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Title:

**READING MOTIVATION IN STUDENTS OF ENGLISH AS A
FOREIGN LANGUAGE**

Case of Second Year Students at the Teachers' Training School of Constantine

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement for a Magister Degree in

READING AND WRITING CONVERGENCES

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ABSTRACT

The present dissertation aims at investigating reading motivation in second year students of English as a foreign language at the Teachers' Training School of Constantine (ENS). We hypothesise that these students' reading motivation would have the feature of multidimensionality. In order to investigate this feature, we first conduct a pilot study that consists of a questionnaire to determine the settings and conditions of reading as well as reading habits of a population similar to the participants in the main investigation. For the main study, we administer a questionnaire of 30 statements to a total number of seventy-one participants in second year students of English as a foreign language at the ENS of Constantine at the end of the academic year 2005-2006. The results from analysing the questionnaire reveal that the students participating to the study display eight dimensions of reading motivation, which means that motivation to read in English as a foreign language in students of English in the second year at the ENS of Constantine is a multifaceted construct.

To my Father and Mother

To my Brothers and Sister

To all my Friends

To Mrs. Mezdad, the teacher who has been my model all these years

To my teachers and colleagues at the University and at the Teachers' Training

School of Constantine

To all those who encouraged me, supported me, and prayed for me

To those who contributed in the elaboration of this modest work

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CET:	Cognitive Evaluation Theory
ENS:	Ecole Normale Supérieure
FL:	Foreign Language
L1:	First Language
L2:	Second Language
MRQ:	Motivation for Reading Questionnaire
N-Ach:	Need for Achievement
NICHD:	National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (USA)
NIFL:	National Institute for Literacy (USA)
OIT:	Organismic Integration Theory
SDT:	Self-Determination Theory

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INTRODUCTION

1. Background of the Study

I had the chance to study at both the University of Constantine for my Bachelors of Arts in English, and at the Teachers' Training School in Letters and Humanities of Constantine (ENS) for a degree for teaching English as a Foreign Language at Secondary School.

Studying at these two seemingly different academic institutions allowed me to have many experiences on the academic level. The difference in courses provided to students in both institutions could only help me develop my language skills and my thinking and critical abilities as well. The most enjoyable aspects of my studies at the University of Constantine were the new perspectives I had about English because the various courses helped deepen my knowledge of the language, and acquire basic skills in it. On the other hand, at the Teachers' Training School of Constantine, I liked the courses that were given. These gave me another opportunity to perfect the language skills already gained at University.

One of the interesting courses once at the ENS of Constantine was Reading Techniques. When discovering that course, I immediately thought that it was something I did not have at the University, and that it would make me explore new aspects of the language. The idea I had about the course was that it would provide techniques and strategies to help learners become firstly good readers, and ultimately good teachers of English. However, the techniques and strategies were repeated over and over again to the extent of losing concentration during the course. Because of this, I spent the entire second year completely away from participating to the activities, I realised later that the lack of interest and participation resulted in losing skills to deal with reading passages and activities. After thinking for some time about the probable reasons behind such disinterest, and observing my

classmates' behaviour during the course, I discovered that I was not motivated to read anymore. At that moment, I decided that if it happened to me to teach reading, I would try to establish a motivating environment for reading; then, the idea of including reading motivation in the reading techniques course came to me.

Back to the University of Constantine, the launching of a postgraduate study in Reading and Writing Convergences by the Department of English was the opportunity I waited for quite long to bring about some change in the teaching of reading. As I started teaching reading techniques at the ENS by the same time, and extending my knowledge about reading and psycho-pedagogy –which always attracted me- during the theoretical year, I thought it would be a great opportunity for me to address my research to the fields of reading and motivation, and I ended in writing this paper about Reading Motivation in Students of English as a Foreign Language at the Teachers' Training School in Letters and Humanities of Constantine, concentrating on second year students.

2. Aim of the Study

Reading is very important in learning a foreign language as it is one of the basic language skills. This importance should be extremely highlighted in the case of students of English as a foreign language at the ENS. The reason is that these students are not only going to learn the language, but they are also going to teach it to younger learners who would need it to improve their language proficiency.

The basic aim in the present study is to provide sufficient scientific ground for improving the teaching of reading in English at the ENS of Constantine by investigating the area of reading motivation. The research will try to determine whether second year students of English as a foreign language at the Teachers' Training School of Constantine are motivated

to read in English. In other words, this research is a descriptive study of students' reading motivation in English as a foreign language. In addition to that, we will discuss the different aspects of reading motivation present in these learners. At the end of the study, we expect to reach a comprehensive view of the learners' reading motivation in English as a foreign language.

3. Statement of the Problem

Teaching reading in any language has been dealt with from different perspectives. Most researchers believe that effective reading is synonymous of strategic reading; that is to say, in order to be effective readers, learners of a language should display a readiness to use adequate strategies to achieve successful comprehension as it is considered the final outcome of reading. Despite this focus on teaching readers strategies to deal with reading materials and the success they have realised, researchers admit that there still remain some weaknesses in reaching the effectiveness they seek.

Like any other human learning endeavour, reading has an affective dimension that has rarely been investigated until recently. Some studies have started to consider reading with the idea that the reading process and outcomes may be influenced by factors related to readers' feelings, beliefs and other internal features. One of the domains investigated is motivation, which leads to the emergence of the reading motivation concept.

Some theorists have worked on the role of reading in learning a foreign language, while others have investigated the role of motivation in the same domain, but rarely has research been conducted on reading motivation in second/foreign language, especially in Algeria. Similarly, some studies have addressed reading motivation to improve readers' achievement

(for example, Guthrie & Wigfield, 1997; Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997; Baker & Wigfield, 1999), but only in first language contexts.

This state of affairs pleaded for the need to study reading motivation in second/foreign language settings because reading in the target language is an integral part of learning the foreign language as it is in learning one's first language. Another reason lies in the fact that reading motivation research would help in understanding and solving the problems that teachers and learners face in teaching and learning to read in a foreign language.

4. Research Question and Hypothesis

The purpose of the study subsumes basically one research question:

1. Is reading motivation in second year students of English as a foreign language at the ENS of Constantine as multifaceted as reading motivation in first language described by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997)?

It would appear that motivation for reading in second year students of English as a foreign language at the ENS of Constantine would show the same feature of multidimensionality as described by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997).

5. Definition of Terms

We are identifying in this part the key terms and concepts that would be recurrent throughout the dissertation in order to give a broad view of their meaning and use in the present research.

Reading

There are many definitions of reading depending on the stand point from which we look at it. However, the definition provided by Baudoin et al. (1994) gives, in our opinion, a more comprehensive description. They define reading as follows:

Reading is a complex activity that involves both word recognition, the process of perceiving how written symbols correspond to one's spoken language; and comprehension, the process of making sense of words, sentences and connected paragraphs (Baudoin et al., 1994, p.i).

Reading Comprehension

The definition of reading comprehension that seems more relevant to our concern about reading motivation is that of Snow (2002). She defines reading comprehension as “simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language” (p.11).

The present definition of reading comprehension has been chosen as it relates to reading motivation through the expression “involvement with written language” (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2005).

Reading Motivation

Guthrie and Wigfield (2000) define it as “reading motivation is the individual's personal goals, values, and beliefs with regard to the topics, processes, and outcomes of reading” (p.405). This definition accounts for the intricacy of this construct as it reflects the complexity in precisely defining both terms composing it, namely reading and motivation.

Reading Engagement

“Engagement in reading is the extent to which an individual reads to the exclusion of other activities, particularly when faced with other choices” (Kamil, 2003, p.7). Guthrie, Wigfield and Perencevich (2004, p.58) explain that reading engagement refers to the connections that link up altogether different aspects of motivation, exchanges with text, social connections, abstract comprehension development, and strategy use.

6. Research Tools and Target Population

The main investigation is carried out through a questionnaire. This latter is adapted from the Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ), and modified by Mori (2002).

The questionnaire consists of thirty statements divided into eight dimensions. Three dimensions have been dropped from the original questionnaire that contained eleven dimensions. These three dimensions are competition for reading, reading for recognition and social reasons for reading. One reason for these changes is that competition for reading and reading for recognition originally concern children, while our participants are higher education students. As for dropping social reasons for reading –having fun together through reading, exchanging ideas and interests about reading materials- this is due to the fact that we are investigating reading motivation for English as a foreign language, and not first language.

Second year students of English as a foreign language at the Teachers’ Training School in Letters and Humanities of Constantine for the academic year 2005-2006 have been chosen to be the population of the study. We have selected two groups for the pilot study, and the three remaining groups have been left for the main investigation. In the pilot study, fifty-two

participants have taken a 28-question questionnaire designed to describe general contexts and settings for reading, in addition to the population's beliefs, opinions and expectations about reading. The questionnaire for the main investigation was administered to seventy-one participants who accepted to answer the questionnaire. The pilot study took place after the winter holidays, before the exams of the first semester. The main investigation took place after the students had finished the exams of the second semester.

7. Organisation of the Dissertation

The dissertation is divided into four chapters. The dissertation will start with an introduction that deals with what motivated the present study, and the statement of the problem. It describes also the foundations and the outline of the dissertation.

The first, second and third chapters represent the literature review. In the first chapter, we define reading from different perspectives. Reading is further described as process by providing a view about the reading models. We explain also a crucial component in reading which is reading comprehension. In addition to that, we provide a view about reading in second/foreign language and its teaching.

The second chapter consists of a general outlook of motivational theories. Fundamental concepts are explained in relation to various theories. This chapter will be entirely restricted to theories and approaches to motivation. However, it may be helpful to understand concepts related to reading motivation theory.

Concerning the third chapter, it is exclusively dedicated to reading motivation literature. The chapter will start by defining the concept of reading motivation, then describing the aspects of reading motivation. Later in the chapter, closely related features will also be dealt with –reading engagement and engaged readers. Choosing to devote one chapter for reading

motivation results from the belief and evidence in the literature that reading motivation is different from other kinds of motivation, and it can in no way be assimilated to general motivation. This division has been operated for practical reason as we tried to avoid disturbing the overall balance of the dissertation.

The last chapter includes the investigation and results. First, we will deal with the pilot study and its results. After that, we will describe the questionnaire's design and implementation, its results, and final discussion of the results. At the end of this chapter, we will provide some pedagogical implications as guidelines for enhancing students' reading motivation.

CHAPTER ONE: WHAT IS READING?

1. Introduction

Because it gives access to knowledge, reading is an essential skill in learning any subject matter. Moreover, reading in a second/foreign language is equally important as it offers an opportunity to see how native speakers of the second/foreign language use it, and how they reflect aspects of their culture and express their feelings and thoughts in written form. Nonetheless, reading has always been far from the expectation of being used as a means of communication similar to speaking, listening and writing; reading was rather described as a passive receptive skill (Harmer, 1983; Adams, 1990).

Teaching reading to second/foreign language learners reflected the idea of reading as a passive skill. It focused on showing learners some ‘tricks’ to understand a text. In academic terms, those ‘tricks’ are called strategies, and many researchers have proved the effectiveness of teaching second/foreign language learners how to understand written materials by teaching them the use of those strategies.

This chapter will investigate the essence of reading from different points of view with reference to the specialists that looked at the reading process in the light of the discoveries made in their respective fields, and which have influenced both the theory and the practice of reading. Reading comprehension will also be defined as it pertains to the reading process. Aiming at explaining the cognitive processes underlying the reading process and explaining its mechanisms, we will describe the models of reading that have been advocated by prominent researchers in the field, and another model of reading that accounts for its

affective dimension will also be briefly examined. The chapter will give a brief review of reading in second/foreign language (L2/FL) and its teaching and characteristics that differentiate readers who read in their first or native language (L1) and those reading in second/foreign language (L2/FL). Later, we will look at the development of approaches to teaching second and foreign language and how they affected the teaching of reading in L2/FL. Finally, we will end up this chapter by looking at how reading in L2/FL is being taught under the Communicative Language Teaching approach.

2. Definition of Reading

Many theorists and researchers in the fields of Linguistics, Psychology and Language Teaching have attempted to define reading. The essence of reading has long been investigated, yet no single research could be exhaustive and comprehensive enough to include all the aspects of the actual reading activity. Definitions have tried to give a conceptual view about what reading is, how it takes place, and mechanisms that underlie it. Most of the definitions that have been elaborated to explain reading, however, agree on the fact that it includes underlying intricate procedures and mechanics.

Baudoin et al. (1994) clearly acknowledge the complexity of reading as they make the distinction between “word recognition” and “comprehension”. They define reading as follows:

Reading is a complex activity that involves both word recognition, the process of perceiving how written symbols correspond to one’s spoken language; and comprehension, the process of making sense of words, sentences and connected paragraphs. (p.i)

The reading process starts with a visual activity that the reader performs as soon as s/he has the text in front of him/her. When reading, one has to use eye movements to get input.

Readers move their eyes through the text to recognise the language they are reading in. Then, the brain takes information provided by the eyes and processes it, and gives it logical significance. Harmer (1983) asserts that “[r]eading is an exercise dominated by the eyes and the brain [...] The eyes receive messages and the brain has to work out the significance of these messages” (p.53).

Harmer’s (1983) definition concentrates on the reading skill as a receptive one because it regards how written texts -and other forms of written materials- are perceived as images by the eyes, and then, the transmission of these images as signals through optic nerves to the brain, which is the centre responsible of giving corresponding meanings to the messages. Moreover, some other approaches to reading have established that word recognition is a prerequisite condition for effective reading to take place. Adams (1990, p.1) asserts that decoding the words of the text separately is important to build an overall understanding of the text.

Nevertheless, other studies and researches disagree with this definition of reading because it exaggerates the importance of word recognition over comprehension. Goodman (1967), as cited in Carrell & Eisterhold (1983), contends that successful reading is not based on simple decoding of script symbols, but it is established on more solid grounds constituted of a number of reading comprehension strategies for extracting meaning from any type of text, including also context cues and linguistic forms.

In addition to that, Smith (1994) claims that reading is much more than simply recognising written symbols, and then, matching them to corresponding sounds; “reading is a matter of making sense of written language rather than decoding print to sound” (Smith, 1994, p.2). Besides emphasising the concept of meaning and its role in reading, Smith (1994)

furthermore describes understanding as a basis rather than an outcome of successful reading. He claims that readers will not be able to comprehend any passage if they do not bring to the activity their own understanding of the world, experience and prior knowledge.

Reading was also regarded from a psycholinguistic point of view. Goodman (1967) looks at reading as an activity in which the reader processes information and tries to make decisions that will be confirmed, disconfirmed or refined. Consequently, reading is regarded as an interactive process that takes place between the reader's mind and the printed text. In the light of this approach to reading, Goodman (1967), as cited in Carrel & Eisterhold (1983, p.554), defines reading as a "psycholinguistic guessing game" in which the "reader reconstructs, as best as he can, a message which has been encoded by a writer." Accordingly, after being considered a passive activity for a long time, reading has become a process of deliberate thinking during which meaning is constructed through interactions between text and reader.

To some extent, both Smith (1994) and Goodman (1996) agree in the sense that both place much emphasis upon text comprehension through using knowledge of the world during the process of reading. Thus, reading cannot be simply a word-by-word deciphering until meaning is reached. This makes comprehension crucial in the process of reading.

Goodman (1996) states that:

As readers use cues from the linguistic text, they bring their knowledge and beliefs about the world to bear on making sense. They guess what's coming, making predictions and inferences; they are selective about use of text cues and they monitor their guesses for contradictory cues. Effective reading, then, is not accurate word recognition; it is getting to meaning. And efficient reading is using just enough of the available cues, given what a reader brings to the reading, to make sense of the text. (p.7)

There is a focus on the necessity of understanding a passage on the part of the reader because it results from using his/her understanding of the world in the reading activity. In other words, to reach an effective comprehension of the passage, which is the core of successful reading, a reader needs to use not only information from the passage in front of him/her, but s/he is also required to use his/her own knowledge about the world.

Though the previously stated definitions are apparently very different, they carry the essence of reading illustrated as follows:

- (a) Reading is a process. This implies that in order to achieve a successful comprehension, which is the ultimate goal of the reading activity, the reader should go through a series of steps and levels that start as soon as the reader looks at the written material. The motor level is related to eye movements; the linguistic level deals with the recognition of the alphabet, the language and forms and structures; the cultural level gives some information about the culture hosting that script from; and the cognitive level is in charge of analysing information and building meaning.
- (b) Reading deals with written material. We do not read only what is known to common people as letters and numbers put on a paper. In our daily life, we read different kinds of materials that range from letters, newspapers articles and books to menus, brochures, bus schedules and charts and tables, and goes even to road signs, posters and advertisements. These materials are available in different places and in different media such as boards in the streets, newspapers, TV programmes, and internet. All these are being processed in the same way and the aim is to draw meaning.
- (c) Reading is for meaning. Reading is not merely deciphering the written symbols. Reading is the activity of decoding ideas and meanings that have been encoded by the

writer using a particular set of symbols s/he thought suitable for that. (Al-Mutawa & Kailani, 1989)

3. Reading Comprehension

There is an agreement among researchers and teachers in the field of reading that the principle aim of the reading process is to understand print materials. Reading is seen as a dynamic activity, which involves a number of perceptual, linguistic and cognitive processes linked to text and reader's features. Successful processing of any written material is a complex cognitive activity that builds up meaning via interaction between the reader and the passage; precisely, between the reader's prior knowledge and the information supplied by the text.

Comprehension is assumed to be the result of a balanced interplay between, on the one hand, the data brought in by the text in a script form and, on the other hand, data provided by the reader –his/her background knowledge- (Rumelhart, 1977; Stanovich, 1980). Smith (1985) explains reading comprehension in the light of his belief that reading is based on the reader's background knowledge about what s/he is reading, as well as knowledge about the linguistic dimension of the text. Smith (1985) assumes that “meaning is not directly represented in the surface structure of language [...] Readers must bring meaning –deep structure- to what they read, employing their prior knowledge of the topic and of the language of the text” (p.75).

Furthermore, Smith (1985) explains that comprehension should be regarded as basis for successful reading instead of being its logical outcome. He claims that comprehension “is not a quantity, it is a state – a state of not having any unanswered questions” (Smith, 1985, p.83),

which links comprehension to his principle of prediction as a prerequisite for successful reading comprehension.

Snow (2002) describes reading comprehension as the process of “simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language” (p.11). This definition expresses the value of the text and, at the same time, it draws attention to text’s deficiency to achieve comprehension on its own –meaning does not exist on the page. Likewise, three components for comprehension can be identified, “the reader, the text and the activity” (Snow, 2002, p.11). There is an active interrelationship between these three elements to achieve successful understanding.

The first element in the process of reading comprehension is the reader who uses his/her cognitive capacities, motivation, and different kinds of knowledge. The reader “constructs different representations of the text that are important for comprehension” (Snow, 2002, p.14).

The second component is text. It has a surface encoding, which refers to the words in the text; representations of meaning; and models of mental representations implanted in the passage. A passage may be easy or difficult. These two notions depend on the content of the text, the vocabulary used, linguistic and discourse structure, and genre (Snow, 2002).

The final component is the activity. The reading activity is performed to achieve a particular purpose, which is influenced by a number of motivational factors such as interest. While performing this activity, the reader uses some linguistic and semantic processes, besides decoding. According to Snow (2002), the result of reading is also a feature of the activity, and it depends on the reader’s purpose, and the changes that may happen to it during the activity.

All three components are interacting in a socio-cultural context that is made up of external factors such as how society and culture consider readers and reading, social and cultural contexts, limitations and constraints to reading.

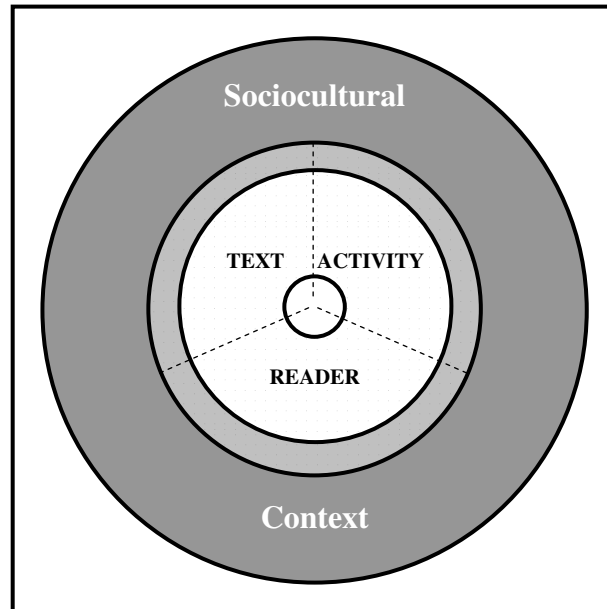


Figure 1: The Components of Reading Comprehension (Snow, 2002, p.12)

This view maintains that meaning exists in the thinking processes of the reader that arise during a transaction with a text. Comprehension is, thus, influenced by the text and by the reader's prior knowledge that is brought to the process (Anderson & Pearson, 1984). According to National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD) (2000), reading comprehension is seen as the construction of the meaning of written text through shared interchange of ideas between the reader and ideas included in the text by its author.

Other attempts to defining reading comprehension have been made in relation to other components of reading that are the use of strategies and vocabulary knowledge. The NICHD (2000) clearly establishes the importance of strategies and vocabulary in reading. Reading comprehension is thus defined as follows:

[A] cognitive process that integrates complex skills and cannot be understood without examining the critical role of vocabulary learning and instruction and its development, and active interactive strategic processes are critically necessary to the development of reading comprehension (NICHD, 2000, p.4-1).

Comprehension reading strategies refer to those procedures and techniques that help in learning other strategies, transferring learning and improving remembering and comprehension of new texts (NICHD, 2000). Strategies are not merely devices that help readers get the intended meaning. In many cases, the aim of reading is not only to understand, but also to solve problems, to make decisions, and to think deeply and critically. In addition to that, the array of strategies is quite large in order to enable readers to go beyond simply understanding what is written on the page. Inferring and drawing conclusions strategies are good examples of strategies that help readers think deeply and critically. Moreover, the choice of using a certain strategy over the others is primarily defined by the reader's purpose. Readers should be encouraged to set goals for reading in order to be able to choose the appropriate strategy.

The other element that is said to be helpful in reading comprehension is vocabulary knowledge. The NICHD (2000) asserts that reading comprehension cannot be explained without emphasising the important role vocabulary plays in building this complex cognitive process. This is simply to confirm other researchers' conclusions. Learning new vocabulary items, and novel concepts hidden within these items, is crucial for the development of comprehension.

All the definitions provided above are to give evidence for the importance of reading comprehension as the aim for reading. They show also the complex structure of comprehension by explaining its components, and they illustrate factors –strategies and vocabulary- that may help develop this construct.

4. Models of Reading

Some researchers have tried to explain reading mechanisms and, therefore, established certain processes through which reading happens; they called them models. The term model may be defined as “a systematic set of guesses or predictions about a hidden process” (Davies, 1995, p.57). It refers to what happens on the level of perception by the eyes and analysis by the brain during the process of reading, and also to certain policies and approaches to the teaching of reading.

Reading models are just frameworks about which aspects of the reading process are most important (Rayner & Pollatsek, 1989; Cornaire, 1991; Wolf & Vellutino, 1993); they differ simply in the emphasis each model makes on particular aspects and their role in the process of reading. From a cognitive point of view, reading models are Bottom-up (Stimulus-driven); Top-down (Context-driven); and Interactive models.

