Democratic and Popular Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

Constantine 1 University

Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of Letters and English Language

The Effect of Learning Styles and Motivation on Students' Vocabulary Acquisition for Writing Purposes.

The Case of 2nd Year L.M.D Students of English at the University of Constantine 1

Thesis submitted to the department of Letters and English Language in candidacy for the degree of Doctorat LMD in Linguistic Science and English Language Teaching

By : **Bellout Hadjer**   Supervisor : **Prof. Hacène Hamada**

Board of Examiners

Chairman :	Prof. Saadi Hacène	Prof. University of Constantine1
Supervisor :	Prof. Hamada Hacène	Prof. ENS Constantine
Member :	Prof. Ghouar Omar	Prof. University of Batna
Member :	Prof. Keskes Said	Prof. University Farhat Abes (Setif 2)
Member :	Dr. Belouahem Riad	Dr. University of Constantine 1
Member :	Dr. Kaouache Saleh	Dr. University of Constantine 1

2014

DEDICATION

To my parents for their affection and constant
encouragements.

To my brother and sister for their love and
kindness.

To all my colleagues and friends especially Chouaib for his
unflagging support.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor Prof. Hacene Hamada who directed me in the wonderful world of research with generosity and patience. I thank him for his understanding, encouragements, valuable references and precious advice.

I am also grateful and greatly indebted to Professor Farida Abderrahim for her precious guidance and advices.

I also wish to address my sincere thanks to Dr. Labed Nacif, Dr.Nemouchi, Dr.Laraba, and Professor Hacène Saadi for their generous help.

I owe my *thanks* to the head of the Department of Letters and English Language Mr.Boughanout for his considerable help.

I extend my thanks to all the students for their full cooperation

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

C.L.T: Communicative Language Teaching

CET: Cognitive Evaluation Theory

E.F.L: English as a Foreign Language

E.S.L: English as a Second Language

E.S.P: English for Specifie Purposes.

FL: Foreign Language

FD: Field Dependent

FI: Field Independent

IDs: Individual Differences

LA: languge Acquisition

L.M.D: Licence, Master, Doctorat.

LAD: Language Acquisition Devices

L1: First Language

L2: SecondLanguage.

SL: Second Language

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

SLLs: Second Language Learners

SDT: Self-Determination Theory

TAVI: Text As Vehicle For Information

X: Number of words used by learners in their compositions

%: Percentage

LIST of TABLES

List of Figures

Content

II

II

II

II

II

Intoduction

1. **Statement of the Problem**

2. **Aims**

3. **Hypothesis**

4. **Population**

5. **Method**

6. **Tools of Research**

7. **Structure of the Study**

General Introduction

In the process of learning a foreign language, students learn a subject at different rates and with strikingly different levels of completeness because of factors within learners themselves that influence their ability to learn. These include affective factors, motivation, maturational factors, the learner's age, gender and social background, learning styles, and memory. Due in part to the influence of Chomskyan approaches to language, second language acquisition (SLA henceforth) theory has focused most of its research on identifying universals rather than individual differences that influence SLA. In information processing approaches, however, memory and individual differences are seen as key variables in determining input processing. How much linguistic information feeds the system depends on cognitive capacity (memory attention), which themselves are also related to individual differences. Brown (2000) sees that personality type plays a vital role in SLA. According to him, students do not go through only a cognitive process while learning, but also through an affective one. In other words, there is a very significant correlation between personality type, motivation, and cognition (142-3). In the same scope of research and from a methodological standpoint; we will limit this study to two independent variables, field dependent and field independent (FD/FI henceforth) learning style and motivation to check their effect on the acquisition of second language (SL henceforth) vocabulary as a dependent variable of the research.

1.Statement of the Problem and Reseach Questions

Through our experience as a student, we have noticed that following the traditional methods of teaching decreases the students' interest towards learning and results in difficulty and failure to recall what has been learnt. In the field of foreign language teaching, the notion of individual differences has not been well exploited although it would be of great benefits if teachers create a real environment for the acquisition of English, be interested in the differences in ability their

students bring with them into their classrooms, be responsible for motivating their students and for making sure that they become involved in learning(Cole 1991). Considering the vital importance of students' learning styles and motivation in foreign language learning, one expects that a detailed attention is given to it. An examination of the situation in the Department of Letters and English Language, hence, seems necessary and will be the concern of the present research inorder to determine the effect of learning styles (cognitive styles) and motivation as internal factors on acquiring vocabulary for 2nd year L.M.D students of English at Constantine1 University for writing purposes.

Through our experience of teaching, we try to find suitable direction which might guide learners towards effective acquisition of vocabulary and positive transfer of the acquired items and we also want to find out how individual differences affect an individual learner's response to the task of learning L2 and whether individual factors contribute to the rate at which the learner progresses along the natural route and to the overall level of proficiency achieved .These preoccupations can be formulated in the following questions :

- Can instructors identify the types of learning preferences that students exihibit ?

- How can teachers deal with differences they observe ?

- Which of these differences require different instructional techniques ?

- Do instructors give students scope to use their own initiative ?

- Does increased proficiency lead to higher motivation ?   or

- Do more motivated learners reach higher level of vocabulary acquisition ?

- Does the teacher's focus on his students' learning style increase their vocabulary acquisition. ?

- Does the teacher's focus on his students' learning styles and motivation while teaching new vocabulary items help them retrieve what has been learned successfully in new contexts ?

2. Aims

There is general agreement that individual differences seem to have a greater effect on the acquisition of an L2.The nature of the specific individual differences and the degree to which they affect individual aspects of the acquisition of the L2 are of greater effect on achievement (Ellis 1985).

My purpose of studying individual learner variables(learning styles and motivation) is to see how they affect vocabulary acquisition as a crucial aspect of developing proficiency in SL.This involves two rather separate issues.The first one is to identify these effects and the second is to show how individual factors influence SL vocabulary acquisition.

3. Hypothesis

This study is relative to the nature of the relationship between learning styles and motivation (as focused individual differences in this study) and vocabulary acquisition. It assumes that, generally, students' failure in acquiring vocabulary may originate from major reasons like students' styles, motivation, and difficulty in the retrieving process of the acquired items in new contexts. All these factors affect the proficiency level achieved by different learners.

The underlying hypothesis is that learners of English will enhance their vocabulary proficiency level and ease their retrieving process of the acquired items in new contexts if their learning styles and motivation are focused on and are taken into consideration. In other words, the general hypothesis can be stated as follows: if teachers focus on the learners' learning styles, match their teaching styles accordingly, and attempt to raise their motivation, this may help them for better vocabulary acquisition. So the observable and measurable variables on which this hypothesis is built are:

Independent variables: focusing on learners' styles, matching the teaching styles accordingly, and raising their motivation.

and   Dependent variable: learners' vocabulary acquisition.

4. Population

The population to which we wish to generalize to the results of the experiment, is second year L.M.D students in the Department of Letters and English Language, Faculty of Letters and Languages, Constantine1 University. The total number of the students during the University year 2011-2012 was $\approx$ 520 scattered over 12 groups. They study written expression module for 3 hours per-week divided in two sections, 1h30mn for each. The sample population consists of 52 students of different proficiency levels.

5. Method

The nature of the subject at hand dictates the choice of research method,i.e, the topic, the aim of the research, the sample under investigation , and the collected data, impose the use of a specific method. Since the present study is designed to establish the importance of learning styles and motivation as interrelated and inseparable factors that directly contribute to the process of learning/teaching and how they affect students' vocabulary acquisition as a key aspect of developing proficiency in a SL for writing purposes, we opt for a combination of qualitative and quantitative research tools. The qualitative tools are used to gather information about the subjects of the study and to help us in the design of the experiment. However, the experimental approach is used to test the effect of the learners' variables as internal factors on the level of progress along the level of vocabulary proficiency achieved in SL.

