factors in question could be my personal experience in teaching listening comprehension, my students' level and interests for different topics and tasks, classroom/lab seating arrangement and others."
- c. "The nature of the topic, the variety of English, the quality of recording."
- d. "There is no one particular strategy to adopt to use a listening material. We are more preoccupied by the short time we have on the timetable than really doing a good choice of the listening material."

The above question which may be regarded as a continuation of the preceding one in terms of action and approaches to adopt, aimed at understanding what teachers do with the listening materials they have chosen to use.

Most teachers used the phrase 'it depends on...' This somehow indicates that in teaching listening comprehension, odds are more influential than any method, strategy, or whatever.

We believe that this issue is worth analyzing deeply.

The fact that most teachers refer to external factors, which it is clear are beyond their will, reflects a deep uneasiness. Some complain about time (not enough), others complain about sound quality in labs, others complain about large groups of students, others globally about horrible teaching and learning conditions, etc. In any case, in such unfavourable learning and teaching conditions, the most talented and resourceful teachers, using the most up to date listening materials, through the most efficient teaching methods will certainly be helpless in front of all these difficulties.

Question 3: Do you think that students have different learning styles?

Yes

No

All teachers recognized that learners possess different learning styles. We have explained in chapter II that some learning styles are more efficient than others. We have also explained that teachers can skilfully create motivating learning conditions to enhance their students' motivation and foster their progress and achievement. However, we think that it is hard to adapt one's teaching method(s) to satisfy all types of learners with their wide range of learning styles. Consequently, one cannot expect that teachers will realize that. This issue is discussed more deeply in question 4.

Question 4: If it is yes, should teachers get documented on the subject, or can they on impulse notice them and adapt their teaching accordingly?

Some teachers' answers are given:

a. "You are talking about an "ideal teaching". Who really does his/her job, a teaching who has motivated students and a motivating teaching environment, who has... and has..."

b. “I think being aware of such things is always useful, but one should not be too idealist and should adapt such theories to the context of teaching.”

c. “Most teachers ignore learning styles and strategies and develop only one way of teaching. Teachers really need nowadays to vary activity/task types.”

First of all, we feel that this question has stirred the deep emotions of teachers who suddenly started to reveal their genuine inner feelings about the matter. Some teachers believe that students’ learning styles is such an important issue that teachers ought to know and build their teaching accordingly. Others continue to complain about the disparity between researchers’ findings and our teaching and learning realities. A third group of teachers believes that despite the inadequacies of teaching and learning circumstances, it is yet still possible to get out of this awkward situation cleverly.

Secondly, as all teachers admit that students have different learning styles which require adapted teaching, constant reference to the context, the situation, the learning conditions, etc., denotes, I’m afraid, a certain lassitude on the part of teachers before such obstacles. Usually, when problems or obstacles have been identified, as is the case by teachers, it is possible to undertake remedial solutions to counteract their negative effects on learning and teaching.

In the chapter on suggestions and recommendations, some useful suggestions are put forward to enhance and maintain motivation by means of motivation strategies within the framework of listening.

Question 5: What listening strategies do you favour? Why?

- a. Ask students to take notes of what they listen to in view of asking them questions orally afterwards
- b. Push them to look for some significant details in the listening material
- c. Just ask them to concentrate on the gist

This question was a tricky one indeed. The aim of asking such a question and offering a bunch of alternative answers was mainly to gauge teachers' view about how listening ought to be taught and how it can be developed. It is true that there are several listening strategies that if adequately administered will not only improve students' learning in general and their receptive skills in particular but will enhance motivation by means of motivating strategies and tasks and teachers' teaching styles as well.

The results of teachers' answers reveal that most teachers opted for options (a), (b), and (c). In other words, "Ask students to take notes of what they listen to in view of asking them questions orally afterwards", "Push them to look for some significant details in the listening material", "Just ask them to concentrate on the gist" respectively.

These are some strategies students can be taught to use in listening. A listening session's aim is to assign students tasks and teach those strategies, etc. Likewise, it is also very important to merely expose learners to varieties of spoken English. At last, teachers need to urge their students to go and listen at home to reinforce and consolidate what they are doing at the university. It is undoubtedly useful and important to use tasks and show learners the appropriate strategies but this shouldn't be an end in itself. The end should be to expose learners and mainly to monitor. (The issue of motivating strategies will be treated in depth in chapter VII).

The issue of listening tasks and listening strategies along with listening materials leads us to a more general construct which is basically culture. Listening to a native language and listening to a foreign language within the framework of learning and motivation are completely two different things. Let's just focus on listening in a foreign language.

Listening in a foreign language which is part of a whole of learning a foreign language within the framework of motivation is very complex. In the theoretical aspect on listening, listening in L1 and listening in L2 were compared and contrasted without raising the cultural aspect. We think it is now worthwhile doing it.

Learning a foreign language suggests learning the culture of the people who speak that foreign language. This affective aspect of learning is very important in connection with motivation and achievement. Affective aspect of learning implies that when a student, for example, has a negative feeling towards the people who speak the foreign language he or she is learning (for political, historical, racial...reasons), he may develop a negative feeling towards the language. This will indirectly affect his motivation and his achievement.

As far as listening in a foreign language is concerned, the situation may become dramatic. Indeed, if the listening material the student is exposed to is loaded with cultural values (based on traditions, customs, religion,...) that are alien to him/her, his/her attitude will probably be negative towards the listening material to the extent that his/her motivation decreases and learning in general is thereafter jeopardized. The situation gets even worse when the topic is biased like, for example, terrorism, and so on.

Question 6: On the basis of the tasks you assign your students, what strategies do you want them to use? Why?

Here are some teachers' answers:

- a. "As students have different learning styles, I tend to use standard communicative tasks and cater for the range of styles. To put it simply, I devise both tasks that aim at developing the students' general understanding of the input and those that foster the students' ability to make sense of small details that relate to one another to gradually make the students grasp the whole of the input dealt with. I do so because I know that there are different types of learners, global learners and analytic learners, among others."
- b. "Anticipation is the most important strategy; on the basis of background knowledge every listener predicts what comes next; every step of understanding helps the students to go ahead in the next tasks and hence becomes a permanent challenge."
- c. "I have no pre-conceived strategies in my mind, frankly speaking, when I start teaching."
- d.
 1. Concentrate
 2. Pay attention to minute details
 3. Learn and know."
- d. "Teachers should first be aware of the fact that students have different styles of learning; they should be informed about all these styles and attempt to adapt or make their teaching in line with the students' ways and preferences of learning."

Teachers' answers in general are discrepant. Some emphasize teaching strategies that take into consideration students' disparate learning styles, others stress anticipation which is in their mind crucial to understanding, and others argue that before they start teaching they have no strategies in their mind; for them, it is the students and mainly the context which decide upon

some strategies and not others. In any case, all these attempts are all laudable to motivate students and give them the best solutions for their learning.

First of all, we feel that this question has stirred the deep emotions of teachers who suddenly started to reveal their genuine inner feelings about the matter. Some teachers believe that students' learning styles is such an important issue that teachers ought to know and build their teaching on accordingly. Others continue to complain about the disparity between researchers' findings and our teaching and learning realities. A third group of teachers believes that despite the inadequacies of teaching and learning circumstances, it is yet still possible to get out of this awkward situation cleverly.

Secondly, as all teachers admit that students have different learning styles which require adapted teaching, constant reference to the context, the situation, the learning conditions, etc., denotes, I'm afraid, a certain lassitude on the part of teachers before such obstacles. Usually, when problems or obstacles have been identified, as is the case by teachers, it is possible to undertake remedial solutions to counteract their negative effects on learning and teaching.

In the chapter on suggestions and recommendations, some useful suggestions are put forward to enhance and maintain motivation by means of motivational strategies within the framework of listening.

VI.2.4. Motivation

This part is complementary to the listening part because motivation and listening can be paired up by means of a motivating learning environment and motivating listening strategies.

In this part, teachers give their impressions about the role of motivation in learning in general and foreign language learning in particular. They are also invited to express themselves about their students' motivation.

Question 1: How far do you think that motivation is important in learning?

Some teachers' answers:

- a. "Any learner should be motivated and have willingness to try new learning strategies in any teaching learning operation. Without motivation, there is no guarantee of learning."
- b. "Affectively, topics that are related to students' age interest are much more motivating than others. Transactionally purposive activities can create a motivated atmosphere."
- c. "Motivation is rather very important. I should say that topic if adequately selected may be itself a source of motivation together with the teacher's ability to motivate students."

- d. “Extremely important.”
- e. “Every aspect of teaching is bound to motivation. I don’t see how it is likely to do otherwise.”

The comments are unquestionably clear. All teachers recognize that motivation is a key element in learning and success. Some teachers (rather hastily) have already taken the bull by the horns arguing that some motivational strategies reinforce motivation. Others have been even more specific by arguing that transactional purposive activities can create motivation. It must be borne in mind that even interactional activities can enhance motivation, perhaps even so. We believe that variety is the spice of life. The same as in life we need variety to counteract boredom, in learning, variety in activities, strategies, topics, etc., is crucial if we are to create and reinforce motivation.

Question2: What are in your opinion the factors that undermine motivation?

Some teachers’ answers:

- a. “Too many. A good timetable, good teaching atmosphere, equipment, and most of all small groups (up to 20, not more).”
- b. “The learning context including the material used and the quality of teaching, the wrong conception of studies in the mind of learners.”
- c. “Motivation is undermined if the topic chosen may be boring, i.e., going around a situation that is altogether not able to help students use their abilities to use their speaking competence.”
- d. Threatening, over dominating teachers. Injustice of opportunities for learners to express themselves.”

e. Well, the factors could be anxiety, attitude, and the teaching learning conditions.”

Most teachers refer to learning conditions, topic, timetable, listening materials, etc. However, very few refer to teachers' attitude (this issue is discussed in the last part of the questionnaire). One teacher yet referred to controlling teaching style as being responsible for the undermining of motivation. He/she spoke about threatening, over-dominating teachers. This proves that some teachers, at least, are quite conscious about autonomy support and control.

What teachers though have omitted to mention are students' current level and teachers' expectations of their students in accordance with a programme. In the self-determination theory, perceived competence is very important in enhancing or undermining motivation. We believe that students' current level and teachers' expectations constitute the major factors that undermine motivation.

Indeed, and this is accepted by everybody now, most learners in Algeria come to the university with a relatively low level in English. Of course, the reasons are numerous and diverse but will not be treated in this research. As a consequence to this, we think that there exists a disparity between students' level and teachers' expectations. No sooner had teachers started teaching than they would immediately realize that the students are basically not up to the level that allows them to follow, understand, ask questions, and prepare works. More than that, the students' level is coming down each year. Such a problem is really hard to resolve.

As soon as teachers realize that their students have quite a low level in English, their motivation is unfortunately affected. When teachers have a programme to cover and at the same time feel that they inevitably have to lower down the level of teaching so as to go along

with their students' pace, teaching, learning, and motivation are knocked silly. This issue deserves to be taken in charge more globally.

Question 3: What are in your opinion the factors that enhance motivation?

Some teachers' answers:

- a. "The teacher's attitude, good social learning environment, (the classroom setting...), the aim of learning: professional reasons, purely intrinsic individual learning reasons."
- b. "Diversity of input and activities, freedom of opinions, equal opportunities for learners whatever their levels of proficiency."
- c. "To enhance motivation: the teacher's choice of an adequate topic is rather important. Hence, students might feel boosted and so captivated by the topic."
- d. "Keep small groups; a suggestopedic environment (nice rooms, nice equipments, and the like)."

Most teachers put forward the learning environment and conditions. For them, motivation can be enhanced if such conditions and environment are improved to allow learners express their capacities and their intrinsic capabilities. However, most of them, again, complain about the unsuitability of such conditions. Some other teachers have emphasized teachers' attitudes in the classroom. They think that if teachers are fair and allow learners to express themselves without any partiality, students' motivation is thus enhanced (this indeed relates to teaching styles). Very few raised the issue of students' intrinsic motivation and its importance in learning.

Question 4: Do you consider motivation a fixed trait that is unchangeable, or do you think it is changeable and therefore teachable? Why?

Some teachers' answers:

- a. "Motivation according to me is one and the same. It is just a matter of how make it ever going on: a kind of revitalization."
- b. "All depends on teaching strategies adopted by the teacher. A teacher who acts as an "Animateur" can always change the attitude and motivation of learners."
- c. "I think it is changeable in the sense that it may implicitly be influenced but not through explicit teaching. Correcting the wrong conception in the minds of the students can be an explicit task."
- d. "In practice, we cannot teach motivation. It is within the learner- he/she strengthens it or loses it."
- e. "I believe that in some instances, motivation is the desire that a teacher can create within his students as learners. Viewed from this perspective, motivation is not a fixed trait: a student who is not motivated for learning could be made more motivated by the teacher over time. The latter should know more about the reasons that demotivate his students and adopt appropriate teaching strategies..."

Teachers' answers are as disparate as students' levels. What can be said about teachers' arguments is summarized below:

1. Most teachers are not well documented on the subject (motivation).
2. Some say that motivation is a fixed trait while others say that it is changeable.
3. The arguments put forward by teachers are haphazard.

4. Some teachers emphasize strategies as remedial factors and others speak about teachers' attitude.

However, the only issue that creates convergence in their arguments is that motivation is crucial in learning.

Question 5: Some psychologists and educationalists categorize motivation as intrinsic and extrinsic. Do you agree with this categorization? How?

- a. "Sure I do but what these gents are saying applies to a scientific paradise, not our department realities."
- b. "Yes, to a large extent."
- c. "I do not think that the latter case leads to motivation as such. I would call it conditioning."
- d. "I would opt for intrinsic as it is a way of having some mastery over one's capabilities, abilities in coping with some topic."

On the basis of these answers, one can conclude that most teachers ignore the concepts intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Question 6: Globally, how would you rate your students? Are they:

- a. Motivated intrinsically
- b. Motivated extrinsically
- c. Unmotivated
- d. Further comments

According to teachers' answers, it seems that most of them consider that their students are rather motivated extrinsically. A small number of teachers thinks though that most of their students are unmotivated. Very few teachers consider some of their learners motivated intrinsically. As we see, the picture is rather not very encouraging. One wonders why teachers have answered like this. The reasons have already been expressed above, but for practical reasons, let's enumerate some of them:

1. We saw in the questionnaire on listening that half of students had a scientific 'Baccalaureat'. This is not necessarily a drawback. However, from the self-determination perspective, perceived competence is very important for motivation and success. As our students come with a relatively low level, their motivation is certainly affected when they realize that they face real difficulties to follow.
2. The fact that most teachers consider their students motivated extrinsically seems in accordance with everyday life in general which is rather material bound in which material gains represent the end in everything
3. The learning and teaching environments and conditions are to a large extent unfavourable to the blooming of intrinsic motivation.

Question 7: Is the learning environment:

- a. Motivating
- b. Demotivating

Please, explain briefly why?

Let's give some teacher' answers:

- a. "Demotivating. This could be due to some teachers' attitude, oversized classes, students' level..."

- b. “Demotivating. Large groups of students, limited and poor materials, etc. The wrong conception in the mind of the students. Most of them believe in a magic formula that would allow them to learn the maximum. Most of learning, in reality, happens outside the classroom and depends on the daily personal effort. Students, these days, do not read out of what is assigned to them.”
- c. “Demotivating. Crowded corridors; cold or hot and stuffy, cell-like rooms with no grand opening; some dictation-bound teachers; crowded groups, etc. I guess that all these do not really motivate students.”
- d. “Demotivating. Huge number of groups, no time to give equal opportunities to all learners, lack of materials.”

As we can see, all teachers regard the learning environment as rather demotivating. This is dramatic. Teachers in their arguments have tried to explain why they think that the learning environment is demotivating. Globally, the reason centres around five basic things:

1. Poor and inadequate equipments
2. Stuffy and cell-like rooms and labs
3. Numerous and large groups of students
4. Some teachers’ attitude (controlling, dictation-bound, etc.)
5. Students’ level.