4.1. Bottom-up (Stimulus-driven) Model

This model appeared as a consequence of the development of Behaviourist Psychology in the 1950's, and in this perspective, reading is seen as a response (recognising words) to stimuli (the printed words). In his studies, Gough (1972) established that reading starts at letter level since the reader is required to read letter by letter. Then, the reader moves to the next stage, which is recognising the sounds corresponding to those letters, and their syntactic characteristics. The final stage is getting meaning (Davies, 1995).

LaBerge and Samuels (1974) introduced the theory of automatic information processing in which they claim that the reader starts with smaller components of text that are letters, then proceeds from letters to clusters, and finally reaches words. This linear processing involves skills development that leads to comprehension if fluency (automaticity) is reached.

The ultimate goal is to give the reader more time to devote for comprehension and develop fluency. Through successful repetitions, reading and comprehension become automatic.

The Bottom-up model presents meaning as directly related to the text (or Text-driven); meaning exists in the text and the reader is supposed simply to get this meaning. Anderson (1994) explains that this model considers textual meaning as the sum total of the meanings of words that build up clauses. This also means that the reader is not supposed to play an active role in the understanding process, such as using his/her previous knowledge about the topic of the passage, and about the world (Gough, 1972; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974).

One of the drawbacks of this model is that it minimises the role of the reader; s/he is a passive decoder who identifies printed symbols and converts them into corresponding sounds. Besides, the Bottom-up model describes information flow as a series of stages that transforms the input and passes it to the next stage without any feedback, or possibility of later stages of the process to influence earlier stages (Stanovich, 1980). However, the main weakness of the Bottom-up model is that it concentrates on the recognition of letters, words, phrases and finally sentences as basis for reading to occur, and ignores understanding the written text. This atomistic approach is complex from learners' point of view as it presents a large number of grapho-phonetic rules to deal with letter-sound associations, in addition to the effort the reader has to make to memorise the stages of the process, which would rather hinder the learners' performance.

4.2. Top-down (Context-driven) Model

Under the influence of Cognitive theories of the 1960's, the Top-down model came to present the reading process just in a reverse sequence of processing presented in the Bottom-up model. The Top-down model proposes that reading begins with predictions about

meaning. It was first introduced by Kenneth S. Goodman and Frank Smith as an alternative to the Bottom-up model of reading. Goodman (1967), as cited in Carrell and Eisterhold (1983), and Smith (1994) define reading as the process of connecting information contained in the text with the amount of knowledge the reader brings to the act of reading.

According to Wolf and Vellutino (1993), the Top-down model is holistic and it gives primary importance to the linguistic context in the process of word-recognition. In the process of understanding written text, the reader continuously hypothesises about what s/he is reading and checks these expectations and predictions for confirmation using information from the text. The model offers another view of reading because it considers reading an active cognitive process in which the reader's background knowledge plays a key role in the creation of meaning. For Smith (1994), reading is extracting meaning from script and not a passive mechanical activity in which the readers matches written symbols to sounds; reading is rather “purposeful and rational, dependent on the prior knowledge and expectations of the reader (or learner)” (Smith, 1994, p.2).

Cornaire (1991) assumes that when someone begins reading a passage, they use their background knowledge of the topic to have a broad idea about what the passage is about, and thus, the reader aims at understanding the content. Moreover, the Top-down model presents four essential cycles in the reading process; “optical, perceptual, syntactic and meaning” (Davies, 1995, p.61).

In this model, meaning should be focused on during the process of reading because of its supreme importance. This reduces the importance of the activity of recognising the script symbols of the written language. Goodman (1967), as cited in Carrell and Eisterhold (1983), views reading as a “psycholinguistic guessing game” in which the reader attempts to rebuild

the message aimed at by the writer, while for Smith (1975) the reading process is purposeful, selective, anticipatory and based on comprehension. This gives the reader an active role in the process of reading. In the Top-down model, prediction is given much importance because it is seen as a basic activity in reading, be it with beginners or advanced readers.

Nevertheless, some research (Rayner & Pollatsek, 1989; Stanovich, 1992) maintains that there is an interaction between Bottom-up and Top-down models at different levels. The basic weakness of the model is that of minimising too much the role of decoding. Research on eye movement have shown that the majority of words are being interested in, which is the opposite of Smith's (1975) view of reading as a selective process. In addition to that, information in the written material is visually processed very rapidly and prediction does not have that immense importance assumed by the Top-down model.

4.3. Interactive Model

Essentially, this model is built on the principle that reading comprehension is based on the interaction of the two previous models. The Interactive Model was proposed in an attempt to present a model that would explain how readers use information from various sources at the same time during the reading process (Rumelhart, 1977).

In this model, the reading process begins at the level of perceiving written symbols on the page, and goes through stages where information from all sources (orthographic, syntactic, lexical and semantic) at the same time till the most likely meaning is retrieved (Rumelhart, 1977). The Interactive model does not pre-select or expect any processing sequence, like in Bottom-up and Top-down models (Davies, 1995). Instead, reading is a process of simultaneously drawing upon sources of information, but still, selectively.

For Rumelhart (1977, p.573), reading should be regarded as a simultaneously “perceptual” and “cognitive” process, and insists on the fact that interaction between the diverse sources of information is needed for the reader to achieve successful comprehension. Rumelhart (1977) asserts that “a skilled reader must be able to make use of sensory, semantic and pragmatic information to accomplish his task. These various sources of information appear to interact in many complex ways during the process of reading” (pp.573-4).

Nonetheless, Rumelhart (1977) does not clearly identify how different types of information from different sources cooperate in the reader’s mind while reading.

4.3.a. Schema Theory

It was Bartlett (1932), as cited in Anderson and Pearson (1984, p.257), who first defined schema as “the active organisation of past reactions, or past experiences” that affects the perception of new information by the reader.

Nunan (1999) asserts that the Schema Theory is based on the principle that readers’ prior experience directs them to building mental constructions that facilitate getting meaning from new experiences. New information will be included into schemata that are “extensive representations of more general patterns or regularities that occur in our experience” (Smith, 1994, p.14). The concept of schema describes the interaction between the reader and information in the text (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983; Anderson & Pearson, 1984).

Anderson and Pearson (1984, p.258) explain, however, that Bartlett (1932) did not give a clear description of the role of schemata. Other researchers define schemata as ‘containers’ of knowledge that include concepts linked to objects, actions, events and sequences of actions and events; in addition to data about how to use that knowledge. The Schema Theory is

usually defined as a model of human knowledge. In other words, the structure of knowledge as it is represented in memory (Rumelhart, 1980).

4.3.b. Schema Theory and Reading Comprehension

Within the Schema Theory, reading comprehension is seen as the process of discovering a disposition of schemata that fittingly reflect information presented in the text (Rumelhart, 1980). If the reader uses the proper schemata that correspond to those described by the writer, then, s/he is able to achieve successful comprehension. Anderson (1994) sees text comprehension as “activating or constructing a schema that provides a coherent explanation of objects and events mentioned in a discourse” (p.473).

Schemata are basic for perception, understanding and remembering of information. Rumelhart (1980) identifies two categories of schemata; Higher-level and Lower-level schemata, which are generally associated with Top-down processing. On one hand, High-level schemata include essentially textual data involving morphemes, words, phrases, sentences and so on, in addition to the reader’s knowledge of these components. On the other hand, High-level schemata comprise the reader’s prior knowledge, in addition to general knowledge of the world, knowledge about the topic s/he is reading and expectations (Zerhouni, 1996). Reading should coordinate these two processes at all levels of analysis when the reader is attempting to build the meaning intended by the writer, which makes reading simultaneously perceptual and conceptual (Rumelhart, 1977).

Rumelhart (1980) establishes that there are four basic functions of schemata. Schemata have a role in the perception of individual parts in the context of the whole. They play another role in the comprehension of the text when the reader finds the schemata that correspond to those in the text. The other role of schemata is in remembering because “we

remember our interpretation of an event or text rather than the text or the event itself” (Rumelhart, 1980, p.49). Finally, Schemata play a role in learning as they help learners develop new schemata.

Furthermore, Rumelhart (1980) identifies three ways to explain failure in comprehension on the part of the reader. Firstly, the reader does not have the suitable schemata. Secondly, the text does not offer a sufficient amount of clues to enable the reader to stimulate the appropriate schemata. Finally, the reader finds a logical interpretation of the text that is different from the one projected by the writer.

Consequently, reading is regarded as a meaning construction process in which there is an active interaction of the reader with the text. Anderson (1994) states that “a reader comprehends a message when he is able to bring to mind a schema that gives account of the objects and events described in the message” (p.469). In this respect, the reading process is based on the information supplied by the text, which is a Bottom-up processing, and the reader’s background knowledge, a Top-down processing.

4.4. An Affective Model of Reading

Despite the exhaustiveness and coherence of the models and theories of reading, a very large number of them are formulated by Cognitive psychologists. They regard reading as either a cognitive process or product, and disregard the affective dimension of the activity.

Researchers investigating affective factors in reading have shown that such factors as attitudes and motivation are of significant interest (Mathewson, 1994). The affective constituents of reading are readers’ attitude, interest and belief about reading, and motivation, and research needs to take them into consideration in order to achieve a complete view of the

reading process. Interest in these aspects of reading has given birth to two affective models (Mathewson, 1985, 1994; Ruddell & Speaker, 1985).

Mathewson (1985) introduced a model of reading that explains the crucial role performed by attitudes of readers. Mathewson contends that the reader's attitude toward reading is made up of his/her prevailing feeling about the activity, his/her readiness to perform the reading activity, and beliefs s/he holds to evaluate reading. Other affective factors (which are said to be secondary) are incentives, purposes, norms and the settings, in addition to the internal emotional state of the reader before and during the reading activity.

The second affective model of reading was proposed by Ruddell and Speaker (1985). Their model comprises four components that interact with each other during reading. These components are reader environment, declarative and procedural knowledge, and knowledge utilisation and control. The reader's environment refers to the text, task, source of authority, and socio-cultural meanings of the text and classroom. Declarative and procedural knowledge describe the reader's knowledge of word analysis and strategies to deal with the text. Knowledge utilisation and control are linked to the process through which a reader builds meaning. This model is based on reader's background knowledge and beliefs, and his/her socio-cultural values.

It is in the affective state that the reader establishes his/her goal, expectations about comprehension, and expectations for how long it takes to achieve comprehension (Ruddell & Speaker, 1985).

5. Reading in Second and Foreign Language

Researchers on reading and second/foreign language learning have all agreed on the importance of reading skills in achieving academic success and second/foreign language

acquisition (Carrell, 1988; Anderson, 1994). However, there is a disagreement that stems from questions concerning the process itself and opinions are largely controversial because of the educational trends underlying each of them.

The core of the debate is about which processing model should be adopted, whether to use Bottom-up processing or Top-down processing. However, the choice of either processing model depends on two factors. On the one hand, there are differences between reading in the native/first language (L1) and reading in a second/foreign language (L2/FL). On the other hand, there is the influence of the various approaches to foreign language teaching that have emerged since the beginning of the twentieth century.

5.1. Differences between L1 and L2/FL Readers

Many features make reading in a second/foreign language different from reading in a mother language. In fact, these differences are mainly related to the readers themselves rather than to the process, which makes the reading process in L2/FL more complex than it in L1.

Almost generally, readers who start reading in a second or a foreign language have already experienced reading in their native language. They have, thus, acquired cognitive skills higher than those of beginner readers who start reading in their first language, which enables them to make consistent deductions from the reading material based on their background knowledge. Besides, not only do L2/FL readers use their prior knowledge, but they also transfer learning and reading strategies they acquired in their mother language.

If readers have been instructed in their L1, then using their native language reading skills will be of crucial importance. L2 readers do not have to learn reading skills in the second language again because they have already acquired them in their mother language, but they simply transfer them (Alderson, 1984). In case they face difficulties in understanding a text

in the target language, readers will use advanced cognitive skills to achieve successful comprehension. On the other hand, Clarke (1980), as cited in Eskey (1988), asserts that L2/FL readers “no matter how proficient in their first language reading, cannot transfer their skills to their second language reading until they have mastered more of the language.”

Another feature of L2/FL readers that may influence reading in L2/FL is language proficiency. It plays a key role in helping readers read in another language other than their L1. Grabe (1991) asserts that there is a distinction between L2/FL readers’ linguistic understanding in their native language and their linguistic understanding in the target language. Readers who start reading in their L1 have an amount of linguistic knowledge in their L1 they have acquired spontaneously, whereas their counterpart readers starting to read in L2/FL do not acquire this linguistic knowledge until further experience with the L2/FL language (Singer, 1981).

Despite the presence of this L2/FL linguistic knowledge in L2/FL readers, they sometimes, do not achieve well in the target language reading comprehension. It is partly due to L2/FL readers’ lack of confidence in their abilities in the target language.

The reason behind this lack of confidence is that when readers read in L2/FL, they believe that they need to know the meaning of every single word in the text. L2/FL readers tend to compare their reading in their L1, where they acquired a linguistic knowledge that enables them to understand what they read, to reading in the target language in which they lack such knowledge (Singer, 1981). Because L2/FL learners consider reading a tool to learn the target language, they think that text comprehension needs knowledge of every new vocabulary word. Consequently, reading slowly and using the dictionary to deal with new vocabulary is

another feature of readers in L2/FL. Moreover, lack of confidence is a hindrance to achieve successful comprehension.

The way L2/FL readers consider reading uses and their expectation may also have an impact on their performance in reading in L2/FL. Different beliefs about reading and the use of texts in different social context may result in problems in academic reading comprehension (Grabe, 1991). If L2/FL readers originate from social environments where they are supposed to learn facts from the text by heart, or where texts are said to hold the truth, for instance, then they will face problems of comprehension when they are asked to read a text critically.

There is also a difference between L1 readers and L2/FL readers in terms of reading purpose. Mainly in foreign language settings, reading is often used as a means to learn a language or to learn to read in that language, while reading in L1 is done to learn facts and get the idea of a text or as part of a class assignment. In the absence of other sufficient materials for learning a language, reading seems to be an excellent alternative as it provides learners with authentic materials and settings for learning a second/foreign language. Nuttall (1982) argues in favour of the vital role of reading in the acquisition of a foreign language as it supplies authentic language; “[t]he best way to improve your knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among its speakers. The next best way is to read extensively in it.” (Nuttall, 1982, p.168)

Nuttall (1982) uses the terms ‘intensive’ and ‘extensive’ as labels for the types of reading. Intensive reading refers to the type of reading in which readers read short passages to get ideas and knowledge about vocabulary, syntax and/or grammar through activities in the classroom under the control of the teacher. Extensive reading, on the other hand, refers to

reading longer passages to get global understanding and to have pleasure and entertainment; it is done either inside or outside the classroom and independently from any control.

Pleasure and entertainment are aspects of the difference between L1 and L2/FL readers. Teachers usually use these two notions to motivate second/foreign language learners to read in the target language, which leads L2/FL readers to read not for the sake of learning a language, but understanding the author's message in the text and get some pleasure (Nuttall, 1982).

6. Teaching Reading in Second/Foreign Language

Learners of any second/foreign language cannot simply wait till they learn the target language because, in most cases, they lack exposure to that language and they do not use it in their daily life to communicate.

Al-Mutawa and Kailani (1989) contend that in the Arab world, reading is taught to students at different stages to enable them to read and understand rapidly and with a maximum of efficiency. Al-Mutawa and Kailani (1989) further explain that when teaching English to Arab learners, "the reading skill is often more important than any language skills [...] because English is taught more for business or academic purposes than for daily communication" (p.115-6), depending on the status English holds in each country -second or foreign language.

In teaching reading in a second/foreign language, there are two types that should be taken into consideration; extensive and intensive reading. When reading extensively, learners read outside classroom to get pleasure or to learn general information. This kind of reading is done voluntarily and plays a very important role in improving second/foreign language learners' abilities. Extensive reading offers L2/FL readers a chance to be exposed to an

authentic form of the target language, helps them acquire more knowledge about the target language's native speakers and their culture, and provides them with pleasure and entertainment (Nuttall, 1982). The texts included in an extensive reading program are materials such as short stories, novels, poems, plays, texts, magazines and journals.

On the other hand, learners who are reading intensively deal with relatively short texts and activities about linguistic content -new vocabulary and expressions, pronunciation, functions, grammar and style- and cultural content as well, in order to achieve full understanding of the material (Al-Mutawa & Kailani, 1989). These drills aim at giving learners the opportunity to analyse how texts are built and how meaning is linguistically encoded.

6.1. Teaching Reading Comprehension Strategies in L2/FL

According to Ur (1996), there cannot be reading in a foreign language if understanding is not reached because it would be simply deciphering written symbols. Ur (1996) argues that:

[R]eading means 'reading and understanding'. A foreign language learner who says, 'I can read the words but I don't know what they mean' is not, therefore, reading. In this sense, he or she is merely decoding –translating written symbols into corresponding sounds (p.138).

Because of their importance in achieving successful comprehension, reading strategies in L2/FL need be taught to L2/FL readers so that they can use them to facilitate reading in order to achieve efficient and quick comprehension of a text. However, the use of these strategies depends on the readers' goal(s) as L2/FL learners.

Learners generally do not know how to set goals for their learning, and it is the teacher's task to help them set specific and short-term goals because they "can help the learner to structure the learning process" (Dörnyei, 2001, p.82) and to go through the learning process

to achieve those goals successfully. Moreover, most students wait for the teacher to show them how to deal with texts. The teacher is responsible for making readers independently decide what strategies to use as part of making them autonomous because of “the importance of self-starting and of self-taking responsibility for one’s own learning” (Brown, 2007, p.130).

Another factor that makes readers reluctant towards using reading strategies is the fact that they are afraid of failure, which creates frustration and anxiety. A good way to encourage students to engage in reading and use strategies would be to give them opportunities in which they can experience success (Dörnyei, 2001). Anxiety also can be reduced if the teacher avoids social comparisons (peer modelling), introducing competition settings where winners and losers would be treated the same and where importance is rather given to learning than to competitors (Dörnyei, 2001).

6.2. Language Teaching Approaches and Teaching Reading in L2/FL

The different educational trends underlying approaches to language teaching have affected the process of learning itself and on language units such as language skills. Recent studies have shown that a change in focus, from strictly Text-driven to Reader-driven processing, has gone hand in hand with the developments in L2/FL teaching approaches and methods from the traditional Grammar-translation approach to the Communicative approach. It resulted in a shift of emphasis from the text to the reader, or vice versa.

According to the traditional Grammar-translation approach, reading was considered a tool to enable learners to translate separate words, phrases and sentences from the target language into equivalent forms of their mother language (Brown, 2001). In the 1950’s, when this approach was still established, the role of the reader was passive and less emphasised than

the role of the text. There was little consideration for individual reader's motivation, purpose, learning styles or cultural orientation. The basic task of the reader was to memorise their native language equivalents for L2/FL vocabulary items and grammar rules without any consideration for the context (Brown, 2001). The most important goal of reading was achieved once readers were able to apply their vocabulary and grammatical knowledge to translate from the second/foreign language into their first language, sentence by sentence. Brown (2001) explains that the possibilities of using this method in teaching reading were so limited that reading researchers did not attempt to support it.

Under the Audio-lingual approach to language teaching, and Behaviourism, reading was seen as a written mechanical decoding of speech. Therefore, emphasis in L2/FL reading was on the development of automatic reactions to text (Silberstein, 1994, as cited in Brown, 2001). No consideration was given to the contribution of the reader in the reading process and, consequently, reading was not dealt with as an active process, but rather a means to enrich cultural context for practice of spoken language and to strengthen its patterns. Some individual features, like readers' aptitude, development and interest, were given great importance in choosing the reading materials as an excellent means to motivate learners.

The communicative approach to language teaching brought new influential types of proficiency, such as sociolinguistic and discourse proficiency. Language teaching proficiency was accordingly influenced and, by extension, the development of reading skills. According to this approach, comprehension requires more knowledge than vocabulary and grammatical knowledge; it needs also paying attention to the socio-cultural context of the reading material. The reader's use of strategies was also emphasised as a factor that facilitates reading comprehension. Since it gives importance to text and reader features, this approach

arouse interest of researchers to explore the intricacies of the reading process in the light of its principles.

6.2.a. Communicative Language Teaching and Reading

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) rests on the assumption that language teaching should promote the communicative aspect of language. Brown (2007) explains CLT as the focus on Communicative Competence (ability to communicate) more than on Linguistic Competence (ability to produce correct language forms) using authentic language to convey a meaning, and where learners use productive and receptive language skills, with more importance given to fluency over accuracy for the sake of keeping the flow of communication on going.

Within CLT, Task-based instruction has been the logical outcome of the shift from the teacher-centred instruction to learner-centred teaching and classroom interaction, authenticity and learners' experience with the second/foreign language (Brown, 2007). A task is defined as "an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective" (Skehan, 2003, p.3).

Task-based instruction provides good settings because it offers many opportunities to enhance motivation. When learners are doing tasks, they feel much more involved in the learning process. Increasing learners' involvement can be achieved by asking them to participate in class discussions and activities that require both mental and bodily involvement so that all students can have the opportunity to act during the class.

4.1.a. Communicative Reading

For many years, reading was thought of as a passive receptive skill. Only in the late 1960's with the emergence of new theories and trends in psycholinguistics and cognitive research, had reading become recognised as an active process by which readers get meaning from written text (Goodman, 1967; Smith, 1985, 1994).

Al-Mutawa and Kailani (1989) explain that reading “can be made part of the process of communication if pupils are given the opportunity to react directly to it by expressing their personal opinions” (p.122). In other words, reading is communicative when students are using the target language to react to what they read. This also implies that communicative reading extends interaction beyond the text, and includes a community of readers.

Reading can be a communicative activity if teachers follow a certain set of steps. They can involve students in selecting the reading materials by giving them the opportunity to discuss their interests, worries and problems in small groups (Al-Mutawa & Kailani, 1989). This has the advantage of making learners actively involved in the learning process, gain more self-confidence and become able to monitor their learning (Dörnyei, 2001). Moreover, Communication in class can be achieved by making reading a means to reach an end. In addition to that, Students should be encouraged to form their own questions about the text and to discuss them in small groups or with the class, which will improve comprehension (Al-Mutawa & Kailani, 1989).

7. Conclusion

The field of research in reading is still open to other discoveries that would revolutionise language teaching and learning. The reason is that all the theories and principles have either

missed aspects of the reading process, or failed to explain what happens really during the reading performance.

Reading has received a particular attention from researchers who have attempted to define it, explain its mechanics, and examine the cognitive processes underlying it. The different definitions of reading that have been dealt with (Goodman, 1967, 1996; Harmer, 1983; Smith, 1985, 1994; Baudoin et al., 1994; Ur, 1996) are evidence of both divergence about the nature of the reading activity, and agreement about the complexity of the process.

Reading comprehension has also been studied. On one hand, some researchers advocate that comprehension is a primary condition –a prerequisite- for the reading activity to take place. They explain how the very act of reading cannot occur if there is no comprehension because, they argue, comprehension is the essence of reading (NICHD, 2000). On the other hand, some other researchers assert that comprehension is the logical outcome of successful reading. They explain that in order to achieve it, one must go through essential aspects of reading –use of strategies and vocabulary knowledge.

So far, most teaching specialists and theories in the field of reading agree on the fact that reading requires understanding. They have also come to a consensus about the way to achieve this understanding; it is to teach reading strategies. Teaching language readers strategies to deal with texts of different kinds is extremely wide spread and common in reading in a second or a foreign language, and is not restricted to reading in native or first language.