6. Tools of Research

To achieve the aim of the research, answer the research questions, and attempt to confirm the hypothesis, data collection requires handling an interview with my sample population and administering a questionnaire to both teachers and students (subjects of the study).To measure the efficiency of learning styles and motivation on SL vocabulary acquisition, some experimental

lessons and activities are practiced by the sample population and consequently tests are administered to measure the effects of the implementation and learners' achievement.

7. Structure of the Study

Following an introductory part, in which the aim of the research is expressed, the hypothesises are identified, and the tools of research are discussed, this research is divided into seven chapters. Chapter one provides an over view about individual differences focussing on Learning styles. This chapter is divided into three main sections. The first section tackles learning styles and strategies ; some definitions and the types of learning styles and strategies are discussed and linked to second language acquisition and vocabulary acquisition. The second section deals with methods and approaches in language teaching, as well as the place given to vocabulary and learning styles in some of those approaches and methods. The third section sheds light on vocabulary teaching/learning techniques used by teachers to teach vocabulary on one hand and the techniques used by learners on the other hand.

Chapter two investigates motivation. A number of definitions about motivation provide a concise picture of the main contemporary theories of motivation. Accordingly, the self-determination theory is introduced with a special emphasis on two main issues : intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Particular importance is given to intrinsic motivation and teachers teaching styles and behaviours characterized by the opposition between autonomy-supportive teaching and controlling teaching. At the end of this chapter, a correlation between motivation and vocabulary acquisition is made.

Chapter three deals with the role of memory and processing information in vocabulary learning and its recall in new context , to show how the effective transfer of the learned vocabulary can improve the students' writing. These theoritical aspects prepare thepractical aspect.

Chapter four explains the methodology and the tools of analysis that have been used in this research, and the importance of the use of both qualitative (questionnaires and interview) and quantitative (experiment) methods. Chapter five presents the teachers' and students' questionnaires which investigate motivation, learning/teaching styles and vocabulary. The collected data from both sample populations is organised here to be discussed. At the end of this chapter, some significant correlations are made between the findings of the two questionnaires.

Chapter six is devoted to the main study which is the experiment and the tests. It presents the circumstances of tests administration and a tharough description of the treatment. Then, a correlation of the results obtained from the analysis of the two questionnaires and the results obtained from the tests and experiment is made. At the end of the chapter, a summary of the results leads to a triangulation of the research findings.

 Chapter seven provides some suggestions and recommendations for both teachers and learners. It first attempts to provide answers to the research questions and discuss the hypothesis, and then it makes some suggestions concerning vocabulary acquisition, matching learning and teaching styles, and then moves to some motivational strategies that are liable to restore intrinsic motivation or maintain motivation globaly.

Chapter One : Learning styles/Strategies and Vocabulary Acquisition

Introduction

1.Definition of Individual Differences

2.Learning Styles and Strategies

2.1.Learning Styles

2.1.1.Definition of Learning Styles

2.1.1.1.Cognitive Styles

2.1.1.2.Dimentional Framework of Learning Style

2.1.2.Learning Styles and Vocabulary Acquisition

2.1.2.1. Matching Learning and Teacing Styles to Acquire Vocabulary

2.2.3. Vocabulary Learning and Teaching

2.2.3.1. Vocabulary Teaching

2.2.3.1.1. Vocabulary Teaching Methods

2.2.3.1.2. Techniques for Teaching Vocabulary

2.2.3.1.2.1. Visual Techniques

2.2.3.1.2.2. Mimes and Gesters

2.2.3.1.2.3. Using Language Relation

2.2.3.1.2.4. Use of Synonyms, Antonyms, or superordinate

Chapter One: Learning Styles/Strategies and Vocabulary Acquisition

Introduction

This chapter provides an over view about individual differences focussing on learning styles. It is divided into three main sections. The first section tackles learning styles and strategies ; some definitions and the types of learning styles and strategies are discussed and linked to second language acquisition and vocabulary acquisition. The second section deals with methods and approaches in language teaching, as well as the place given to vocabulary and learning styles in some of these approaches and methods. The third section sheds light on vocabulary teaching/learning techniques used by teachers to teach vocabulary on one hand and the techniques used by learners on the other hand.

1. Definition of Individual Differences

The study of individual differences has a long tradition in SL studies and nobody would question that individual learner factors are important contributors to success. Early treatments of individual differences as Ellis (2008) has mentioned were largely motivated by the felt need to identify which learners should receive foreign language instruction by devising testing that would "predict" which learners would be successful. According to Horwitz (2000a) learners were classified as "good and bad, intelligent and dull, motivated and unmotivated". SLLs vary on a number of dimensions to do with personality, motivation, cognitive styles, aptitude, learning strategies, memory, and age. More recent research, however, has sought to explain why some learners succeed more than others, and has been seen as complementary to mainstream research in SLA, which has focused on the universalistic aspects of L2 acquisition. Dornyei (2005) pointed out that IDs have been consistently shown to correlate strongly with L2 achievement to a degree that no other SLA variable can match .All teachers know that some of their students will cope easily with the learning material and activities and some will not .Some will succeed and others will not .Many of the differences (ibid) in achievement will be attributable to inherent

characteristics of the learner .So what, then, are those IDs that affect SLA ? How can we define them?

As the term suggests, IDs are characteristics or factors in respect of which learners may be shown to differ from each other. Dornyei (2005) defines them broadly as "enduring personal characteristics that are assumed to apply to everybody and on which people differ by degree". Age, attitude, anxiety, motivation, cognitive style, and learner strategy are among the ones highlighted in a number of scholars' treatment of the theme. Larsen- Freeman &Young (1991), Ellis (1996), Lightbown & Spada(1999), Larsen-Freeman(2000) surveyed accounts of research on such factors and these are considered and then discussed in the light of the data gathered in this study.

Borrowed from Lightbown and Spada (1999) the term individual differences is favoured as it sounds inclusive of the term factors and the various ways these are perceived. In fact, these two authors seem to favour the term "characteristics" to "factors" as the former is inclusive of the latter. Perceived also as individual "variables" by Larsen –Freeman and Young (1991), learners' factors are here categorized into two types: those of socio-psychological type and those pertaining to mental functioning be it cognitive, neurological or pertaining to input processing proper .Due probably to a great overlap between the various factors, other scholars' distinction is broader: Alcon (1998) suggests that some "internal" to the learner others are "external" to the learner.

In general, age, attitude and motivation, cognitive or learning styles and learning strategies, less so aptitude, are among the most debated ones, but not necessarily ones upon which agreement is reached .Age, for instance, has become controversial since "the younger, the better" position has been put under scrutiny .According to Larsen-Freeman & Young, it makes a positive contribution on LA development when perceived within the following aspects.

For post-pubertal learners, a decrease in reliance on both the operational stage and LAD turns into an advantage for this category of learners as they resort to problem solving abilities .However, regarding input factors older learners may be at a disadvantage the reason put forward is the following; neurological functioning being closely associated with age, post – puberty learners will learn less quickly than younger ones; this being due to a decrease in neurological plasticity .In addition to this, young learners' input is simpler (in view of both age and learning level) and therefore easier to process.

Even with regard to phonological and articulatory aspects younger learners reach native-like proficiency quicker than older ones or those who take up language study later than the critical period. A point which is supported by Ellis whose view is examined below.

It seems relevant to pinpoint the fact that in the present language study context, a majority of students have experienced language learning pre-puberty and ought to have benefited from neurological plasticity regarding both input processing and more particularly perceptual acuity to parse the phonological system with accuracy .However, being in a FL rather than SL context is bound to bring about a different kind of outcomes .We cannot fail to recall that our degree readers' study experience overlaps both the pre-and-post-pubertal periods and if the assumption holds ,they may have gained from both situations.

 For Ellis (1994), anxiety is given priority as a "trait" that is state and situation specific. With reference to Scovel's work (1978), he defines the former as "apprehension that is experienced at a particular moment in time as a response to definite situation" and the latter as "the anxiety which is aroused by a specific type of situation or even such as public speeches, examinations or class participation" (480).