However, what all teachers haven’t highlighted is the effects of such conditions on teachers’ motivation. When they say that the environment is demotivating, they only mean for learners. How about teachers? It is true that the general tendency nowadays, is learner-centred. Nevertheless, if teachers are demotivated, the consequences are even more serious.

VI.2.5. Teaching Styles.

This part is very important as it is directly related to the notions of autonomy support and control exercised by teachers. We will try to find out if our teachers are more autonomy supportive than controlling or vice versa.

Question 1: To what extent do you think that students' motivation and achievement are dependent on their teachers' teaching styles? (The teachers' attitude in the classroom)

Some teachers' answers:

- a. "To some extent students may be somewhat motivated. But the teachers' attitude, if rather positive and stimulating can be a major source of motivation."
- b. "To a great extent, the teacher is responsible of creating a healthy, confident and enjoyable atmosphere of learning."
- c. "It is all this."
- d. "The teachers' attitude is very important. It is well-known that to like the teacher is to like the topic taught. The teacher should avoid anything that may be a source of students' uneasiness. A certain sense of humour is most helpful and stimulating."
- e. "Teachers' attitude and ways of teaching can either motivate or demotivate students. Having a positive attitude towards what we teach and using efficient teaching techniques and procedures in the classroom generally result in students' learning."

All teachers consider teachers' teaching styles as crucial in enhancing or undermining their students' motivation. They distinguish between what they call positive teachers and negative ones. In the subsequent question, we will see how teachers conceive of this issue.

Question2: Does good teaching involve?

- a. To strike a balance between autonomy-support and discipline
- b. To reward students who work and punish those who do not work.

This question turns around the idea that autonomy-support, and reward and punishment do not really belong to the same realm. In autonomy-support, reward and punishment should be alien. In fact, the real mission of teaching is not to reward and punish but to teach. To teach means to expect learners to learn several matters in a relaxed atmosphere, in which the purpose is not so much to test learners as to allow them to progress. However, reward and punishment should not be part of teaching. We explained above that external rewards do not promote learning, and punishment undermines motivation.

Concerning teachers' answers, most of them chose both options. This means that though they consider autonomy-support mingled with discipline as important, they are, nevertheless, fascinated by reward and punishment as being efficient means to teach effectively.

Question 3: Controlling and severe teachers are said to be more competent and more serious than autonomy-supportive ones. Do you agree with this view?

Some teachers' answers:

- a. "It could be rather the opposite. Being controlling and severe can turn out to be an impediment to any students' progression."

- b. “No! I don’t think so. Being severe teachers may demotivate students to learn. A teacher should be tolerant, flexible and understanding. As learning is our main concern, we should not create any psychological obstacles in our classrooms.”
- c. “I do not fully agree. I believe that being well at ease is a prerequisite for learning.”

This question is indeed a very important one. It relates to the opinion that people may have of teachers. The commonplace belief is that almost everybody in his/her inner feelings thinks that controlling teachers are more respectable, more awe inspiring, and, more importantly, more competent than autonomy-supportive ones. Reeve (2004) above, in the eleven reasons justifying why teachers are rather controlling, explains clearly in reason ten that controlling teachers are rated by parents and students themselves as more competent than autonomy-supportive ones. We have already explained that the way society is built influences largely people’s impressions, feelings, and opinions about several matters. In education, this wrong idea cannot be overcome easily. We saw in chapter I that new approaches and new insights are little by little giving their fruit in connection with teachers’ styles, people’s perceptions of competence, and people’s awareness of the distinction between autonomy-support and disorder.

As for teachers’ answers, it seems that teachers are basically against severity. However, what these teachers are not well documented on is that severity does not necessarily mean control. Severity is a behaviour that teachers may adopt so as to have control of the situation or to discourage some trouble-makers or disrespectful students; it is just part of control. On the other hand, control is more tacit. It is not necessarily expressed by teachers by showing irritation or being unpleasant; it is more related to all teachers’ behaviours and attitudes in class that students notice and feel and are therefore influenced by them. Generally speaking,

most teachers hardly distinguish between autonomy-support and permissiveness, and severity and control. (This indicates that some documentation on the subject can unveil all these misunderstandings and may lead to a more fruitful and more efficient role of teachers).

Question 4: Do you prefer to have? :

- a. Students being quiet and following peacefully
- b. Students being given the opportunity to express themselves on the programme and the teaching method
- c. Students are not in a position to be questioned on the programme and the teaching method
- d. If students are given some freedom they take advantage of this to create disorder and to not work
- e. Other, please specify

This question is important because it can reveal teachers' inner feelings about their role, their students' role and limits, and their deep and genuine opinion about autonomy-support.

Teachers' answers to this question range from option (b) to option (c). Most teachers think that students should be given the opportunity to express themselves but within limits. In other words, teachers believe that to allow learners to express themselves on several teaching and discipline matters is quite possible, but that to allow them to poke their noses in the programme and teaching method is not on the agenda. This is not necessarily a negative attitude; to allow learners to do whatever they like is permissiveness. However, autonomy-support is not so much to allow learners to express themselves on learning and teaching matters as it is a general attitude that teachers adopt in class. This attitude creates a sound atmosphere in which learners are given responsibility to take part in learning and teaching but

with respect of certain rules which are part of a whole of autonomy-support. We saw in chapter III how autonomy-supportive teachers behave in the classroom. However, this is no medical prescription that every teacher ought to follow. Autonomy-supportive behaviour can be learned but the same as learners have differing learning styles, teachers too have differing teaching styles. What teachers are expected to do is to understand that autonomy-support is not permissiveness and to try it and see the results.

Question 5: Do you:

- a. Talk a lot in your teaching session
- b. Talk and listen to students' opinions, views, etc.
- c. Engage in a debate even when the module is content-based

Most teachers chose option (b), i.e., alternate between talking, and allowing students to express themselves and listen to them. This, of course, is encouraging but, as Reeve (2004) said above, when a teacher talks a lot, his students are likely to feel frustrated, inhibited and constrained because he will set the learning procedure, allowing little room of manoeuvre for his students to express themselves on learning matters. It all depends on teachers' attitude in the class. We said above that autonomy-support is tacit behaviour including a wide range of encouraging attitudes.

Question 6: When you give students an assignment, do you

- e. Give students time to work in their own way
- f. Let them work and interfere
- g. Give them a limited time

- h. Control what they are doing so as to interfere

Most teachers chose options (a) and (d), i.e., ‘give students time to work in their own way’ and ‘control what they are doing so as to interfere’.

The first option is significant of autonomy-supportive teaching whereas the second is related to controlling teaching. To give students time to work in their own way does not mean to be permissive with them. On the contrary, autonomy-support means to give students some responsibility and to create a moral contract with them.

Question 7: When some student shows that he/she is doing well, do you:

- a. Praise the quality of his/her performance
- b. Encourage others to do the same
- c. Reprimand others for not doing the same
- d. Other, please specify

Most teachers chose options (a) and (b). This implies that they are for positive feedback and, at the same time, would like to see other students get inspired by the brilliant ones and do well too. We have already discussed feedback and, in any case, it is more controlling than informative.

Question 8: When students answer a question, do you:

- a. Evaluate it
- b. Ignore it because it is usually not up to the standards that you have in mind
- c. Other, please specify

Most teachers opted for (a) and a few suggested other arguments. Evaluation is in fact related to feedback. If this feedback is made in a way that reinforces students' self-confidence and their perceived competence, this is positive and informative. However, if feedback is not well directed (even unintentionally), it is then not informative and may lead to undermining students' motivation. It all depends on teachers' style. If it is informative, students are likely to take advantage of it; if, however, it is rather controlling, students are likely to suffer.

Question 9: How do you see competition in the classroom? Is it:

- a. Constructive
- b. Destructive
- c. Other, please specify

Most teachers regarded competition as constructive. Their arguments in favour of competition turn around the belief that competition prompts students to imitate each other and, therefore, to work harder and harder. We think that this issue is deeply related to the opposition between competition and cooperation. Competition is basically when students want to get the highest marks and to gain their teachers' esteem for hard work while cooperation is when students cooperate to learn and succeed together. Taken from this perspective, competition creates negative feelings among learners and, the same as marks, creates jealousy and makes the learning atmosphere full of adversity.

From the self-determination perspective, competition undermines intrinsic motivation and does not lead to better learning. Moreover, if competition is coupled with rewards, it becomes even more destructive in the sense that it may create animosity between students. Cooperation, on the other hand, is more productive because it creates an atmosphere of mutual help between students to the extent that unmotivated students can find interest in learning. It

all depends on teachers. Autonomy supportive teachers are likely to be more in favour of cooperative learning; whereas the less autonomy supportive ones are more in favour of competition.

Unfortunately, teachers are rather in favour of competition. This of course does not necessarily mean that our teachers are rather controlling ones. However, and this is a commonplace belief, most people believe in the power of extrinsic factors to enhance motivation. Such extrinsic factors nonetheless undermine more than they reinforce motivation.

Question 10: In your oral expression module, do you insist on participation?

Yes

No

Most teachers answered yes.

If yes, do you grade it? How?

As most teachers, 12 out of 15, considered their students' participation very important, it was interesting to ask them whether they graded it and how. Most of the 12 teachers who considered participation important, 10 out of 12, indeed graded it. Some gave it the same value as an exam while others regarded it as ranging from 1/4 to 1/6 of the whole yearly average of the module. In any case, participation is given much importance by most teachers. According to the self-determination perspective, giving marks on participation is a deeply controlling attitude. Proponents of this theory argue that when students are given marks for an interesting activity, the aim is turned away from enjoyable learning for its own sake to

learning directed towards getting marks in so much that the learning activity loses its inherent value.

Now if the activity in question was not very interesting and teachers used marks to mainly attract their students' interest and attention, this attitude in the self-determination perspective has a double effect. Indeed, it may be advantageous for students but may also affect them negatively. A mark usually belongs to the category of rewards which are basically not recommended.

Now, if participation is not rewarded by marks, how can teachers then motivate their students for different sorts of activities and tasks that are not always attractive? According to the self-determination theory, marks create resent, envy, and frustration. In a successful learning situation, learning should be cooperative (between teachers and students and between students themselves). Cooperative learning is one that creates a healthy atmosphere where the purpose is not to reward some students and punish others but to create healthy learning conditions to encourage students' involvement and engagement and, hence, to reinforce their motivation.

Question 11: When you question students on a preceding subject, do you:

- a. Reward good answers by mark
- b. Punish bad answers by mark
- c. Give it little importance
- d. Other, please specify

Most teachers opted for option (a), i.e., to reward good answers by mark. This issue is actually very deep and constitutes in itself a clear indication of teachers' teaching style. What does it mean when a teacher rewards the students who give good answers?

Firstly, this teacher is well engaged in his job. It means that he gives his students care and concern.

Secondly, he thinks that by giving rewards (marks) to students who answer well, this will encourage other students to do the same (this is true to some extent).

Thirdly, the rewarded students will see their motivation enhanced.

Fourthly, what this teacher does not realize, however, is that the students who do not answer well and who are thus not rewarded will lose self-confidence and will see their motivation decrease because of lack of encouragement. When their motivation is undermined, students will cut their effort and show little interest in what they are learning.

Fifthly, the rewarded students will become dependent on external rewards to persevere and will see their motivation decrease if such rewards are suddenly removed or even diminished.

To conclude the discussion about rewards by marks, it can be argued that rewards may be constructive if they do not become the fuel of motivation (which is unfortunately usually the case). They are rather much more destructive as they create distinctions between students.

Question 12: When you notice that your students are rather disengaged, do you:

- a. Force them to wake up
- b. Completely change the atmosphere by introducing an anecdote, a joke, etc.

All teachers opted for (b). This is very encouraging since forcing unwilling students does not usually yield brilliant outcomes. Learning under fear and threat is never advantageous to students. Yet, it is never easy to create interest in students who seem uninterested in learning. As using force is far from being the solution, using other tricks requires much skill and experience on the part of teachers. This looks a big challenge but it is worth accepting.

What are the reasons that may make students disengaged? In fact, there are many. Let's give some of them:

- a. Fatigue. Students may be tired and may find it hard to concentrate. If teachers cannot create something exciting that is worth following eagerly, it will be very hard for them to catch their students' attention.
- b. Routine and boredom. We have already explained above that routine and boredom are difficult to fight unless the teacher succeeds to break them by variety and freshness of ideas, topics, and procedures.
- c. More importantly, teachers' styles. Informative teachers capture their students' interest and motivation while controlling ones, by putting constant pressures on students, succeed in undermining these latter's motivation.

Question 13: When you want to urge your students to work, do you:

- a. Give them advice
- b. Force them
- c. Threaten them
- d. Ask them to express themselves on the matter
- e. Other, please specify.

Most teachers chose option (a). In fact, 20 teachers out of 25 chose this option. This question is closely related to the preceding one. It is a good example of autonomy-support or control. According to the self-determination perspective, giving advice is not an autonomy-supportive behaviour. To give advice means to consider that students lack motivation and teachers are there to show them the right way to succeed. We know perfectly well that in reality it doesn't happen like that. The only option that expresses autonomy-support is (d). However, it does not at all mean that this is rather permissiveness. Allowing learners to express themselves on the matter has been discussed by researchers who argue that it is very advantageous. For example, Little (1991) who writes:

“Because the learner sets the agenda, learning should be more focused and more purposeful, and thus more effective both immediately and in the longer term; because responsibility for the learning process lies with the learner, the barriers between learning and living that are often found in traditional teacher-led educational structures should not arise; if there are no barriers between learning and living, learners should have little difficulty in transferring their capacity for autonomous behaviour to all other areas of their lives, and this should make them more useful members of society.” (1991: 8)

In the applied linguistics literature autonomy is seen as a capacity for active, independent learning. For example, Holec (1985) sees autonomy as a capacity. He writes:

“Autonomization is a matter of acquiring those capacities necessary to carry out a self-directed learning programme.” (1985: 180).

Almost in similar vein, Little says:

“Autonomy is the capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making and Independent action.” (op.cit: 14)

Autonomy can also mean the attitude towards learning in which the learner is prepared to take responsibility for his/her own learning. This idea is reinforced by Dickinson (1993) who argues that to take responsibility for one's own learning essentially concerns decision making about one's own learning. (1993: 330).

All these views are in favour of autonomy-support and mainly option (d) because the advantages are numerous and learning is more efficient.

Question 14. In your teaching, do you:

- a. Have freedom to teach according to what you think is right for students
- b. Strictly respect the programme
- c. Other, please specify.

This question is a very good example of potential causes of teachers' controlling attitudes when they are teaching. Let's come back again to the eleven reasons for teachers' controlling attitude put forward by Reeve (2004) above. In fact, reason 4, namely, teachers are themselves subjected to controlling, pressuring conditions within their jobs. This is true to a large extent. Most teachers feel their hands tied up whenever the matter is about teaching. Usually, teaching a module involves covering a programme that is not always interesting. Furthermore, teachers are very much concerned with discipline so as to teach correctly. The consequence of all this is that as teachers feel pressured and controlled, and as autonomy-support is not yet on the agenda in education in general, they in turn control and put pressure on students willy-nilly. Autonomy-support is yet to be recognized and adopted as a motivating attitude. Besides all this, relative absence in teacher-training programmes of how to design instruction to promote students' autonomy does not encourage teachers to engage in such adventurous enterprise.

Concerning teachers' answers to this question, it seems that most of them think that they enjoy some freedom to teach freely. However, what is actually taking place is that most

of these teachers are unaware that they are overwhelmed by the programme that they have to cover and by their students' discipline because of the environment.

It should also be noted that throughout this questionnaire and, notably, in the parts that are devoted to listening comprehension, when different issues that are related to listening comprehension have been discussed, teachers did not make any mention whatsoever of individual listening as a prerequisite to learning a foreign language, in general, and, particularly, to developing receptive skills that are liable to allow learners to cope with several listening difficulties discussed above.

There have deliberately been no explicit questions on the issue of individual listening in the teachers' questionnaire. Our intention for avoiding them has been to gauge teachers' own views about such an issue. Had there been some questions of this type involved in the questionnaire, teachers would probably have replied that they encouraged their students to listen individually quite often.