Like any other aspect in Second/foreign language learning, reading has been influenced by the different approaches and theories that have emerged mainly in the second half of the twentieth century. Communicative Language Teaching seems to be the approach that has

mostly marked the teaching of second/foreign language and, therefore, reading. It is due to two main reasons. Communicative Language Teaching is seen as a very recent turn in language teaching with the notions and concepts it introduced. The second reason is that it focuses on communication, which is the aim of using language. Consequently, reading - pertaining to language skills- was thought of as a communication tool rather than a passive receptive skill.

CHAPTER TWO: THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

1. Introduction

The role of motivation in explaining people's behaviours and actions is undeniable as all researchers and scholars agree about the supreme importance of motivation. However, what researchers and scholars seem to disagree about are the essence of motivation, its mechanisms, its aspects, and how to promote it. The reason behind this disagreement lies in the fact that human behaviour is of such a complexity and instability resulting from the influence of surrounding factors.

Many theories have been put forward in an attempt to define motivation, and all of them describe motivation as complex construct. Each theory, however, tackles motivation from a different perspective as it seeks to provide a comprehensive description of this phenomenon. Furthermore, each of these approaches presents a number of concepts that are related in one way or another to motivation, and very often, the same concept or component is found under more than one approach. This is, in fact, evident that no single approach to motivation can provide a full image of what motivation is. Equally important, and worth mentioning as well, is the fact that while some approaches to motivation have been accepted and developed further, others have just been abandoned for they have not provided enough evidence.

This chapter presents a global view of motivational theories and concepts. Key concepts are described with reference to the different approaches to motivation that tried to explain this crucial component in individuals' behaviours and actions. These concepts have been chosen as they have a privileged position within reading motivation theory, but in no way

will the definitions and explanations presented in this chapter hold relationship to reading; this chapter will be limited to a review of motivational theories.

2. Review of Motivation Theories

Different approaches and researches about motivation all agree about the fact that the role of motivation is to initiate, direct and sustain behaviour (Slavin, 2003; Alderman, 2004). However, the disagreement is mainly about the source of this force. All along the twentieth century, many theories have been put forward and research carried out in order to give a plausible explanation of where motivation comes from and how it affects human behaviour.

2.1. Motivation as Reinforcement

Earliest views of motivation theory were based on the principle of behaviour reinforcement as the most important process to set up and uphold behaviour (Brophy, 2004). A reinforcer can be defined “as anything that increases or maintains the frequency of a behaviour when access to it is made contingent on performance of that behaviour” (Brophy, 2004, p.4-5).

Motivation is considered as the power that leads individuals to do something in different domains. Nonetheless, people are often reluctant to engage in doing something they are required to do for a lack in motivation; and, thus, the necessity for motivating them emerges. From a behaviourist viewpoint, motivation is “quite simply the anticipation of reward” (Brown, 2007, p.168). In order to reach additional reinforcement, individuals behave according to their previous experience with reward for a particular behaviour and their need to gain new encouraging incentives. This view sees performance as subject to external factors such as family, teachers, and educational necessities.

In addition to being partly related to the behaviourist view of motivation, needs theories are related to the cognitive perspective. This latter stipulates that people's choices about the experiences and the goals they want to get involved in or evade are central to motivation (Brown, 2007).

2.2. Maslow's Needs Hierarchy

Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of human needs has been considered a pillar in motivation theory since the 1940's. This theory is based on the concept of "need gratification" as a fundamental aspect in human motivation (Maslow, 1943).

Maslow (1962) proposed a pyramidal hierarchy of needs. At the bottom of the pyramid, there lie physiological needs that consist of basic instinctive needs such as hunger, thirst and sleep. The upper layer concerns safety needs that include aspects such as freedom from danger and need for security and protection from, mental, physical and even financial threats. Belongingness and love needs refer to the supply of liking and belonging to a group with whom one may have interpersonal relationships. This kind of needs can be found at the third layer of Maslow's pyramid. The fourth layer consists of esteem needs that relate to need for recognition, status and confidence in one's capacities. Self-actualisation needs culminate at the top of the pyramid as the ultimate layer. They refer to one's desire to express themselves creatively and to develop one's potential fully (Brophy, 2004, p.6).

According to Maslow (1962), this hierarchy of needs must be fulfilled in an ascending order; that is to say, "[u]nless lower needs are satisfied, higher needs may not even be recognised, let alone motivate behaviour" (Brophy, 2004, p.6). The major criticism addressed to Maslow concerned this point because lacking these basic needs, no further human activity would be possible. Gorman (2003) states that "Maslow himself recognised that some high

achievers would go without these basic needs for long periods of time in order to devote themselves to their work” (p.61).

2.3. Need for Achievement

Some other research regarded motivation as a component of personality. McClelland et al. (1953) used the concept of need for achievement (N-Ach) to refer to individuals’ desire to achieve (Child, 1977). In other words, need for achievement refers to one’s needs and one’s need to satisfy their needs.

McClelland et al. (1953) explain that individuals are motivated to achieve a need because they are influenced by their past learning experiences –history. Those individuals who achieve highly consider new learning settings and difficulties as outside their present ability, however, achievable if they provide the necessary effort. They usually undertake tasks with acceptable challenge. By contrast, individuals with low achievement have unsupportive experiences because they were unsuccessful, but they take very easy tasks or highly challenging ones because they are unlikely to fail in the former and failure is acceptable in the latter (Skehan, 1989, p.50-1).

According to Atkinson (1957), the need for achievement has two aspects, “motivation toward success and motivation toward avoidance of failure” (McDonough, 1986, p.152). McDonough (1986) explains that individuals may behave differently, even if they have the same need for achievement depending on the different needs they would combine to achieve success or to keep away from failure (p.152). However, as far as learning is concerned, Skehan (1989) cites criticism of need for achievement for being subject dependent with a variety of patterns specific to the discipline, and for gender specific (Skehan, 1989, p.51).

2.4. Attribution Theory

Attribution theory tries to find reasons and justifications for why things happen because it represents the motivation theory that is most concerned with answering the question why people do something (Alderman, 2004). In other words, it looks for ways to explain the reasons of success and failure. Skehan (1989) stipulates that individuals may attribute events to four major reasons: “ability; task difficulty; effort, and luck” (p.51). McDonough (1986) depicts attribution theory and the four reasons people use to attribute success and failure as follows:

[It] attempts to describe motivated behaviour in terms of the cause to which the individuals attribute, or ascribe, their own and other people’s performance: their own ability, effort, intention, or others’ ability, effort, or intention, luck and so on (p.153).

According to Pintrich (2003), these reasons may be explained by reference to locus, control and stability, which are presented in three dimensions; “locus (internal vs. external), controllability (controllable vs. uncontrollable), and stability (stable vs. unstable)” (p.107). Locus and controllability dimensions concern how far individuals can or cannot control internal and external factors to achieve specific outcomes, while stability relates to the changes that may happen to those factors and how people react in correspondence to their consequences (Weiner, 1992; Alderman, 2004). Skehan (1989) proposes the following table to sum up these factors:

Table 1: An attributional analysis of causes (Skehan, 1989, p.51)

Locus of control		
	Internal	External
Stable	Ability	Task difficulty
Unstable	Effort	Luck

When individuals perform well on an activity, they would attribute their success to their ability to deal with the task and their effort while performing it, and their control of these two internal factors. However, when they achieve poorly, people tend to attribute their failure to external factors (task difficulty and luck) on which they could have no control (Weiner, 1986). Ability and task difficulty are generally considered as stable factors, whereas effort and luck are seen as unstable ones (Skehan, 1989).

2.5. Expectancy Theory

Gorman (2003) sees expectancy theory as the perspective that people's motivation to achieve a particular task stems from their expectation of a reward (p.64). According to Pintrich (2003), expectancy components are crucial part of the motivation construct.

Pintrich (2003) defines expectancy components as "beliefs about one's ability to control, perform, or accomplish a task" (p.8). This means that what learners believe they are capable of doing, how much control they believe they have on their performance, and the belief of how well they can do well all contribute in motivating learners to start, control and keep up a certain pattern of behaviour. Learners are most likely to achieve highly through selecting what activity to perform, using the necessary abilities, and engagement and determination in the task if they hold strong beliefs about their capabilities and control over them (Pintrich, 2003).

2.6. Self-Efficacy

Relevant to the Expectancy Theory –and to the Attribution Theory as well- is the Self-Efficacy Theory. Bandura (1997) proposes that the most important characteristic of

intentional behaviour is the ability to start actions and events in order to achieve a particular aim, which is different from self-concept. Self-efficacy relates to an individual's abilities to accomplish a specific task as s/he perceives them. On the other hand, self concept is a complex look at oneself that is thought to have been the result of one's past experience and evaluation of others people in their social environment (Bandura, 1997; Zimmerman, 2000).

Bandura (1997) defines self-efficacy as “beliefs in one's capabilities to organise and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments” (p.3). When talking about self-efficacy in relation to learning, one refers to the opinion learners have about their own abilities to achieve a specific activity. Self-efficacy plays a major role in individuals' motivation as it affects directly their performance (Bandura, 1997; Dörnyei, 2001). Because it is linked to their perception of ability, self-efficacy is important in individuals' achievement (Alderman, 2004). Efficacy beliefs may also develop individuals' characteristics like self-esteem. The opinions students hold about their personal efficacy affect their choices and decision-making, the amount of effort they intend to spend, the determination and flexibility they would make use of to face difficulties and hindrances, their way of thinking and feelings they may undergo.

Because ability and effort are closely linked as internal factors students' ascribe their success and/or failure to, what students believe they are capable of doing influences greatly how they look at their abilities and, therefore, how much effort they are ready to invest in the task to achieve success and/or avoid failure (Alderman, 2004). According to Schunk and Zimmerman (2003) “[s]ucceeding on one's own leads to attributions of successes to ability and effort and strengthens self-efficacy” (p.73). Self-efficacy beliefs affect both what students think of their abilities as achievers and the amount of effort they may use to do well,

or avoid failure. Moreover, when students do well using their own abilities after investing the necessary effort, it will, in turn, influence their self-efficacy beliefs that will be enhanced and used for future performances (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003). Bandura (1997) and Pajares (2003) maintain that learners who feel self-efficacious are high achievers. They display also responsibility in managing and organising their learning process.

Self-efficacy is not concerned with knowledge, skills or strategies; it is related to what people think they can do under specific conditions (Bandura, 1997). According to Alderman (2003) and Pintrich (2003), self-efficacy is domain-specific, situation-related; that is to say, self-efficacy in one domain is less likely to be transferred to another.

[S]elf-efficacy theory generally assumes a situation-specific view —that is, individuals' judgment of their efficacy for a task is a function of the task and situational characteristics operating at the time (difficulty, feedback, norms, comparisons with others, etc.) as well as their past experience and prior beliefs about the task and their current beliefs and feelings as they work on the task. (Pintrich, 2003, p.108)

However, it may affect the beliefs about all the aspects of the field of study. For instance, if learners feel they have the ability to score good grades in a reading test, they are less likely to have the same beliefs for writing a composition; nevertheless, they may have self-efficacy beliefs for other tasks related to reading such as reading other texts related to the topic of the test (Alderman, 2003, pp.69-70).

2.7. Goal Theory

Research on motivation has marked a shift from considering motivation in terms of needs to regarding it as the result of laying down goals and using strategies to fulfil those goals (Brophy, 2004, p.87-8). Goals may be generally defined as “objectives or intended outcomes of planned sequences of behaviour” (Brophy, 2004, p.7).

For Alderman (2004, p.19), what learners think about goals is important in understanding motivation because it shows, firstly, how people consider their learning goals as the manifestation of their capabilities to achieve a specific task; and, secondly, how far people think of their goals as pertaining to their learning history. Schunk and Zimmerman (2003) claim that when learners think that they have advanced well according to the goals they have set, and who think they may satisfactorily fulfil their goals, they “will feel efficacious about continuing to improve and motivated to complete the task” (p.68). Moreover, Locke and Lathman (1994) explain that goal setting theory has the feature of specificity. Individuals will improve their performance when they have definite and stimulating goals, and they will most certainly be attentive to the activity and carry it on.

Goal setting theory makes a distinction between learning goals, known as mastery or task-involvement goals, and performance goals, known also as ego-involvement goals (Alderman, 2004; Brophy, 2004). These two categories of goals are referred to respectively as “task or purpose goals [and] task-specific goal orientations” (Pintrich, 2003, p.109). Learning goals –mastery goals- refer to those goals learners set when they concentrate on learning what their teacher is teaching them through tasks; they want to have mastery over the abilities taught and improve their achievement in a task (Alderman, 2004; Brophy, 2004). On the other hand, performance goals are those goals learners set to keep a positive self-image, and give to others an image of capability (Brophy, 2004). They are goals which express general statements about why people perform an activity (Pintrich, 2003). Performance goals relate to learners’ perception of themselves as capable performers; they are goals that emphasise ability rather than effort, and they reflect what learners want to show

others they are able to do and how they see their performance in comparison to others' (Alderman, 2004).

Alderman (2004) claims that motivation is affected by goal setting because it gives people a purpose and an evaluation about their performance. Locke and Lathman (1994) assert that goal setting is important because learners are given the opportunity to set their learning goals, they are most likely to engage in fulfilling those goals and, moreover, it will considerably influence their performance. Schunk and Zimmerman (2003, p.69) adhere to this view of goal theory because they believe that when children set their own goals, they have higher sense of self-efficacy and will achieve well.

2.8. Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

According to Deci and Ryan (2000), the contribution of self-determination to the study of human motivation cannot be fulfilled unless it takes into account "*innate psychological needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness*" (p.227). In the Self-Determination Theory, the concept of needs relates rather to psychological needs, though it acknowledges biological and physiological needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Moreover, Self-Determination Theory (SDT) explains goal-oriented behaviours through distinguishing "the *content* of goals or outcomes and the *regulatory processes* through which the outcomes are pursued, making predictions for different contents and for different processes" (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p.227). In other words, this theory gives an extra differentiation within intentional or motivated behaviours, and "it distinguishes between self-determined and controlled types of intentional regulation" (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier & Ryan, 1991, p.326).

In the Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000) based on the factors and purposes that initiate behaviour, there are two distinct types of motivation. Ryan and Deci (2000a) make the distinction between an individual who is unmotivated; “[a] person who feels no impetus or inspiration to act” (p.54) –or ‘amotivated’ as they also call this category of individuals- and another who is motivated, “someone who is energized or activated toward an end” (p.54). Ryan and Deci (2000a) further maintain that motivation varies from one individual to another particularly in terms of reasons why people carry out a certain action or initiate a particular behaviour.

2.8.a. The Dichotomy of Intrinsic Motivation versus Extrinsic Motivation

Ryan and Deci (2000a) claim that under the SDT there are different types of motivation, but the most crucial distinction is “between *intrinsic motivation*, which refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, and *extrinsic motivation*, which refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome” (p.55).

2.8.a.1. Intrinsic Motivation

The construct of intrinsic motivation refers to “the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence” (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p.56). Put differently, it refers to the kind of behaviour or action that is started for its own sake, and for the enjoyment and feeling of fulfilment the individual derives from doing it (Vallerand, Blais, Brière & Pelletier, 1989; Deci et al., 1991). The assumption underlying intrinsic motivation emerges from the perspective that individuals are born with innate dynamic forces and inclinations for growth and development that need to be fed in order to persist and work successfully (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Vallerand et al. (1989) claim that intrinsic motivation concerns three main domains. The first consists in the intrinsic motivation for acquiring knowledge. They define it as the feeling of satisfaction and enjoyment individuals get when they undertake an activity in order to acquire or explore new perspectives (p.324). The second domain concerned by intrinsic motivation is achievement. Vallerand et al. (1989, p.325) explain that intrinsic motivation for achievement means that individuals undertake activities for the sake of the pleasure its achievement provides, to face new challenges, or to create something new. Intrinsic motivation also concerns emotions as individuals engage in activities to get feelings of pleasure, excitement, entertainment, and aesthetics (Vallerand et al., 1989, p.325).

Deci et al. (1991, p.328) identify actions that are intrinsically motivated as those behaviours that emerge from the need to accomplish an activity for the enjoyment and satisfaction they obtain from it. Brophy (2004) explains that intrinsic motivation may be considered as having two main features; “the *affective* quality of students’ engagement in an activity –the degree to which they enjoy or derive pleasure from the experience [and] its *cognitive* aspects –the degree to which students find participation in the activity to be self-actualizing, competence-enhancing, or otherwise meaningful and worthwhile” (p.184).

Furthermore, Ryan and Deci (2000a, p.56) state that intrinsic motivation has an internal personal dimension and an external context-related dimension. This opinion is further supported by Deci and Ryan (2008) as they explain that intrinsic motivation “involves doing a behavior because the activity itself is interesting and spontaneously satisfying” (p.15). The importance of having an individual performing activities for their own sake is due to the fact that “it is through acting on one’s inherent interests that one grows in knowledge and skills” (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p.56). Nevertheless, Deci and Ryan (2000, p.233) assert that actions

which are directed to achieve the psychological needs for the sake of reasons pertaining to the activity itself are not automatically intrinsically motivated.

Though individuals are born with a certain degree of intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1991; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000a), this type of motivation is still subject to variability (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). As a subtheory of the Self-Determination Theory, the Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) (Ryan & Deci, 2000a) tries to explain the factors that influence an individual's intrinsic motivation, whether positively or negatively (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Deci, Koestner & Ryan, 2001).

According to the [CET], the effects on intrinsic motivation of external events such as the offering of rewards, the delivery of evaluations, the setting of deadlines, and other motivational inputs are a function of how these events influence a person's perceptions of competence and self-determination (Deci, Koestner & Ryan, 2001, p.3).

Likewise, Deci and Ryan (2000, p.233) intrinsic motivation is most likely to be enhanced by factors that lead individuals to fulfil their psychological needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness, while it is most likely to be hindered by factors that obstruct achieving those needs. They further claim that certain external factors "such as rewards and threats undermine autonomy and thus lead to non-optimal outcomes such as decreased intrinsic motivation, less creativity, and poorer problem solving" (p.234).

When emphasising the effects of rewards on intrinsic motivation, Deci and Ryan (2000) affirm that if external rewards are used to make individuals perform an activity which is already motivating for them, they would feel the rewards have imposed a certain control on their performance, which would cause an alteration "in the perceived locus of causality for the behavior from internal to external [...] [because they] feel less like origins of their behavior and thus display less intrinsic motivation" (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p.234). The

negative effect of reward on individuals' intrinsic motivation is further focused on by Ryan and Deci (2006) as they see that “[it] is the very power of rewards to control behavior that makes people vulnerable to the loss of intrinsic motivation and, more generally, to not behave authentically or in accord with abiding values and interests” (p.1569).

In addition to that, the CET asserts that other participants to the social context (such as family, peers, and teachers) who exert behaviours to provide individuals with, for example, rewards, interactions, and feedback will lead them to have a positive feeling about his/her abilities while performing an activity, and will most probably increase their intrinsic motivation for doing the activity “because they allow satisfaction of the basic psychological need for competence” (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p.58).

Another factor affecting the strength of intrinsic motivation is interest. Pintrich (2003, p.113) illustrates the importance of interest, as a constituent of task value and a process, in enhancing intrinsic motivation. He claims that “intrinsic motivation is represented by individuals choosing to do a task freely and feeling self-determined or autonomous in their behavior while doing the task” (2003, p.113). Pintrich (2003) adhere to the idea expressed by Ryan and Deci (2000a, pp.59-60) about the importance of interest to intrinsic motivation in the sense that they postulate that “intrinsic motivation will occur only for activities that hold intrinsic interest for an individual –those that have the appeal of novelty, challenge, or aesthetic value for that individual”.

2.8.a.2. Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation is a second form of motivation set by the Self-Determination Theory. Ryan and Deci (2000a, p.60) identify extrinsic motivation as “a construct that pertains whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome”. They

explain that this type of motivation is very often related to the presence of external factors to the task per se (Vallerand et al., 1989; Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Deci & Ryan, 2008). This is due to the fact that the tasks “are performed not out of interest but because they are believed to be instrumental to some separable consequence” (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier & Ryan, 1991, p.328); that is to say, individuals who are extrinsically motivated engage in the activity in order to arrive at results independent from the activity itself “such as receiving a reward, avoiding guilt, or gaining approval” (Deci, Ryan & Williams, 1996, p.167).

Viewing extrinsic motivation from this perspective may suggest that the autonomy component is rather absent from this type of motivation. Nevertheless, the SDT maintains that extrinsic motivation displays various degrees of autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). An individual who obeys external constraints, such as accomplishing an activity to avoid punishment, is extrinsically motivated because s/he is doing the task to arrive at an independent result. Conversely, when an individual acts as a result of approval of external regulation is equally extrinsically motivated, except that this one will feel having alternative (Ryan & Deci, 2000a).

Two key concepts were identified while explaining extrinsic motivation namely internalisation and integration (Deci, Ryan & Williams, 1996; Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Ryan and Deci (2000a, p.61) define internalisation, “the process of taking in a value or regulation [that] describes how one’s motivation for behavior can range from amotivation or unwillingness, to passive compliance, to active personal commitment”; and integration, “the process by which individuals more fully transform the regulation into their own so that it will emanate from their sense of self”. In other words, internalisation refers to accepting an external factor as being significant to oneself, while integration means transforming that

same external factor into an internal –personal- one. Deci, Ryan and Williams (1996) further argue that “[t]he more fully a regulation has been internalized, the more it represents integration and thus provides the basis for volitional behaving” (p.168).

Under the SDT, a second sub-theory emerged in order illustrate the different aspects of extrinsic motivation and account for the factor that may strengthen or decrease it; the Organismic Integration Theory (OIT) (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p.61). Ryan and Deci (2000a) propose four types of extrinsic motivation. Deci, Ryan and Williams (1996) claim that these types are related to the degree individuals internalise external regulation and integrate it to their own beliefs in initiating behaviour.

The first type of extrinsic motivation is external regulation, which refers to accomplishing a task to comply with an external constrain or get a reward (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Pintrich (2003, 114) explain that this kind of motivation may bring in good results; there is no self-determination on the part of individuals though. The second type is called introjected regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2000a).

Unlike in the previous type where the regulation is totally external, in this type the regulation is partially internal as “the source of motivation is internal (feelings of *should*, *ought*, *guilt*) to the person but not self-determined because these feelings seem to be controlling the person” (Pintrich, 2003, p.114). Another reason why behaviour is not self-determined is that these regulations have not been incorporated by individuals within their own scope of motives (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p.236). Deci and Ryan (2000) further argue that regulation of behaviour is exerted by dependent results imposed by individuals to themselves. Pintrich (2003) states that “Deci and Ryan assume that this level of motivation

also could have some beneficial outcomes for engagement, persistence, and achievement” (p.114).

Identification represents the third type of extrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci 2000a). When individuals acknowledge a task or behaviour as having a value that is significant to them, they would embark on performing the task or starting the behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Pintrich, 2003). By accepting the value of a task or behaviour as theirs, individuals demonstrate that they have a higher degree of internalisation of the regulation, and engagement would be more autonomous (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p.236). The importance of this type lies, Deci and Ryan (2000, p.236) assert, in the fact that “[r]egulations based on identifications, because the self has endorsed them, are expected to be better maintained and to be associated with higher commitment and performance”.

The fourth type of extrinsic motivation is integrated regulation (Ryan & Deci 2000a). It means that the regulation has been fully integrated as a result of internalisation. Deci and Ryan (2000, p.236) describe integrated regulation as the most internalised type of extrinsic motivation for it goes beyond a simple identification of the values of a task or behaviour to reach an integration of those values to one’s own beliefs, and to achieve this “people must grasp their importance and synthesize their meaning with respect to other values and motivations” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p.239). This last type of extrinsic motivation is the closely related to intrinsic motivation because behaviour is self-determined and autonomous as in intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1991; Pintrich, 2003).