Learners in general, have a predisposition to be anxious and whether dormant or active, it may if only on a temporal basis affect a learner's contribution to the learning process.

Although age, according to Ellis (ibid), little affect how language proficiency develops and successful acquisition may be both possible and easier within a learner's life period, it might be behind differential success only in as a number of aspects are concerned; perception and segmentation of TL sounds is reduced in older students, this is related by this scholar and others (Larsen-Freeman; young) to a loss of neurological plasticity in adult learners. Younger learners store L1and L2 input separately whereas older learners, adults store L1 and L2 knowledge together; adult cognitive abilities are more developed. Children still rely on LA development.

Ellis's further suggestion is that native speaker proficiency can be achieved by learners who start SL/L+ study after puberty provided that L1 maintenance is not too strong. Native speakers proficiency is achievable by adolescents taking up the new language but to a variable degree regarding grammar competence in particular. Given the age of our learners, young adults, we might but weigh the importance of such arguments. we might assume that if their level of proficiency does not equate native speaker level, even if L+ study started before the critical period, they at least can process linguistic input at an abstract level, having experienced L+ within both a "critical" and a "sensitive period".

As regards motivation, with reference to Gardner& Lambert conclusions, the idea that whether driven by instrumental or intrinsic motivation language study will necessarily yield successful outcomes sounds fairly consensual. However, on the basis of Herman's resultative hypothesis, the nature of the relationship between motivation and success sounds less consensual. Herman's resultative hypothesis (reported in Larsen – Freeman &young, Ellis) stipulates that successful study engenders higher motivation whereas unsuccessful study lowers motivation.

Herman's conclusions are that: the longer the study the more positive the attitude towards the target culture; the higher the proficiency, the lower the prejudice against the target culture seem to be interpreted differently. Hence, for Larsen – Freeman& Young, motivation closely

links with attitude; the latter correlates with success in language learning whenever the learners are found to look on positively on that language community.

As for Ellis, who also concludes to a strong link between integrative motivation and L2 achievement, the strength of the link between motivation and achievement is perceived as follows: learners who do well are more likely to develop motivational intensity and to be active in the classroom. Learners' motivation is strongly affected by their achievement. Ellis further documented opinion extends to the idea that two factors, "support" and "interest" intervene to broaden motivation resulting from course and success. In this connection, Ellis expresses a strong belief that motivation can be fostered by pedagogical procedures.

Lightbown Spada's view on the theme sounds no less similar and they, too, seem in favour of conclusions about a distinction between intrinsic/ integrative vs instrumental motivation and the close link between all these and success. They too believe that motivation may be an incentive to success and a result of early success. However, they point to a further link between motivation and the resentment learners may feel if they have to adopt some of the identity markers of another cultural group. They warn that motivation may be affected when power rules student's teacher's relationships.

More relevant to the concern of the present study is these scholars interest in the link between motivation and vocabulary acquisition and how teachers foster motivation. Equally relevant is their treatment of learning style as one of the numerous characteristics which pertain to a learner's life period.

In this vein, they postulate that how learners learn or can learn depends greatly on individual preferences. We shall take note of their definition of learning style, "an individual's natural, habitual, and preferred way of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills".

According to these scholars, learning styles vary and are perception –based; individuals learn through sight whereas others do so through physical contact. As a result of this distinction, learning styles fall into categories. Depending on how learners parse or take in input, the style may be described as holistic or analytic (for those who perceive details first). Within a similar interest in the notion, learners are categorized by Ellis according to the way(s) they see to the study process, we are thus offered a kind of classification that is based on the following dichotomies: field independent vs. field dependent learners, focusers vs. scanners, analytic vs. holistic, impulsive vs. reflective thinkers, divergent vs. convergent thinkers. When believed to belong to one or the other category, learners under take study endeavor indifferent ways, with probably different focuses, different orientations; yet may attain the same results.

Examined under cognitive styles by Larsen – Freeman and Young(1991), and because they are identified as "the preferred way in which individuals process information or approach a task" (192) they seem to be perceived from a no less similar angle; even in the distinction made between field independence/field dependence, reflectivity/impulsivity, analytic / holistic. Such categorization of cognitive styles sounds fairly consensual; it is bound to account though partially for differential success among learners.

Hoping that the above brief discussion on individual differences night shed some light on this study research queries and mainly inform the assumption about good achievers' cognitive advantage. The present research is narrowed to deal with the effect of learning styles and motivation on vocabulary acquisition in the field of SLL for writing purposes.

2. Learning Styles and Strategies

The way that a teacher handles a learning task is called the teacher's teaching style or instructional style. Traditionally, the emphasis has primarily been on the teaching side of L2 instruction, rather than on the learner side. It has been assumed that if teachers do their job of teaching well, students would certainly learn and retain the language as well. Yet, it became

clear that if students are not learning or are not motivated to learn, it may not matter how well the teachers are teaching. Claxton and Murrell (1987) state that if the teacher's instructional style and the student's learning style "match", there is usually a productive learning environment. With this realization an effort has emerged to improve language teaching methodology by adding a component that focuses on the learner.

According to Cohen (2002) as the "domain" of language teaching has became more learner –focused and interactive, there has also been a heightened emphasis on helping students take more responsibility for meeting their own language learning needs. Students are being asked to self-direct the language learning process and become less dependent on the classroom teacher. However, what may well stand in the way of learner's genuine success at language learning is an insufficient awareness of how various styles and strategies may help them learn and use a foreign language more effectively. Given that language learning and the use of what is learned inevitably involves considerable memory work as well as ongoing and meaningful practice, a systematic and purposeful approach to learning can help to ease the burden and the classroom teacher can perform a key role in this effort as learner trainer.

While learning, every student approaches a problem from a unique perspective. S/He learns differently because of the use of this / her own style and strategies that differentiate her/ him from others.

2.1. Learning Styles

All persons have preferences for ways to learn. Research shows that students learn a subject at different rates and with strikingly different levels of completeness (Davis 1989). These preferences are called an individual's learning style.

2.1.1. Definition of Learning Styles

Learning styles can initially be defined in a seemingly straightforward and intuitively convincing manner. According to the standard definition, they refer to "an individual's natural, habitual, and preferred way(s) of absorbing, processing and retaining new information and skills" (Reid 1995). More simply, Brown(2000) defines a learning styles as "a term that refers to consistent and rather enduring tendencies or preferences within an individual".

In the enormous task of learning a second language, the most significant definition of learning styles is the one provided by Keefe.

Keefe (1979) defines learning styles as:

> … The characteristic cognitive, affective and physiological behaviours that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with and respond to the learning environment … learning style is a consistent way of functioning, that reflects underlying causes of behaviors(4).

Learning styles, therefore, encompass four aspects of the person: cognitive styles, i.e., preferred or habitual patterns of mental functioning, patterns of attitudes and interests that affect what an individual will pay most attention to in a learning situation; a tendency to seek situations compatible with one's own learning patterns; and tendency to use certain learning strategies and avoid others (Lawrence 1984).