It is no doubt that such a track is very interesting to take. This would have allowed the discussion of many significant issues. This would constitute the basis for future investigations. In any case, it was necessary to avoid asking straightforward questions on the issue of individual listening so as to discuss hypothesis 3.

VI.3. Conclusion

This questionnaire has tackled the issue of listening comprehension within the framework of motivation and self-determination. It has investigated teachers' view and opinion about many learning and teaching issues in connection with how listening comprehension is taught, how motivation is accounted for, and how self-determination can be achieved through autonomy-support.

The analysis of teachers' answers has revealed the following points:

1. Teachers in general, though more or less documented on the issue of teaching approaches and methods, do not actually take full advantage of their knowledge in their teaching.
2. Although listening comprehension is considered important by teachers, very often, it is invaded by speaking or other skills.
3. No teacher ever mentioned individual listening as a prerequisite to level improvement. Teachers, either out of habit or insufficient knowledge, did not put any mention of encouraging learners to listen individually.
4. All teachers consider motivation a crucial element in learning and achievement.

5. Teachers in general seem to be not documented enough on how motivation can be enhanced or undermined.
6. Although teachers have shown many insights as to efficient teaching approaches, they, nevertheless, do not distinguish clearly between autonomy-support and permissiveness, and severity and discipline.

VI.4. Discussion of Hypotheses and some other relevant Correlations

In this part, the hypotheses put forward in this research are discussed. This can be fulfilled through some meaningful correlations. The correlations that are discussed are:

- a. Students' view about their studies and their teachers.**
- b. Students' type of motivation and their individual listening.**
- c. Students' view about studies and their type of motivation.
- d. Students' view about their teachers and their type of motivation.
- e. Students' type of motivation and their view about their studies and their teachers.
- f. Students' view about listening correlated with whether teachers urge them to listen individually**
- g. Correlation between Students' View about Studies and their Teachers' teaching styles
 1. Results of Students' View about their Studies
 2. Results of Teachers' View about Autonomy Support and Control
 - 2.1. Results of question 5
 - 2.2. Results of question 9
 - 2.3. Results of question 13

P.S. The correlations in bold represent the hypotheses.

VI.4.1. Discussion of hypothesis 1: Correlation between Students' View about their Studies and their View about their Teachers.

According to the results of the students' questionnaire, it was found in question 3, part 2, that 62 students out of 97 were unsatisfied with their studies. Likewise, in question 5, part 2, 65 students out of 97 considered their teachers authoritative (controlling). When both questions were correlated, they gave the following results:

1. Out of the 62 students who were unsatisfied with their studies, 50 considered their teachers authoritative.
2. Out of the 65 students who considered their teachers authoritative, 55 were unsatisfied with their studies.

What do these results reveal? We believe that such results are not fortuitous. Indeed, a latent link can be found between the two variables. The results prove that students' dissatisfaction with studies strongly correlates with their view that their teachers are rather controlling. Furthermore, the other correlation, i.e., students' negative opinion about teachers too, strongly correlates with their dissatisfaction with studies. One possible explanation to this

is that because students consider their teachers authoritative, they have little by little been demotivated towards studies (in the last chapter, some motivational strategies will explain how students can be motivated). It is undeniable that teachers' styles do play a crucial role in their students' motivation, interest, and so on.

We saw above in chapter III that autonomy supportive teachers and controlling ones do not really behave in the same way in class. Furthermore, J. Reeve (2004) above provided a table in which he distinguished autonomously motivated students from control motivated students and educational benefits shown by students who have autonomy supporting teaching from students who have controlling teachers. Among the main benefits mentioned above:

1. Educational benefits shown by autonomously motivated students, compared to control motivated students: Higher Academic Achievement, Higher Perceived Competence, More Positive Emotionally, Higher Self-Worth, Preference for Optimal Challenge, Pleasure for Optimal Challenge, Stronger Perceptions of Control, Greater Creativity, Higher Rates of Retention
2. Educational benefits shown by students with autonomy supporting teachers, compared to students with controlling teachers: Higher Academic Achievement, Higher Perceived Competence, More Positive Emotionally, Higher Self-Worth, Greater Conceptual Understanding, Greater Flexibility in Thinking, More Active Information Processing, Greater Creativity, Higher Rates of Retention.

As far as the results of the correlation are concerned, and when compared to the above educational benefits shown by students with autonomy supporting teachers, it is no surprise that most students are not really satisfied with their studies since they consider their teachers

controlling. It is true that teachers' teaching styles are probably not the only causes of students' dissatisfaction with their studies-some other external and probably internal factors are also responsible for students' negative attitude towards their studies. Nevertheless, the impact of teachers' styles on their students' motivation is extremely big.

Let's see which educational benefits our students may not have taken advantage of and which have led to this negative attitude towards studies. Higher Perceived Competence, More Positive Emotionally, Higher Self-Worth, Preference for Optimal Challenge, Pleasure for Optimal Challenge, Stronger Perceptions of Control, and Greater Creativity.

- e. Higher Perceived Competence: Perceived competence is one of the warhorses of the self-determination theory. It is believed that when students are made to think of themselves competent, their intrinsic motivation is enhanced and the subsequent benefits that derive from this state of mind are numerous.
- f. More Positive Emotionally: Autonomy-supporting teachers provide their learners with a sense of control over what they are learning that these latter become very positive emotionally and are, therefore, ready to take charge of their learning by being more self-involved and more positive.
- g. Higher Self-Worth: Our students are not really motivated or are just motivated extrinsically because the circumstances are not favourable for such a quality. Teachers too, out of mere lack of acquaintance with motivational strategies, do not help students much.
- h. Preference and Pleasure for Optimal Challenges: We saw above in chapter III that challenge is one of the factors which enhance intrinsic motivation. The teaching must be challenging and teachers must propose a challenging

atmosphere in which students are invited to express themselves and to hold responsibilities in learning.

- i. Stronger Perceptions of Control: Control in the self-determination perspective relates to choice and control over the outcomes. Autonomy supporting teaching provides such opportunities; however, controlling teaching does not provide such opportunities.
- j. Greater Creativity: In order for a student to be creative, he needs to feel some freedom in his learning. Autonomy supporting teaching offers such a freedom. However, controlling teaching does not provide such advantageous learning conditions.

On the basis of all these arguments, it can be said that hypothesis 1- Students' dissatisfaction with their studies strongly correlates with their view about their teachers. This hypothesis is to a large extent confirmed since most students who are dissatisfied with their studies consider their teachers as controlling. Our students' dissatisfaction with their studies paired up with their negative opinion about their teachers' styles has led to a situation where students are not so privileged to be motivated intrinsically towards studying English at the university. The correlations below will be in the direction of this view or will refute it.

VI.4.2. Discussion of hypothesis 2: Correlation between students' type of motivation and their individual listening

This particular correlation is directly related to hypothesis 2. Out of the 70 students who are motivated extrinsically (see results of question 2 of part 3 in the students' questionnaire), 55 were found to listen less than two days a week, half-an-hour a day. This means that the students who are motivated extrinsically do not listen to English reasonably enough outside the university. We think that this can be improved if teachers of listening comprehension encourage their students to listen to English at home more often and if they teach them the appropriate strategies that ought to be used with different listening materials. Chapter VII discusses this issue. We omitted to check the correlation between the results of the students who were found to be motivated intrinsically for two reasons:

1. They were only 20 students out of 97
2. Only the average number of days per week and hours per day was taken into account

As we have explained in chapter IV above, amotivation has not been allotted an option because the preceding question- did you choose personally to study English at the university?- revealed that most students chose freely. Free choice indicates that the students are not amotivated. However, this question could not indicate which type of motivation pushed them

to study English at the university. As a consequence, the following question- why did you choose to study English at the university- was necessary to specify the type of motivation.

Hypothesis 2 is also confirmed because most students who are motivated extrinsically do not listen quite enough individually. Probably both variables have influenced one another. Being motivated extrinsically towards their studies implies that students basically do not make the necessary efforts to improve their current level. Furthermore, as most students do not consider listening very important for their studies, this has probably undermined their intrinsic motivation towards studies that some of them, at least, may have come with. As they grew little by little unsatisfied with their studies with a negative and did not probably find autonomy-supportive teachers, and demotivating learning conditions, their intrinsic motivation has decreased and their intrinsic interest towards studies and individual effort characterized by individual listening have vanished.

VI.4.3. Some other Meaningful Correlations:

VI.4.3.1. Correlation between Students' Type of Motivation and their View about their Studies and their Teachers.

As motivation is considered an important element in achievement, involvement, and success, we thought that investigating the correlation between students' opinion about their studies and their teachers may be significant and may set the ground for the larger correlation between students' type of motivation towards their studies, and their view about their studies and their teachers.

VI.4.3.2. Correlation between Students' View about their Studies and their Type of Motivation.

This correlation analyzes students' view about their studies and their type of motivation. Out of the 62 students who were rather unsatisfied with their studies, 58 were found to be motivated extrinsically. We have seen above, in the first correlation that students, in general, are not studying in the ideal conditions that enhance and maintain intrinsic motivation. As a result, it is expected that their motivation will not be intrinsic but rather extrinsic. The results

indicated above confirm this assumption that most students who are unsatisfied with their studies are not motivated intrinsically.

VI.4.3.3. Correlation between Students' View about their Teachers and the Type of Motivation.

Out of the 65 students who considered their teachers authoritative, 60 were motivated extrinsically, and 2 were motivated intrinsically. These results prove that there is a strong correlation between teachers' styles and type of motivation. According to the self-determination theory, a controlling style undermines students' intrinsic motivation. This correlation confirms the assumption that most students who consider their teachers authoritative (controlling) are not motivated intrinsically.

VI.4.3.4. Correlation between Students' type of motivation with their view about their studies and their teachers

Out of the 55 students who consider their teachers controlling and who are unsatisfied with their studies, 52 are motivated extrinsically. These results prove that the assumption which is raised above that our students are not learning in suitable conditions is confirmed here. What are the possible consequences of such results?

As intrinsic motivation is considered the type of motivation that leads to several learning advantages, such results are to a large extent disturbing. However, the whole situation can be changed positively. With some motivational strategies and better learning conditions,

students' motivation can quickly change from extrinsic to intrinsic or, at least, extrinsic motivation is maintained.

We think a bracket needs to be opened here. It is undeniable that intrinsic motivation is the one that leads to better learning on the part of learners. However, extrinsic motivation is not all bad. As we have explained in the students' questionnaire, nowadays, most people are attracted by material motives in undertaking different sorts of activities, careers, etc. Autonomy supportive teaching can perhaps change extrinsic motivation to intrinsic but it is better to have extrinsically motivated students than unmotivated ones. The former are perfectible while the latter are hopeless. This issue is discussed deeply below.

VI.4.3.5. Correlation between Students' View about Listening and their Individual Listening.

In question 6, part 2, it has been shown that most students classified listening in the last position in terms of importance for their studies. In fact, 38 students put it in the last position and 26 in the penultimate position. If we add up together these two scores, it will give 64. We were interested in those 64 students (those who classified listening in the third and last positions). After having compared these scores with those of question 3, part 3, it was found that 45 students said that they listened to English individually once a week, half-an-hour a day; 05 students said they listened twice a week, half-an hour a day; and 14 students said that they rarely listened.

What do these results explain? We think that most students, who do not really consider listening very important for their studies, rarely listen alone or hardly listen alone, or do not listen alone enough.

VI.4.4. Hypothesis 3: Correlation between students' view about listening and whether their teachers encourage them to listen individually.

In question 6, part 3, it was shown that 64 students out of 97 classified listening in the third and fourth positions. In other words, they did not consider listening very important for their studies. In addition to this, in the teachers' questionnaire, no teacher, in all the parts, ever mentioned that he/she urges his/her students to listen individually (see above). Consequently, we believe that there exists a correlation between teachers' lack of encouragement for their students' individual listening and the students' underestimation of listening in terms of importance for their studies. We think that teachers should not only encourage their students to listen very often to English outside their classes but should teach them what to listen to, how to listen, and what strategies need to be used with different listening materials.

As teachers were found not to encourage their students to listen individually regularly, and most students undervaluing listening, the results of both questions were combined and it was explained that among the reasons why students do not consider listening important for their studies is probably, at least in part, due to their teachers' lack of encouragement for individual listening as a prerequisite for level improvement and learning. Hence, the hypothesis is somehow confirmed.

VI.4.5. Some other Meaningful Correlations:

VI.4.5.1. Correlation between Students' View about Studies and their Teachers' teaching styles

This correlation is important for this research because it combines the issues of students' view about their studies and some practical examples of their teachers' teaching styles. The purpose of this correlation is mainly to confirm and reinforce the assumption that students' positive or negative view about studies is possibly related to their teachers' styles. It was proved above, in the students' questionnaire, in the correlation between students' view about studies and their view about their teachers that most students who were unsatisfied with their studies, considered their teachers authoritative, and most students who considered their teachers authoritative were unsatisfied with their studies. It was argued that though their teachers' styles may not be the only cause of their students' dissatisfaction (some other causes are also important), they are, nevertheless, an important track to follow.

Such a correlation can be discussed by providing the results of the students' view about studies and some examples of teachers' styles. Thus:

VI.4.5.2. Results of Students' View about their Studies

It was shown in the students' questionnaire, part 3, question 3 that 35 students were satisfied with their studies and 62 were dissatisfied. Likewise, it was shown in the first correlation above that out of 62 students who were unsatisfied with their studies, 50 considered their teachers authoritative. This means that the correlation exists and is strong. In similar vein, out of the 65 students who considered their teachers authoritative, 55 were dissatisfied with their studies. Again, there is a strong correlation between the two variables. As a consequence, we may argue that teachers, in general, are perhaps a little bit authoritative. This issue can be checked by means of three questions in the teachers' questionnaire, notably, questions 5, 9, and 13 of part 6 (teaching styles).

VI.4.5.3. Results of Teachers' View about Autonomy Support and Control

VI.4.5.3.1. Results of question 5

According to the results, most teachers (18 out of 25) opted for option (b), i.e., 'Talk and listen to students' opinions, views, etc.'

These results indicate that though our teachers are not completely authoritative and controlling, they are, nonetheless, partly controlling. Indeed, if listening to students' opinions is an autonomy supporting attitude, talking much is to a large extent a controlling one. When a teacher talks a lot, he/she inhibits students to the extent that they are frustrated.

VI.4.5.3.2. Results of question 9

The results show that a high majority of teachers (20 out of 25) thinks that competition is rather constructive. According to the self-determination theory, competition is negative and leads to the undermining of motivation and, particularly, intrinsic motivation. Some studies that have been made by some researchers corroborate this idea. For example, Vallerand, Gauvin, and Halliwell (1986a) and later Vallerand, Hamel and Darnist (1992), have found that competition undermines intrinsic motivation and cooperation enhances it. In addition to this, it is also important to note that in a situation of failure, competition has a damaging effect on intrinsic motivation (Vallerand, Gauvin, and Halliwell (1986b), while cooperation gives a protecting effect.

VI.4.5.3.3. Results of question 13

The results indicate that most teachers (20 out of 25) opted for option (a), i.e., ‘give them advice’. Advice is among controlling attitudes because they pre-suppose that learners are not able to decide by themselves. We saw in chapter III, (DeCharmes) argued that if learners think that the locus of control emanates from them, they will feel self-confident. However, when they think that the locus of control is external to them, they will lose self-confidence. Giving advice is a behaviour that indicates that learners are not in position to take responsibilities and is, therefore, controlling.

On the basis of all the arguments put above, it seems that the issues of students’ dissatisfaction with studies and teachers controlling styles really correlate strongly. This being said, we know perfectly well that our teachers are far from being completely controlling. Besides this, some of their controlling styles deeply emanate from their lack of familiarity with or the difficulty to put in application some recent approaches to language teaching which

more and more urge teachers to adopt autonomy supporting teaching styles. In any case, such autonomy supporting teaching styles cannot be applied easily and quickly in our conservative academic environments. The whole process will take place peace meal and when possible. One cannot always apply some counterintuitive teaching recommendations easily.