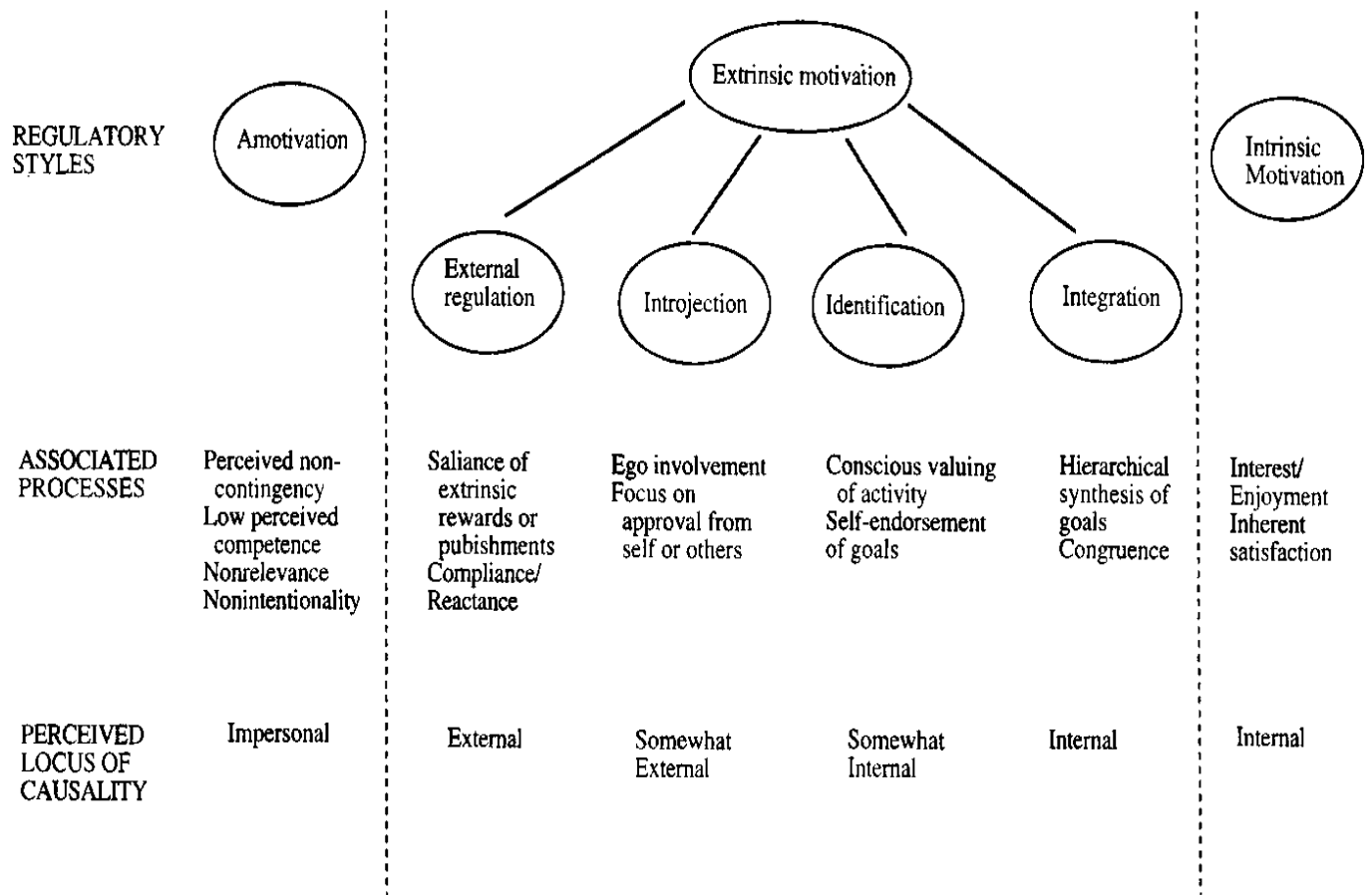


Figure 2: A taxonomy of human motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p.61)

According to Deci and Ryan (2000, p.237), the construct of intrinsic motivation as well as the four type of extrinsic motivation, “fall along a continuum anchored by controlled and autonomous regulation”. This is fully illustrated in the previous figure (Figure 2) as presented by Ryan and Deci (2000a, p.61). The figure shows forms of regulation, represented by amotivation, extrinsic motivation with its four types, and intrinsic motivation. It illustrates also the different processes underlying each form that individuals undergo when initiating behaviour. Finally, it includes the source of control and reasons why individuals act or behave, referred to as perceived locus of causality.

2.8.b. The Psychological Needs in the Self-Determination Theory

In the SDT perspective, the psychological needs are those of competence, relatedness and autonomy. Deci et al. (1991, p.327) define them as follows:

Competence involves understanding how to attain various external and internal outcomes and being efficacious in performing the requisite actions; relatedness involves developing secure and satisfying connections with others in one's social milieu; and autonomy refers to being self-initiating and self-regulating of one's own actions.

2.8.b.1. Autonomy

The SDT tackles autonomy in order to understand “actions that are autonomous and volitional - that is, actions for which people feel a full sense of choice and endorsement of an activity” (Deci & Ryan, 2008, p.15) because it stipulates that psychological needs affect behaviour.

This aspect seems to be related to both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Deci and Ryan (2000) stipulate that the activities that aim at achieving specific goals may vary in terms of autonomy or self-determination; in other words, “in the extent to which they are enacted with a full sense of volition and choice” (p.237). In this perspective, Skinner and Belmont (1993) explain that autonomy support is most likely to support children's need for autonomy because it “refers to the amount of freedom a child is given to determine his or her own behavior” (p.573).

According to Deci and Ryan (2000, p.231), autonomy is referred to as “the experience of integration and freedom, and it is an essential aspect of healthy human functioning”. Ryan and Deci (2000b, p.74) claim that, under the SDT, autonomy relates to willingness to perform and achieve a task, “whether dependent or independent, collectivist or individualist”,

rather than being self-reliant or isolated. Self-regulation is also synonymous of autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2006, p.1557), as the individual defines what the reasons for his/her actions are, and s/he further provides rules of conduct for himself or herself for having a certain behaviour.

Ryan and Deci (2006, p.1563) account for autonomy as having a varying intensity since self-regulation and controlled regulation stand at opposite points on the same axis, and that they reflect intentional behaviour despite that they “involve different types of regulatory processes” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p.237). In this scope, autonomy would be seen as “an experience of an internally focused, volitional intention to act” (Reeve & Jang, 2006, p.209).

When people, especially learners, are intrinsically motivated, they tend to have a sense of autonomy and self-determination (Pintrich, 2003, p.106), and any kind of external circumstances that would try to exert control over them is hindering to their feeling of autonomy (Deci et al., 1991, p.335). The use of some motivational strategies –like rewards– may, nevertheless, negatively affect individuals’ autonomy, and consequently, lead to less favourable results as diminishing intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p.234). However, when individuals assimilate external factors as theirs and adopt the value of the task as theirs, they would strongly feel that they possess the behaviour and avoid opposing the external regulation, resulting in a more autonomous behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p.237).

2.8.b.2. Competence

Competence is regarded as one of the three basic innate psychological needs addressed by the SDT. Its role is vital because it “can energize human activity and must be satisfied for long-term psychological health” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p.231).

Schultheiss and Brunstein (2005, p.42) claim that competence is “a multifaceted concept” that refers to the aptitudes an individual possesses and that enable him or her to be effective in dealing with different situations, and to be successful in whatever s/he undertakes. They further distinguish three aspects of competence; competence as effectiveness, competence as success, and competence as ability. In simpler words, competence can be explained in terms of “effectiveness, ability, sufficiency, or success” (Elliot & Dweck, 2005, p.5).

The notion of competence presented under the SDT can be assimilated to self-efficacy (Pintrich 2003; Brophy, 2004). Ryan and Deci (2000b) use the term perceived competence to refer to self-efficacy, which Bandura (1997) defines as the way individuals perceive their abilities to perform an action or start and maintain behaviour.

Yet, Ryan and Deci (2000a, p.58) argue that it is not enough for individuals to feel competent to perform an activity, but they have also to actually perform the activity as both the manifestation of their self-determination to initiate behaviour and the fulfilment of their needs of competence and autonomy. According to Wigfield and Wagner (2005), individuals’ competence is associated with their “performance on different activities, effort exerted in them, and choices of which activities to pursue, and which to avoid” (p.222). In addition to that, they argue that perceived competence helps develop children’s intrinsic motivation for a particular activity, particularly if that activity is related to achievement.

In attempt to account for the factors that influence one’s competence and perception of competence, Senko, Durik and Harackiewicz (2008) explain competence in terms of learning (mastery) goals and performance goals as each category of goals defines competence in distinct way. They stipulate that:

When pursuing performance goals, people try to validate their ability by outperforming peers, and so they define success versus failure with normative standards. When pursuing mastery goals, they instead try to develop their ability, and so they define success versus failure with self-referential standards. (p.100)

Alderman (2004) posits that learners who have performance goals develop their sense of competence by comparing themselves to others. On the other hand, those learners who have learning goals tend to develop their competence because they relate their abilities to development from past performances or from complying with certain norms of success (Alderman, 2004).

In this respect, Alderman (2004, p.77) argue that peer modelling “is especially recommended for enhancement of self-efficacy among low-achieving students who are more doubtful about attaining the level of competence demonstrated by the teacher”. However, Wigfield and Wagner (2005) warn from the pervasive effects of modelling and comparison on children as they are likely to be uncertain about their abilities, and which in turn may “lead to a decrease in students’ motivation, especially for students doing less well in school” (p.227).

In addition to modelling and comparison, feedback can also have an effect on competence. Deci and Ryan (2000, p.235) explain that instances of “positive feedback that foster perceived competence tend to enhance intrinsic motivation”. Besides, feelings of competence do not only influence intrinsic motivation, but they have a positive effect on self-determined aspects of extrinsic motivation (Vallerand et al., 1989, p.329). Nevertheless, and in spite of the fact that feedback may help in developing beliefs of competence, Alderman (2004) argues that “[e]xtremely positive or negative feedback can be detrimental to children’s beliefs about their competence” (Alderman, 2004, p.49)

Deci et al. (1991) argue that supporting competence is a good way to increase motivation, but “will enhance intrinsic motivation and integrated internalization only if it is administered in a way that is autonomy supportive” (p.333). Deci, Ryan and Williams (1996) adhere to this opinion as they think that experiencing autonomy will help individuals be more self-determined. Moreover, Ryan and Deci (2000a) emphasise the importance of autonomy in developing feelings of competence. They assert that “feelings of competence will *not* enhance intrinsic motivation unless they are accompanied by *a sense of autonomy* or, in attributional terms, by an *internal perceived locus of causality*” (p.58).

2.8.b.3. Relatedness

As an innate psychological need proposed in Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), relatedness “refers to the desire to feel connected to others” (p.231). Furthermore, Brophy (2004) defines it as one’s desire to be connected to others members of his/her community through social relationships. This concept was referred to as the need for belongingness in the hierarchy of human needs developed by Maslow (1943, 1962).

Under the SDT perspective, relatedness is explained as the natural tendency of people to search for a reason to adopt their society’s norms and regulations for actions and behaviours (Deci & Ryan, 2000). This need to create social links with a group constitutes a solid “motivational basis for internalization, ensuring a more effective transmission of group knowledge to the individual and a more cohesive social organization” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p.253). In other words, the need to feel that one is part of a group and that s/he is complying with the groups’ standards and conventions is crucial for him/her to internalise a particular behaviour because “internalisation is more likely to be in evidence when there are ambient

supports for feelings of relatedness” (Ryan & Deci, 2000b, p.73). Moreover, this need is central well as to maintain strong social relationships within that group (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Deci and Ryan (2000) claim that the SDT proposes that “intrinsic motivation will be more likely to flourish in contexts characterized by a sense of secure relatedness” (p.235). Just like autonomy and competence, research has proved that relatedness is crucial role, “albeit a more distal one, in the maintenance of intrinsic motivation” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p.235). Deci, Ryan and Williams (1996) maintain that intrinsic motivation will increase in the presence of an adequate background to satisfy one’s need for relatedness to a group. It is argued, however, that supporting individuals’ sense of relatedness is most like to “enhance intrinsic motivation and integrated internalization only if the involved others are autonomy supportive” (Deci et al., 1991, 333).

Deci et al. (1991) make a distinction between relatedness and autonomy. They state that “relatedness involves developing secure and satisfying connections with others in one’s social milieu; and autonomy refers to being self-initiating and self-regulating of one’s own actions” (p.327). Very often, the need for relatedness and the need for autonomy are perceived be opposed to each other. Deci and Ryan (2000) explain that this misunderstanding is due to the fact that autonomy is often seen as independence or individualism; while it is in fact “the experience of integration and freedom, and it is an essential aspect of healthy human functioning” (p.231).

On the other hand, the role of relatedness in extrinsic motivation is explained as follows:

Because extrinsically motivated behaviors are not inherently interesting and thus must initially be externally prompted, the primary reason people are likely to be willing to do the behaviors is that they are valued by significant others to whom they feel (or would like to feel) connected, whether that be a family, a peer group, or a society. This suggests that the groundwork for facilitating internalization is providing a sense of belongingness and connectedness to the persons, group, or culture disseminating a goal, or what in SDT we call a sense of *relatedness* (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p.64).

As a sub theory within the SDT, the Organismic Integration Theory (OIT) (Ryan and Deci, 2000a) additionally stipulate that the process of internalisation - accepting an external factor as being significant to oneself- will be substantially remarkable “when there are ambient supports for feelings of relatedness” (Ryan & Deci, 2000b, p.73)

3. Conclusion

What seems to be common to all the theories and approaches dealt with in this chapter is the fact that motivation is not a simple phenomenon to define. The reason is that many processes and elements interact with each other at different levels and to various extents that it becomes very delicate to account for all the factors that compose an individual’s motivation to behave in a particular way or to undertake a specific course of actions.

The most basic approach to motivation tried to explain it in terms of reinforcement. Behaviourists considered that people who are motivated to perform an action as merely responding to a stimulus (Brophy, 2004; Brown, 2007). This approach tried to establish a cause-effect relationship between conditions and actual behaviours.

Another way of approaching motivation was in terms of needs. On the one hand, Maslow (1943, 1962) regarded human motivation as a reaction to a number of human needs that he organised into a pyramidal hierarchy. He claimed that human needs are basically physiological, and that only after fulfilling those basic needs that people can move to higher

needs in the pyramid. On the other hand, McClelland et al. (1953) related motivation mainly to the need for achievement as they stipulated that people have an innate desire to accomplish and, therefore, they initiate behaviour in an attempt to satisfy this need.

Because need theories proved to be limited in accounting for all the aspects of motivation, some other approaches focused on values and beliefs people hold not only about tasks, but also about themselves as doers. This gave birth to the expectancy theory (Pintrich, 2003) and the self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997; Zimmerman, 2000). Both theories emphasised the role of individuals in determining their behaviour through their beliefs and expectations about the reasons of their success and their own capabilities.

In the same scope, the goal theory tried to explain motivation in relation to the goals individuals set before they undertake any course of actions (Locke & Latham, 1994; Alderman, 2004; Brohpy, 2004). This theory presented individuals as agents in determining their own behaviour since they choose to adopt particular behaviour according to the goal they set for themselves, or –in other case- others set for them.

The Self-Determination Theory marked a return to the needs' approach, but this time from the perspective of psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The SDT referred to motivation as the satisfaction of psychological needs represented basically by autonomy, competence and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000, Ryan & Deci, 2000a, 2000b). The proponents of this theory make a very important distinction between two types of motivation; intrinsic motivation, the doing of an action for its own sake, and extrinsic motivation, the doing of an action for an external reward.

In spite of all the discussion that has followed each theory the construct of motivation maintains a certain need for further investigation. No theory or approach has succeeded to

provide a comprehensive view of this phenomenon. Instead, they opened new perspectives for further research on motivation.

CHAPTER THREE:

READING MOTIVATION

1. Introduction

The models of reading presented by Mathewson (1985, 1994) and Ruddell and Speaker (1985) show another aspect of reading, which is the affective dimension. Moreover, they affirm that the affective facet is as important as the cognitive one.

The affective dimension of reading is, unfortunately, rarely addressed in reading syllabuses at different educational levels, let apart reading motivation. Reading motivation is very often tackled as a simple matter since it is generally associated with interest. Most often, teachers believe that motivation for reading can be achieved through choosing texts and activity that arouse students' interest in reading. Moreover, reading syllabus designers have not included any aspect of reading motivation, nor have they explained the importance of motivation in reading comprehension. Theorists rather chose to focus on motivation for learning in general, and assumed that what applies to it would also apply to reading as language skill.

This chapter is solely devoted to discuss reading motivation. We have opted for dedicating this chapter exclusively to reading motivation for three main reasons. Firstly, reading motivation concerns a specific domain, and as the literature review will demonstrate, reading motivation is different from general motivation. The second reason is that reading motivation is of such a complexity that including it under general motivational theories would have restricted the scope of investigation. Finally, this choice has been operated to achieve a balance between the different sections of the whole dissertation.

The present chapter describes reading motivation through explaining the different dimensions of motivation related to reading in the light of the theories of motivation and views presented previously in Chapter Two. It tackles also the importance of reading motivation and how it relates to comprehension, which is the natural outcome of reading. In addition to that, this chapter will clarify what reading engagement and engaged readers mean as they both associate with reading motivation.

2. Reading Motivation

Studies and research have not dealt with motivation for reading in second/foreign language per se, but only with reading motivation in L1 (Mori, 2002). Apart from Day and Bamford (1998), no other attempts have been made to describe motivation for reading in second/foreign language (Mori, 2002). Besides, Paris & Carpenter (2004) explain that reading motivation in adults and adolescents can be assimilated to children's; and , therefore, “[t]hese similarities allow us to understand children's motivation to read with reference to many research studies on motivation of adolescents and adults” (p.61).

2.1. Defining Reading Motivation

Guthrie and Wigfield (2000, p.405) propose that “*reading motivation is the individual's personal goals, values, and beliefs with regard to the topics, processes, and outcomes of reading*”. According to this definition, one would come to two main conclusions: The first is that reading motivation is made up of the putting together of different aspects of motivation in a complex way. The second is the kind of agency individuals have over it since they can manage, organise and direct their motivation to read according to their beliefs, values and goals (Wigfield & Tonks, 2004).

In a research treating the dimensions of reading motivation, Baker and Wigfield (1999) confirm the view about the multidimensionality of reading motivation (Guthrie, Wigfield & VonSecker, 2000). Paris and Carpenter (2004) argue that this feature in reading motivation has to do with the nature of motivation as “a difficult psychological construct to define and measure, and [consequently] there is no single way to view or assess children’s motivation for reading” (p.78).

Day and Bamford (1998) give a broad view explaining motivation for reading in second/foreign language. They propose cognitive models to explain motivation where this concept is made up of “two equal components –expectations and value” (p.27). These models claim that individuals would undertake activities about which they expect to perform well, and would avoid any activity in which they have lesser expectations of success. These expectations about different degrees of success in tasks are determined by the extent to which individuals value the task (Day & Bamford, 1998). Furthermore, the model presented by Day and Bamford (1998) is also to witness on the multi-faceted nature of reading motivation, despite the fact that it gives only two components –expectancy and value- (Mori, 2002).

As far as reading is concerned, Day and Bamford (1998, p.27) posit that “unless students have a reasonable expectation that they will be able to read a book with understanding, they will most likely not begin the undertaking”. The second component of motivation for reading, which is value, needs also to be fulfilled. In a perfect situation, students would consider a reading activity essentially important for them “in learning to read and as a source of pleasure and information” (Day & Bamford, 1998, p.28). The following figure (Figure 3) explains how expectancy and value component relate in deciding to read in a second language:

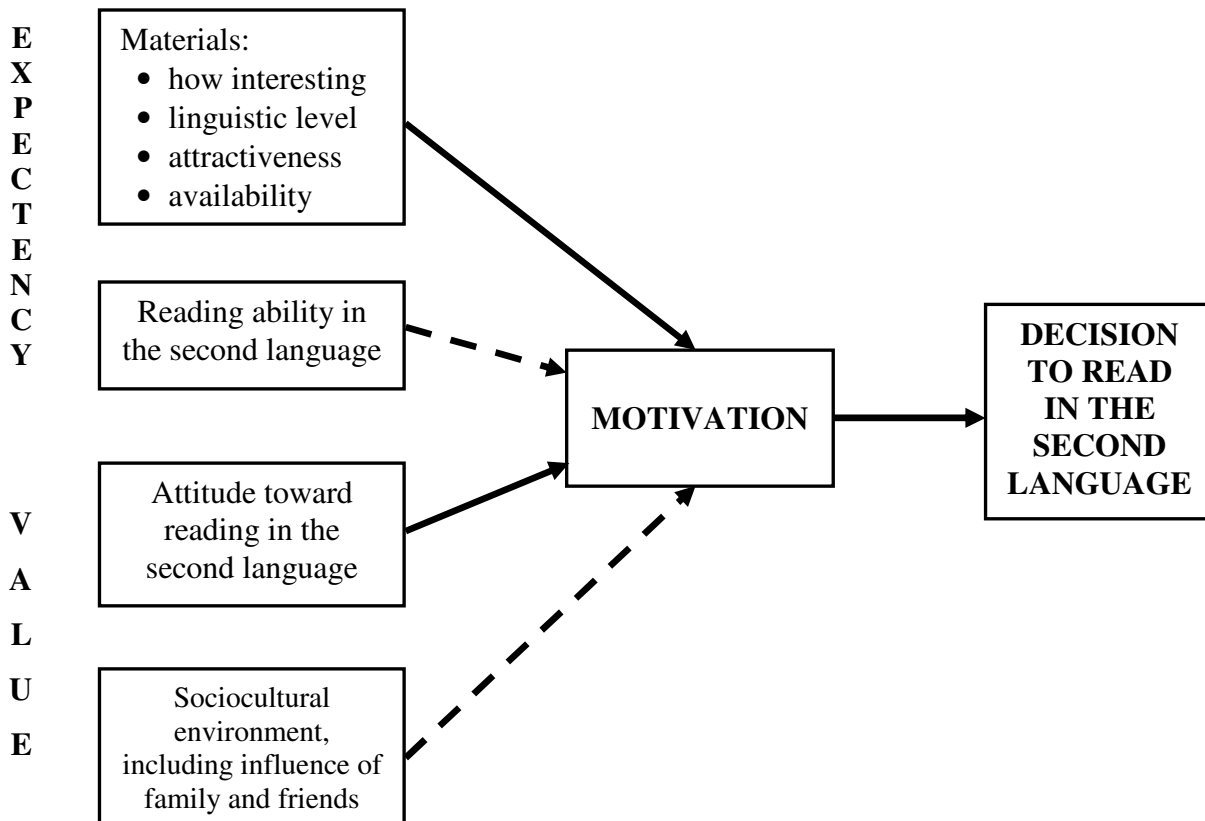


Figure 3: Model of the major variables motivating the decision to read in a second language (Day & Bamford, 1998, p.28)

This figure explains how, according to Day and Bamford (1998), students of a second language decide to read in the second language depending on the two key concepts (expectancy and value).

The expectancy component relates to reading materials students are exposed to in terms of the amount and type of interest the material may stimulate, the linguistic structure and the language used in the reading material, attractiveness as established both by the interest of the text and by its linguistic structure, and the availability of the reading material and whether students' have easy access to the material. Paris and Carpenter (2004) agree with this opinion about the role of the reading material. They explain that "motivation to read is influenced by

both the content and structure of text” (p.69). Students’ proficiency level in the target language as part of their ability in reading in the target language also plays a role in building their expectancy.