Literally, dozens of dimensions of learning styles have been identified in the field of SLA by educators and psychologists (Ehrman & leaver 2003; Wintergerst, DeCapua & Itzen 2001; Cohen 1998, Ehrman 1996; Oxford & Anderson 1995; Reid 1995). Among the list of potentially significant contributors to successful second language acquisition are the styles identified by the three researchers (Brown 2000; Chapelle 1983; and Oxford 1990). Five of these styles have been selected and discussed, because of their relevance to teaching. One of the most widely researched dimensions of learning is field independence vs. dependence. F I learners easily separate key details from a complex or confusing background, while their field dependent peers are less able to isolate individual items from the larger context but are more able to see the

larger context but are more able to see the larger context itself clearly (Brown 2000 : 114) . F I learners show significant advantages over FD learners in analytical tasks (Chapelle & Roberts 1986). A second learning style is Ambiguity Tolerance which has been correlated to student' achievement (Brown 2000: 120). Learning a language can be a difficult and at times ambiguous endeavor, and students who can more readily tolerate ambiguity often show the best language learning performance. It allows the learner to temporarily disregard some perceived contradictions or confusions, not get frustrated, and thus proceed with learning (Larson , Freeman and long 1991: 191). A further learning style is analytic vs. global processing. It seems to be closely allied with FD vs. FI, and indeed may be a more fundamental and more explanatory dimension of learning style. However, little foreign or second language learning research exists concerning the analytic- global dimension except in the context of brain hemisphericity. The left hemisphere of the brain deals with language through analysis and abstraction, while the right hemisphere recognizes language as more global auditory or visual patterns (Willing 1988). Leaver (1986) speculates that right – brain learners – those who prefer the kinds of processing done by the right side of the brain – are more facile at learning intonation and rhythms of the target language, whereas left – brain learners deal more easily with analytic aspects of target language grammar. Despite the differences the two hemispheres display, they actually operate as a team". Another learning style dimension is the continuum of reflective and impulsive. Learners with reflective styles tend to take longer but make fewer errors, while these with impulsive styles are quicker but make more errors. This has been observed in L1 children and L2 adults (Larson, Freeman and Long 1991: 195). It appears to that being neither too reflective nor too impulsive is the most beneficial to second language acquisition. Yet, another dimension of learning style – one that is salient in a formal classroom setting – is the preference that learners show toward either visual, auditory, and or kinesthetic input " . According to Brown (2000) visual learners prefer reading, studying charts, making drawings, and the like. Whereas auditory learners prefer

to take in information in a form of sounds, listening to lectures and audiotapes are two instances of their preferences.

Kinesthetic learners show a preference for demonstrations and physical activity involving bodily movement. Successful learners make use of both visual and auditory input, however one must be more preferred to the other.

Cooperation vs. competition has been only lightly studied as a dimension of style in the language learning field. Reid (1987) found that in the language classroom, learners rarely report using cooperative behaviours; however, this finding might well be related to instructional methodologies that often preclude cooperation and foster competition. In studies where students were taught specifically to be cooperative, results revealed vast improvement in language skills as well as increased self − esteem, motivation, altruism, and positive attitudes toward other (Jacob & Mattson 1987).

Döryei (2005) distinguished learning style and cognitive style.

2.1.1.1. Cognitive Styles

Dörnyei (2005) distinguished learning style and cognitive style. Cognitive styles refer to the stable, pervasive way in which learner's process information. They are for the most part information − processing habits. The educational importance of cognitive style may have been exaggerated; the original thrust of research concentrated on the possible interaction between individual characteristics and teaching methods. According to Trolk (2006) they refer to individual's preferred way of processing: i.e., of perceiving, conceptualizing, organizing, and recalling information. Various dimensions of cognitive style have been identified. These are usually presented as dichotomies. The present research sheds light on the dichotomy which has received the greatest attention where SLA is concerned and which leads SL acquirers to greater success. In the practical part we discuss how this cognitive style can affect SLL of English- in

the department of Letters and Languages at the University of Constantine1 -vocabulary acquisition for writing purposes.

This dichotomy is field dependent and field independent which is the one most frequently referred to in SLA (Chapelle & Green 1992). This distinction was originally introduced by Witkin et al. (1954). Categories of this cognitive style are commonly identified as pairs of traits on opposite ends of a continuum; individual learners are rarely thought to be at one extreme or the other, but are located somewhere along the continuum between. (Troike 2006). Principal characteristics of FD and F I are summarized in table 1.

Field Dependent	Field independent
Global	Particular
Holistic	Analytic
Deductive	Inductive
Focus on meaning	Focus on form

Table 1: Principal Characteristics of FD / F I (Troike 2006)

As this dimension has been applied to learning, individuals who are FI are considered more particularistic and analytic. According to Chapelle and Green (1992) these learners have the ability to analyze the linguistic material (input) they are exposed to, identify its components, and then, explore relationships between these components. Separating the essential from the inessential could involve an ability to focus on form rather than on meaning. FD learners, in contrast, are likely to be less analytic (more global), and holistic – to perceive situations as whole – in processing new information, rather than being analyzable into components. They are advantageous to devote attention to meaning. Some evidence can also be found for differential success in relation to relative focus on meaning versus focus on form. In a study of good L2

learners, for instance, Novoa, Fein, and Obler (1998) found that they possess " a cognitive style whereby subjects are able to focus on form better than meaning but certainly in conjunction with meaning" (Obler and Hannigan 1996: 512 -13). Ellis (1985) states that FD learners are more likely to depend on external frames of reference for making judgment (i.e. the self-view is derived from others) in that they are thought to be person-oriented. While FD are person-oriented, FI are said to be impersonal-oriented, i.e., they show reliance on their own internal frame of refer in processing information. FD learners are thought to achieve more success in L2 acquisition via highly contextualized interactive communicative experiences because that fits better with their holistic character, and FI learners to profit more from decontextualized analytic approaches and formal instruction.

In terms of an information processing model of learning, FI learners may have better intentional capacities (Skehan 1998).they have greater capacity to channel attention selectively and notice important aspects of language.

Another partially related character is deductive or inductive processing .Deductive learners or "top-down" as discussed by (Troike 2006: 88) begins with a prediction or rule and then applies it to interpret particular instance of input .On the other hand, inductive or "bottom-up" learners are characterized by starting with examining input to discover some pattern and then formulates a generalization or rule that accounts for it and that may then in turn be applied deductively.

Based on the above characteristics that prove significant in some way in explaining differential L2 learning out comes, many hypotheses about the role of FD/I in SLA have emerged. One of the most interesting in Ellis' view (1985) is the suggestion that FD will prove most facilitative in naturalistic SLA, but FI will lead to greater success in classroom learning. The reasoning behind this is that in naturalistic learning the greater social skills of the FD learner will lead to more frequent contact with native speakers so to more input, and to more

opportunities to use language to express meaning. Whereas in classroom learning the greater ability to analyze the formal rules of the language will be important.

In sun, the FD learner benefits from the way he process information but is seen to avoid situation in which language is actually going to be used for communication. FD individuals, while comfortable in communication situations, are not seen to be effective information processors. What is being claimed according to Chapelle and Green(1992) is not that some learners have greater ability than others, rather that there are differences in the way individuals' interact with the linguistic material (input) and with the ways in which they perceive and organize information. The distinction is neutral as to which style is most facilitative of learning. It is assumed that whereas FIs' will perform some tasks more effectively than FDs' the opposite will be true for other tasks. Further, each pole is seen as having advantages for different tasks. While approaching a task, individual learners favouring one style may switch to another in some circumstances.

2.1.1.1. Dimensional Framework of Learning Style

More recently there has been an attempt to relate style concepts to cotemporary language teaching and learning. Willing (1987:86) attempts to characterize language learners in terms of two-dimensional framework (FD/FI). He reveals four learner types corresponding to the two dimensions; converges (FI active), conformists (FI passive), concrete learners (FD passive), and communicative learners (FD active).

Converger learners according to willing are those learners who tend to be analytical; when processing material, are able to focus on the component parts of such material (input) and their interrelationship. They are solitary learners who prefer to avoid groups, or even classrooms, altogether. They are independent, confident in their own judgments, and willing to impose their own structures on learning. They are more likely to regard language as an object. Such learners, in other words, are drawn more towards learning "about" language than towards language use.

Furthermore, they value efficiency, and tend to be cool, pragmatic, and detached. Conformists as willing (1987) said, provide an interesting contact. They too have an analytic view of language preferring to emphasize learning "about" language and regarding language learning as a task susceptible to systematic, logical, and organized work. But they rely upon the organization of others, and are dependent on those they perceive as having authority. They are not so confident about their own judgments, so that they are happy to function in non-communicative classrooms by doing what they are told, following textbooks, frequently preferring a visual mode of organization for their learning, and taking an impersonal approach to learning. Such learners prefer well-organized teachers who provide structure, in the sense of classroom organization and plans.