VI.5. Evaluation of the Self-Determination Theory

The self-determination theory has developed fresh ideas in connection with education. It distinguishes intrinsic motivation from extrinsic motivation. For the proponents of the self-determination theory, intrinsic motivation is by far more efficient than extrinsic motivation in terms of learning, achievement, and success. They believe that intrinsic motivation is usually undermined by some external factors that should be avoided at all costs. Let's deal briefly with some of these factors and argue on their beneficial or damaging character.

VI.5.1. Rewards

Rewards at the university levels are usually marks. Unlike what was given in chapter III, and which represented the self-determination perspective, this analysis tries to show both the merits and the drawbacks of rewards.

In the teachers' questionnaire, it was shown that most teachers use marks to urge and/or force students to participate and get involved. Marks can indeed push students to get more involved in the learning process. However, we think that the self-determination theory is right, to a large extent, when it explains that rewards are a double-edged sword. In spite of the fact that rewards give the impression that they capture students' attention, they, in reality, destroy any

intrinsic interest in studies because the main concern will then be the mark and not learning. In learning and teaching, we think that marks should not be an end. Learning, progress, and enjoyment should be the end.

VI.5.2. Competition

Competition is another aspect that teachers use constantly in their teachings and believe it is very efficient to create motivation and maintain it. It is undeniable that competition in a friendly atmosphere can be a very efficient tool to boost motivation. However, competition is more destructive than constructive. Instead of taking competition as one's warhorse to get students involved, we think that cooperation is the alternative. Again, the self-determination theory is right here.

VI.5.3. Autonomy-Support versus Control.

This particular dichotomy, along with external factors seen above, has been the warhorse of the proponents of the self-determination theory. Is autonomy support a myth or reality? When we read the literature of the proponents of the self-determination theory, we realize that autonomy-support is far from being alien. However, when we look at what is actually happening in classes, the way seems long. Nonetheless, we think that autonomy-support is applicable but within certain limits.

VI.5.3.1. Teachers Unfamiliarity and Lack of Training

It is undeniable that autonomy support is a teaching style that if used adequately will probably yield encouraging results. The main problem, however, lies in teachers; they are neither acquainted with this new concept, nor trained to adopt and apply it.

VI.5.3.2. Limitations of Autonomy-Support

Autonomy-support is yet to be recognized and accepted in the sphere of education. Many people can hardly distinguish between autonomy-support and permissiveness. Although the proponents of the self-determination theory have explained and shown that autonomy-support and permissiveness are utterly different, in actual fact, many people do not really see a big difference between them. For them, they are not clearly cut. (Reeve 2004) above has explained in the reasons why teachers are usually controlling that among the reasons, a) Both parents and students rate controlling teachers as significantly more competent than autonomy-supportive teachers; b) Some teachers deeply and sincerely believe that researchers just don't really understand, as in, "If you tried that (i.e., autonomy support) in my classroom, chaos would break loose (ibid).

The main problem is with the mentalities of people who basically resist innovations especially in the field of education. Many people undervalue teachers who may use autonomy-support since discipline is still very highly considered.

VI.5.3.3. Merits of autonomy support

Although autonomy-support is underestimated by many people in education, it is yet a very important way to capture students' attention by giving them some responsibility. When

proponents of the self-determination theory assert that autonomy-support is not permissiveness but rather the best way to get students involved in all learning and teaching matters, they are not really exaggerating. It is a moral contract that the teacher makes with his students. As he allows his students to feel self-determined (to be able to take part in choice of learning and teaching matters), he may expect from them more involvement in a cooperative atmosphere. In the last chapter, some motivational strategies through an autonomy supportive style will be discussed.

VI.5.4. Intrinsic or Extrinsic Motivation?

While it is unquestionable that intrinsic motivation is the type of motivation that is suspected to lead to more conceptual learning because it is usually associated with pleasure rather than constraints and pressure, extrinsic motivation is yet to be evaluated.

In spite of all the drawbacks (seen above) that are associated with extrinsic motivation, it may be argued that intrinsic motivation is not very easy to enhance and maintain. Besides this, it is not very commonplace, and when it exists, it is usually easily undermined because some external factors are very hard to face. It is true that teachers can restore intrinsic motivation towards studies by means of some motivational strategies but they cannot always control some other factors that are beyond their control. Thus, extrinsic motivation though it is not the alternative, is not all bad after all. In any case, half a loaf is better than no bread. People, who are intrinsically motivated towards studies, painting, etc., are likely to become scholars, painters, writers, brilliant researchers, and so on. However, these represent in society a low percentage.

The same as we need geniuses, we also need more ordinary people who are just motivated extrinsically to engage in several matters driven by external motives which are not necessarily all bad. As most people seem to be extrinsically motivated towards many aspects of life, such a type of motivation should be maintained and reinforced. Those people who are intrinsically motivated should be helped to keep and protect this motivation. This means that some external factors which undermine intrinsic motivation such as rewards, competition, and others should not be widely used; on the contrary, they should be used with care.

VI.6. Conclusion

This part has investigated the different hypotheses by means of some significant correlations.

The correlations that have been made have revealed that students' view about their teachers strongly correlates with their view about studies. In fact, most students who regard their teachers as authoritative (controlling) are dissatisfied with their studies. On the other hand, students' dissatisfaction with their studies and their view that their teachers are being authoritative strongly correlates with students' extrinsic motivation. In addition to this, students' type of motivation also correlates with their individual listening, and students' lack of individual listening correlates with their teachers' lack of encouragements for individual listening too.

Chapter VII

Suggestions and Recommendations

VII.1. Introduction

In this chapter, some useful and relevant suggestions and recommendations are made. On the basis of what has been discussed in both the theoretical aspect and the practical one, this chapter follows to provide some interesting insights that are more directly related to implementation and practice.

Although listening and motivation have been paired up in this research, we think that it is more practical to treat them separately. Consequently, the first part will be devoted to listening strategies, tasks and activities that are useful for teachers of oral expression and for learners in their individual listening after having been helped by their teachers. The second part is devoted to motivational strategies that are liable to help teachers in general. These motivational strategies can help teachers (all teachers) enhance their students' motivation in general and intrinsic motivation, in particular, and maintain and reinforce it.

VII.2. Listening Strategies, Tasks, and Activities

VII.2.1. Return to the importance of listening in L2

Listening has emerged as a major focus for the second and foreign language curriculum. As second and foreign language teachers recognize that development of the skill of speaking does not necessarily promote competence in listening, they increasingly insist on the need to teach listening comprehension for its own sake. Mendelsohn (1994) adds that listening plays a very important role in second-language acquisition, to the point that certain methodologies have been built on this fact. (1994: 9).

In addition to this, of the total time spent on communicating, listening takes up 40-50%; speaking, 25-30%; reading, 11-16%; and writing, about 9%. (Oxford: 205). This means that listening is very important and deserves more interest.

VII.2.2. What teachers of oral expression need to know.

A teacher of listening comprehension needs to keep in mind that his//her students' comprehension involves:

1. Linguistic knowledge. This usually involves phonology-knowledge of the sound system, lexical knowledge, knowledge of syntax, morphology, discourse features such as cohesive markers, different registers, and so on. According to Buck, the linguistic knowledge is

“Only one of the knowledge sources used in language comprehension, but in the case of second-language learners it is usually the one they lack most.” (1994: 117).

2. Knowledge of the context. It concerns what has been said before and the situation in which speech occurs. It is mainly related to the context of situation.
3. General world knowledge or background knowledge. We usually rely a great deal on this knowledge to understand what we hear.

VII.2.3. Some approaches that propose insights about teaching listening comprehension

In this part, some approaches that belong to the communicative era have been chosen. In these approaches, a concise and practical picture about how listening comprehension is taught is given. In chapter I, it was explained that some recent approaches that belong to the communicative era have proposed useful insights; some of them are hereby given.

VII.2.3.1. Task-Based Approach

The main purpose of a task-based approach in listening is to enable students to process listening for functional purposes; to listen and carry out real tasks using the information.

It is no doubt that tasks are very important in developing listening. However, they should be challenging (not too easy and not too difficult according to the self-determination perspective) so as to maintain students' motivation high. When students are motivated, they can carry out different tasks, and thus learn.

One possible task that students can carry out with motivation and interest is to make them listen to an audiotape or a videotape and do something interesting with the information. They may, for instance, be asked to turn the information into a graphic form, or alternatively, use it in the form of a diagram, or fill in a table, etc. The interest of all this is that students are using

their cognitive capacities to understand and turn the information to another form. Listening task activities can be found in textbooks such as Blundell and Stokes “Task Listening” published in 1981. Although the textbook seems a bit old now, there are, however, very interesting listening task activities that are very useful if used adequately.

VII.2.3.2. Strategy-Based Approach

The fact that much focus has been put on the strategy-based approach is based around the belief that strategies represent the building blocks of successful comprehension on the part of learners. So, along with the task-based approach and cooperative learning approach, which have proposed very interesting insights, the strategy-based approach is not only complementary to them but offers a wide range of possibilities and learning capabilities that are rarely given credit.

A strategy-based approach teaches learners how to listen by instructing them in the use of strategies. A strategy-based approach is a methodology that is rooted in strategy-instruction. It is an approach that sees the objective of the SL/FL course as being to teach students how to listen. A strategy-based approach works toward the goal of learner autonomy, because it teaches learners how to learn (individual listening in our case). Learner autonomy is the larger goal of any SL/FL course, and a good strategy-based approach leads directly towards this goal. This learner autonomy is rightly trumpeted by the proponents of the self-determination theory. However, we cannot speak about our teachers’ adoption and application of the basic insights of the task-based approach since they do not urge their learners to be more autonomous characterized by individual listening. Probably, one important behaviour teachers can adopt

and reinforce is teaching their students different strategies and ultimately encourage the students to use those individually.

VII.2.3.2.1. Some Classroom Applications

In teaching listening comprehension through whichever approach or method, determining students' needs is in our eyes crucial. In addition, teachers need to gauge what strategies students use frequently and also inquire about students' learning styles (see chapter III).

Now concerning the type of listening materials teachers may use, there are some criteria of selection. We saw in chapter VI (teachers' questionnaire) that most teachers insist upon naturalness of materials. This is probably one requirement that ought to be generalized so as to expose learners to natural speech through a wide range of topics. However, naturalness of speech is just one aspect; other aspects need to be accounted for in order to teach listening comprehension adequately.

Among the aspects that need to be emphasized and which constitute the backbone of a strategy-based approach is that the material should activate specific strategy use.

VII.2.3.2.1.1. Some Steps for the Preparation of a Strategy-Based Approach:

1. The teacher needs to analyze what strategies the students already have available to them and decide what other strategies would be useful to them.
2. The teacher must work out ways to teach these strategies
3. The teacher must devise ways to help students identify the problems that they are having. This can be done, for instance, through "think-aloud protocols", discussions with the students, and carefully devised questionnaires (if time allows)

4. The teacher needs to find ways to link the new information to prior knowledge. This can be done through pre-listening activities of various kinds. For example, discussing with students on a related topic so as to activate the appropriate schema.
5. The teacher needs to devise activities which use new strategies. This will allow students to experience new strategies for different purposes.

Mendelsohn (1995: 141-142) suggests a model for units in a strategy-based listening course.

He believes that each unit should include some of the following:

1. Awareness and consciousness-raising. Teachers, in general, need to be aware of the importance and power of strategy-instruction. Students too, need to be aware of this importance. This, for instance, can be achieved by means of explaining to them how different strategies are needed with different listening materials.
2. Pre-listening activities. These, of course, may take various forms, but the most important thing is to activate the students' existing knowledge of the topic in order to link this to what they comprehend, and to use this as a basis of their hypothesis formation, prediction, and inferencing.
3. Focusing the listening. Before students are made to listen to a particular listening material, teachers need to explain to them what exactly they will be listening for and why. They may, for instance, listen for certain details, the central idea, one particular fact, etc. (this has been mentioned by some teachers in the questionnaire)
4. Guided activities. These activities would be specifically designed to give students practice in using the different strategies they have been taught. This is basically the essence of this strategy-based approach to listening and is, probably, the solution to the "sink and swim approach" (to let students manage on their own without strategy-instruction) which is usually the common practice in teaching L2 listening.

5. Practice with real data. As we have explained above in the teachers' questionnaire, a listening course must contain a great deal of listening practice. This is confirmed by Mendelsohn who suggests that in a listening course, learners need a lot of exposure to real listening.(ibid)

6. Doing something with what has been comprehended. According to advocates of the strategy-based approach, the listening should be followed by some application of what has been comprehended. We believe that this is not necessarily obligatory to have some application all the time. In individual listening (at home), students do not necessarily need to do something with what they have comprehended. If they know which strategy (ies) can be used, this is quite enough.

7. A listening course should include training in hypothesis formation, prediction, and inference. Good listeners do a lot of predicting and inferencing.

a. Predicting means guessing the whole based on a part; in other words, based on partial comprehension or on having only heard a part of the whole passage. While listening to something, competent listeners make calculated guesses as to what will come next. This usually takes the form of a hypothesis (a prediction) that they formulate, which they then either validate as the discourse develops, or modify as they learn that their hypothesis was inaccurate.

b. Inferencing is defined by Willing:

“Inferencing is discovering a solution by deriving it from what is already known. In making an inference, in principle all the required information is present, but the solution is temporarily hidden. Inferencing operates by bringing together different parts of the known, as well as present experience, to find what they yield when merged.” (1987: 285-286)

Learners can improve their predicting and inferencing skills if they are trained in the use of effective strategies.

VII.2.3.2.1.2. Strategies to Determine Setting, Interpersonal Relationships, Mood, and Topic.

According to Mendelsohn (1995: 81) there are six key questions that should be asked that will facilitate comprehension: where, when, who, how, what, and why. These six questions provide essential information to listeners in the following areas:

1. Where and When something is taking place relate to the setting.
2. Who the speakers are relates to the interpersonal relationship between the speakers.
3. How, i.e., the tone in which things are being said, relates to the mood or atmosphere.
4. What is being talked about and why, i.e., the circumstances surrounding what is being said, relate to the topic.

This part attempts to suggest strategies that assist students in determining setting, interpersonal relationships, mood, and topic.

VII.2.3.2.1.3. Paralinguistic Features

These include body language, gesture, facial expression, pausing, speed of speech, loudness and softness, conscious variation in voice quality, and more. G. Brown defines them as features which contribute to the expression of attitude by a speaker. (1990: 112).

These paralinguistic features are very important in speech. We said above in chapter III that video has a big advantage over audio because such paralinguistic features are there to help learners in their comprehension of many aspects such as mood, setting, etc.

VII.2.3.2.1.4. Setting

We have explained above in the students' questionnaire that students in general are at a loss whenever they have to use the appropriate strategy or strategies to understand the listening material. Students tend to use the same strategies whatever the listening material. One efficient way to overcome the obstacle of not comprehending all what is being said is setting. For Mendelsohn, the fact of knowing the setting suggests what the topic might be. (Ibid: 84)

VII.2.3.2.1.4.1. Strategies to Determine Setting

One possible strategy to determine setting is to develop activities in which there is only background noise and no words or only visuals with or without background noise, but no words, for example by showing a video with the sound turned off. Students are after that asked to say what they think is going on, and to explain how they arrived at their hypothesis. This could be followed by a discussion in which students are asked to suggest other signals that would be useful.

VII.2.3.2.1.5. Interpersonal Relationships

Interpersonal relationships involve the relationship between the speakers. This means that students need to know what level of formality exists between them, and how they feel toward one another. When listeners are aware of such things, they are greatly helped in their comprehension.

VII.2.3.2.1.5.1. Strategies to Determine Interpersonal Relationships

One possible activity that can be used here is to expose students to sets of similar utterances, the only difference between them being the interpersonal relationship, and students are asked to determine the relationship between the speakers.

Another possible way is to have students listen to pairs of dialogues, and to be told what the interpersonal relationships are, and then to ask them what they notice about the grammar. The more complete is the grammar, the more formal is the relationship.