Value is related to attitudes of students toward the target language because it emerges from the beliefs they hold about it. In addition to that, values students have are the fruit of constraints exerted by their society, native culture, with a great influence from family and peers. Paris and Carpenter (2004) share this same view as they believe that, to some extent, motivation to read lies within individuals.

Day and Bamford (1998, p.28) claim that variables concerning the reading material and attitude towards reading in the target language have stronger effect on motivation than other variables do.

In the same respect of what Day and Bamford (1998) present as components of reading motivation, Paris and Carpenter (2004) assert that reading motivation emerges from the complex combination and interaction of children’s experience with reading and their abilities, their aim behind undertaking a reading task, the features of the reading material, and the social backing context of the reading task.

Mori (2002) hypothesises that, despite the differences, reading motivation in the second/foreign language is greatly similar to reading motivation in one’s first language; thus, reading motivation in second/foreign language “would be a multidimensional construct, and, to a certain degree, independent of general motivational constructs” (p.95). The fact that reading motivation is not automatically assimilated to general motivation results from the assumption that “students’ motivation may be, to a certain extent, domain-specific [...] students may be, for example, motivated to speak or listen, but not to read in English”(Mori,

2002, p.92). In other words, students may display varying degrees of motivation for some activities in the second/foreign language and not others, but not necessarily all.

2.2. Significance of Reading Motivation

The importance of motivation lies in the fact that it “influences the individual's activities, interactions, and learning with text” (Guthrie & Wigfield, 1999, p.199). Reading motivation is crucial for students as it connects to their reading comprehension. Guthrie and Wigfield (1999) propose a model of reading comprehension that includes motivational process in parallel to cognitive ones, and that they “share the common feature of correlating with text comprehension” (p.201). The following figure (Figure 4) represents the model proposed by Guthrie and Wigfield (1999) to illustrate the relationship between motivation and reading comprehension.

Cognitive Processes

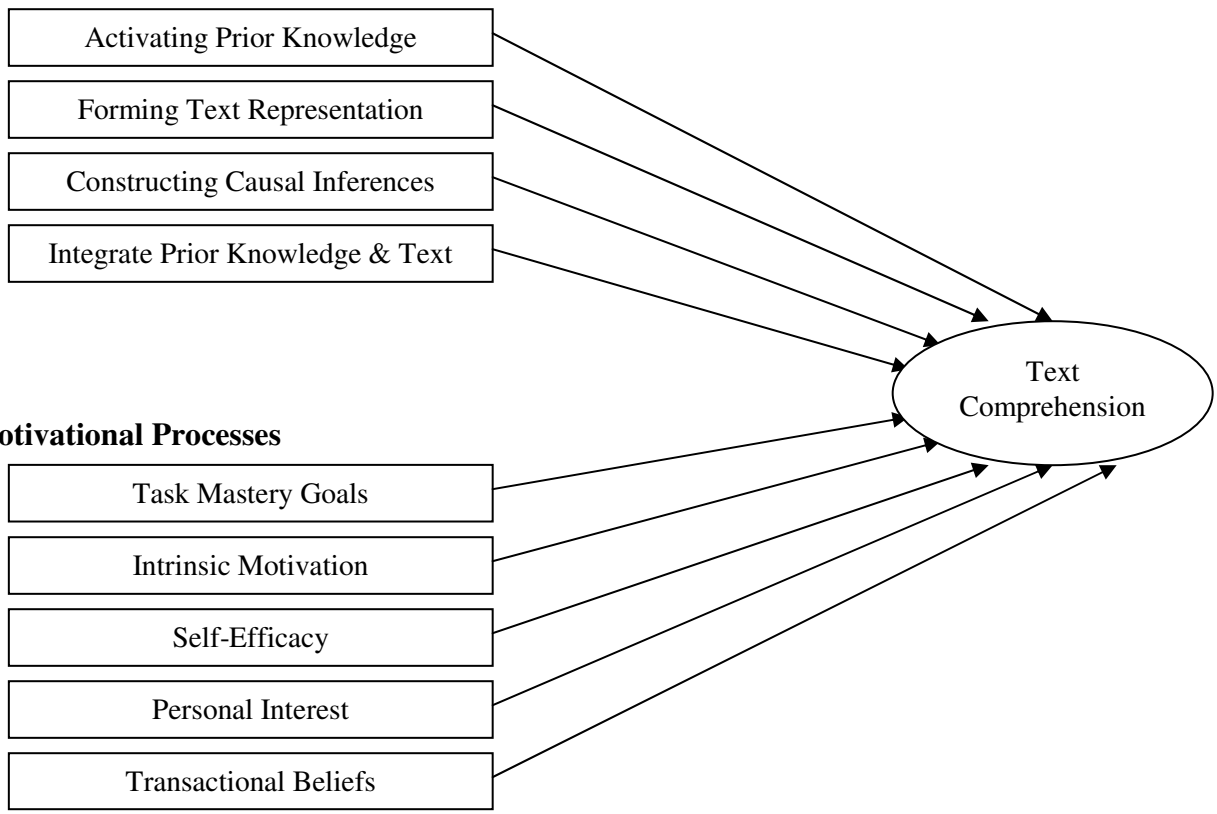


Figure 4: Motivational-cognitive model of reading (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2005, p.189)

The cognitive processes of reading comprehension represent the stages readers go through in their quest for understanding (Guthrie & Wigfield, 1999). The first process is activating previous knowledge about not only the topic of the text, the form and the type of text, but about the world and their experiences as well. This enables the readers to make prediction about what they are going to read. This view of the text helps readers build a mental representation for the text corresponding to its representation on the page. The next level concerns creating connections between ideas of the text by trying to make deduction based on cause and effect relationships. The last cognitive process is combining prior knowledge with what the text would bring in to help build their understanding.

Parallel to these cognitive processes, there lie motivational processes which are equally important in achieving reading comprehension. Guthrie and Wigfield (1999) explain that the motivational processes represented in the figure are not the only ones that influence readers' reading comprehension, but "they represent central processes in various motivation theories" (p.200).

Task-mastery goals relate to readers' reasons behind choosing to undertake reading activities and interact with the text. Identifying goals and purposes for reading enables readers determine the amount of time and effort to invest in the reading activity to achieve comprehension. The second motivational process is intrinsic motivation; "an individual participating in reading for its own sake, enjoying the knowledge constructed from text, and being disposed toward engaging in reading activity when it is possible and appropriate" (Guthrie & Wigfield, 1999, p.201).

Self-efficacy refers to readers' perception of their abilities to embark on reading activities and interact with the text (Guthrie, Wigfield, Metsala, & Cox, 1999). The fourth process at work is personal interest which refers to the value readers give reading and the encouraging influence they believe the text contains. Transactional beliefs refer to what extent readers believe their abilities, knowledge and experiences, and values they give to the act of reading correlate with their understanding of the text.

The definition of reading comprehension provided by Snow (2002) –and mentioned in the first chapter dedicated to reading- explicitly states that motivation is related to reading comprehension (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2005). For Snow (2002), "reading comprehension is the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language" (p.11). Guthrie and Wigfield (2005, p.206) explain that

the phrase “*involvement with written language* [...] refers to motivational processes”, and they reiterate their firm conviction about the fact that “motivational processes are integral to reading comprehension” (p.206).

Not only does reading motivation relate to reading comprehension, but it also relates to both the amount of reading and students’ reading achievement (Baker & Wigfield, 1999; Guthrie & Wigfield, 1999, 2005; Guthrie, Wigfield, Metsala, & Cox, 1999; Guthrie & Knowles, 2001). Guthrie et al. (2006, p.232) explain that “reading motivation correlates with students’ amount of reading”. Similarly, Guthrie and Knowles (2001) posit that the cognitive components of reading help improve learners’ reading achievement and suggest that “motivational variables also make significant contributions to our ability to account for reading achievement” (p.148). Aspects of motivation including –but not limited to- intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and self-efficacy have highly correlated with reading achievement (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2005).

Guthrie and Wigfield (2005, p.206) declare that “motivation is causally related to comprehension in the sense that classroom conditions that increase reading motivation also increase reading comprehension and recall of text that is read”.

For this purpose, some motivation researchers and theorists set a model of motivation that is specifically devised for reading comprehension (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2005). This model comes as a confirmation of what has been stated previous about motivation as being domain specific. Guthrie and Wigfield (2005, p.191) explain that there is “a distinction is drawn between general motivation, which is pervasive and enduring across contexts and time [...] and situational motivation, which refers to immediate affective responses prompted by particular characteristics of a task or a text”. They emphasise the idea that reading motivation

is domain-specific as it pertains to a situation that requires an emotional reaction specific to a reading material, and that would vary according to the variety of activities initiating it.

2.3. Dimensions of Reading Motivation

Some researchers argue that reading motivation is a multi-faceted (or a multidimensional) construct in which many variables interact and combine (Guthrie & Wigfield, 1997, 2000, 2005, Day & Bamford, 1998; Baker & Wigfield, 1999; Guthrie, Wigfield & VonSecker, 2000; Mori 2002; Paris & Carpenter, 2004; Wigfield & Tonks, 2004).

In the light of the definition of reading motivation, Guthrie and Wigfield (1997) constructed a theoretical categorization of dimensions of reading motivation that is made up of three major categories.

The first category of dimensions is related to reading competence and reading efficacy beliefs (Baker & Wigfield, 1999). It includes reading efficacy, challenge and work avoidance. In the second category, Guthrie and Wigfield (1997) included reasons why individuals read. It consists of achievement values and goals in reading (Baker & Wigfield, 1999; Mori, 2002).

The second category describes reading achievement values and goals. This category is, in fact, divided into two subcategories –intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation for reading. Intrinsic motivation for reading relates to curiosity, involvement, and importance of reading (Baker & Wigfield, 1999; Mori, 2002). On the other hand, the dimensions presented under extrinsic motivation for reading are competition, recognition, and grades.

Guthrie and Wigfield (1997) claim that relying on the assumption that reading is a social endeavour, the third category of dimensions accounts for social aspects of reading (Mori,

2002; Baker & Wigfield, 2002). This set of dimensions comprises social reasons for reading and compliance.

2.3.a. Reading Competence and Self-Efficacy

Guthrie and Wigfield (1997) included in the first category readers' competence and efficacy principles. The first dimension in this category is self-efficacy defined by Bandura (1997) and Zimmerman (2000) as the beliefs individuals hold about their ability to achieve a task or have. Reading efficacy, according to Guthrie et al. (1996), refers to the state in which the reader is "feeling that reading behaviors are completely under one's own control [...] Perceiving that there are choices about when, where, and how to read [...] that one can read independently [and] [c]onfident in one's own abilities" (p.330). Put in simpler words, reading self-efficacy is "the belief that one can be successful at reading" (Baker & Wigfield, 1999, p.453).

The second dimension of reading motivation is challenge, which is also related to self-efficacy (Guthrie & Wigfield, 1997; Baker & Wigfield, 1999, Deci & Ryan, 2000). Challenge is rather associated to individuals' competence rather than beliefs about their efficacy (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Guthrie et al. (1996) explicate that the challenge dimension concerns having the will to engage in reading tasks regardless of the level of difficult the text may display, or simply selecting a text to read for the stimulating effect its difficulty may arise. In other words, challenge in reading is "the willingness to take on difficult reading material" (Baker and Wigfield, 1999, p.453). Guthrie and Wigfield (1997, p.422) define challenge in the light of reading comprehension as "the satisfaction of mastering or assimilating complex ideas in text".

The third dimension belonging to this category is work avoidance; “the desire to avoid reading activities” (Baker & Wigfield, 1999, p.453). Guthrie et al. (1996) explain that the work avoidance dimension means to use “reading as a buffer to avoid punishment or unpleasant consequences” (p.320). According to Guthrie and Wigfield (1997), this dimension refers to the aspects of reading readers often say they do not like.

Within this category, the three dimensions are related. Self-efficacy is connected to challenge in the sense that when individuals believe they have the necessary abilities to undertake reading tasks and to achieve text comprehension, they are likely to take part in such tasks (Baker & Wigfield, 1997). Furthermore, when readers display a low level of self-efficacy, they are most likely to choose reading activities that represent lesser challenge (Baker & Wigfield, 1999).

2.3.b. Reading Achievement Values and Goals

The dimensions presented under this category are described in terms of intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Baker and Wigfield (1999) and Mori (2002) explain that intrinsic motivation is connected to task-mastery goals because they refer to the case in which “individuals focus on mastering tasks and increasing competence at different tasks” (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997, p.421), while extrinsic motivation is associated with performance goals as they refer to individuals who “seek to maximize favorable evaluations of their ability and minimize negative evaluations of ability” (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997, p.421).

Task-mastery goals (known also as learning goals, mastery goals, or task-involvement goals) are the goals individuals set to focus on learning what they are taught through tasks (Alderman, 2004; Brophy, 2004). On the other hand, performance (known also as ego-involvement goals) can be defined as how individuals perceive themselves as skilful

achievers because these goals focus on ability and not effort, and the image individuals want to convey about their ability to perform a task in comparison to others (Pintrich, 2003; Alderman, 2004; Brophy, 2004).

Intrinsic motivation for reading concerns “an individual’s participation in reading for its own sake, and positive disposition toward engaging in reading activity” (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2005, p.190). In this respect, task-mastery goals associate with “the nature of the reader’s intentions for a given reader-text interaction” (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2005, p.190).

The first dimension in the intrinsic motivation subcategory is curiosity. Reading curiosity can be defined as readers’ eagerness and readiness to explore the world and acquire perspectives and ideas through reading about both interesting and involving topics (Guthrie, Wigfield, & VonSecker, 2000, p.334). According to Guthrie et al. (1996, p.330) curiosity refers to readers embarking on reading activity “to explore a new topic or to build upon previous knowledge of a topic or personality/character that they are interested in”. In addition to that, Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) define it as “the desire to learn about a particular topic of interest” (p.422). Curiosity is crucial to intrinsic motivation because satisfying curiosity is in itself rewarding, and individuals do not wait for an external reward (Guthrie, Wigfield, & Perencevich, 2004)

Involvement is the second dimension of intrinsic motivation for reading. In fact, the kind of involvement that is referred to here is task-involvement goals (learning goals) because it explain individuals’ “focus on trying to learn whatever the task is designed to teach them” (Brophy, 2004, p.9). Involvement in reading is the state of being absorbed in the reading activity because one gets a certain pleasure from the type of reading and its content, in addition to a positive feeling from undertaking the reading task (Guthrie et al., 1996).

Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) define involvement in reading as “the enjoyment of experiencing different kinds of literary or informational texts. [It] refers to the pleasure gained from reading a well-written book or article on a topic one finds interesting” (p.422).

The third dimension in this subcategory is importance of reading. According to Wigfield and Guthrie (1997), this dimension is the most subjective one because it concerns the value and importance individuals associate to reading. Some readers use reading as a means to an end and, therefore, they would invest the necessary effort and time, integrate their beliefs about their abilities as capable readers and explore new topics in order to improve their reading skills and to use them in other learning situations. Conversely, other readers consider reading a pastime and undertake reading activities because they want to learn more about a particular topic just for pleasure, and would devote the appropriate time and energy to reach a certain amount of enjoyment from reading.

The second subcategory of dimensions is explained in relation to extrinsic motivation and performance goals (Baker & Wigfield, 1999; Mori, 2002). Extrinsically motivated individuals have their motivation originating from any benefit they gain for doing the activity, rather than from inside themselves because extrinsic motivation is doing an action for an external reward (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000a, 2000b). In reading motivation, it is the term used to describe factors that are external to individuals and that would influence performance and undertaking reading tasks (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). Similarly, readers having performance goals are those who look for external positive appraisal of their capabilities, and avoiding negative judgments (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997, p.421).

Competition is the first dimension of extrinsic motivation for reading. Competition refers to individuals comparing their abilities to theirs peers', and trying to outperform peers and be outstanding (Brophy, 2004). Guthrie et al. (1996) explain that competition for reading refers to the situation in which readers not only aspire to be better than others in performing reading tasks, but also to read more and to learn from reading more than others do. In agreement with this description, Guthrie, Wigfield, and VonSecker (2000) define competition in reading as "the desire to be superior to classmates and peers in reading tasks, activities, and standards" (p.334).

The second dimension in this subcategory is recognition. Brophy (2004) describes recognition as others acknowledging individuals' "accomplishments and appreciation of the progress they are making" (p.76). In the same respect, Wigfield and Guthrie (1997, p.422) define reading recognition as "the gratification in receiving a tangible form of recognition for success in reading". Reading recognition refers to the satisfaction readers have when others express their appreciation of their efforts, endeavours and success in reading tasks (Guthrie et al., 1996; Baker & Wigfield, 1999, Wigfield & Tonks, 2004).

Third dimension of extrinsic reading motivation is reading for grades, or what Wigfield and Guthrie (1997, p.422) define as "the desire to be evaluated favorably by the teacher". In other words, readers undertake reading activities because they aim at getting good scores in exams (Guthrie et al., 1996). It means that readers may read to have a reward, which is -in this case- a good score. Grades reflect the degree to which others' recognise someone's performance in reading as noteworthy and, at the same time, they allow readers to evaluate their performance while competing with others.

2.3.c. Social Aspects of Reading

Reading motivation includes social aspects of reading because reading is perceived as social activity in which readers interact individually and collectively with text (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997; Baker & Wigfield, 1999; Mori, 2002).

This category includes two dimensions. The first dimension concerns social reasons for reading. According to Wigfield and Guthrie (1997, p.422), social reasons for reading can be described as “the process of sharing the meanings gained from reading with friends and family”. Guthrie et al. (1996) explain that, in addition to being an activity in which individuals have some fun together, reading for social reasons refers to embarking on reading tasks in order to interact with other readers who value reading and encourage it, to exchange ideas and interests about reading materials, and to mutually help each other achieve comprehension by contributing with one another.

The second dimension included in this category is compliance, which Guthrie et al. (1996) define as performing reading tasks in order to comply with the expectations established by another person (family or teacher), and to be conventional to way peers (classmates) accomplish the reading assignment without further exploration. Wigfield and Guthrie (1997, p.422) describe compliance in simple words saying that it is “reading because of an external goal or requirement”. In other words, compliance means reading for factors outside the reader, and that s/he has to obey because s/he is part of a community.

As it has been noted earlier, these dimensions influence reading performance to various extents; however, the dimensions that relate most to reading are social, self-efficacy, curiosity, involvement, recognition, grades, and importance (Baker and Wigfield, 1999). Moreover, according to Wigfield and Tonks (2004, p.259), aspects of motivation are not

separate from each other because they are activated together and affect one another. Though these dimensions of reading motivation come into work altogether at the same time, their influence within readers will vary as some are stronger than other (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000).

3. Reading Engagement and Engaged Readers

There are two concept associates with reading motivation; reading engagement and engaged readers. According to Guthrie, Wigfield and Perencevich (2004, p.ix), “reading engagement is crucial for the development of life-long literacy learners”. This means that reading engagement is not a momentary feature in individuals because it promotes their abilities to undertake literacy activities all their life. Another definition of reading engagement refers to it as “the extent to which an individual reads to the exclusion of other activities, particularly when faced with other choices” (Kamil, 2003, p.7). This definition of reading engagement sheds the light on the fact that engagement is a deliberate behaviour on the part of the reader who chooses to undertake a reading activity rather than other activities.

Reading engagement can be described as the relationships between different aspects of motivation, between individuals and reading materials, and between individuals themselves, in addition to using adequate reading strategies and developing awareness about ideas (Guthrie, Wigfield, & Perencevich, 2004). In addition to that, Guthrie and Knowles (2001, p.145) posit that “[c]entral to reading engagement are many aspects of motivation that relate to reading”.

The other concept related to reading motivation is engaged readers. The National Institute for Literacy (NIFL) (2007) explains that the term is used to refer to individuals who “tend to enjoy reading and to read more frequently” (p.35). Moreover, Baker and Wigfield (1999)

claim that individuals who are engaged in reading usually develop various aims for undertaking reading activities, use what they have acquired from their past experiences to produce new meanings, and interact socially with other readers.

Readers' understanding of reading materials is highly influenced by their engaged reading because the latter does not refer only to a leisure activity, but also to a complex process that requires "the fusion of cognitive strategies, conceptual knowledge, and motivational goals during reading" (Guthrie & Knowles, 2001, p.145).

Guthrie (2004) states that engaged readers have four main features; they are cognitively competent, motivated, knowledge-driven, and socially interactive. When relating this explanation to the definition of reading engagement in terms of motivation and social interaction, we can identify engaged readers as follows:

Engaged readers are not only motivated and socially interactive but are also using their background knowledge to gain new understanding. As this understanding is often hard-won, engaged students are strategic in reading a variety of texts. They employ such strategies as questioning and summarizing to learn from books (Guthrie, Wigfield and Perencevich, 2004, p.58).

We can, therefore, distinguish the characteristic feature of engagement in reading as social interaction, conceptual knowledge growth, strategy use, and reading motivation – which was previously described.

3.1. Features of Engagement in Reading

3.1. a. Social Interaction

The first feature of engagement in reading and engaged readers is the social interaction that takes place between readers because reading is assumed to be a social activity (Wigfield and Guthrie, 1997). Readers who engage in reading are socially interacting as they exchange

books about different topics and/or attend reading clubs or any other social gatherings designed to discuss reading materials (Guthrie, 2004; Guthrie, Wigfield, & Perencevich, 2004).

Besides joining a community of readers, engagement is socially interactive because when engaged readers “need help understanding a word or event in a text, they can readily turn to their peers” (Guthrie, Wigfield, & Perencevich, 2004, p.58). Engaged readers use a number of social connections and in order to deepen their text comprehension and to increase the pleasure they have in learning from books. In other words, Guthrie, Wigfield and Perencevich (2004) explain, engaged readers are socially interacting in the sense that they “may share vocabulary meanings, comprehension strategies, note-taking techniques, and other tools for comprehending books” (p.58).

3.1.b. Knowledge Growth

According to Guthrie, Wigfield and Perencevich (2004, p.58), an essential part of reading engagement is “expanding knowledge and experience through text interaction”. To do so, engaged readers invest the necessary energy and time in trying to explore all the aspects related to the reading material. Guthrie (2004) argues that engaged readers intend to develop their knowledge by using what they have already learned and their experiences as basis to increase their knowledge and broaden their perspectives through reading.

3.1.c. Strategy Use

Guthrie and Wigfield (2005) provided a model of reading in which motivational factors as well as cognitive strategies influence reading comprehension. Therefore, engaged readers are said to possess “cognitive competence, referring to comprehension skills and cognitive

strategies for learning from texts” (Guthrie, 2004, p.3). In the same respect, Guthrie, Wigfield and Perencevich (2004) claim that engaged readers use comprehension strategies, in addition to other learning strategies, to develop their skills in reading and to increase their knowledge.

3.1.d. Reading Motivation

Engaged reading are also said to be motivated for reading. Guthrie, Wigfield, and Perencevich (2004) claim that, for example, engaged readers are intrinsically motivated, have a positive belief about their competence, and assimilate values they hold about reading to their own value.

Moreover, Guthrie and Wigfield (2000) stipulate that motivation “is crucial to engagement because motivation is what activates behavior” (p.406). In other words, motivated readers engage in a reading activity by investing more energy and time than they are likely to do with on other activities (Wigfield & Tonks, 2004). Similarly, motivation determines how dedicated readers are. Wigfield and Guthrie (2004, p.260-1) maintain that motivation “is one of the key factor that helps students persist when these challenges arise”.