On the other hand, and following Willing' division, field dependent learners are divided into two types; concrete and communicative learners. Concrete learners share some characteristics with conformists. They, too, like classrooms and the imposed organization and authority that this can provide. But they enjoy the sociable aspects of classrooms, and see them as composed of groups of interacting individuals. Learners of this type like to learn from direct experience, and are interested in language use and language as communication, rather than simply knowing about a system. As field dependent learners, they are people oriented. there preferred activities in the classroom are organized games and group work, and a wide range of skills-based and communicative activities. Finally, the fourth sketch of the divisions proposed by Willing is communicative learners. These learners are language-as-use oriented, but holistic in orientation, they feel comfortable out of class, showing a degree of social independence and confidence as well as a willingness to take risks. such learners are happy to engage in communication in real-life situations, without the support of teacher. Those learners show no interest to an analytic approach or in learning separately the different elements of a language.

Most learners do not fall neatly into one or other quadrant(as they are sort of like caricatures), either occupying range of space, or alternatively moving between quadrants when their behaviour is appropriately modified to take account of different sorts of learning contexts.

Willing (1987) attempts to provide some teaching techniques appropriate for each cognitive style in the table below:

	Analytical-abstract	**Holistic-concrete**
Active	Convergers .Good at interactive instructions using computers, classroom diaries, portfolios .Like focus on form teaching .Life individual pen-and paper work in which analysis is involved . Like reflecting about language	Communicative .Active participants .Like any technique that allows independent discovery. .Inductive learners who like to deduce or infer rules .These are the students who will ask difficult and shrewd questions
Passive	Conformists . Like to be point out the objectives of the session . Like the use of visual materials .Visual orientation for learning . Reference guides and hand-outs which can be read are very useful for them	Concrete . Reading method with demonstration. . Like workshops, interactive tutorials with quick responses . Good at group-work cooperation .Like games . Like to use the language in communication or to see it used

Table2: Teaching Techniques Appropriate for Each Cognitive Style (Willing 1987)

2.1.2. Learning Styles and Vocabulary Acquisition

Learning styles directly contribute to vocabulary knowledge. According to Ma (2002: 166) "Learning styles are the general approaches to vocabulary learning. They affect the knowledge eventually gained". When the learning styles of the students and teaching style of the instructor match, the students and instructor get the most from the interaction.

2.1.2.1. Matching Learning and Teaching Styles to Acquire Vocabulary

A variety of approaches have been taken in research on a link between student learning styles on the one hand and teaching styles on the other .Ford and Chen explored the relationship between matching and mismatching of instructional presentation styles with students' cognitive styles, that is, the area of matching of student and teacher styles. The results suggest that the matched-conditions group had better performance than the mismatched-conditions group only for students (Ford & Chen 2001:21). To some extent, this study provides support for the effect of matching condition on learning outcomes.

The term "teaching style" refers to "a teacher's personal behaviors and media used to transmit data to or receive it from the learner" (Kaplan & Kies 1995: 29). Teaching styles focus on teachers and their distinct approach to teaching. Differences in teaching styles may also impact on areas such as classroom arrangements, the organization and assessment of activities, teacher interactions with students and pedagogical approaches. Jarvis (1985:14) used three classifications to identify teaching styles : (a) a didactic style which was teacher-controlled through lectures and student note taking; (b) a Socratic style which was teacher directed through the use of questions to which the students responded; and (c) a facilitative style in which the teacher prepared the learning environment and the students were responsible for their own learning. However, Van Tilburg and Heimlich (1990:3-9) in an attempt to describe an individual's teaching style, defined two domains, sensitivity and inclusion. The sensitivity

domain is based on the ability of the teacher to sense the shared characteristics of the learners. The inclusion domain is based on the teacher's willingness and ability to utilize instructional strategies that take advantage of the group's characteristics. An individual can be classified into one of four teaching styles based on their sensitivity and inclusion scores. The low inclusion and low sensitivity quadrant is labeled "expert". The "expert" teacher is subject oriented and tends to use the lecture method of instruction. Teachers scoring in the low inclusion and high sensitivity quadrant are termed "providers". "Providers" are learner-centered and seek to teach effectively «Providers" tend to use group discussion, demonstrations, and guided activities. The quadrant defined by high inclusion and low sensitivity is labeled "facilitator". Teachers falling into the "facilitator" category are teacher-centered and the method of instruction is dictated by the subject matter. Teachers in the final quadrant with scores of high inclusion and high sensitivity are "enablers". "Enablers" are very learner-centered and the learners define both the activity and the process in the learning environment. Grasha also groups five teaching styles into four clusters (1996:154):

Cluster 1 - expert/formal authority : tends toward teacher-centered classrooms in which information is presented and students receive knowledge.

Cluster 2 - personal model/expert/formal authority is a teacher-centered approach that emphasizes modeling and demonstration. This approach encourages students to observe processes as well as content.

Cluster 3 - facilitator/personal model/expert cluster is a student-centered model for the classroom. Teachers design activities, social interactions, or problem-solving situations that allow students to practice the processes for applying course content.

Cluster 4 – delegator expert places much of the learning burden on the students. Teachers provide complex tasks that require student initiative to complete.

Teaching methods also vary. Some instructors lecture, others demonstrate or discuss; some focus on rules and others on examples; some emphasize memory and others understanding. How much a given student learns in a class is governed in part by that student's native ability and prior preparation but also by the compatibility of his or her characteristic approach to learning and the instructor's characteristic approach to teaching (Felder & Henriques 1995:21 1).

Students will gain more input, retain more words, and perform better when teaching styles match with their learning styles. Felder and Henriques (1995) hold that matching teaching styles to learning styles can significantly enhance students' vocabulary acquisition and attitudes especially in foreign language instruction. Bridging the gap between teaching and learning styles can only be achieved when teachers are aware of their learners' needs, capacities, and learning style preferences in meeting these needs. By developing awareness of learning styles and providing a variety of activities to meet the needs of different learning styles, learners are motivated to learn more vocabulary and become better learners. This is what learner development means in the context of vocabulary learning (Ma 2002).

By employing effective teaching styles that suit learners' styles, students can learn a considerable number of words in a reasonable period of time, which can further motivate them to learn more words by making a greater learning effort.

2.2.3. Vocabulary Learning and Teaching

Vocabulary learning and teaching are important factors in second language learning. Achieving communicative competence in second language can be enhanced by developing vocabulary learning and teaching. Similarly, problems in vocabulary learning and teaching can have serious negative effects on learner's success in second language learning.

2.2.3.1. Vocabulary Teaching

According to Nation (1990:1), some teachers think that there is no need to teach vocabulary since it can take care of itself. However, vocabulary work can be directed toward

useful words and useful skills and therefore it can enhance the second language learning process. Aalto (1994:93) points out that vocabulary is often neglected in language learning and teaching even though it is agreed that without words there is no communication. However, the teaching of vocabulary has not evolved and learning new words still consists of behaviouristic studying of word lists.

Nation (2006:498) emphasizes encouraging learner autonomy since like most learning, also vocabulary learning will be most effective if learners take control of their learning and are responsible for it. In principle, this means knowing what to learn how to learn it being simultaneously motivated to do this and eventually putting the knowledge to use. Therefore language teaching and the actions made by the teacher can have an impact on the learners' approach towards their learning.

Principles of vocabulary learning and teaching by Nation (2006:498) include the following:

1) The sequence of vocabulary learning should move from high frequency vocabulary and special purposes vocabulary to low frequency vocabulary.

2) High frequency vocabulary and special purposes vocabulary should get attention across all the fields of teaching and learning vocabulary: meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning, and fluency development.

3) With low frequency vocabulary, teachers should focus on the strategies of guessing words from context, learning word cards, using word parts, and using dictionary.

4) Learning activities should be designed to encourage thoughtful processing of vocabulary through retrieval, generative use, and the use of mnemonic devices where needed.