VII.2.3.2.1.6. Mood and Atmosphere

The mood or atmosphere might be one of joking, arguing, showing anger, sharing a secret, emotional closeness, etc. Mood and atmosphere can be determined by concentrating on paralinguistic signals and the linguistic signal of intonation.

VII.2.3.2.1.6.1. Paralinguistic Signals

The paralinguistic signals that give clues as to mood include such things as body language and gesture, facial expression, voice quality, variation in the speed of speech, variation in pitch range, and loudness and softness of voice.

VII.2.3.2.1.6.2. The Linguistic Signal of Intonation

We have seen in chapter 3 how intonation is a very powerful meaning-carrier in English. Examples of the power of intonation are the way meaning changes when the same utterance is said with a different pitch. For instance, the utterance “you are smart today” may mean that the person addressed is really smart or that it is completely the opposite, said for example with sarcasm.

VII.2.3.2.1.6.3. Strategies to Determine Mood and Atmosphere

Much can be learned about mood and atmosphere from watching videos or discs with the sound turned off. Students can be trained to watch for different visible features such as anger, happiness, sadness, etc. audible features too can be listened for.

Students can listen to tapes in which the same words are repeated with different voice quality, and predict what will follow.

VII.2.3.2.1.7. Topic

Knowing the topic is important for predicting, inferencing, and hypothesis formation. If listeners are able to understand few key words, they will probably be able to work out what the topic is, and from that, they will be able to guess the entire meaning.

VII.2.3.2.1.7.1. Strategies to Determine Topic

Students are given a couple of words and then asked what they know about the topic, and what they think they are going to hear. The problem lies in cultural differences that may constitute an obstacle. Topics that are loaded with alien cultures are not highly recommended. Otherwise, the teacher needs to explain all those cultural differences and their significance.

The following is an example of a chart that students could be asked to fill in proposed by Mendelsohn (ibid: 94):

SETTING

Where is this happening?.....

How did you decide?.....

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

What is the relationship between the speakers?.....

How did you decide?.....

MOOD

What is the mood?.....

How did you decide?.....

TOPIC

What are they talking about?.....

How did you decide?.....

VII.2.3.2.1.8. Strategies for Hypothesis Formation, Predicting, and Inferencing

Hypothesis formation and hypothesis modification is at the root of both predicting and inferencing.

VII.2.3.2.1.8.1. Strategies and Activities for Predicting and Inferencing

VII.2.3.2.1.8.1.1. Pre-Listening in the Form of a Group Discussion

One possible activity to reinforce predicting and inferencing is to do some pre-listening in the form of a group discussion. After the discussion and the predicting students begin to listen to a passage; however, halfway through the passage, the tape is stopped and the students hold a discussion as to what they think will be contained in the rest of the passage.

VII.2.3.2.1.8.1.2. An Utterance Completion Activity

This consists of encouraging students to guess. Students, for example, listen to half utterances and are asked to complete them.

VII.2.3.2.1.9. Listening to Different Things in Different Ways

We have said above, in the students' questionnaire, that there are transactional texts and interactional ones. Usually people do not listen to them in the same way. Besides this, students in the questionnaire considered interactional texts more difficult to understand but that they are at a loss as to the appropriate strategies that ought to be used with each. We think that this is mainly due to the fact that teachers expect their students to listen in the same way and to use the same strategies. In addition to all this, we usually listen for a particular reason or purpose. We may listen for one crucial detail, for all the details, for relaxation and pleasure, for the gist,

for mood and atmosphere, for interactional purposes.

VII.2.4. The Integrated Approach

Teachers nowadays rarely use only one approach to teach listening because our knowledge about listening as a skill has developed significantly. Besides this, textbooks now offer a variety of exercises to develop the listening skill. Such exercises not only focus on the more traditional features of listening (e.g., listening for gist and listening for details), but they also help the students develop critical listening skills (e.g., after listening to a discussion about natural catastrophes, the students give their opinion on the issue).

Flowerdew and Miller (2005) make a critique of the textbook written by S. Rixon, published in 1987. Though the textbook seems a bit old now, they believe that it is valuable as it was written during the dynamic period of the communicative era which witnessed an unprecedented flow of textbooks in listening, drawing on the fresh ideas and findings of researchers. The textbook in question is entitled “Listening”: Upper-intermediate is a textbook specially prepared for developing comprehension in class. In this book, an integrated approach to developing listening skills is adopted. Each unit is based on a series of pre-listening and follow-up activities. Among the learning goals related to listening:

To develop listening as part of interactive communication: to develop critical listening, critical thinking, and effective speaking. Flowerdew and Miller refer to Activity 7 in the textbook which in their eyes reflects well the integrated approach.

Activity7: A Series of Activities Illustrating the Integrated Approach.

4.1. Pre-listening: Look at a picture and tick boxes to show how you feel about a topic; predict

some things you will hear about the topic; have a small debate on the topic; read a text about the topic.

4.2. Listening: Listen for the main ideas (complete a chart); listen for detail (fill in missing words); listen for pronunciation.

4.3. Follow-up: Express personal opinions; listen and complete detailed notes of exact words; look at the transcript and listen and read. (2005: 18).

Comment:

The activities in the pre-listening stage in Activity 7 activate the listeners' prior knowledge about the topic and prepare them for listening. In most of the main listening activities, students are asked to check their answers with a partner, ensuring that the lesson becomes less teacher-centred and in the hope that students will help each other by exchanging listening strategies (cooperative learning). Many of the follow up exercises direct the students back to the recording and ask them to consolidate their comprehension of the text. In this way, students need not feel that they will hear the text only once and need to remember everything.

Textbook writers using this approach to listening integrate listening, which is the main focus of the lesson, with reading, speaking, and writing activities. The approach is also integrated in that a variety of listening approaches are used: a discrete- item based approach when listening for sounds of words; a grammar-based approach when completing cloze sentences or paragraphs; a task-based approach when all the exercises build on one another around a similar topic; and a strategy -based approach when asking students to think about how they listen and to make hints about how they listen.

VII.3. Strategies that Enhance Motivation

VII.3.1. Return to Autonomy-Support versus Control

We have explained in chapter VII that autonomy-support is important but that it is misunderstood and often confused with permissiveness.

VII.3.1.1. The Main Criteria and Advantages of an Autonomy-Supportive Teaching Practice

1. Allow more learner involvement in the learning process.

Probably the key issue in increasing learner involvement is to share responsibility with the learners about their learning process. They need to feel that they are, at least partly, in control of what is happening to them. This can be achieved by different ways:

- 1a. Allow learners choices about as many aspects of the learning process as possible, for example, about activities, teaching materials, topics, assignment, or the peers they want to work with. In the listening session, teaching materials, topic, and activities can be discussed with students. As we consider choice as being the essence of responsibility, it must be, however, gradual, starting, for instance, with given options from a menu or list which students are invited to choose from, then they are allowed to make modifications, and changes, till they arrive at finally selecting goals and procedures completely on their own.
- 1b. When appropriate, allow learners to use self-assessment procedures (meta-cognitive strategies). This will raise students' awareness about the mistakes and successes of their own learning, and gives them a concrete sense of participation in the learning process.

2. Change in the Teacher's Role.

The increase of learner autonomy is partly dependent on a less traditional teaching style. A more autonomy-supportive style is somehow a facilitating style. The teacher as facilitator does not actually teach in the traditional sense- that is, does not consider the students empty vessels that need to be filled with words of wisdom coming entirely from the teacher and the course-book- but views himself/herself as a helper and instructional designer who leads learners to discover and create their own meanings about the world.

VII.3.2. Cooperative Language Learning

As it was explained in chapter I, Cooperative Language Learning is an approach that attempts to make maximum use of cooperative activities involving pairs and small groups of learners in the classroom. This particular approach is aimed for all teachers. Although the number of students in a group is growing more and more and teachers' tasks are getting harder and harder, we think that cooperative language learning and teaching is still possible in some modules.

The proponents of the self-determination theory have focused on students' autonomy and competence. They warned against some destructive teaching styles and learning habits, such as the promotion of competition and the wide use of some external incentives to motivate their students (grades, and some constraints, etc.). Cooperative Language Learning is, in our opinion, one possible way to create healthy learning conditions that can enhance students' motivation.

However, we are not recommending cooperative learning where students work in

small groups and where each student is responsible for the results and achievement of the group. Cooperative learning should not exert a pressure on learners; the learning atmosphere should be relaxed. The way how the proponents of this approach have conceived of the role of learners and teachers is really demanding. According to the proponents of the self-determination theory, cooperation is the opposite of competition. So, cooperation is where learners learn in an atmosphere devoid of competition, rivalry, adversity, and frustration.

VII.3.3. Providing Good Conditions to Enhance Motivation

The following three motivational conditions are in our eyes indispensable:

1. Appropriate teacher behaviours and a good relationship with the students
2. A pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere
3. A cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms

VII.3.4. Teacher Style

Among the qualities a teacher needs to have are enthusiasm, commitment to and expectations to students' learning, and relationship with students.

VII.3.4.1. Enthusiasm

Csikszentmihalyi (1997) in a thought-provoking article asked questions about who had been our most influential teachers and who had made a difference in our life. His answer was the most enthusiastic ones. The ones who love their subject matter and who show by their dedication and their passion that there is nothing else on earth they would rather be doing.

Csikszentmihalyi (1997) adds:

“Young people are more intelligent than adults generally give them credit for. They can usually discern, for instance, whether an adult they know likes or dislikes what he or she is doing. If a teacher does not believe in his job, does not enjoy the learning he is trying to transmit, the student will sense this and derive the entirely rational conclusion that the particular subject matter is not worth mastering for its own sake.” (1997: 77).

Many scholars share Csikszentmihalyi’s belief that enthusiasm for one’s specialization area and the ability to make this enthusiasm public rather than hiding it is one of the most important ingredients of motivationally successful teaching.

VII.3.4.2. Teacher’s Endorsement of Students Learning

Broadly speaking, showing commitment towards the students’ learning and progress means that there is good chance that students will do the same. There are many ways of expressing that the students’ learning matters to the teacher. Dornyei proposes the following:

“Offering concrete assistance
Offering to meet students individually to explain things
Responding immediately when help is requested
Correcting tests and papers promptly
Sending learners’ copies of relevant/particularly interesting articles
Arranging extra curricular instructional programmes/opportunities
Encouraging extra assignments and offering to assist with those
Showing concern when things aren’t going well
Allow students to call you at home when they have a problem
Being available for overtime.” (2002: 34)

Of course, not all these ways can be applied easily. The main obstacle may be cultural, certain attitudes and behaviours are not necessarily advantageous. This is no medical prescription and teachers can just take some insights from the list above.

If students perceive that the teacher doesn’t really care, their motivation is surely undermined.

In addition to this, teachers need to plant in students eagerness. For example, Brophy (1998) argues in connection with eagerness that teachers should take it for granted that their students are very eager. He writes:

“To the extent that you treat students as if they already are eager learners, they are more likely to become eager learners. Let them know that they are expected to be curious.” (1998: 170)

VII.3.4.3. Teacher Expectations

If teachers believe that their students can reach high levels of achievement, there is good chance that they will too. However, if teachers have low expectations about how much their students can cope with, these latter will probably ‘live down’ to these expectations. This is what is often called the ‘Pygmalion effect’.

Teachers who share warm, personal interactions with their students, who respond to their concerns in an emphatic manner and who succeed in establishing relationships of mutual trust and respect with the learners, are more likely to inspire them in academic matters than those who have no personal ties with the learners. However, all this is highly culture-sensitive.

According to Raffini

“Building trust in a classroom is a slow process and results from many small incidents in which the teacher has responded honestly and dependably. It is easy to trust “trustable” students, but it is the “untrustable” students who need systematic trust building experiences.... While some students may occasionally abuse their trust, they need repeated opportunities to learn and practice this character trait.” (1993: 145-146).

All this shows that if a teacher endorses this autonomy-supporting attitude, he/she will certainly need much patience and perseverance. Developing a personal relationship with the students and achieving their respect is easier said than done. It is a gradual process built on a foundation whose components include:

- a. Acceptance of the students
- b. Ability to listen and pay attention to them
- c. Availability for personal contact

VII.3.5. Advantages of the motivational strategies

Among the advantages that are linked with all the teaching styles and qualities stated above:

1. Enhancement of intrinsic motivation. When students come with intrinsic dispositions towards their studies, such motivational strategies will no doubt reinforce their intrinsic interest in their studies.
2. Restoration of intrinsic motivation. Students who are motivated intrinsically and who are nearly losing it (because of all the external factors referred to above), may see their intrinsic motivation revitalized and restored if they take advantage of, at least, some of the motivational strategies discussed above.
3. Enhancement of extrinsic motivation. Although intrinsic motivation is the type of motivation that leads to better conceptual learning, extrinsic motivation is also important to safeguard. An extrinsically motivated student, though supposedly less talented and less creative, is nevertheless perfectible. As a consequence, his extrinsic motivation, if it cannot be turned to intrinsic, needs to be maintained.
4. Amotivation can be overcome. This is a bit of a challenge. Nowadays, it is a hard task to face amotivation. However, we think that the motivational strategies and the positive teaching styles referred to above can overcome the state of “learned helplessness” as amotivation is often referred to by some psychologists. Such motivational strategies can cater for this established fact that students nowadays are less and less motivated towards their studies.

VII.4. Conclusion

This chapter has made some useful and significant suggestions and recommendations that are directly related to both classroom and individual use and has been divided to two parts. Part one has focused on listening comprehension, and particularly, the strategies that are usually used with different listening materials. It is mainly directed towards teachers of oral expression and students in general. Part two has emphasized motivational strategies that teachers of all modules can take some interesting insights from. This part mainly discusses some autonomy supporting attitudes and behaviours that can restore motivation, in general, and intrinsic motivation, in particular.

General Conclusion

This research has attempted to investigate listening comprehension and motivation. It has emphasized on the links that may exist between these two aspects by means of some useful and significant correlations. The results and percentages of the students' and teachers' questionnaires have revealed that, basically, some aspects of listening and motivation can be paired up. The hypotheses put forward in this research have proved to be, more or less, defensible. Indeed, it has been proved that students' dissatisfaction with studies at the university can be paired up with their view about their teachers' styles. Students' type of motivation has also been found to correlate with their individual effort to listen individually. At last, students' undervaluing of listening correlates with their teachers' lack of encouragement for individual listening.

However, some limitations have been identified:

1. If the research were to be repeated with enough time, some tests about students' understanding or lack of understanding would be made. Though the administration of listening tests is far from being easy to make and evaluate, they would have reinforced the arguments put forward in this research.
2. A longitudinal work could have stepped side by side with the issues being investigated.
3. A measurement of motivation like psychologists do would have given more accurate results.

Alongside with these limitations, this research has set the ground for the investigation of some interesting insights and issues. All this has allowed us to grasp the fact that research is

limitless and that the same issue can be treated differently and from several different angles. As research is limitless, and on the basis of all the aspects that have been investigated in the present research, future investigations will attempt to deepen certain issues and investigate others. Among the issues that could have been investigated by the present research:

1. Teachers' pedagogical training and teachers' teaching experience as indicators of teachers' competence and teaching styles and their influence on students' motivation. This issue seems to be interesting to investigate too. In fact, if teachers' styles (as has been shown in the present research) do play an important role in the enhancement or undermining of students' motivation, teachers' pedagogical training and experience are, no doubt, important issues to investigate.
2. Students' past education and its impact on students' level and type of motivation. The present research has shown that about half of the students have a scientific Baccalaureate. Unfortunately, this track has not been investigated in this research. This issue could explain several unanswered questions in the present research.
3. The effect of learning conditions on students' and teachers' motivation. This issue looks very important and very tempting to tackle. As the learning and teaching conditions are getting harder and harder, the investigation of such an issue could have reinforced the hypotheses put forward in the present research. Besides, new orientations and horizons that are related to motivation, individual listening, and so on. could have allowed us to tackle the issue more deeply.
4. A longitudinal research on the effects of individual listening on students' level, perceived competence and motivation. This, of course, requires observation and experimental groups. It could answer many unanswered questions.