Despite their crucial role, both reading motivation and reading engagement are affected by readers’ past experience with reading materials as well as with classroom settings where they have learned to read in the sense that they prevent both reading motivation and reading engagement from developing naturally (Guthrie, Wigfield, & Perencevich, 2004, p.59).

The interaction of these four features determines the extent to which readers are engaged. The four features should integrate in order for readers to engage in reading, and achieve well in reading activities. In case one of these features is lacking, engagement will not be fulfilled and readers will be said to be disengaged readers (Guthrie, 2004).

Disengaged readers, Guthrie (2004) clarifies, are those individuals who lack the cognitive strategies to undertake reading activities autonomously in pursuing meaning. If they possess these strategies, they are often not eager to explore texts in search for new perspectives. Disengaged readers are also short in confidence about their abilities as effective readers, and are likely to give up reading if they fail to get meaning right from the beginning. Ultimately, these readers tend to think reading a personal endeavour, and would not undertake any social interaction in reading, and would hesitate or refuse to share what they learn from reading materials.

Guthrie (2004, p.12) claims that:

Most basically, reading comprehension is learning from text. The reader interacts with the printed material to build new meanings. A relatively good reader can construct more, higher level meanings from a wider diversity of texts, than a relatively poor reader. Using a strategy helps students build interlinked knowledge that is taught.

In fact, Guthrie (2004) is making a link between reading engagement features and reading comprehension because this is what readers want to achieve from reading.

4. Conclusion

As part of human behaviour, reading has also affective features. Mathewson (1985, 1994) and Ruddell and Speaker (1985) were the first to acknowledge this truth and established affective models of reading in order to take into account these affective characteristics of reading.

Reading motivation lies at the centre of these affective features because it plays an important role in helping readers achieve reading comprehension as it is the ultimate purpose from undertaking a reading activity. Another reason why reading motivation is crucial to

reading as a process is that it helps readers understand how to start and maintain behaviours related to reading.

Reading motivation is a complex, multidimensional construct (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997; Baker & Wigfield, 1999; Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). One aspect of complexity is that motivational processes in reading are closely related to their cognitive counterparts. It is argued that both kinds of processes stand in parallel to each other in the overall reading process. They clearly affect the outcome of reading – that is comprehension- and further contribute in developing reading skills (Guthrie & Wigfield, 1999, 2005).

Similarly, reading motivation is seen as a multifaceted construct because it includes components from different motivational theories (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997; Baker & Wigfield, 1999). Whether they belong to the same category of dimensions, to the same original motivational theory or to different constructs, all these components work altogether in developing reading motivation; they eventually mutually influence each other at various levels producing different degrees of motivation towards reading.

Another concept that goes hand in hand with reading motivation is engagement. It refers to people choosing to undertake reading activities in order to get meaning from reading materials (Guthrie & Knowles, 2001; Kamil, 2003; Guthrie, 2004; Guthrie, Wigfield & Perencevich, 2004).

Theorists and research investigating in the field of reading motivation explain that engaged readers are those readers who read in order to increase their knowledge and extend it to new perspective. They do so by building upon their previous knowledge and using their previous experiences. Another characteristic of engaged readers is that they possess reading strategies and make good use of these strategies while undertaking a reading activity. Since

reading is a social endeavour, engaged readers are socially interactive; they entertain social relationships with their environment at home and at school while embarking on reading activities, and consider reading a means to keep in touch with other and exchange opinions and ideas. The last characteristic of engagement is reading motivation. If readers are motivated to read, they are most likely to invest the necessary time and energy in reading (Guthrie, 2004; Guthrie, Wigfield & Perencevich, 2004).

Not only it is complex and multidimensional, but reading motivation is unstable as well. It is an affective feature of reading that is very sensitive to variation, and that is also in continuous development as it bears close relationship with readers' experiences with reading.

CHAPTER FOUR:

INVESTIGATING READING MOTIVATION IN STUDENTS OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

1. Introduction

This chapter deals with field work as it presents the investigation process. We start by describing the population of the study. The chapter explains also the pilot study starting with its design and implementation, then moving to its results.

Another part of this chapter will be concerned with the main investigation. It will describe the tool of research, and how it was implemented. Then, results will be presented and discussed in the light of the related studies.

At the end, we will mention some pedagogical implications because they are directly related to the result of our investigation. They reflect outcomes of the research and recommendations to promote reading motivation.

2. Population of the Study

The whole population of the study consists of second year students of English as a foreign language at the Teachers' Training School in Letters and Humanities of Constantine (Ecole Normale Supérieure en Lettres et Sciences Humaines de Constantine) (ENS), during the academic year 2005-2006.

After they pass the Baccalaureate in secondary education, students have to go through an interview to check their communication skills and their readiness for teaching. Only students with high average in the Baccalaureate exam, excellent marks in English in that exam, and showing adequate predisposition for teaching are selected to be formed and trained in order

to teach English either at middle school or at secondary school level. As part of their training, these learners need to acquire some skills and abilities in reading –besides practicing it themselves- in order to be able to teach it.

This population has been chosen for three reasons. Firstly, students of English as a foreign language at the Teachers' Training School take a course in Reading Techniques in the first, second and third year. The purpose of giving this course is to help the would-be teachers to learn how to use certain strategies in reading. In the first and second year, the course is scheduled for three hours per week during the entire academic year; while in the third year, the time allocated for the course is only an hour and a half per week. Secondly, students in third year have more theory about reading and reading techniques, which considerably reduces the opportunities for the practice of reading and the use of the techniques in class. Thirdly, students in the second year have enough experience with English as a foreign language in terms of language abilities and reading skills to practise reading in the classroom and/or outside the classroom.

The total number of second year students then was one hundred and thirty-two students from different geographical regions in Algeria, and various socio-economic backgrounds. The number of male students was eight, whereas the number of female students was one hundred and twenty-three; they were divided into five groups, one group with twenty-eight students, two groups of twenty-seven students each, and the two remaining groups had twenty-five students each. Two teachers were responsible for implementing the reading techniques course to the five groups for one academic year; three groups with one teacher, who is also the researcher, and two groups with a second teacher.

3. The Pilot Study

3.1. Design and Implementation

The questions of the questionnaire are formulated in the form of questions for which students have to choose the answer most likely to match what they think among different propositions. Other questions require students to write justifications for some choices. One question needs students to organise the propositions in terms of preference, and another requests students to make suggestions.

The pilot study consists of questionnaire including twenty-eight questions (Appendix A). The questionnaire starts with three questions related to learners' general experience with English and reading as a course. The rest of the questions can be divided into three main categories. The first category concerns readers' habits in reading (questions 4 to 8); it deals with frequency, time, place at which students practise reading and frequency of reading in English. Questions 9 to 16 form the second category that deals with social settings of reading. This category proposes questions in relation with the social conditions in which students practise reading; it tackles areas where students are influenced by a social participant (family, teacher, or friend) while reading. The remaining questions (17 to 28) refer to students' feelings, opinions and expectations about reading and reading activities.

The reason behind this design of the pilot questionnaire is that we attempt to know as much as possible about students' habits while reading, their past experiences with reading in general and reading in a foreign language in particular, the social conditions reading, and affective factors about reading. The literature review has shown that all these elements play an important role in determining an individual's reading skills, as well as his/her motivation to read.

The questionnaire was administered to two groups of second year students of English as a foreign language at the Teachers' Training School for Letters and Humanities of Constantine (Ecole Normale Supérieure des Lettres et Sciences Humaines de Constantine). The total number of students who participated in the pilot study was fifty-two divided into two different groups; twenty-five girls and two boys in the first group, and twenty-two girls and three boys in the second. Sex variable is not being considered since the overwhelming majority consists of girls. It would be taken into consideration as a source of variation (between-sex-difference) if the two groups are balanced with approximately equal number of boys and girls in the groups.

The participants have been asked by the researcher, who was at the same time their teacher, if they consented to participate in the study before handing out the questionnaire, and assured the participants of the confidentiality of the answers as no name or distinctive mark (number or code) was required. Participants were notified about the appropriate way the questionnaire should be answered by asking them to choose the proposition that was most likely to represent their opinion for each question. The researcher clarified that all students' answers were important since there were no right or wrong answers. He emphasised also the fact that all the questions should be answered, and that students could ask any questions at any time about the questionnaire in case there was any problem understanding the questions, or if they were perplex about how to answer. Moreover, participants were informed that they could take as much time as necessary to answer the questionnaire.

3.2. Results of the Pilot Study

After administering the questionnaire and having the latter filled in by the participants, the researcher gathered the data for analysis and discussion.

The three first questions concern students' experience with English as a foreign language and reading as a course. A majority composed of thirty-eight respondents (73.08%) who participated to the pilot study report that they have been studying English for seven years, ten of them (19.23%) for eight year, and only four have been studying English for eleven years. This shows a relatively long exposure to the language and enough experience with learning situations. Forty-two respondents (80.77%) think they have an average level in English, while five respondents (9.62%) think they have a good level in English, and a similar number believe they have a poor level. When asked to what extent they like reading, only thirteen respondents (25%) say they like it a lot, whereas thirty-two respondents (61.54%) answer that they like it a little, and seven (13.46%) report that they do not like it at all.

The fourth question in the questionnaire is the first in the category of reading habits. It refers to the language in which students prefer to read. Respondents could propose two languages they prefer to read in, and most of them report that they prefer to read in English and Arabic, and only fourteen prefer to read in French (Figure 5).

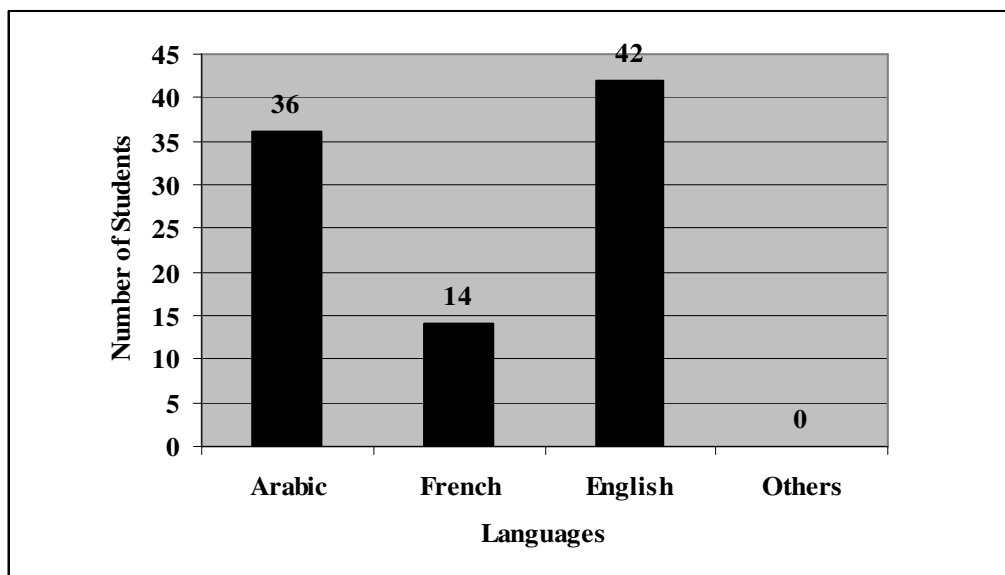


Figure 5: Students' Language Reading Preferences

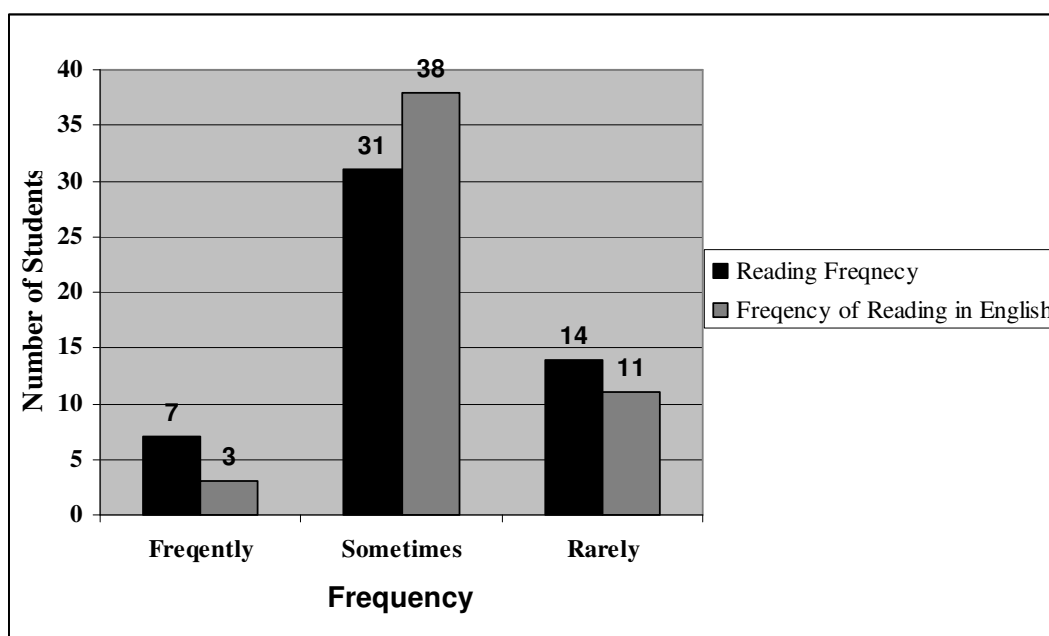


Figure 6: Reading Frequency and Reading Frequency in English

Concerning frequency of reading, thirty-one respondents (59.62%) report that they sometimes read, and fourteen (26.92%) say they rarely practise reading. However, seven respondents only (13.46%) answer that they frequently read (Figure 6). Reading frequency in English seems to correlate with reading frequency as thirty-eight respondents (73.08%) inform that they sometimes read in English, eleven (21.15%) say they rarely do, but only three respondents (5.77%) frequently practise reading in English (Figure 6).

Twenty-four respondents (46.15%) report that they practise reading whenever they have time to do so. Ten respondents (19.23%) inform that they read only when the teacher asks them, and thirteen (25%) practise reading on weekends and holidays. However, only five respondents (9.62%) say they read every night before they sleep. Though they are very few, some students have good reading habits as they read daily before going to bed.

As for place, a majority of forty-one respondents (78.85%) say they read at home or in the dormitory. Six respondents (11.54%) report that they practise reading at the library, and five (9.62%) say they read in other places than the ones mentioned. The latter explain that they practise reading in places such as in the garden, in the bus, or anywhere they could.

The second category of questions is related to the social settings in which students read. When asked about the frequency of reading outside the classroom, two respondents (3.85%) say they never practise reading outside the classroom, whereas only seven (13.46%) read frequently outside the classroom. The rest of the respondents –who are the majority- are divided; eighteen (34.62%) rarely read outside the classroom settings, and twenty-five (48.08%) sometimes do.

Nearly the same number of respondents report that they sometimes or rarely read without being asked to do so, with respectively twenty-two (42.31%) and twenty-one (40.38%) respondents. Similarly, five respondents (9.62%) say that they read frequently without being asked, and four respondents (7.69%) never do without being asked.

Thirty-four respondents (65.38%) inform that the title is the main feature that pushes them to read a book or a text. Ten respondents (19.23%) say it is the plot, whereas only one respondent (1.92%) says that the writer is the feature that pushes him/her most to read a book or a text. Seven respondents (13.46%), however, report that what makes them choose to read a particular book or text is the fact that someone tells them about it.

In relation to the previous question, the twelfth question seeks to determine who in the reader's social environment may push him/her to read. To this question, two groups of nineteen respondents each (36.54%) report that they read a book or a text because either a friend or their teacher tells them about it. Only two respondents (3.85%) refer to their parents

as a source urging them to read and six (11.54%) say that it is a friend. Six respondents also (11.54%) report that they read a book or a text because of other sources –namely a magazine, TV, newspapers, advertisements, and websites- talk about it.

To the question concerning respondents’ perception of how well they are doing in reading in comparison to their friends, twenty-one of them (40.38%) report that they have no idea about it because, probably, they have never compared themselves to others. Fourteen respondents (26.92%) think that their friends read more often than they do and ten (19.23%) think they read as often as their friends do. Only six (11.54%) think they read less often than their friends. This shows that the majority of respondents compare themselves to peers in relation to the frequency of practising reading.

Questions fourteen, fifteen and sixteen deal with external sources of encouragement respondents get to read. The three sources proposed are respondents’ family, friends, and teacher. The answers are illustrated in Figure 7.

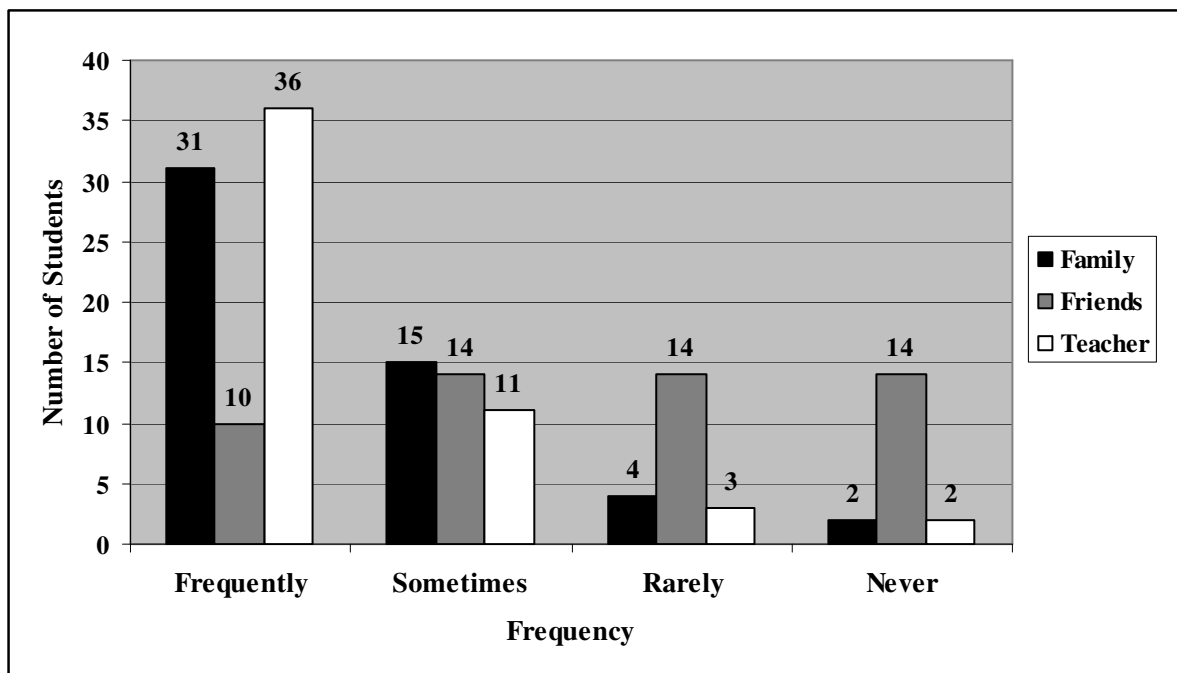


Figure 7: Sources of Encouragement for Reading

The figure shows clearly that the teacher and the family are the primary source of encouragement respondents have. Concerning the frequency of family encouragement, only two respondents (3.85%) report that their families never encourage them to read, while four (7.69%) say rarely. However, the majority of respondents are divided between sometimes, fifteen respondents (28.85%); and frequently, thirty-one respondents (59.62%).

As for teacher encouragement, there are thirty-six respondents (69.23%) who report that the teacher frequently encourages them to read. Eleven respondents (21.15%) say that the teacher sometimes encourages them to read, while three (5.77%) say s/he rarely does, and two (3.85%) report that the teacher never does. These two last groups of respondents may not perceive the teacher as encouraging them but rather as obliging them to read.

The question related to how often friends encourage respondents to read, it reveals that fourteen respondents (26.92%) are sometimes encouraged by their friends, fourteen (26.92%) are rarely encouraged by their friends, and the same number of respondents (26.92%) are never encouraged by their friends to read. Ten respondents only (19.23%) are frequently encouraged to read by their friends.

The third category of questions concerns respondents' feelings, opinions and expectations about reading. The first question deals with how often respondents enjoy the time they spend reading. Twenty-three respondents (44.23%) say that they always enjoy their time while reading and twenty-five (48.08%) report that they sometimes do. However, four respondents (7.69%) inform that they never enjoy the time they spend in reading.

The eighteenth question of the questionnaire required respondents to order the reasons for reading outside the classroom according to the importance they give them, with 1 for the

reason that is most important and 6 for the least important. The following table (Table 2) explains the distribution of respondents' order of reasons for reading outside the classroom.

Table 2: Respondents' order of reasons for reading outside the classroom

Reasons for reading	Position in terms of importance					
	Pos 1	Pos 2	Pos 3	Pos 4	Pos 5	Pos 6
a- The teacher asks me	6	8	7	13	10	18
b- It is part of a class assignment	6	2	6	10	21	7
c- I want to enrich my vocabulary	13	15	13	9	1	1
d- I want to expose myself to the language	15	14	11	6	5	1
e- I want to acquire new ideas	5	12	13	11	11	0
f- For pleasure	7	1	2	3	4	35

Respondents' order of the reasons proposed clearly shows they give great importance to building their language skills since fifteen respondents (28.85%) and thirteen (25%) respectively consider wanting to expose themselves to the language and wanting to enrich their vocabulary as the most important reasons to read outside the class. Fifteen respondents (28.85%) put wanting to enrich their vocabulary in the second position and fourteen (26.92%) choose wanting to expose themselves to the language as the second most important reason to read outside the classroom. Two groups of six respondents each (11.54%) relate it to school work as they consider the teacher asking them to read outside and reading being part of a class assignment as very important to them. Five respondents (9.62%) say they read outside the classroom because they want to acquire new perspective. However, only seven respondents (13.46%) report that they read outside the classroom because it provides them with pleasure.

On the other hand, a majority of thirty-five respondents (67.31%) consider reading for pleasure of least importance. Eighteen respondents (34.62%) consider the teacher asking them to read outside the classroom as the reason with the least importance, while seven (13.46%) think that reading as part of a class assignment is the reason with the least importance. One respondent (1.92%) reports that wanting to enrich his/her vocabulary is the least important reason for reading outside the classroom, and another says that the least important reason for him/her is to expose himself/herself to the language. No respondent, though, thinks that reading to acquire new ideas and perspectives is the least important.

This question is closely linked to the twenty-first as the latter requires respondents to report their expectations from reading a text or a book outside the classroom. Each respondent could choose two propositions. Forty-four respondents (84.62%) read outside the classroom because they expect to learn more vocabulary items, followed by thirty-two (61.54%) who expect to acquire new ideas and opinions from reading outside the classroom. Highly noticeable is the fact that only nineteen respondents (36.54%) expect to get pleasure from reading a text or a book outside the classroom. This matches the results revealed by the eighteenth question where most respondents (67.31%) report that they consider reading for pleasure as the least important reason for reading outside the classroom.

When asked about what type of reading respondents like, twenty-four of them (46.15%) say they prefer reading short stories. Nine respondents (17.31%) report that they like reading novels, and eight (15.38%) like reading poems. Preference for reading newspapers and magazines is displayed by eleven respondents (21.15%).

Respondents are also asked about what they expected the teacher to do concerning their reading activity. Thirty-four respondents (65.38%) expect the teacher to encourage them to

do more reading. Seven respondents (13.46%) expect the teacher to oblige them to read other materials, and seven others expect him/her to give them the freedom to choose whether they want to read or not. Only two respondents (3.85%) expect the teacher to give them a mark for what they read outside the classroom, and two other respondents have no idea about what they expect the teacher to do.