5) Learners should be helped to take responsibility for their own vocabulary learning.

Similarly to Nation's (2006) views on vocabulary learning and teaching also Cook (2001:58) points out that much of vocabulary teaching is based on the idea that the most commonly used words of the target language should be taught first.

Nation (1990:3) argues that opportunities for indirect vocabulary learning should have more time in language education in comparison with direct vocabulary learning activities. In order to indirect vocabulary learning to happen, learners must be interested in the message conveyed through the language. In addition, the message should include some items that are just outside the learner's present language proficiency and vocabulary knowledge. Nevertheless, these items should be understandable from the context in order to indirect vocabulary learning to take place.

Nation (1990:178) also points out that indirect vocabulary can be encouraged by exposure to large amounts of reading material. Through this exposure the learners have an opportunity to practise vocabulary learning strategies.

2.2.3.1.1. Vocabulary Teaching Methods

The Direct Method posited by Berlitz by the twentieth century, whose basic tenet was that SL learning is similar to first language learning involved the students in the learning of words referring to many objects about which they can talk, and to many actions they can perform. In other words, the method focuses on the learning of everyday vocabulary. The words students learn are combined not with first Language equivalents but with pictures, actual objects (realia) or actions. This combination is used relying on the exclusive use of the target Language(Krashen,J987:135).

In the 1940's, the movement of structuralism in Linguistics has given rise to structural approaches that have relegated the learning of vocabulary behind the scene and have downgraded it to a secondary level in the learning and teaching process of a FL. Rivers (1968:23) specifies the aims of these methods as "Developing listing and speaking skills first, as the foundation on which to build the skills of reading and writing". The belief at that time was that in learning a new Language, it is more important to master its sounds and its grammatical structures than learning its vocabulary. All what learners need, at first, is just enough elementary

vocabulary to practice the syntactic structures. At that time, different views and orientations in Linguistics and Psychology from structuralism to Behaviorism helped the progress of the Audio-Lingual Method, which was primarily for the mastery of structure. Vocabulary learning in this method is given a minor rote untill the students achieve a complete mastery of the elementary structural patterns and are able to express themselves freely within a limited area of Language. Vocabulary teaching is contextualized ; but white pronunciation and intonation are given high credit, meaning is secondary. The view that saw vocabulary as mainly a problem of grading and selection in the teaching of foreign Languages Largely dominated up to the 1960's. At that time, the emergence of different works dealing with word lists knew a large success, for example, "A General Service List", a book produced by Palmer and West in 1953 which proposed a list of 2000 words that offers the opportunity of comprehension of 80 percent of any written text.

The decline in emphasis on Vocabulary learning was accelerated by movements in Linguistics that concentrated on phonology, Morphology, or Syntax with a corresponding neglect of Semantics. However, an aspiration seemed to emerge with the advancement of notional syllabuses: notions, topics and setting seemed to bring a new life for the word. Wilkins (1972:111) deplored the neglect of vocabulary in the period dominated by the Audio-Lingual approaches, and wrote that if "without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed". Therefore, by the mid 1970' s, linguists started to lake care of the word and insist that it has to be learned in "Context". Semantics started to play a very important role in the teaching of vocabulary; they have even started to regard vocabulary as a skill that should not be subsumed by other aspects of Language

By the 1980's, came the time to assert, "if we have the vocabulary we need, it is usually possible to communicate, after a fashion" (Wallace, 1982). Following the development of CLT, many researches (for example, Wallace, ibid) supported the teaching of vocabulary in

relation with situations and contexts, encouraging inferences and activation of learner's previous knowledge. Allen (1983) was for the introduction of the social and cultural components; Rivers (1983) Gains and Redman (1986) stressed the importance to make learners learn by themselves.

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

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

During that period another approach under CLT has emerged. It refers to an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching named Task-Based language teaching. Among its most proponents is Willis and Illis in their book published in 1996, "A flexible Framework for Task-Based Learning".

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

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

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

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

Hence, as Tianjero et al. (2011) puts it, the most suitable teaching methods for field-dependent learners are those which are directive and supportive since they need external support and guidance to direct their attention towards the details, help them to work out the rules and store information in their working memory in an organized way to be able to retrieve them effectively from their long term memory.

In contrast, field-independent learners, who are more intrinsically motivated to develop their own strategies, seem to need minimum direction and prefer discovery methods which allow them to be more autonomous (Tiajerro, 2011; Witkin et al., 1977). Furthermore, In addition to their superiority in the learning tasks that require analysis and attention to details, they can retrieve information from their working memory much more effectively since they are more disciplined in processing and storing the information (Daniels, 1996).

2.2.3.1.2. Techniques for Teaching Vocabulary

Vocabulary teaching is often planned in the sense that the teachers chooses specific vocabulary items to be taught. Most of the time, they select high frequency words, use little slang and introduce few idioms. In their explanation of lexical terms, Hatch& Brown(l995:40l)states that teachers make use of synonymy, antonymy or definitions. The latter are either explicit (for example, "this means X", "l t' s a kind of X"-using hyponymy), or implicit-through the use of intonation to convey the meaning. Vocabulary teaching can also be unplanned; it takes place when the need arises in the classroom for the words that have not been anticipated. during an SL/FL lesson, it often happens that learners ask for the meaning of a word or the word that expresses a gives meaning. In these situations, the teacher generally supplies the needed word

ormeaning and goes on with the main topic of the lesson. On other occasions, when she/he feels that the vocabulary item that bas just come up is unknown to her/his learners and needs to be clarified, she/he takes the opportunity to supply the word and explore it. In most cases, she/he analyses its form and studies its meaning(s) in different ways mainly through examples or pictures order to make the learners record it systematically(Hatch& Brown ibid:402).

Using different techniques of presentation brings variety and helps the retention of new vocabulary items. Gairns and Redman (1986) divided techniques of vocabulary presentation in the classroom into two groups: visual techniques and verbal techniques.

2.2.3.1.2.1. Visual Techniques: Visuals

These include flashcards, photographs, blackboard drawings, wall charts and realia (i.e. objects themselves). They are extensively used for conveying meaning and are particularly useful for teaching concrete items of vocabulary such as food or furniture, and certain areas of vocabulary such as places professions, descriptions of people, actions and activities.

2.2.3.1.2.2. Mime and Gesture

These are often used to supplement other ways of conveying meaning. When teaching an item such as " to swerve", a teacher might build a situation to illustrate it, making use of the blackboard and gesture to reinforce the concept.

2.2.3.1.2.3. Using Language Relation

Of course, reliance on real objects, illustration, or demonstration, is limited. It is one thing to mime a chicken, but quite another to physically represent the meaning of a word like'intuition' or 'trustworthy'. Also, words frequently come up incidentally, words for which the teacher won't have visuall aids or realia at band. An alternative way of conveying the meaning of a new word is simply to use words. Non-visual, verbal means of clarifying meaning include:

- Use of synonymy, antonymy,or superordinate terms

- Translation

• Giving a full definition

• Use of illustrative situations (context)

2.2.3.1.2.4. Use of Synonymy, Antonymy, or Suprordinate Term

Teachers often use synonymy to respond to a question such as 'what does X mean?'. Teachers directly give a synonym, but this technique is not worth until the teacher specifies the context in which these two words can be interchangeable.

Contrast and opposites, as with synonymy, this is a techniques which students themselves use, often asking 'what is the opposite of X ?' A new item like 'sour' is easily illustrated by contrasting it with 'sweet' which would already be known by students. However, it is vital to illustrate the contexts in which this is true. Sugar is sweet and lemons are sour, but the opposite of ' sweet wine' is not 'sour wine', and the opposite of 'sweet tea' is not 'sour tea'.

A vocabulary network could be designed to help students learn to make semantic associations within particular superordinate headings. To illustrate the meaning of the superordinate term 'colour', it is a common procedure to exemplify them e.g. blue, dark, yellow, brown, green. Semantic mapping or vocabulary network is a technique that helps learners bring into consciousness relationships among words in a text and helps deepen understanding by creating associative networks forwards (Nation,1990).