Besides this, some aspects that have either voluntarily or not been overlooked in this investigation will constitute the motivations for future investigations, when the tools, instruments and methodology for their investigation are available.

This being said, the purpose of the present research is not really to measure motivation with accuracy and to test students' understanding of spoken English. It is more a qualitative analysis of the situation of listening comprehension and motivation. On the basis of our personal knowledge and profile, this is probably best approached by means of questionnaires. A questionnaire, though sometimes less accurate than other forms of data analysis, is, nevertheless, the best form to gather in a short time as much information as possible on several different issues.

Bibliography

Abé, D., Carton, F. Cembalo, M. and Régent, O. (1985), "Using Authentic Documents for Pedagogical Purposes" in *Discourse and Learning, Applied Linguistics and Language Learning*, Longman Group Limited, New York, New York.

Alexander, L.G. (1967), *New Concepts in English*, Longman, London.

Amabile, T.M. (1983), *The Social Psychology of Creativity*, New York,: Springer-Verlag.

Amabile, T.M., W. DEJong, and M.R. Lepper, (1976). Effects of Externally Imposed Deadlines on Subsequent Intrinsic Motivation, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 34, 92-98.

Anderson, A. (1988), *Listening*, O.U.P., Oxford.

Antony, E.M. (1963), "Approach, Method and Technique", *ELT*, 17, pp 63-67.

Arkes,H.R., and J.P. Garske (1977), *Psychological Theories of Motivation*, Monterrey, C.A: Brooks/Cole.

Asher, J. (1969), "The total physical response: Approach to second language learning", *Modern Language Journal*, 53, pp 3-17.

Biggs, J.B. (1987), *Student Approaches to Learning and Studying*, Hawthorn, Victoria: Australian Council for Educational Research.

Blundel, L., and J. Stokes (1981), *Task Listening*, Cambridge University Press.

Bowen, J.D. (1972), "Contextualizing pronunciation practice in the ESOL classroom."

TESOL Quarterly, 6, March: 83-94.

Bowler, B., and S. Cunningham (1991), *Headway Pronunciation: Upper Intermediate*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Brett, P. (1991), a Comparative Study of the Effects of the Use of Multimedia on Listening Comprehension, *System* 25, 1, 39-53.

Brophy, J. (1998), *Motivating Students to Learn*, New York: McGraw-Hill.

Brown, R. (1973), *a First Language*, Cambridge, Harvard University Press.

Brown, G. (1977), *Listening to Spoken English*, First Edition, London: Longman.

----- (1987), "Twenty Five Years of Teaching Listening Comprehension, *English Teaching Forum*, 25, 4, 11-25.

----- (1990), *Listening to Spoken English*, Second Edition, London: Longman.

Brown, G., and G. and Yule (1983), *Teaching the Spoken Language*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Bruner, J.S. (1962), *On Knowing: Essays for the left hand*, Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.

Buck, G. (2001), *Assessing Listening*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Byrnes, H. (1984), "The Role of Listening Comprehension: A Theoretical Base", *Foreign Language Annals*, 17, 4, 7-11.

Callamand, M., Firmin, F. and S. Lieutaud (1974), *Méthodes Actives en Langues Etrangères*

sur Documents, Paris, Bele, Minev.

Carroll, J.B. (1966a), The Contributions of Psychological Theory and Educational Research to the Teaching of Foreign Languages, in A. Valdman (ed.), *Trends in Language Teaching*, New York, McGraw-Hill, 93-106.

Carver, D. (1984), "Plans, Learner Strategies and Self Direction in Language Learning", *System*, 12, 2, 123-131.

Chamot, A.U. (1987), "The Learning Strategies of ESL Students", IN Wenden and Rubin, eds., 71-83.

----- (1995), Learning strategies and listening comprehension, in D.J. Mendelsohn and J. Rubin, *A Guide to the Teaching of Second-Language Listening*, Dominie Press Inc, San Diego, California.

Chiang, C.S., and P. Dunkel, "The Effects of Speech Modification, Prior knowledge and Listening Proficiency on EFL Lecture Learning." *TESOL Quarterly*, 26, 2, 345-374.

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1997), Intrinsic Motivation and Effective Teaching: A Flow Analysis, In J.L. Bess (Ed.) *Teaching Well and Liking it: Motivating Faculty to Teach Effectively*, Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 72-89.

Cunningham, S., and B. Bowler (1990), *Headway: Intermediate Pronunciation*, Oxford, Oxford University Press.

Davies, P., J. Roberts, and R. Rossner. (1975), *Situational Lesson Plans*, Mexico City, Macmillan.

- deCharms, R. (1968), *Personal Causation*, New York: Academic Press.
- Deci, E.L. (1980), *The Psychology of Self-Determination*, Lexington, Mass: D.C. Health (Lexington Books).
- Deci, E.L. , H. Eghrari, B.C. Patrick, and D.R. Leone (1995), Facilitating Internalization: The self-determination theory perspective, *Journal of Personality*, 62, 119-142.
- Deci, E.L., and W.F. Cascio (1972), Changes in Intrinsic Motivation as a Function of Negative Feedback and Threats, *Paper Presented at the Meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association*, Boston.
- Deci, E.L., and R.M. Ryan (1985), *Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behaviour*, New York: Plenum.
- (1991), A motivational approach to self: Integration in personality, In R. Dienstbier (Ed.), *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation: Perspectives on motivation* (Vol. 38, 237-288), Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.
- (2002), *Handbook of self-determination*, Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.
- Deci, E.L., R.J. Vallerand, L.G. Pelletier, and R.M. Ryan (1991), Motivation in Education: The Self-Determination Perspective, *The Educational Psychologist*, 26, 325-346.
- Dornyei, Z. (2001), *Teaching and Researching Motivation*, Harlow, England: Prentice Hall.
- (2002), *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*, Cambridge University Press.

Edge, J. (1997), *Essentials of English Language Teaching*, Longman Keys to Language Teaching, Longman Group Uk Limited, Burntmill, Harlow.

Fenouillet, F. (2003), *Motivation, Mémoire et Pédagogie*, Paris, l'Harmattan.

Fish, H. (1981), "Graded Activities and Authentic Materials for Listening Comprehension", *Teaching Listening Comprehension*, The British Council, London.

Field, J. (1998), Skills and Strategies: Towards a new methodology for listening, *ELT Journal*, 52, 2, 110-118.

Flowerdew, J., and L. Miller. (2005), *Second Language Listening, Theory and Practice*, Cambridge, CUP.

French, F.G. (1950), *The Teaching of English Abroad*, Oxford, OUP.

Frisby, A.W. (1957), *Teaching English, Notes and comments on Teaching English Overseas*, London, Longman.

Holec, H. (1985), "On Autonomy: Some Elementary Concepts", In Riley, ed., 173-190.

Howatt, A.P.R. (1984), *A History of English Language Teaching*, Oxford, OUP.

Johnson, D., R. Johnson, and E. Holubec. (1994), *Cooperative Learning in the Classroom*, Alexandria, Va, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Keefe, J.W. (1979), "Learning Style: An Overview", In Keefe, ed., 1-17.

Kellerman, S. (1992), "Survey Review- Recent Materials for the Teaching of Listening", *ELT Journal*, Vol 46/1, O.U.P., Oxford, 100-112.

Krahnke, K. (1987), *Approaches to Syllabus Design for Foreign Language Teaching*, New York, Prentice Hall.

Krashen, S., and T. Terrell. (1983), *The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom*, Oxford, Pergamon.

Kumaravadevilu, B. (1991), Language learning tasks: Teacher intention and learner interpretation, *ELT Journal*, 45, 2, 98-107.

La Forge, P.G. (1983), *Counseling and Culture in Second Language Acquisition*, Oxford, Pergamon.

Lange, D. A Blueprint for a Teacher Development Program, In J.C. Richards and D. Nunan (eds.), *Second Language Teacher Education* (1990), New York, Cambridge University Press, 245-268.

Lee, W. Y-C. (1995), Authenticity Revisited: Text Authenticity and Learner Authenticity, *ELT Journal*, 49, 4, 323-8

Lepper, M.R., D. Green, Green, and R.E. Nisbett. (1973), Undermining children's intrinsic interest with extrinsic rewards: A test of the "over-justification" hypothesis, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 28, 129-137.

Lewis, M. (2000), Learning in the Lexical Approach, In M. Lewis (ed.), *Teaching Collocation: Further Developments in the Lexical Approach*, London, Language Teaching Publications, 10-2

Little, D. (1991), *Learner Autonomy I: Definitions, Issues, and Problems*, Dublin: Authentik.

Littlewood, W. (1981), *Communicative Language Teaching*, Cambridge, Cambridge

University Press.

Lonergan, J. (1984), *Video in Language Teaching*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lowenstein, G. (1994), The psychology of curiosity: A review and reinterpretation, *Psychological Bulletin*, 116, 75-98.

Lund, R. (1990), "A Taxonomy for Teaching Second Language Listening", *Foreign Language Annals*, 23, 105-115.

Lynch, T., and D. Mendelsohn (2002), *Listening: An Introduction to Applied Linguistics*, edited by N. Schmitt.

Maslow, A. (1954), *Motivation and Personality*, New York: Harper.

Manderlink, G., and J.M. Harackiewicz (1984), Proximal and distal goal setting and intrinsic motivation, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 47, 918-928.

MC Gregor, G. (1986), "Listening outside the Participation Framework" in G. McGregor and R.S. White (eds), *The Art of Listening*, Croom Helm, London.

Mendelsohn, D. (1984), "There ARE Strategies for Listening", *TEAL Occasional Papers*, 8, 63-76.

------(1994), *Learning to Listen, A Strategy-based approach for the second language learner*, San Diego, Dominic Press.

Mendelsohn, D., and J. Rubin (1995), *A Guide to the Teaching of Second Language Listening*, San Diego, CA: Dominic Press.

------(1965), *Spontaneous activity in education*, New York: Schocken.

Morley, J. (1995), Academic listening comprehension instruction: Models, principles, and practice. In D. Mendelsohn and J. Rubin (eds.), *A guide for the teaching of second-language listening*, San Diego: Dominie Press.

Moser, C.A., and G. Kalton (1971), *Survey Methods in Social Investigation*, Heineman Educational Books Limited, London.

Moskovitz, G. (1978), *Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Class*, Rowley, Mass, Newbury House.

Mucchielli, R. (1975), *Le Questionnaire dans l'Enquete Psycho-Sociale: Connaissance du Problème*, (fifth edition), Entreprise Moderne d'Édition, Paris.

Neill, A.S. Summerhill. (1962), *A Radical Approach to Child Rearing*, New York: Hart.

Nunan, D. (1989), *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom*, New York, Cambridge University Press.

Olsen, R., and S. Kagan. (1992), About Cooperative Learning, In C. Kessler (ed.), *Cooperative Language Learning: A Teacher's Resource Book*, New York, Prentice Hall, 1-30.

O'Malley, J.M. (1987) "The Effects of Training in the Use of Learning Strategies on Acquiring English as a Second Language", In Wenden and Rubin, eds., 133-144.

O'Neil, R. (1973), *Kernel Lessons Plus*, Longman, London.

Oxford, R.L. (1990), *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know*,

Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle.

Palmer, H.E. (1940), *The Teaching of Oral English*, London, Longman.

Pattison, B. (1964), Modern Methods of Language Teaching, *English Language Teaching*, 19(1), 2-6.

Peterson, P.W. (1991), "A Synthesis of Models for Interactive Listening", In Celce-Murcia, ed., 106-122.

Pintrich, P.R., and D.H. Schunk (2002), *Motivation in Education: Theory, research, and applications* (2nd ed.), Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Pitman, G. (1963), *Teaching Structural English*, Brisbane, Jacaranda.

Pittman, S., and A.K. Boggiano (1992), Psychological perspective on motivation and achievement in A.K. Boggiano and T. Pittman, *Achievement and Motivation: A Social Developmental Perspective*, C.U.P.

Pittman, T.S., J. Emery, and A. Boggiano (1982), Intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations: Reward-induced changes in preference for complexity, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 789-797.

Plant, R., and R.M. Ryan(1985), Self-consciousness, self-awareness, ego-involvement, and intrinsic motivation: A investigation of internally controlling styles, *Journal of personality*, 53, 435-449.

Raffini, J.P. (1993), *Winners without Losers: Structures and Strategies for Increasing Student Motivation to Learn*, Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

- Reeve, J. (1998), Autonomy support as interpersonal motivating style: Is it teachable? *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 23, 312-330.
- (2002), Self-determination theory applied to educational settings. In E.L Deci and R.M. Ryan's (Eds.), *Handbook of self-determination theory*, 183-203, Rochester, NY: University of Rochester.
- Reid, J. (1987), "The Learning Style Preferences of ESL Students", *TESOL Quarterly*, 21, 87-112.
- Richards, J.C. (1983), "Listening Comprehension: Approach, Design, Procedure", *TESOL Quarterly*, 17, 2, 219-240.
- Richards, J.C., and T.S. Rodgers (2001), *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*, Second Edition, Cambridge Language Teaching Library.
- Rigg, P. (1991), Whole Language, *Tesol Quarterly* 25(3), 521-542.
- Rivers, W.M. (1964), *The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher*, Chicago, University of Chicago Press.
- Rixon, S. (1987), *Listening: Upper-Intermediate*, Oxford: Oxford University Press
- (1989), *Developing Listening Skills in a Foreign Language*, ELTS, The British Council, London.
- Rost, M. (1990), *Listening in Language Learning*, London: Longman.
- (1994), *Introducing Listening*, London, Penguin English Applied Linguistics.

Rubin, J. (1995), *The Contribution of Video to the Development of Listening Comprehension* in D.J. Mendelsohn and J. Rubin *A Guide for the Teaching of Second Language Listening*, Dominic Press, Inc, San Diego, California.

Rumelhart, D.E. (1980), "Schemata: The Building Blocks of Cognition." In Spiro, Bruce, and Brewer, eds., 33-38.

Schank, R.C., and R. Abelson (1977), *Scripts, Plans, Goals and Understanding*, Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Scheidecker, D., and W. Freeman (1999), *Bringing out the Best in Students: How Legendary Teachers Motivate Kids*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Skehan, P. (1996b), *Second Language Acquisition and Task-Based Instruction*, In J. Willis and D. Willis (eds.), *Challenge and Change in Language Teaching*, Oxford, Heineman, 17-30.

Stephen, I., and W.B. Michael. (1981), *Handbook in Research and Evaluation*, 2nd ed., Edits Publishers, San Diego, Ca.

Stern, H.H. (1983), *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*, Oxford: Oxford Univeristy Press.

Stevick, E.W. (1980), *Teaching Languages: A Way and ways*, Rowley, Mass, Newbury House.

Tannen, D. (1982), "The Myth of Orality and Literacy." In Frawley, ed., 37-50.

Thorndike, E.L. (1913), *Educational Psychology: Vol 2. The Psychology of Learning*, New York: Teachers College Press.

Tolman, E.C., and C.H. Honzik, (1930), Introduction and removal of reward, and maze performance in rats, *University of California Publications in Psychology*, 4, 257-275.

Ur, P. (1984), *Teaching Listening Comprehension*, C.U.P., Cambridge.

----- (1994), *Teaching Listening Comprehension*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

Vallerand, R.J. (1997), Toward a hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 29, 271-360.

Vallerand, R.J., and R. Bissonette (1992), Intrinsic, extrinsic and amotivational styles as predictors of behavior: A prospective study, *Journal of Personality*, 60, 599-620.

Vallerand, R.J., and E.A. Thill, (1993), *Introduction à la psychologie de la motivation*, Québec, Vigot.

Vallerand, R.J., and Ratelle (2002), Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation: *A Hierarchical Model*, *Handbook of Self-Determination Research*, the University of Rochester Press.

Vandergrift, L. (1997), The Comprehension Strategies of Second Language (French) Listeners: A Descriptive Study, *Foreign Language Annals* 30, 3, 387-409.

Warchauer, M., and D. Healey (1998), Computers and Language Learning: An Overview, *Language Teaching* 31, 57-71.