Concerning the reading materials used in class, nineteen respondents (36.54%) would like the teacher to give them the freedom to choose from different reading materials. Fourteen respondents (26.92%) opt for bringing into class what they want to read, whereas sixteen respondents (30.77%) prefer to have the teacher choose for them what they read into the classroom. Four respondents (7.69%) prefer when the teacher asks a student to bring in what s/he wants to read for the rest of the class.

The twenty-third and twenty-fourth questions concern the activities students would like or would not like to do with a reading material. When asked what they would like to do with a text, two answers have been chosen by each respondent. Thirty-two respondents (61.54%) would like to extract and discuss themes and ideas presented in the text. Twenty-eight respondents (53.85%) opt for explaining difficult vocabulary items, whereas nineteen (36.54%) would like to do comprehension exercises. Only ten respondents (19.23%) say they would like to use the text as a model in a writing assignment.

Conversely, thirty respondents (57.69%) would not like to use the text as a model in a writing assignment. This is probably due to the fact that they are not conscious of the relationship that reading and writing hold to each other. Twelve students (23.08%) report that doing comprehension exercises is what they would like to do least. Five respondents (9.62%)

explain that they would not like to explain difficult vocabulary items, and five others say the same thing about extracting and discussing themes and ideas of the text.

The twenty-fifth and twenty-sixth questions deal with respondents feelings in the reading exam. When asked about how they feel during a reading exam, twenty-eight respondents (53.85%) say they usually feel stressed and afraid. Eighteen respondents (34.62%) report that they feel relatively stressed during a reading exam, and only six (11.54%) say they feel relaxed.

In reporting about their feelings, students mention many reasons. Those respondents who feel relaxed say that they find no difficulty with the exercises since most of them consist of choosing the right answer among many propositions, or find the exam easy. Another reason is that they like syntax exercises. Some other respondents said they liked the reading course and that they are ready to do their best in it, and that the exam of reading does not require them to learn by heart.

Those respondents reporting that they feel relatively stressed explain that they have such a feeling because they lack vocabulary or cannot understand some words in the exam. Other reasons lie in the fact that the time to answer is relatively short, and that respondents think they would have a bad mark. Some respondents explain that the overall exams conditions and settings usually make them stressed or that they are not sure whether they are well prepared or not. Other respondents say they lacked organisation, and that they usually get confused.

To justify why they feel afraid and stressed in the reading exam, some respondents present the same as those who feel somehow stressed. In addition, some respondents find the questions as well as some words and sentences difficult to understand, and they get afraid not to do well in the exam. They are afraid and stressed also because they feel they are weak in

reading or that it is difficult as a course. Other respondents think that their fear is due to the lack of context in vocabulary exercises. Others are stressed because they are afraid to check the wrong answers, or to get a bad mark. Another reason is that few respondents think it is quite ordinary to be afraid and stressed in exams as they have always had such feelings in exams. Other respondents think that their fear and stress results from the fact that the teacher is severe and that s/he would ask difficult questions, or that they cannot expect how the questions would be.

The twenty-seventh question is about whether respondents would like to have more hours in the reading techniques course. Thirty-one respondents (59.62%) agree with the idea of having more hours, and only nine respondents (17.31%) do not agree. However, twelve respondents (23.08%) have no idea.

The last question relates to respondents suggestions about the reading materials they would like to have in class. The answers vary a lot as respondents suggest having scientific texts, texts about social issues, texts about English native speakers and their culture, texts about famous people, newspaper and magazine articles, more poems, love stories, cartoons, interviews from magazines, and adventure stories.

4. The Main Investigation

4.1. The Questionnaire

The questionnaire was derived from the original Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) developed by Guthrie and Wigfield (1997), and a modified version of the same questionnaire adopted by Mori (2002). In their final version of the original MRQ, Guthrie and Wigfield (1997) proposed eleven components as basis for the questionnaire, with fifty-three items. These components were Reading Efficacy, with 3 items; Challenge, 5 items;

Curiosity, 6 items; Reading Involvement, 6 items; Importance, 2 items; Recognition, 5 items; Grades, 4 items; Social, 7 items; Competition, 6 items; Compliance, 5 items; and Reading Work Avoidance, 4 items.

In our research, three dimensions have been discarded; Competition, Recognition and Social Reasons. These aspects have not been included in our study because the statements proposed to investigate each component are not appropriate to our population. This irrelevance is determined by the fact that the original questionnaire of Guthrie and Wigfield (1997) was developed for children at elementary school reading in their first language and not in a foreign language. Moreover, some statements do not seem relevant to our population as the questionnaire we derived is addressed to adult university students reading in English as a foreign language. No statements have been added to the original questionnaire because the ones provided for each component were rather enough. Some statements, however, were reworded, while other remained the same.

The final version of the questionnaire we used is a 30-item five-point Likert scale questionnaire intended to investigate the reading motivation dimensions (Appendix B). The scale is made up of five propositions: 1 for 'I strongly agree', 2 for 'I agree', 3 for 'I don't know', 4 for 'I disagree', and 5 for 'I strongly disagree'.

The questionnaire includes eight dimensions with each consisting of a number of statements illustrated as follows: Challenge, 5 statements; Compliance, 5 statements; Curiosity, 4 statements; Grades, 3 statements; Importance of Reading, 2 statements; Reading Efficacy, 2 statements; Reading Involvement, 5 statements; Reading Work Avoidance, 4 statements.

4.2. Implementation

Students in the three groups who did not participate in the pilot study were asked if they would willingly take part in the research through answering the questionnaire. The researcher explained briefly the aim of the research and assured the participants of the confidentiality of the answers as they were not asked to provide any identifying element (names or numbers).

After they expressed their agreement, seventy-one students from the three groups in second year of English as a foreign language at the Teachers' Training School of Constantine (ENS) took the questionnaire after the exam period at the end of the academic year 2005-2006. This number was divided into three male and sixty-eight female students. This number represents more than half the target population (53.79%).

The implementation of the questionnaire was supervised by the second teacher of reading techniques and the researcher himself. Their task was to make sure that the participants understand the statements, answer the participants' questions, and make sure that all the statements had been checked before the participants handed in the questionnaire.

Participants had been notified in written as well as in oral form that they had simply to circle the number that represented the opinion that looked most like what they were, and not how they thought they should be, or how others were.

5. Results of the Main Investigation

After administering the questionnaire, having the participants handing in their answers, and making sure that they had completed it appropriately, we proceeded with analysing the results.

We first scored the participants' answers. For positively oriented statements, we allocated 5 points for 'I strongly agree', 4 points for 'I agree', 2 points for 'I disagree', 1 point for 'I strongly disagree', and finally 0 for 'I don't know'. For negatively oriented statements, we adopted the opposite scoring; that is to say, 5 points for 'I strongly disagree', 4 points for 'I disagree', 2 points for 'I agree', 1 point for 'I strongly disagree', and 0 for 'I don't know'.

The results of the analysis of the questionnaire are presented henceforth in relation to the three categories of dimensions.

5.1. Results in Reading Competence and Self-Efficacy

As explained in the literature review, this first category of dimensions includes reading efficacy, two items; challenge, five items, and work avoidance, four items. These dimensions concern reading competence and reading efficacy beliefs.

For the reading efficacy dimension, participants' opinions about statements 16 and 29 are widely distinct. For statement 16, 43 participants (60.56%) report that they have no idea about their beliefs in their abilities to be good readers. Only 10 participants (14.09%) express their agreement with the statement. On the other hand, 18 participants (25.35%) report that they disagree.

Concerning statement 29, it deals with participants' expectations about future achievements in reading. Responses are clearly different from the previous statement. Only 3 respondents (4.23%) strongly disagree with the statement, and one student (1.41%) fairly disagrees. Conversely, the majority of participants respond positively to the statement as 51 respondents (71.83%) agree with the statement, among whom 37 participants (51.11%) say they strongly agree. However, there are 16 participants (22.54%) who report they do not know if they will do well in reading the following year.

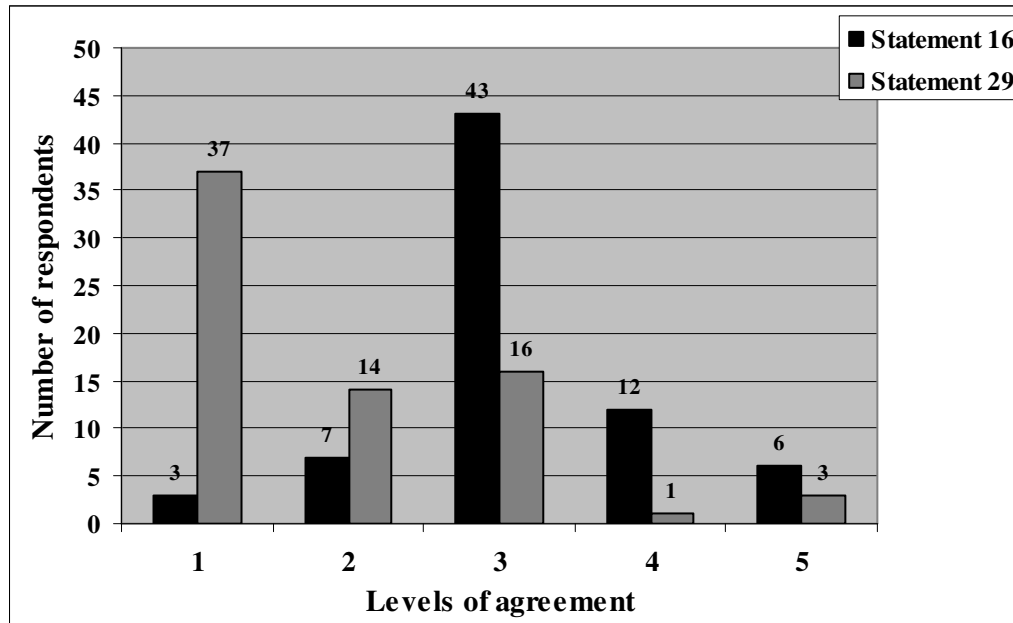


Figure 8: Respondents' opinions about their reading efficacy

The second dimension in this category is challenge. It includes statements 6, 8, 9, 17, and 25. Most respondents think that reading enables them to learn difficult things since 59 participants (83.10%) agree with this statement. On the other hand, 5 respondents (7.04%) report that they disagree with the statement and 6 respondents (8.45%) strongly disagree with the statement. Only one student (1.41%) says that s/he does not know.

For statement 8, participants' responses go in the sense of item 6. A total of 62 respondents (87.32%) say that they like when questions about a book make them think. 4 respondents (5.63%) say they do not like when they find themselves in such a situation. 5 respondents (7.04%), however, say that they do not know.

In answering statement 9, respondents are hesitant. 36 participants (50.70%) report that they like to read hard, challenging books; whereas 22 respondents (30.99%) say they do not. Nevertheless, 13 students (18.31%) say they do not know whether they like reading hard challenging books or not.

The majority of respondents agree with statement 17. 57 respondents (80.28%) report that they are likely to read a hard text if it is interesting to them. Only 7 participants (9.86%) oppose this opinion, while 7 respondents (9.86%) do not know.

Statement 25 is the final statement for testing this dimension. 21 respondents (29.58%) say they have no idea about whether they like reading a difficult material if it relates to an interesting project. However, 38 students (53.52%) report that they can read a material if the project is interesting. 12 participants (16.90 %) say that they cannot.

The third dimension is reading work avoidance with statements 3, 4, 27, and 28. These statements are negatively oriented. Statement 3 accounts for whether participants like reading a text that contains many characters. 28 respondents (39.44%) say they do not like reading materials in which there are many characters. On the other hand, 32 respondents (45.07%) say that they read materials because they contain many characters. The number of respondents who do not know is 11 (15.49%).

Statement 4 concerns avoiding reading a text because it contains difficult vocabulary. Most respondents say they do not like reading when they find that the material includes very difficult vocabulary items as 41 respondents (57.75%) disagree with the statement. Only 2 students (2.82%) have no idea. However, 28 respondents (39.44%) report that they like reading a text even if it contains very difficult vocabulary.

Statement 27 deals with whether participants like vocabulary questions. 44 respondents (61.97%) express their agreement as they like vocabulary questions. 6 participants (8.45%) say they do not know. 21 participants (29.58%) report that they do not like vocabulary questions. This statement goes in the sense of statement 4 as in both of them participants say

they do not like questions related to vocabulary or because there are many difficult vocabulary items.

Concerning statement 28, 11 respondents (15.49%) say they do not know whether they find no fun in reading complicated stories. On the other hand, 28 respondents (38.44%) adhere to the opinion stated. Conversely, 32 respondents (45.07%) report that they find complicated stories fun to read, which means that a large number of participants get fun from reading complicated stories.

5.2. Results in Reading Achievement Values and Goals

This category contains three dimensions related to intrinsic motivation for reading, and one dimension pertaining to extrinsic motivation. As far as intrinsic motivation is concerned, the three dimensions of reading motivation are curiosity, reading involvement, and importance of reading.

The curiosity dimension is tested through statement 7, statement 10, statement 11, and statement 12. In their responses to statement 7, 58 respondents (81.69%) say that they read to learn new information related to a topic of interest. Only 9 respondents (12.68%) say they oppose the statement. 4 participants (5.63%), however, report that they have no idea.

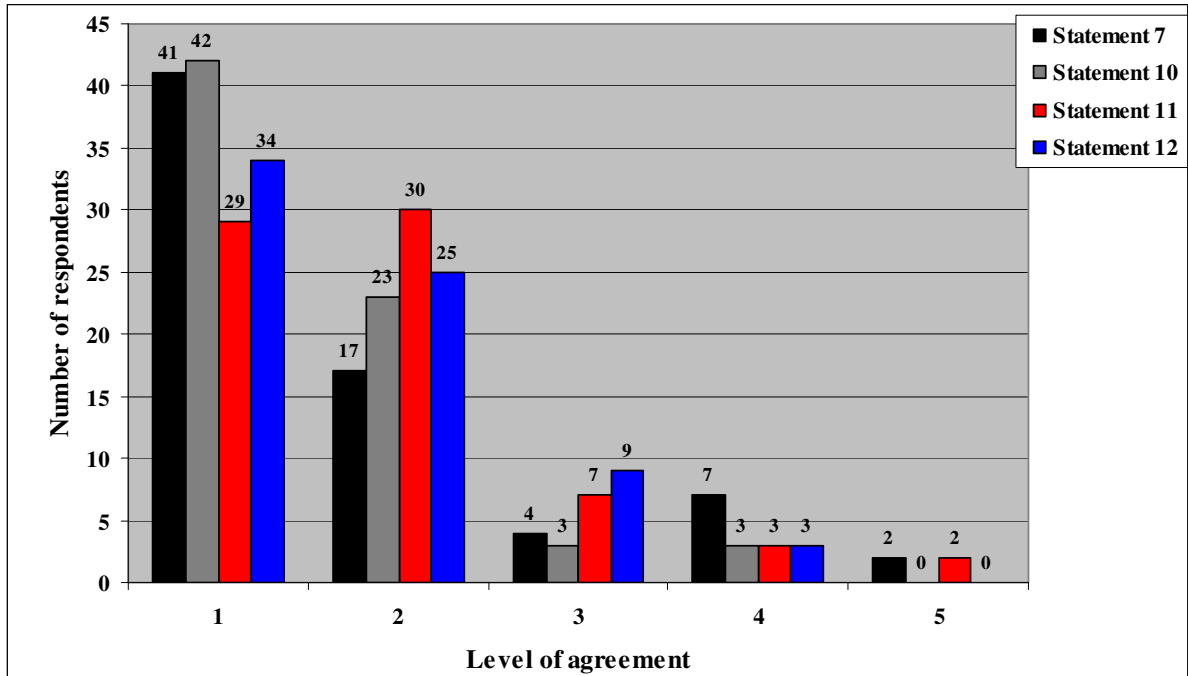


Figure 9: Statements pertaining to reading curiosity

For statement 10, a large number of respondents, 65 students (91.55%) express their liking of reading about new things. It is worth noticing that only 3 respondents (4.23%) oppose this opinion, and 3 other respondents (4.23%) say they do not know.

In the same scope, a majority of 59 participants (83.10%) respond positively as they say that they enjoy reading about people in different countries. Only 5 students (7.04%) say they have an opposite opinion. 7 respondents (9.86%) report that they have no idea. Similarly, statement 12 shows nearly equal results since 59 respondents (83.10%) say they might do extra reading about an interesting topic if the teacher discusses it. While 9 respondents (12.69%) say they do not know, only 3 (4.23%) say they fairly disagree.

The second dimension of intrinsic motivation for reading is reading involvement with five statements (statements 2, 5, 15, 18, and 24). Concerning the first statement testing this dimension, statement 2, 56 respondents (78.87%) report that they read stories about fantasy

and imagination. On the other hand, 12 students (16.90%) report they do not and 4 respondents (4.23%) only say they do not know.

Enjoying a long, complicated fiction book is the concern of statement 5. 11 participants (15.49%) say they have no idea about whether they enjoy this kind of readings or not. The rest of the respondents are equally divided. On the one hand, 30 participants (42.25%) say they do enjoy reading a long complicated fiction book; while, on the other hand, 30 respondents (42.25%) say they do not.

In statement 15, 41 respondents (57.75%) read a lot of adventure stories. Conversely, 18 students (25.35%) say they do not read this kind of materials. 12 participants (16.90%) report that they have no idea.

For statement 18, students have to report if they feel like making friends with people in good books. 48 participants (67.61%) express their agreement with the statement. 15 other respondents (21.13%) say they do not know if they feel like making friends with people in good books. A total of 8 respondents (11.27%) say they do not feel like making friends with the characters they find in books.

Whether they like mysteries or not is the concern of statement 24. A total of 46 respondents (64.79%) say they like reading mysteries, while 14 respondents (19.72%) report their disagreement with the statement; 11 participants (15.49%) say they have no idea.

The last dimension pertaining to intrinsic motivation for reading is importance of reading, with two statements, 13 and 23.

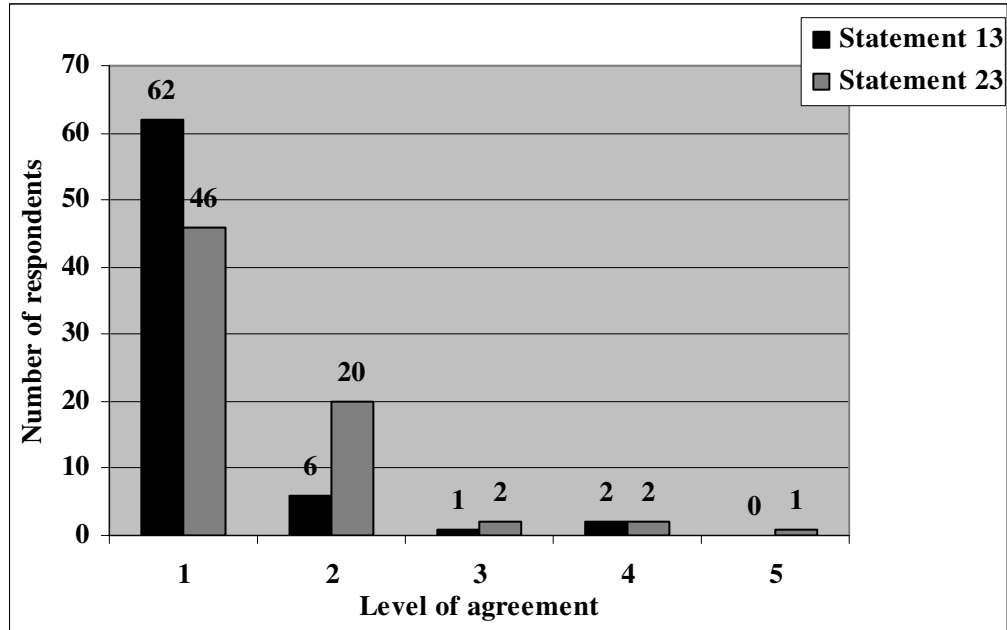


Figure 10: Importance of reading for respondents

The two statements assessing the importance of reading score higher than all other statements related to other dimensions. For statement 13, a great majority consisting of 68 students (95.77%) agree to the idea that being good readers is important to them. Only two respondents (2.82%) say they disagree, while one (1.41%) says s/he does not know. Similar results can be observed about statement 23 as 66 participants (92.96%) express their agreement with the idea that being a good reader is very important in comparison to other activities. Only 3 respondents (4.23%) disagree with this statement. 2 respondents (2.82%) report they have no idea, though.

The dimension related to extrinsic motivation for reading is grades. It includes three negatively oriented statements; statement 19, statement 20, and statement 21.

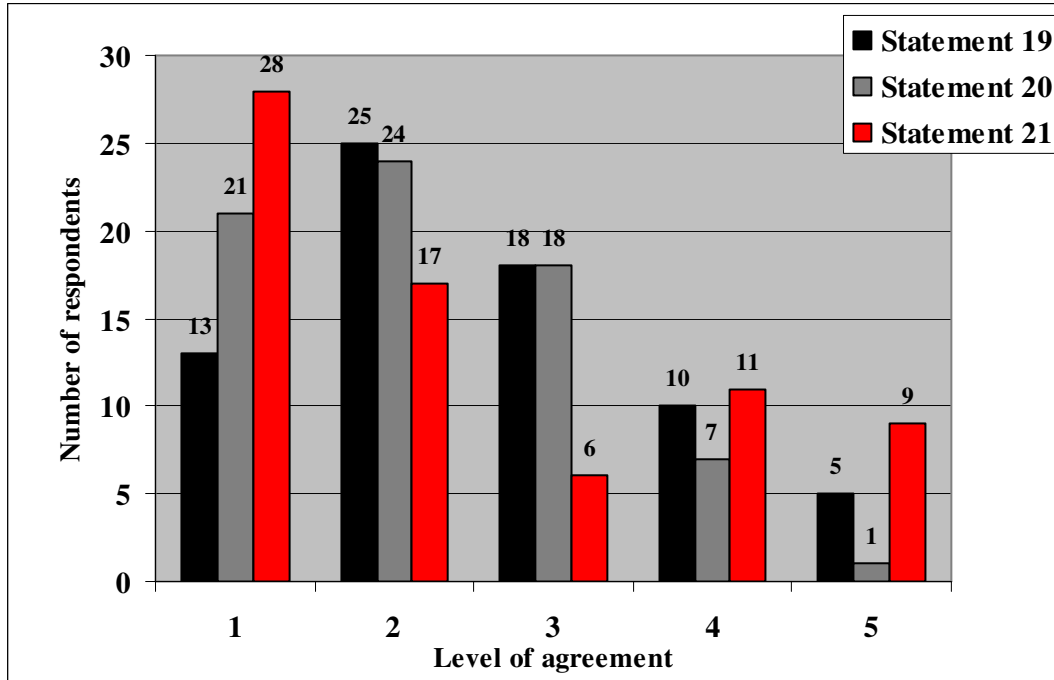


Figure 11: Responses of participants to statements related to grades

38 respondents (53.52%) find that grades are a good way to see how well they are doing in reading. 18 students (25.35%) say they do not know, while 15 participants (21.13%) say they do not think grades are a good means to see their progress in reading. Similarly, concerning statement 20, 45 participants (63.38%) report that they look forward to finding out their reading grades. Only 8 respondents (11.27%) have a positive opinion as they disagree with the statement, while 18 respondents (25.35%) say they do not know.

For the third statement related to this dimension presents reading as a means to improve one's grades. 45 respondents (63.38%) think reading is a means to improve their marks; 28 participants (39.44%) among this total strongly agree with opinion. On the other hand, 20 respondents (28.17%) express their disagreement with the statement.