2.2.3.1.2.5. Translation

Translation can save valuable time that might otherwise be spent on a tortuous and largely unsuccessful explanation in English, and it can be a very quick way to dispose of low frequency items that may worry the students but do not warrant significant attention. Gaims and Redman (1986:75) argue that: "translation may be legitimate for items possessing a clear mother-tongue equivalent, but should otherwise be avoided". Translation may not always convey the exact sense of an item. A more real danger with translation is that if students continue to use the

mother longue as a framework on which to attach L2 items, they will not develop the necessary framework to take account of sense relations between different items in the new Language.

2.2.3.1.2.6. Definition

According to Nagy (1988:6-7) definitions are not useful in vocabulary instruction. First, definitions atone tell little about how a word is actually used, this leads to difficulty in writing a meaningful sentence. Second, definitions do not effectively convey new concepts.

This brings us to perhaps the most basic reason that knowledge of definitions is not adequate to guarantee comprehension of text containing the words defined; reading comprehension depends on a wealth of encyclopedic knowledge and not merely on definitional knowledge of the words in the text. Therefore, clearly contextualized examples are generally required to clarify the limits of the item.

2.2.3.1.2.7. Use of Illustrative Situations (Context)

New words should not be presented in isolation and should not be learned by simple rote learning (memorization). It is important that new vocabulary items be presented in contexts rich enough to provide clue to meaning and that students be given multiple exposure to items they should learn. There is no question that learning from context is an important avenue of vocabulary growth and that it deserves attention and practice(Nagy, ibid).

A situational presentation involves providing a scenario which clearly contextualizes the target word(s). An alternative to the situational approach is to provide students with example sentences, each one being a typical instance of the target word in context. From the cumulative effect of the sentences the students should be able to hypothesize the meaning of the target word using induction: the mental process of hypothesizing from examples. For example, a teacher would like to explain the meaning of the word 'Fancy', he can provide different sentences where the word is used to help the students deduce the meaning and have exposure to the different contexts where this word can be used and its collocations.

I *fancy* eating out tonight. Don't you?

Do you *fancy* a cap of coffee?

He is really nice, but I don't *fancy* him

According to Thornbury (2002:82) one advantage of this approach is that the learners hear and see the word several times, increasing the likelihood of, retention in memory. Another advantage is that they see the word in a variety of typical contexts (rather than just one) so they can start to get a feel for its range of uses as well as its typical collocation ,so they can generalize its use and transfer it in new contexts in a safe way. Finally, they get information on the word's form andgrammar.

2.2.3.1.3. Review and Consolidation of Lexical Items

The second category of vocabulary teaching strategies refers to those procedures whose aim is to get learners to review lexical items, for this review is necessary, as has been stated on several occasions so far, to consolidate them in long-term memory. According to the principle labeled as 'expanded rehearsal' (see Schmitt, 2000), it is necessary to review the material immediately after initial learning and then at gradually increasing intervals (e.g. 5—10 minutes after learning, then 24 hours later, a week later, a month later and finally 6 months later). The teacher's task is to provide learners with opportunities for practicing and connecting words in various ways and to stimulate them to retrieve words from memory and use them for all language skills. Principles of memorizing words, discussed in one of the above sections, may serve as guidelines in planning and selecting tasks and activities at this stage of vocabulary teaching. The activities most frequently mentioned in the literature are the following:

• Mechanical repetition of words. Although deep level processing is more effective in the long run, loud repetition may also contribute to memorization of a word.

• Copying words. If accompanied, for example, by loud repetition or visualization of its meaning, copying can aid memory. If learner copy words onto word cards, other possibilities of revision activities present themselves.

• Word manipulation. This includes examples of tasks such as match¬ing words and their definitions, grouping words, finding the odd one out, etc.

• Integrating new words with the already known. Activating linguistic pre-knowledge and knowledge of the world creates a link between new words and already known words. In the process of creating the links, new words become more meaningful and organised, and thus easier to learn. This can be achieved in various ways, as for example by semantic elaboration.

• Semantic elaboration. It facilitates the creation of links and semantic networks, as well as deep level of processing. According to Sokmen (1997), the following are procedures based on semantic elaboration: semantic feature analysis (e.g. a componential analysis); semantic mapping, which also serves as a visual reminder of links between words; ordering or classifying words, which helps learners to organize and distinguish differences in meaning between words; pictorial schemata, such as grids or diagrams, which emphasize distinctive features and require learners to deeply process words by organizing words and making their meanings visual and concrete. These techniques are also suitable for presenting and revising collocations.

• Creating mental images by drawing diagrams, illustrations of mean¬ing etc.

• Personalization. Personalization makes the learning material psycho¬logically 'real'. It can be achieved by giving personal examples, i.e. by relating a word to real events or personal experience, etc.

• Tasks for word identification. The aim of these tasks is to get learners to pay attention to specific lexical items and to recognize their form. Concrete examples are finding words in a text, working on a 'word snake' puzzle, solving anagrams, etc.

• Tasks for recalling words from memory. Activating knowledge, i.e. an attempt to recall a word's meaning with the help of the given form or vice versa, by recalling the form on the basis of given meaning, and thereby enhancing memory. Therefore, the teacher should deliberately encourage recall at spaced intervals. This task may be realized through a number of activities: acting the word out, replacing the word with its synonym or antonym, giving a definition, translation, cross-word puzzles, etc. Also, reading activities stimulate word identification.

• Tasks for expansion of lexical knowledge. These are concerned with providing additional information on lexical items in order to cover as many components of lexical knowledge as possible. The activities that seem worthwhile in this respect are analysis of word formation, analysis of grammar categories and forms, highlighting collocations, etc.

• Productive use of words. By using words in a meaningful context learners create mental links. Activities that promote productive use of vocabulary include the following: completing sentences or texts, with words offered or not, using words in sentences, conversations, stories, etc.; various games (e.g. Hangman, I spy, Bingo). All speaking and writing activities by definition include productive use of vocabulary.

• Multiple encounters with the word. All above-listed activities can offer learners opportunities to encounter words many times and in different contexts. A variety of tasks and multiple encounters of a word ensure a more systematic coverage of various aspects of lexical knowledge and enable learners to build up an adequate lexical knowledge and consolidate it in long-term memory.

2.2. Language Learning Strategies

Learning styles (general approach to language learning) often helps in the choice of L2 learning strategies. For example, analytic students prefer strategies such as contrastive analysis, dividing words and phrases, while holistic (overall) students use strategies to find meaning

(guessing, scanning, predicting). One of the ways learners become actively involved in controlling their own learning is by using strategies.

Learning strategies have been defined in various ways in literature and they are connected to several aspects of language learning. In his section some of the different definitions of learning strategies are introduced .Furthermore, some other important aspects related to learning strategies are discussed in detail. These include, for example, classification of learning strategies and the role of learning strategies in successful language learning, and especially with individual learners' vocabulary acquisition. Also, second language learning strategy research will be addressed.

2.2.1. Definition of Language Learning Strategies

The different definitions for language learning strategies. For example, Takala (1996, as cited in Kristiansen1998:44) determines the word "strategy" : "strategies are taken to be the behaviors that the learners engage in during learning that intended to influence cognitive and affective processing". In addition, as O'Malley and Chamot (1990:1) put it: learning strategies are thoughts or behaviors the learners use to comprehend, learn or retain new information. Cook (2001:126) describes learning strategy to be "a choice that the learner makes while learning or using the second language that affects learning".

Ellis (1985:165) points that native language speakers use the same strategy types as learners of second language. However, there are differences in the frequency of strategy use between native speakers and non-native speakers.