Wenden, A. (1987), "Incorporating Learner Training in the Classroom", in Wenden and Rubin, eds., *Learning Strategies in Language Learning*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 159-168.

Weiner, B. (1992), *Human Motivation: Metaphors, Theories and Research*, Newbury Park,

CA: Sage.

White, R.W. (1959), Motivation reconsidered, *Psychological Review*, 66, 297-333.

White, G. (1996), *Listening*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Whitney, N.F. (1994), "Second Language Pedagogy" in the Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics: Listening, Vol. 7, Edited by R.E. Asher, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 3757-61.

Widdowson, H.G. (1980), 'The authenticity of language data' in H.G. Widdowson *Explorations in Applied Linguistics*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

----- (1983), *Learning Purpose and Learning Use*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Witkin, H., C. Moore, D. Goodenough, and P. Cox (1977), Field-dependent and field-independent cognitive styles and their educational implications. *Review of Educational Research*, 47, 1-64.

Willing, K. (1987), Learning Strategies as Information Management", *Prospect* 2,3

----- (1988a), *Learning Styles in Adult Migrant Education*, Australia: National Curriculum Resource Centre: Adult Migrant Education Program.

----- (1988b), Learning Strategies as Information Management: Some Definitions for a Theory of Learning Strategies." *Prospect* 3, 2, 139-156.

Young, D.J. (1999), *Affect in foreign language and second Language Learning*, Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

APPENDICES

Appendix I

The Pilot Study of the Students' Questionnaire

Good morning,

This questionnaire is for the sake of a research. Read the questions carefully and then answer the questions. There are no good or bad answers; the best answer is the one that corresponds to your opinion.

This questionnaire is anonymous, so you don't need to write your name. It is also confidential, so nobody will see your answers.

Thank you very much.

Part I: General information.

Question1. Age.....

Question2. Sex M F

Question3. Type of "Baccalaureat".....

(You can say it in French).

Question4. Did you choose personally to study English at the university?

Yes..... No.....

If not, who took part in the decision?

.....

Question5. Why did you choose to study English at the university?

- d. Future career
- e. You like English very much
- f. Travel and leisure
- g. English is an International language
- h. Other,

Question6. What is your father's job?.....
.....

Question7. What is your mother's job?.....
.....

(If necessary, say it in French).

Question8. How do you find studies at the university?

- a. Very interesting
- b. Interesting
- c. A bit interesting
- d. Not interesting
- e. Explain why?

Question9. How do you find the teaching programs?

- a. Very interesting
- b. Interesting
- c. A bit interesting
- d. Not interesting
- e. Explain why?

Question10. How do you find your teachers in general?

- a. Authoritative
- b. Not authoritative

How?

Question11. In your free time, what do you usually do?

.....

Part II: Listening.

Question1. When you are watching television, what channels do you usually watch? Why?

.....
.....

Question2. Classify the four language skills according to their importance for your studies: writing, speaking, listening, and reading. Give 1 to what you consider as the most important skill, 2 to the second most important skill, 3 to the third most important skill, and 4 to the fourth most important skill.

Writing..... Speaking.....Listening.....Writing.....

Question3. When you are watching a channel in English, say what you do exactly to understand.

- a. Listen selectively: concentrate on what you consider important to understand and neglect the rest.
- b. Concentrate on the general idea.
- c. Concentrate on all words.
- d. Write down words and/or expressions you do not know the meaning of and check them in the dictionary afterwards.
- e. Other, please specify.....

Question4. When you are watching a channel in English, state approximately how much do you think you understand?

- a. Approximately 25 or less.....
- b. Approximately between 25 and 50.....
- c. Approximately between 50 and 75.....
- d. More than 75.....

Question5. If your answer is 'a' or 'b', State what are the reasons?

- a. Speed of delivery (rapid speech)
- b. Pronunciation(not very clear)
- c. Difficult words
- d. Other, please specify.....

(You can choose more than one answer at a time)

Question 6. If your answer to question 4 is c or d, say what the reasons are?

- a. It is because you listen to English quite often
- b. You pay particular attention to pronunciation
- c. You can anticipate (you know the subject matter and you can guess what is coming).

Main Study of the Students' Questionnaire

Good morning

This questionnaire is used for the purpose of a research. It is completely anonymous. Though you are invited to write your names and your group number, it remains confidential between the researcher and the student. There are no good answers and bad ones. The best answers are those that correspond to your personal opinion.

Thank you very much indeed.

Part 1: General information

Question1: How old are you?.....

Question2: Sex Female..... Male.....

Question3: What type of “Baccalaureat”?.....

.....

You can say it in French

Question4: How many brothers and sisters do you have at home?.....

.....

Question5: How many rooms do you have at home?.....

Question6: How many TV sets do you have at home?

Question7: How many digital satellite receivers do you have at home? (Démos numériques).

.....

Part 2: Learning, teaching and motivation.

Question1: Did you choose personally to study English at the university?

Yes.....

No.....

If your answer is no, say briefly who else participated in the choice

.....
.....

Question2: Why did you choose to study English at the university? You circle the option corresponding to your choice.

- a) Future career
- b) You like English very much
- c) Other, please specify.....
.....

Question3: Are you satisfied with your studies at the university?

Yes

No

Why?.....
.....

Question4: Are you satisfied with the programmes of the modules that you are taught?

Yes

No

Why?.....
.....

Question5: How do you find your teachers? Are they: Circle the option that corresponds to your choice.

- a) Authoritative (not allowing free communication and co-operative learning)?
- b) Not authoritative (allowing co-operative learning and freedom of expression about programme, content, etc.)?

Explain

how?.....
.....

Question6: Classify the four language skills on the basis of what you consider the most important for your studies. Give 4 to the skill that you consider the most important, 3 to the skill that you consider the second most important, 2 to the skill that you consider the third most important, and 1 to the skill that you consider the fourth most important.

Speaking

reading

listening

writing

Part 3: Listening, listening strategies and listening materials

Question1: How many days in a week and hours in a day do you watch a channel in English?

Average number of days in a week	
Average number of hours in a day	

Question 2: When you are watching a channel in English, how much do you think you understand when the listening material is transactional? (Transactional means that what you are listening to contains important information to know).

- a) About 25% or less
- b) About 50%
- c) About 75% or more

Question 3: Question 2: When you are watching a channel in English, how much do you think you understand when the listening material is interactional? (Interactional means that what you are listening to does not contain important information to know but people are just talking about everyday life like friends do).

- d) About 25% or less
- e) About 50%
- f) About 75% or more

Question 4: If your comprehension is approximately 25%, what is it mainly due to?

- a) A high frequency of unfamiliar words
- b) Your command of English is still limited
- c) Difficult pronunciation
- d) Speed of delivery (rapid speech)
- e) Topic and different culture
- f) Other, please specify.....
.....

(P. S. You can choose more than one option at a time)

Question 5: If your answer is 75%, is it due to

- a) You listen to English very often
- b) You pay particular attention to pronunciation
- c) You think you have a good level in English
- d) You usually have background knowledge about topic and culture
- e) Other, please specify.....

Question 6: Do you prefer a listening material that is natural?

Yes

No

Why?.....
.....

Question 7: Do you prefer a listening material that is simplified so that a foreign learner can understand?

Yes

No

Why?.....
.....

Question 8: Which variety of English do you prefer?

British English

American English

Question9: What variety of English do you understand better?

British English

American English

Question10: Do you listen to English in the same way as you listen to Arabic?

Yes

No

Question 12: When you are listening to English on television or other media, do you:

- a. concentrate on details
- b. Concentrate on the general idea

Some significant students' answers to some open-ended questions

I. Question 3, part 2: Are you satisfied with your studies at the university?

In the analysis of the students' questionnaire, it was shown above (c.f. page 206) that 35 students said that they were satisfied and 62 were unsatisfied. Some of them answered the question why?

Out of the 97 students who represent the population of this research, 50 answered the question why. Among those 50 students, 21 were satisfied with their studies and 29 were unsatisfied. Now let's give all those students' answers to the question why:

a. Students who said they were satisfied with their studies:

1. "The university is beautiful".
2. "I like English very much".
3. "Some teachers are nice".
4. "The modules are interesting".
5. "The studies will help me to find a job".
6. "Yes I am satisfied because I like English".
7. "To study English is a dream".
8. "I like teachers".
9. "I like the university".
10. "I like the programmes".
11. "I am obliged to like it because I choosed it".
12. "English is the best".
13. "I like teachers".
14. "It is like this".
15. "I like English".

16. "The lectures".
17. "I like phonetics and linguistic".
18. "We have good lectures".
19. "We have no problems".
20. "No problems".
21. "Good lessons".

b. Students who said that they were unsatisfied with their studies:

1. "The conditions are bad".
2. "The university is full of people".
3. "The programmes".
4. "Teachers".
5. "Some teachers are hard".
6. "Teachers are difficult".
7. "The classrooms are full".
8. "Teachers are new".
9. "Some teachers".
10. "Teachers and some modules".
11. "I wait for better".
12. "I considered the university better".
13. "Some teachers are difficult".
14. "Many problems and teachers".
15. "Many many problems".
16. "A lot of problems and teachers also".

17. "Some teachers and the programmes".
18. "Some teachers create problems".
19. "Some teachers are "vacataires".
20. "Teachers are not competent".
21. "The conditions and the teachers".
22. ""Not interesting".
23. "Teachers hard".
24. "Some teachers not competent".
25. "Young teachers".
26. "The conditions".
27. "Last year it was bad".
28. "It is boring and conditions bad".
29. "Teachers severe".

II. Question 5, part 2: How do you find your teachers.....

According to the results (c.f. page 209), 65 students considered their teachers authoritative (controlling) and 32 considered them non-authoritative (autonomy-supportive). Out of all these, only 55 answered the question how. Out of these 55 students, 37 were found to have chosen option 'a', i.e., they consider their teachers authoritative and 18 Option 'b'. Let's see both types of students' answers to the question how. Let's start first with those who considered their teachers authoritative:

1. "They do let us discuss".
2. "They are severe".
3. "They want silence".

4. "They are difficult".
5. "They do not explain".
6. "Some teachers are very severe and do not like questions".
7. "Some teachers refuse discussions".
8. "Some teachers have no level and ask us to be good."
9. "Some teachers dictate and that's al."
10. "Dictation and no comment."
11. "They do not explain and refuse questions".
12. "I like teachers but some are difficult."
13. "I do not like some teachers of some modules."
14. "Why are teachers severe?"
15. "They do not let us talk."
16. "Some do not explain and refuse questions."
17. "They dictate and we do not understand."
18. "They are hard."
19. "They are nervous."
20. "Not all teachers but, they some are severe."
21. "Some insult us."
22. "They do not let us discuss."
23. "Some teachers only."
24. "Their level is not good."
25. "Dictate."
26. "They correct us a lot."
27. "I don't know."

28. "Their level."
29. "They are severe."
30. "They don't explain well."
31. "They use books and dictate."
32. "Some teachers are hard."
33. "They do not let us participate."
34. "What we do is difficult."
35. "Some teachers are hard."
36. "They impose everything."
37. "Hard."

Now let's the rest of the students who did not consider teachers controlling:

1. "Most of them are nice."
2. "Some of them only are hard."
3. "They are quite good."
4. "They do not punish us."
5. "They are not very hard."
6. "They do not ask us many questions."
7. "They do not punish students who do not do home-works."
8. "Some are kind."
9. "They should be more severe."
10. "I don't know."
11. "Is it important?"
12. "Some are hard."

13. "I like severe teachers who work us."
14. "They are not very severe."
15. "I prefer severe teachers."
16. "Some of them are competent and kind."
17. "I do not care."
18. "Not very severe."

The Teachers' Questionnaire

This questionnaire is part of my Doctoral Research. I hereby invite my fellow teachers to complete it for the sake of research. Thank you in advance for giving me some of your precious time and energy.

Thank you very much indeed.

Part1. Teaching approaches and methods

1. Which modules have you been teaching in the last three years?

.....

2. Which teaching methods are you acquainted with? Which do you prefer?

.....

.....

.....

3. What do you do exactly in your teaching session? Explain briefly the main steps.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Part2. Listening

1. Does the department possess the appropriate equipments to teach listening comprehension adequately? Explain briefly.

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

2. In your oral expression module, how do you divide time between oral expression and listening comprehension? Explain why you proceed like that.

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

3. Which aspects do you consider important in listening that students need to know?

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

4. In listening to English, which aspects do you consider difficult? Is it

a. Pronunciation

b. Vocabulary

c. Speed of delivery

d. Cultural aspects

e. Other, please specify.....

.....

5. In your listening comprehension session, state briefly what you do exactly.

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

6. Do you prefer to use American English or British English?

Why?.....
.....
.....
.....

7. Which activities do you usually give students? What is the purpose of these activities?

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

Part3. Learning strategies/styles and teaching strategies.

1. Before choosing a listening material to be used in the lab or in the multimedia room,
What are the criteria of selection? Is it:

- a. The topic (interesting)
- b. The listening material (authentic)
- c. The listening material (simplified)
- d. The variety of English (British English or American English)
- e. Other.....
.....

2. Once you have chosen a listening material, what makes you think it would be better exploited
in some way rather than in another?

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

3. Do you think that your students have different learning styles?

Yes

No

4. If it is no, does it mean that they all learn in the same way?

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

5. If it is yes, should teachers get documented on the subject, or can they on impulse notice them and adjust their teaching accordingly?

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

6. What listening strategies do you favour? Why?

- a. Ask students to take notes of what they listen to in view of asking them questions orally afterwards
- b. Push them to look for some significant details in the listening material
- c. Just ask them to concentrate on the gist

7. On the basis of the tasks you assign your students, what strategies do you want them to use? Why?

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

Part. 4. Motivation

1. How far do you think motivation is important in learning?

.....
.....

2. What are in your opinion the factors that undermine motivation?

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

3. What are in your opinion the factors that enhance motivation?

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

4. Do you consider motivation a fixed trait that is unchangeable, or do you think it is changeable and therefore teachable? Why?

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

5. Some psychologists and educationalists categorize motivation as intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic means doing something with pleasure away from pressure; extrinsic means doing something to attain something good or to avoid something unpleasant. Do you agree with this categorization? How?

.....
.....

6. Globally, how would you rate your students? Are they:

- a. Motivated intrinsically
- b. Motivated extrinsically
- c. Unmotivated
- d. Further comments.

.....
.....

7. Is the learning environment:

- a. Motivating
- b. Demotivating

Please, explain how:

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

Part.5. Teaching styles

1. To what extent do you think that students' motivation and achievement are dependent on their teachers' teaching styles? (teachers' attitude in the classroom)

.....
.....

2. Does good teaching involve:

- a. To strike a balance between giving students some autonomy and urging them to work.
- b. To address students with the imperative (you should, you must, etc.) so as to catch their attention and appeal to their concentration
- c. To reward those who work and punish those who do not work
- d. Other.....

.....

3. Controlling and severe teachers are rated as more competent and more serious than autonomy supportive ones. Do you agree with this view?

Yes

No

Explain how?

4. Do you prefer to have:

- a. Students being quiet and following peacefully

- b. Students being given the opportunity to express themselves on the programme and the teaching method
- c. Students are not in a position to be questioned on the programme and the teaching method
- d. If students are given some freedom, they take advantage of this to create disorder and to not work
- e. Other.....

5. Do you:

- a. Talk a lot
- b. Talk and listen to students
- c. Engage in a debate with students
- d. Other.....

6. When you give your students an assignment, do you:

- a. Give students time to work in their own way
- b. Let them work and interfere
- c. Give them a limited time
- d. Control what they are doing so as to interfere

7. When some student shows that he/she is doing well, do you:

- d. Praise the quality of his/her performance
- e. Encourage others to do the same
- f. Reprimand others for not doing the same

i. Other, specify please.

8: When students answer a question, do you:

- a. Evaluate it
- b. Ignore it because it is usually not up to the standards that you have in mind
- c. Other, please specify.....