5.3. Results in Social Aspects of Reading

The only dimension of social aspects of reading is compliance. There are five statements to assess reading compliance; statements 1, 14, 22, 26, and 30.

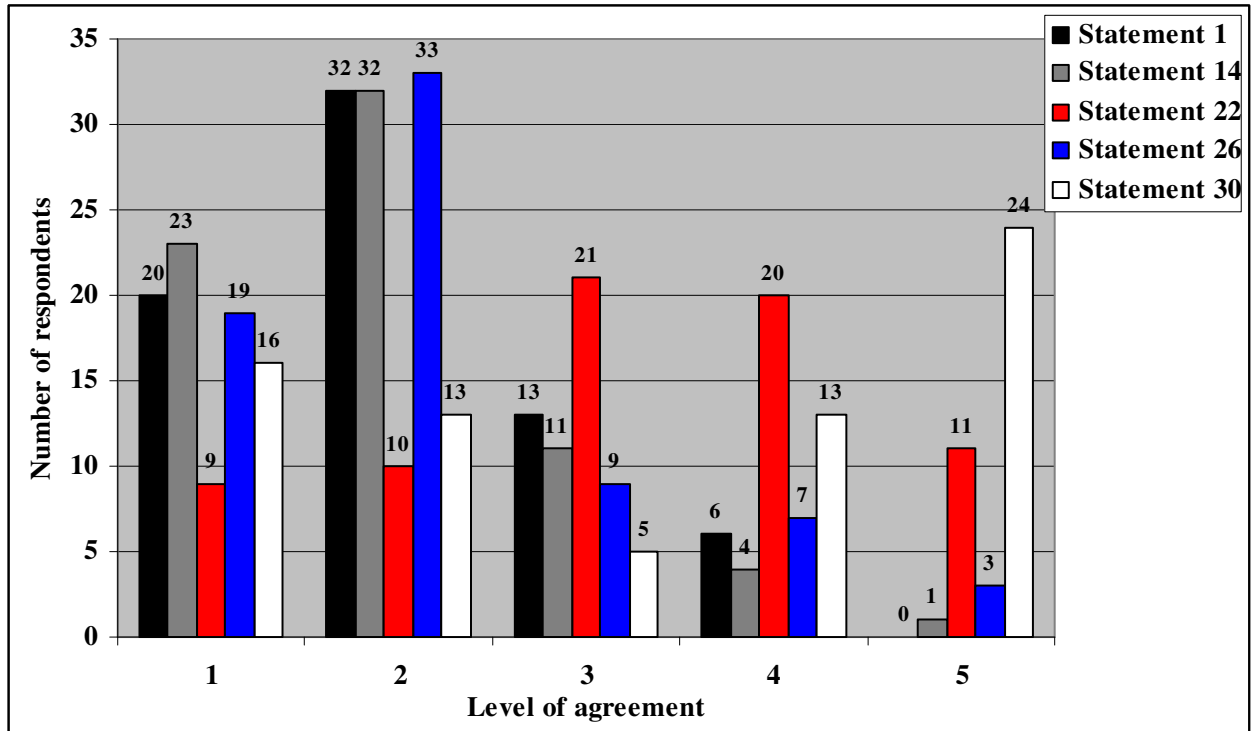


Figure 12: Statements reflecting reading compliance

For statement 1, a total of 52 students (73.24%) say they always do their reading work exactly as the teacher wants it. 6 respondents (8.45%), however, report that they disagree with this opinion and 13 participants (18.31%) say they do not know. Likewise, responses to statement 14 show that 55 students (77.46%) report that finishing every reading assignment is very important to them. However, 5 respondents (7.04%) contest this opinion. 11 participants (15.49%) say they have no idea.

Statement 22 is negatively oriented. Accordingly, 31 respondents (43.66%) say they do not agree with the statement as it specifies that students do as little schoolwork as possible in

reading. 19 participants (26.76%) report that they in fact do the minimum possible amount of schoolwork in reading. 21 students (29.58%) report that they have no idea about whether they do or not.

The next statement related to this dimension shows that 52 respondents (73.24%) say they always try to finish their reading on time. On the other hand, 10 respondents (14.08%) say they do adhere to this opinion, while 9 students (12.68%) report that they have no idea.

The last statement, statement 30, assessing this dimension refers to reading as an obligation; it is also negatively oriented. 37 respondents (52.11%) say they do not read because they have to. On the other hand, 29 respondents (40.85%) say they read because they are obliged. 5 students (7.04%), though, report that they do not know.

6. Discussion

The results of the questionnaire reveal that reading motivation in the seventy-one respondents is multifaceted. This confirms our hypothesis stating that reading motivation in second year students of English as a foreign language at the Teachers' Training School would display the feature of multidimensionality. This can be asserted in spite of the fact that the statements of the questionnaire used in the present study vary in number from the original MRQ proposed by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997), and that the scores have been different as well.

Concerning reading efficacy dimension, the two aspects of this dimension –reading efficacy beliefs and reading expectation beliefs- seem to have widely varying levels. Respondents have low beliefs of their efficacy as readers but higher ones in reading expectation beliefs. The majority either do not know or are unaware of being good readers or

not. However, it is clear that belief about one's ability to do well in reading the following year (expectations for future reading achievements) is positively high.

The reasons why participants do not have high beliefs about their abilities to be good readers may be attributed to respondents having never confronted this question before and, thus, they have never been conscious of their beliefs about themselves doing well in reading. Conversely, their high expectation about achieving well in reading the following year may be resulting from the awareness respondents have about the progress they have made, and also because they believe in the effectiveness of the skills they have acquired.

In the light of the results related to challenge, one can state that participants undertake challenging reading activities and deal with difficult materials. They report that reading will help them learn about difficult things, and that they like answering questions that make them think. Nonetheless, a good number of respondents are against or hesitant about whether they like hard challenging texts, though more than a half of them say they do. In addition to that, participants report that they read difficult materials if it is related to a project of interest or if the material itself is interesting.

Participants have also proved to have intrinsic motivation for reading as they have scored highly in the statements composing the three dimensions this category consists of, namely curiosity, reading involvement, and importance of reading.

The four statements composing the curiosity dimension seem in perfect harmony as they all have positively high scores (Figure 9). Respondents' curiosity emerges as a result of their desire to learn more about a topic of particular interest to them, and the enjoyment they get from reading about other people from different countries. They are also curious readers because they like reading about new things and/or about a topic the teacher discussed with

them in class. This reflects their eagerness to learn as much as possible about the language they are studying.

Though they do not really like long, intricate fictions books, respondents seem to involve themselves with reading materials as they expressed their liking of dealing with adventure stories as well as mysteries. They are also involved as they feel liking being friends to the characters in the novels and stories they read. Moreover, they are involved readers because they like reading about fantasy and imagination. By dealing with these kinds of reading materials, involvement will be displayed in the form of the time and energy they would invest when actually reading them.

Respondents can be considered as intrinsically motivated for reading as they give a great importance to reading. They believe that it is very important to them to be good readers and, consequently, they give a privileged position to being good readers among other activities they undertake. The reason behind this may be found in the fact they are conscious about their role as future teachers of English, and the role of reading in both teaching and learning a foreign language.

To a lesser extent than that of intrinsic motivation for reading, respondents display also a high level of extrinsic reading motivation. The dimension of reading motivation related to extrinsic motivation is 'grades', which is very closely related to classroom settings. The majority of respondents think that grades are good means to know about their progress in reading as well as to help them improve their grades in their studies in general; they, consequently, look forward to discovering their reading grades.

Because of the unfavourable cultural and social contexts and conditions that prevent them from having external incentives to read, respondents seem to rely exclusively on classroom

settings and circumstances. Finishing reading assignments is a form of complying with fully internalised regulations, whereas compliance to external regulations is reflected in respondents doing their reading activities exactly as the teacher asked them to do and finishing it on time. Nevertheless, respondents think they do a lot of schoolwork in reading. This may be explained by the fact that they have more homework in reading than they are used to in the first year. It may also be due to their feeling that they do more reading without being obliged, which is a perfect case of a fully internalised value of an activity.

7. Limitations of the Study

The results of the investigation are in the direction of our hypothesis as participants demonstrated that their reading motivation is multidimensional. The study inevitably contains some constraints and limitations.

The most significant limitation is that of time. Because of time constraints, it was only possible to account for the dimensions of reading motivation. Longer time for investigation, and of course with more means, would have allowed us to identify how these dimensions connect with each other within individuals. Moreover, some more time would help extend the study to check the persistence of these individuals through time.

Another limitation consists in the number of participants to the study. Though the respondents who participated in the main study represent 53.79% of the second year students, the results obtained cannot be generalised to all learners. A better setting would have included a great number of students from different levels.

Third, because reading motivation is primarily linked to students' reading achievement and the amount of reading they do, it would have been helpful to explain this relationship since the aim of teaching and learning to read is to help learners comprehend and read more.

Therefore, assessing reading comprehension as the display of reading achievement could provide more evidence about the importance of reading motivation. The limitation, thus, is the lack of standardised reading comprehension tests that would lead to less subjective assessment of reading comprehension.

As for the amount of reading, the cultural as well as the social circumstances constitute another limitation. In this respect, it would have been very hard to account for the amount of readings students do outside the class. The only source would be to rely on students self-reporting about their behaviours, which is very likely to provide subjective opinions.

8. Pedagogical Implications

Because of the great role reading motivation plays in engagement in reading and reading activities, we think it would be useful to describe some of the implications of this study.

An important implication is that reading motivation should receive more consideration in designing reading syllabuses. It is crucial to make the distinction between interest and motivation as they are two distinct concepts and, therefore, syllabus designers should avoid considering interesting texts and activities as being automatically motivating. According to Guthrie and Knowles (2001), it is hard “to predict the types of interests students will bring to a choice or the types of interests they may discover when they are given the opportunity to choose” (p.154).

The multidimensionality of reading motivation as presented in this study has a double-fold effect. On the one hand, this feature makes it easy to deal with readers who have difficulties in reading. Addressing the variety of dimensions proposed with adequate motivational strategies can help to spot where the problem exactly lies and provide the appropriate measures. On the other hand, it is hard to address all the dimensions of reading

motivation because of time limits, materials availability, teachers' preparation and training, and also because some dimensions stand at opposite positions from each other. Moreover, it is sometimes hard to identify which dimension needs to be promoted for most dimensions are interconnected, since reading motivation "is not a single variable but a network of variables that is likely to spark and sustain the long-term motivation required for students to become full members in the world of engaged readers" (Guthrie & Knowles, 2001, p.157)

Because individuals' experiences play an integral role in shaping behaviours, we should consider some ways and means to expose readers to positive self-enhancing reading experience. Guthrie and Wigfield (2000, p.410), say that "connections between the academic curriculum and the personal experiences of the learners" present a good motivational principle. This may be done by providing learners with situations in which they would feel at ease with reading materials and activities, and also give them some opportunities to initiate and monitor reading behaviours (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Another important element seems to be reading comprehension strategies. As stated previously, comprehension strategies enable readers to deal with the reading materials in such a way as to extract meaning as quickly and as effectively as possible. Nevertheless, possessing these strategies proves to have an important role in reading motivation because the more strategies readers possess, the higher their beliefs about their abilities are, and the more they are likely to engage in reading and reading activities, which would result from an increase in intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1991). In addition to that, Guthrie and Wigfield (2000) explain that "[p]ossession of strategies and the motivation for using them are likely to be mutually enhancing" (p.413).

Furthermore, choice in reading is essential because it increases autonomy. Choice is “motivating because it affords student control. Children seek to be in command of their environment, rather than being manipulated by powerful others. This need for self-direction can be met in reading instruction through well-designed choices” (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000, p.411).

Reading is a social activity, and as such, there should be social relationships between readers because “intrinsic motivation for reading and learning is closely connected to their feeling of social support in the classroom” (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000, p.414). Interaction between readers should be encouraged in order to enable reader exchange not only meaning, but also strategies and experience about reading. Likewise, Guthrie and Knowles (2001, p.156) explain that social interaction through reading can be promoted when “[s]tudents are supported in articulating their understanding of the books and texts in ways that are personally and culturally relevant to them and their audiences”.

9. Conclusion

The eight dimensions of reading motivation have all proved to be present in the students who participated in the study, which is again in the direction of our hypothesis and answers the research question stated at the beginning of the paper. To various degrees, the results of the questionnaire witness of the multidimensionality of the reading motivation construct.

The pilot study tried first to set a general overview of the social circumstances and settings, readers’ habits, and readers’ expectations, feeling and beliefs. The results of the pilot study can be regarded as an account of the factors that may influence reading motivation, and encouraged us for the building of the questionnaire for the main study.

The results related to each of the statements composing the questionnaire have been presented in relation to the dimension they assess. Later, the discussion of these results focused on trying to find explanations for why such or such dimension had a particular score.

The question to be answered is whether we can generalise these results to the whole population of the study. In fact, as it has previously been stated in the literature review, reading motivation is a very unstable feature because it is highly influenced by individuals' experiences with reading tasks and, therefore, it would be very delicate to make any generalisations.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

The present dissertation attempts to study reading motivation in second year students of English as a foreign language at the Teachers' Training School of Constantine. It is based on the research of Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) who tried to describe the multidimensionality of reading motivation in children at elementary school reading in their first language. Though it deals with young adults reading in English as a foreign language, this research tries to verify if reading motivation –despite the dissimilarities in populations and the language they read in- will still appear to be a multifaceted construct.

We started first by gathering what we thought was relevant literature about reading. We described reading comprehension because it represents both the essence of reading and its ultimate outcome. We then identified the process underlying it as a step in defining what it really is. After that, a brief overview about the teaching and learning to read in foreign language was described, and how this can be achieved in order to make reading a communicative skill. At this level of the dissertation, we mentioned very briefly that reading contains affective dimensions besides the cognitive ones. This served as a transitional section to the next.

The second component of this research is motivation. We thought that it would be more practical to divide the theory related to this feature. Thus, we opted for developing a chapter to deal with approaches and theories of motivation, and another for investigating reading motivation. This choice has been motivated by the need to mention the most prominent theories in the field in order to set the way for the theory of reading motivation. This division was also operated to avoid disturbing the balance between the chapters in terms of length.

The third reason, and the most important one, is that reading motivation is seen as a distinct construct from general motivation, despite the fact that they have many features in common.

Concerning the chapter of theories of motivation, it started by defining the construct through explaining the theories that were the most closely linked to reading motivation. The variety of principles underlying each of these theories is considered as additional evidence about the complexity and depth of motivation as a power to initiate and maintain behaviour over time. We gave particular attention to intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation as stated by Deci and Ryan (2000) under the Self-Determination Theory because they are related in way or another to other dimensions of reading motivation. We further described the three basic psychological needs because they constitute the basis of this theory, and pertain to both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

In the subsequent chapter devoted to reading motivation, we concentrated on this concept and its relationship to another equally important concept which is reading engagement. We explained how reading motivation was described as a multidimensional construct in which different aspects of motivation emerging from various perspectives about general motivation. Later in this chapter, we specifically addressed the factors that influence reading engagement and distinguish engaged readers from disengaged ones.

The practical part of the investigation consists of two questionnaires. The first one composes the pilot study and aims at making an inventory of different elements that may affect the population's reading motivation. The pilot study was designed in such a way as to describe readers' reading habits, social contexts for reading, and opinions, feeling and expectations about reading. The second part of this chapter deals with the main study represented by a questionnaire designed to check the dimensions of reading motivation in the

light of the research conducted by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997). The results showed that the participants, who represent second year students of English as a foreign language at the Teachers' Training School of Constantine, actually developed a multifaceted motivation for reading.

The present dissertation can be further extended by investigating the internal relationships that govern the dimensions within their respective categories, and also between dimensions belonging to different theories.

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Appendices

Appendix A: The Pilot Study

STUDENT'S QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear student,

We would be very grateful if you accept to fill in the following questionnaire.

The information you will provide us with will serve a study about reading habits, social conditions of reading, and readers' feelings, opinions and expectations about reading.

Answer with as much honesty and precision as you can to the questions hereafter. To fill in this questionnaire, you are required to put a tick (✓) in the box just in front of each statement. Some questions will require you to arrange the different items, while you can choose more than one answer to other questions.

We assure you that the answers you will provide will remain completely anonymous, and that they will be used for research purposes only.

1. How long have you been studying English? years.

2. How do you consider your level in English?

a- Very good

b- Good

c- Average

d- Poor

3. Do you like reading?

a- A lot

b- A little

c- Not at all

4. In which language do you prefer to read?

5. How often do you read?

a- Frequently

b- Sometimes

c- Rarely

6. When do you read?

a- Only when the teacher asks me

b- Only during week-end and holidays

c- Whenever I have time

d- Every night before I sleep

7. Where do you read?

- a- In class
- b- In the library
- c- At home/ In the dormitory
- d- Elsewhere

- In case you choose answer (d), say where exactly:

8. How often do you read in English?

- a- Frequently
- b- Sometimes
- c- Rarely

9. How often do you read outside the class?

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

10. How often do you read without being asked?

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

11. What pushes you to read a particular text or book?

- a- Its writer
- b- Its title
- c- Its plot
- d- Someone told you about

12. If someone tells you about a book or a text to read, who may it be?

- a- Your parents
- b- Your brother/sister
- c- A friend
- d- Your teacher
- e- Some other source (e.g.: a TV or radio programme, a magazine, etc)

- In case you choose answer (e), say what exactly:

13. Do your friends read

- a- More often than you do
- b- As often as you do
- c- Less often than you do
- d- You do not know

14. How often does your family encourage you to read?

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

15. How often do your friends encourage you to read?

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

16. How often does your teacher encourage you to read?

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

17. Do you enjoy the time you spend reading?

- a- Always
- b- Sometimes
- c- Rarely

**18. How would you classify the following reasons for reading outside the class?
(Order the statements using numbers from 1 to 6 in terms of their importance for
you)**

a- The teacher asks me

b- It is part of a class assignment

c- I want to enrich my vocabulary

d- I want to expose myself to the language

e- I want to acquire new ideas

f- For pleasure

19. What type of reading you like?

a- Novels

b- Short stories

c- Poems

d- Newspapers/ Magazines

e- Others:

20. Do you want the teacher to

- a- Give you a mark for the readings you do outside the class
- b- Encourage you to do more reading
- c- Oblige you to read other passages
- d- Let you choose to read or not to read
- e- You do not know

21. When you read a text or a book outside the class, what do you expect to get from it? (You can choose more than one answer)

- a- Get more vocabulary items
- b- Acquire new ideas and opinions
- c- Know more about language structures (Grammar and Syntax)
- d- Get pleasure

22. To read in class, you would like the teacher to

- a- Choose for you the text or passage to read
- b- Let you free to choose among different readings
- c- Leave you completely free to bring in what you want to read
- d- Ask a student to bring what s/he wants to read for the rest of the class

23. When dealing with a text, what would you like to do with it?

- a- To do comprehension exercises
- b- To explain difficult vocabulary
- c- To extract and discuss the different themes and ideas
- d- To use it as a model in a writing assignment

24. When dealing with a text, which activities cited in question n°:23 you think are not useful for you?

.....

.....

.....

25. How do you feel during an exam in reading?

- a- Relaxed
- b- Somehow stressed
- c- I feel stressed and afraid

26. Give the reasons behind this feeling

.....

.....

.....

27. Would you like to have more hours in Reading Techniques?

a- Yes

b- No

c- I have no idea

28. Do you have any other suggestions concerning the materials you want to read in class?

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



We thank you for your participation in filling this questionnaire. We hope that the answers you provided will help us be more efficient in teaching reading and that it will be beneficial for you as well.

Appendix B: The Main Investigation's Questionnaire

STUDENT'S QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear student,

We would be deeply grateful if you fill in the following questionnaire for a research on reading for a Magister dissertation.

To answer the questionnaire, please circle the number you think most appropriate to express your agreement or disagreement with the questionnaire statements. Do not answer how you should be, or what other people do. Note that there are no right or wrong answers to these statements. If you have any questions, please let us immediately know.

1	I strongly agree
2	I agree
3	I don't know
4	I disagree
5	I strongly disagree

Be sure that any information you will provide us with in this questionnaire will remain strictly anonymous.

THANK YOU

Statements

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I always do my reading work exactly as the teacher wants it | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. I read stories about fantasy and imagination | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. I don't like it when there are too many people in the story | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. I don't like reading something when the words are too difficult | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. I enjoy a long, complicated story or fiction book | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. I usually learn difficult things by reading | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. I read to learn new information about topics that interest me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. I like it when the questions in the books make me think | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. I like hard, challenging books | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. I like to read about new things | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. I enjoy reading books about people in different countries | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. If the teacher discusses something interesting I might read more about it | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. It is very important to be a good reader | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. finishing every reading assignment is very important to me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. I read a lot of adventure stories | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. I am a good reader | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. If a book is interesting I don't care how hard it is to read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. I feel like I make friends with people in good books | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. Grades are a good way to see how well you are doing in reading | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. I look forward to finding out my reading grade | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. I read to improve my grades | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. I do as little schoolwork as possible in reading | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. In comparison to other activities I do, it is very important to me to be a good reader | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. I like mysteries | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. If the project is interesting, I can read difficult material | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. I always try to finish my reading on time | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. I don't like vocabulary questions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. Complicated stories are no fun to read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. I know that I will do well in reading next year | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. I read because I have to | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

RESUME

La présente étude vise à étudier la motivation pour la lecture des étudiants en deuxième année de l'Anglais comme langue étrangère à l'Ecole Normale Supérieure des Lettres et Sciences Humaines de Constantine (ENS). Nous avons émis l'hypothèse que ces étudiants auraient une motivation multidimensionnelle pour la lecture. Afin d'enquêter sur cette caractéristique, nous avons d'abord effectué une étude pilote pour évaluer les contextes et les conditions de lecture ainsi que les habitudes de lecture d'une population similaire aux participants à l'enquête principale. Pour l'étude principale, nous avons utilisé un questionnaire qui se compose de 30 énoncés et administré à 71 étudiants de deuxième année d'Anglais à l'ENS de Constantine à la fin de l'année académique 2005-2006. L'analyse des résultats du questionnaire révèle que les étudiants participants à l'étude ont huit dimensions de la motivation pour la lecture, ce qui signifie que la motivation pour la lecture en Anglais comme une langue étrangère chez les étudiants de l'Anglais en deuxième année à l'ENS est multidimensionnelle.

الملخص

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى استكشاف دوافع القراءة لطلبة السنة الثانية في اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في مدرسة العليا للأساتذة في الآداب و العلوم الإنسانية بقسنطينة. ولبوغ هذه الغاية، افترضنا أن هؤلاء الطلاب سيمتلكون دافعا للقراءة متعدد الأبعاد. للتحقيق في ذلك، أجرينا أولا دراسة تجريبية لتقييم أوضاع وسياقات القراءة وعادات القراءة لعينة مماثلة للمشاركين في الدراسة الرئيسية. لإجراء هذه الأخيرة، استخدمنا استبياننا يتألف من 30 بندا، تم توزيعه على 71 طالبا في السنة الثانية من الانجليزية بالمدرسة العليا للأساتذة بقسنطينة في نهاية السنة الجامعية 2005-2006. تحليل نتائج الاستبيان بين أن للطلاب المشاركين في هذه الدراسة ثمانية أبعاد لدافع للقراءة ، وهو ما يعني أن الدافع وراء القراءة في اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية بين الطلاب الانجليزية الثانية سنوات في الإحصاءات متعدد الأبعاد.