9: How do you see competition in the classroom? Is it:

- a. Constructive
- b. Destructive
- c. Other,
.....
.....

10: In your oral expression module, do you insist on participation?

Yes

No

If yes, do you grade it? How?

.....
.....

If no, how do you deal with students who rarely participate?

.....
.....

If yes, how do you manage to catch your students' interest and involvement?

.....
.....
11: When you question students on a preceding subject, do you:

- i. Reward good answers by mark
- j. Punish bad answers by mark
- k. Give it little importance

12: When you notice that your students are rather disengaged, do you:

- a. Force them to wake up
- b. Completely change the atmosphere by introducing an anecdote, a joke, etc.

13. When you want to urge your students to work, do you:

- a. Give them advice
- b. Force them
- c. Threaten them
- d. Ask them to express themselves on the matter
- e. Other.....

14. In your teaching, do you:

- a. Enjoy some freedom to teach according to what you think is right for students
- b. Respect the programme
- c. Other, please
specify.....

Some teachers' answers to some significant open-ended questions

In the following, some of teachers' free answers to some significant questions (mainly questions that are directly or indirectly related to the hypotheses) and some other meaningful issues are hereby given. All in all, there five significant open questions. Out of these, three questions concern all teachers who represent the population of this research (25 teachers) and two questions concern teachers of oral expression only (10 teachers).

I. Question 2, part1: What teaching methods and approaches are you acquainted with?

Teachers' answers are as follows:

1. "I have no teaching method in mind (probably, the eclectic method). The best method is yet to prove useful with all sorts of students in all sorts of situations."
2. "The best method is the eclectic method- one that provides learners with different ways of teaching in different situations."
3. "I think that the task-based and eclectic methods are so far the best."
4. "The 'teacher method' is so far the best method. It so depends on the type of students one has in his/her class. It's not that easy to really and frankly decide upon a strait-jacket method, isn't it?"
5. "There is no one specific teaching method I am familiar with. I assume that my teaching is eclectic: I use a combination of different methods that could be communicative and interactive, structural, task-based; more students/learners centred ways of teaching. I have no preference of any particular method of teaching; I prefer the one that students derive some learning benefits from."

6. "My approach is rather eclectic in the sense that every aspect of the course will require one particular method."
7. "Learner-centred methodology which focuses on learners' commitment."
8. "The eclectic method is the best."
9. "Many methods, but the eclectic one is so far the best as it takes the advantages and avoids the drawbacks of the other methods."
10. "The strategy-based approach is very good in listening."
11. "There are many but the eclectic method is very interesting."
12. "I am not acquainted with any method in particular. I think a method that joins them all."
13. "I know the advantages of the eclectic method and I try to use it in my teaching."
14. "There are several teaching methods and approaches but no one, in my opinion, is able to solve all teaching problems. Thus, an eclectic method is the alternative."
15. "I am not an experienced teacher and I think that the best method is one that meets the requirements of the teaching situation. The eclectic method is possibly this."
16. "No method or approach on earth can revolve all learning problems."
17. "The best method is one that covers all aspects; it is the eclectic method."
18. "The eclectic method along with the communicative approach."
19. "Is there a good method at all? The eclectic, possibly."
20. "I know the grammar translation, the audio-lingual, and the eclectic."
21. "I personally use my own method which is inspired from different types of methods and approaches."
22. "The eclectic method is perfect."
23. "There is the eclectic way of teaching which provides students with a wide range of possibilities."

24. "There is no such method that can answer all learning and teaching questions."
25. "A learner-centred method is the objective to achieve."

II. Question 2, part 2: In your oral expression module, how do you divide time between oral expression and listening comprehension?.....

This question concerns the 10 teachers of oral expression only. Their answers are given below:

1. "This depends on the level of the students. It is fifty-fifty for advanced students, and more listening for less advanced ones. The belief behind this approach is that listening is more important in early stages."
2. "It depends on whether we can have the multimedia room or not. I usually concentrate on oral expression more because listening requires machines in good order."
3. "As a session lasts only 90 minutes, every session is devoted either to listening comprehension or to oral expression."
4. "All depends on where to teach oral expression either in the lab or a classroom. In a lab, I focus more on listening comprehension tasks however in an ordinary classroom listening and oral expression are integrated. Here I give more opportunities to my students to express their ideas and use English. I devote more time to oral expression."
5. "We already have 1h and 30 minutes for each! It's not enough anyway."
6. "It all depends on time and making students speak is the objective."
7. "In the lab or multimedia room, I make students listen to a material and the rest of the time is devoted to activities that reinforce speaking and oral fluency."

8. "After all, speaking is really the end of the oral expression module. Hence, listening sessions should take place once a three week time."
9. "In the classroom, it is speaking (reports, discussions, etc.). However, in the lab, it is rather listening to different types of listening materials and speaking."
10. "It all depends on students' level and the aim of the course. It should be oral expression and a little bit listening comprehension."

III. Question 7, part 3: On the basis of the tasks you assign your students what strategies do you want them to use. Why?

This question again concerns teachers of oral expression only (10 teachers). Their answers are given below:

1. "Honestly, I expect students to use different types of strategies. My preference is for communicative strategies that help learners to grasp the most important point in the listening material and more specific strategies that call for other abilities."
2. "As students have different learning styles, I tend to use standard communicative tasks and cater for the range of styles. To put it simply, I devise both tasks that aim at developing the students' general understanding of the input and those that foster the students' ability to make sense of small details that relate to one another to gradually make the students grasp the whole of the input dealt with. I do so because I know that there are different types of learners, global learners and analytic learners, among others."
3. "Before talking about the tasks and strategies students may be asked to use, I think we should first talk about the inadequacies of the teaching environment (rooms, labs, textbooks, tapes, etc.). These are a big impediment."

4. “Those researchers who propose tasks and strategies should come here some and see the realities that we are working in.”
5. “Anticipation is the most important strategy; on the basis of background knowledge every listener predicts what comes next; every step of understanding helps the students to go ahead in the next tasks and hence becomes a permanent challenge.”
6. “Although the working conditions are awful and students’ current level is basically disgraceful, we think that it is still possible to use certain tasks in order to teach students certain strategies.”
7. “I have no pre-conceived strategies in my mind, frankly speaking, when I start teaching.”
8. “a. Concentrate
b. Pay attention to minute details
c. Learn and know.”
9. “Teachers should first be aware of the fact that students have different styles of learning; they should be informed about all these styles and then they should attempt to adapt or make their teaching in line with the students’ ways and preferences of learning.”
10. “Every listening material requires certain strategies and not others. In my case, I use the strategies that I consider efficient for learners.”

IV. Question2, part 4: What are in your opinion the factors that undermine motivation?

Some teachers’ answers:

1. “The learning environment is for sure the most important factor.”
2. “The teaching and learning environment and the students’ attitude.”
3. “There are many factors. Among them: Students’ attitude towards studies, bad learning conditions, overcrowded classes, etc.”

4. "In oral expression, the topic being discussed may be the source of boredom and may undermine motivation. Teachers have to choose interesting topics."
5. "Too many. A good timetable, good teaching atmosphere, equipment, and most of all small groups (up to 20, not more)."
6. "The learning context including the material used and the quality of teaching, the wrong conception of studies in the mind of learners."
7. "A motivating environment motivates and a demotivating environment demotivates. If the environment is demotivating, motivation runs away. There is also the relationship between teachers and students."
8. "If the conditions are bad, students will be anxious and do not learn correctly."
9. "It is many things at the same time. Teachers, students, the environment, the conditions, etc."
10. "Motivation is undermined if the topic chosen may be boring, i.e., going around a situation that is altogether not able to help students use their abilities to use their speaking competence."
11. "In any case, there are no ideal conditions. However, in our department, the conditions are not good. All this is demotivating."
12. "Some teachers are probably responsible for their students' demotivation. Teachers should be fair with their students, in marks, in participation, in everything."
13. "The factors are countless. Anyhow, we can override those factors and keep motivation."
14. "Threatening, over dominating teachers. Injustice of opportunities for learners to express themselves."
15. "Well, the factors could be anxiety, attitude, and the teaching learning conditions."
16. "Our working conditions are not motivating us. The students' level is also demotivating."

17. "Among the factors that really undermine both students' and teachers' motivation are the working and the learning conditions. When the conditions are not very encouraging like here, it is inevitable that teachers and students become demotivated."
18. "What really affect students' motivation are the learning conditions, the over-crowded classrooms, the inconvenient timetable, and the programmes."
19. "Probably conditions, some teachers and programmes."
20. "What researchers say about factors that undermine motivation does not take into account our awful realities."
21. "Bad learning conditions, incompetent teachers, and students themselves."
22. "Much has been written on motivation, but the main problem remains with the conditions."
23. "The whole educational policy is wrong."
24. "Teachers are suffering from many working problems. All this affect their students."
25. "Teachers are sometimes responsible for this situation by being unable to satisfy students' curiosity."

V. Question 3, part 4: What are in your opinion the factors that enhance motivation?

1. "The teacher's attitude, good social learning environment, (the classroom setting...), the aim of learning: professional reasons, purely intrinsic individual learning reasons."
2. "Good learning conditions, a good timetable, nice teachers, and most importantly justice."
3. "As I am a teacher of oral expression, I think that diversity and variety of activities, topics and strategies will raise motivation."
4. "In oral expression, to avoid boredom and to work in good conditions will guarantee motivation."
5. "Very good working conditions, small groups, and competent teachers."

6. "Diversity of input and activities, freedom of opinions, equal opportunities for learners whatever their levels of proficiency."
7. "To enhance motivation: the teacher's choice of an adequate topic is rather important. Hence, students might feel boosted and so captivated by the topic."
8. "Keep small groups; a suggestopedic environment (nice rooms, nice equipments, and the like)."
9. "Teachers play a crucial role in their students' motivation. Their attitude in class is very important."
10. "If students aren't motivated intrinsically towards their studies, it will be hard for teachers to force them."
11. "Many factors can enhance motivation. First, the working conditions; second, students' positive attitude towards their studies; third, teachers' pedagogical capabilities."
12. "I think that a sound learning environment, good teaching, small groups, relax atmosphere, lots of books, etc."
13. "There are many many causes. Among what I personally consider as crucial are the learning conditions, the teacher's role, the programmes, the modules, among others."
14. "Provide suitable learning conditions, competent teachers, motivated students, and motivation will be maintained and enhanced."
15. "Students are the source of motivation or lack of motivation. It is up to them to be so. Teachers are just there to accompany them."
16. "This issue deserves to be rather treated globally. It also depends on learners; some are motivated by certain factors; others are motivated by other factors."
17. "Some teachers should do better in order to meet their students' expectations."
18. "Being fair with students; being severe when they exaggerate; Being authoritative."

19. "Creating an atmosphere of competition and rivalry. As such, students are prompted to work harder and harder."
20. "I think that the learning conditions are probably beyond our reach; however, our attitude is at our reach. We should be careful about students."
21. "When teachers do not care much about their students, these latter lose hope."
22. "The learning conditions, if improved, will enhance motivation."
23. "The working conditions (rooms, small groups, books, teachers, etc.)."
24. "The situation is getting so hard that I can hardly see a way through."
25. "With these working conditions, the most brilliant teachers will raise the white flag."

المخلص :

تعالج رسالة الدكتوراه هذه الرابط الموجود بين السمع و التحفيز بالنسبة لطلبة دائرة الانجليزية جامعة منتوري قسنطينة.

تنقسم هذه الرسالة إلى قسمين رئيسيين : قسم نظري و قسم تطبيقي .

أما القسم النظري فيبحث السمع و التحفيز .

أما القسم التطبيقي فيناقش ثلاث فرضيات استمارتين واحدة للطلبة و أخرى للأساتذة و تدور الفرضيات حول المواضيع التالية:

- 1 -عدم رضي الطلبة عن دراستهم يكون ناتجا عن طريقة تدريس أساتذتهم.
- 2 -نذرة سماع الطلبة للإنجليزية خارج دروسهم قد يكون ناتج نوعية تحفيزهم .
- 3 -مادام الأساتذة لا يحفزون طلبتهم كثيرا على الاستماع إلى الانجليزية خارج دروسهم و هذا قد يؤدي بالطلبة إلى التقليل من قيمة السمع و التعليم .

و على ضوء النتائج و التحاليل التي توصلنا إليها و التي دعمت الفرضيات فيمكننا القول أن الفرضيات ليست خيالية.

Résumé

Cette thèse étudie le lien qui existe entre la motivation et l'écoute. Pour arriver à cela, certaines corrélations ont été discutées et analysées. Le travail est divisé en deux parties complémentaires, une partie théorique et une partie pratique.

En ce qui concerne la partie théorique, elle discute les méthodes et approches d'enseignement ainsi que l'importance donnée à l'écoute dans ces méthodes et approches, étudie l'écoute, définit la motivation et la catégorise en intrinsèque et extrinsèque.

Pour ce qui est de la partie pratique, elle se base sur deux questionnaires, l'un pour les étudiants et l'autre pour les enseignants. Le dépouillement et l'analyse des questionnaires ont permis de discuter les trois hypothèses :

- a. L'insatisfaction des étudiants de leurs études à l'université pourrait, en partie, provenir du style d'enseignement de leurs enseignants.
- b. Il apparaît que le manque d'écoute individuelle des étudiants en Anglais pourrait être lié à leur type de motivation.
- c. Comme les enseignants n'encouragent pas assez leurs étudiants à écouter individuellement en Anglais, cela pourrait les amener à sous-estimer l'importance de l'écoute.

Bien que d'autres causes et facteurs pouvaient influencer l'apprentissage et l'enseignement, il a été constaté que les résultats corroboraient solidement les hypothèses.

المخلص :

تعالج رسالة الدكتوراه هذه الرابط الموجود بين السمع و التحفيز بالنسبة لطلبة دائرة الانجليزية جامعة منتوري قسنطينة.

تنقسم هذه الرسالة إلى قسمين رئيسيين : قسم نظري و قسم تطبيقي .

أما القسم النظري فيبحث السمع و التحفيز .

أما القسم التطبيقي فيناقش ثلاث فرضيات استمارتين واحدة للطلبة و أخرى للأساتذة و تدور الفرضيات حول المواضيع التالية:

- 1- عدم رضي الطلبة عن دراستهم يكون ناتجا عن طريقة تدريس أساتذتهم.
- 2- نذرة سماع الطلبة للإنجليزية خارج دروسهم قد يكون ناتج نوعية تحفيزهم .
- 3- مادام الأساتذة لا يحفزون طلبتهم كثيرا على الاستماع إلى الانجليزية خارج دروسهم و هذا قد يؤدي بالطلبة إلى التقليل من قيمة السمع و التعليم .

و على ضوء النتائج و التحاليل التي توصلنا إليها و التي دعمت الفرضيات فيمكننا القول أن الفرضيات ليست خيالية.

Résumé

Cette thèse étudie le lien qui existe entre la motivation et l'écoute. Pour arriver à cela, certaines corrélations ont été discutées et analysées. Le travail est divisé en deux parties complémentaires, une partie théorique et une partie pratique.

En ce qui concerne la partie théorique, elle discute les méthodes et approches d'enseignement ainsi que l'importance donnée à l'écoute dans ces méthodes et approches, étudie l'écoute, définit la motivation et la catégorise en intrinsèque et extrinsèque.

Pour ce qui est de la partie pratique, elle se base sur deux questionnaires, l'un pour les étudiants et l'autre pour les enseignants. Le dépouillement et l'analyse des questionnaires ont permis de discuter les trois hypothèses :

- a. L'insatisfaction des étudiants de leurs études à l'université pourrait, en partie, provenir du style d'enseignement de leurs enseignants.
- b. Il apparaît que le manque d'écoute individuelle des étudiants en Anglais pourrait être lié à leur type de motivation.
- c. Comme les enseignants n'encouragent pas assez leurs étudiants à écouter individuellement en Anglais, cela pourrait les amener à sous-estimer l'importance de l'écoute.

Bien que d'autres causes et facteurs pouvaient influencer l'apprentissage et l'enseignement, il a été constaté que les résultats corroboraient solidement les hypothèses.