Even though some scholars agree that language learning strategies can be unconscious, Cohen (1998:4) states that consciousness distinguishes strategies from the processes that are not strategic. He continues that the element of choice is an important factor in language learning strategies and therefore there cannot be strategies which are unconscious. Oxford (1990:12) points out that learning strategies are usually seen as intentional and conscious actions made by

the learner in order to take control of their own learning. However, in contrast to Cohen's (1998) view, Oxford (1990:12) states that some strategies can become automatic and unconscious when used for long period of time.

Learning strategies are not always easy to notice. They can also be taught and, in addition, language learning strategies are flexible and influenced by a variety of factors. Oxford (1990:7) defines language learning strategies as "steps taken by students to enhance their own learning". According to her, language learning strategies are important since they create active and self – directed involvement and help to develop communicative competence. Table 3, which is compiled by Oxford (1990:9), clarifies the features of language learning strategie.

.

1. Contribute to the main goal, communicative competence.
2. Allow learners to become more self-directed.
3. Expand the role of teachers
4. Are problem – oriented.
5. Are specific actions taken by the learner.
6. Involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive.
7. Support learning both directly and indirectly.
8. Are not always observable.
9. Are often conscious.
10. Can be taught.
11. Are flexible.
12. Are influenced by variety of factors.

Table3: Features of Language Learning Strategies (Oxford 1990)

According to Oxford (1990:8), language learning strategies also allow the learners to become more self- directed, expand the role of teachers, are problem oriented and are specific

actions taken by the learner. Oxford (1990:8-12) continues that they also involve many aspects of the learner; they are not just the cognitive aspects. This means that language learning strategies support learning both directly and indirectly. The strategies which involve direct learning and use of subject matter, which in this case is a new language, are direct strategies whereas strategies which contribute to learning indirectly are called indirect strategies.

The processes involved when using second language knowledge consist of reception strategies, production strategies and communication strategies.

Reception and production strategies are used when trying to use existing knowledge of the second language efficiently with minimal effort. On the other hand, communication strategies are used when the first attempt to use language in getting the message though fails. Communication strategies are likely to involve greater effort and therefore they are more conscious than reception and production strategies. (Ellis 1985:165).

According to Ellis (1985:103), learning strategies and techniques can be divided into two groups: those involved in studying the second language and those involved in obtaining second language input. In this study the former group is the main interest.

Oxford (1990:1) points out that even though learning strategies have been studied only for the past few decades, they have actually been used for thousands of years. O'Malley and Chamot (1990:3) also point out that in the early stages of learning strategy research attention was mainly paid to differences between successful and unsuccessful language learners and the characteristics of good language learners. In addition, also factors influencing strategy choice were taken into consideration.

Many recent studies on L2 vocabulary concentrate on individual strategies or small number of them (Fan, 2003: 225). According to Jiménez Catalàn (2003:56), during the last two decades studies of language learning strategies have aimed at determining the characteristics of good and

poor language learners and the difference between language learning and communication learning strategies.

2.2.2. Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies have been classified in various ways. Oxford (1990:15-22) identifies six major groups of SL learning strategies:

1. Cognitive strategies (direct) enable the learner to use the language material in direct ways, e.g. through reasoning, analysis, note – taking and synthesizing.

2. Metacognitive strategies (indirect) are used to manage the learning process. They include identifying one's preferences and needs, planning. Monitoring and evaluating the learning process.

3. Memory – related strategies (direct), include acronyms, images, key words and they help link one L2 item or concept with another but they do not necessarily involve deep understanding.

4. Compensatory strategies (direct), e.g. guessing from context and gestures, help make up for lack of knowledge in some fields of the language.

5. Affective strategies (indirect) help the learners manage their emotions and motivation. Affective strategies include, for instance, identifying one's mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings and rewarding oneself.

6. Social strategies (indirect) enable learning through interaction and understand target culture since they include asking questions, asking for clarifications, talking with native speakers and exploring culture.

In comparison with the classification by Oxford (1990), some scholars, such as Cohen (1998), identify only four language learning strategy types: cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social strategies.

Cohen (1998:7) describes cognitive strategies as strategies used in identification, grouping, retention and storage of language material. Furthermore, they include also the "language use

strategies of retrieval, rehearsal and   comprehension or production of words, phrases and other elements of language "(Cohen 1998:7).

According to Oxford (1998:8), metacognitive strategies help learners to regulate their own cognition and focus in addition to planning and evaluating their progress. Cohen (1998:7) states that metacognitive strategies deal with pre-assessment, pre – planning on – line planning and evaluation and post – evaluation of languages learning activities and of language use events. These strategies allow the learners to control their own learning and using of the language. In fact, Cohen (1998:8) points out that higher proficiency students are more likely to use metacognitive strategies and they use them more effectively than the lower - proficiency students.

Affective strategies develop their self -confidence and perseverance to involve students themselves in language learning (Oxford 1990 :8-9). Cohen (1998:8) describes affective strategies to be used to regulate emotions, motivation and attitudes such as reducing anxiety and self - encouragement.

Social strategies provide interaction and more empathetic understanding which also are two important factors in reaching communicative competence (Oxford 1998:8). Social strategies include the actions the learner chooses to take in order to interact with other learners or native speakers of the language (Cohen 1998:8). Eventually the strategies can act in specific ways to foster certain aspects of that competence, such as grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic elements (Oxford 1990:8-9).

2.3. Learning Vocabulary

When we learn our first Language or mother tongue, we develop concepts and general notions. At the same time, we learn all the ways our language community expresses these

concepts and general notions. Therefore when we approach another language, we are already in possession of many concepts; we only look for the ways to express them in the new language. In other words, we seek the right vocabulary to label them.

2.3.1. Vocabulary Learning Strategies

In learning a foreign language, learners do generally use strategies in order to overcome the problems they may face white learning. Vocabulary learning strategies are part of language learning strategies. Strategies should aid both in discovering the meaning of a new word and in consolidating a word once it has been encountered. Thus, learners should approach independent learning of vocabulary by using a combination of extensive reading and self-study strategies.

2.3.2. Defining vocabulary learning strategy

Learner autonomy can be enhanced by introducing learner to different vocabulary learning strategies which can be used in developing the learning process. Schmitt (1997:200-201) states, summarising previous research, that many learners use vocabulary learning strategies and many learners agree that vocabulary is an essential part of language.

Sokmen (1997:237) summarises that vocabulary learning strategies are basically actions made by the learner in order to help them to understand the meaning of a word, learning them and to remember them later. Jimenez Catalán (2003 :57) accentuates that there is the line separating language learning strategies from vocabulary learning strategies is by no mean clearly defined. The main goal of studies on vocabulary learning strategies is to discover how words are learnt and what parts is played by different processes.

According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990:7), training second language learners to use learning strategies concentrates mainly on learning vocabulary. They also point out that vocabulary learning strategies are used most frequently and are probably the most well-known type of language learning strategies. Ellis (1985:103-104) mentions that, in comparison with

other aspects of language, such as grammar and pronunciation, vocabulary is the area of language that learners seem most conscious of.

Grammar has often been seen as the core of language and that is why Sokmen (1997:237) points out that the role of vocabulary in language learning has been neglected. According to Sokmen (1997:237) vocabulary acquisition has a more important role in learning a second language today than it had before. This means that the awareness of vocabulary learning strategies and the need for them are growing. In addition, Juurakko and Airola (2002) also state that the study of vocabulary learning is already one of the central topics studying language learning. However, no general theory has been found concentrating on the meaning of lexical competence or how words really are learned. Sokmen (1997:237-239) continues that previously the emphasis was on implicit, incidental learning of vocabulary. However, current research suggests that it is worthwhile to add explicit vocabulary learning into the vocabulary learning activities used in classrooms.

Jimenez Catalán (2003:57) points out that the line between language learning strategies and vocabulary learning strategies is by no means clearly defined and studies on vocabulary learning overlap with studies on communication strategies. Schmitt (1997:200) notes that even though many studies have been made about language learning strategies and vocabulary learning, only a few of them have discussed vocabulary learning strategies. According to Schmitt (1997:199), the research done on the field of vocabulary learning strategies typically concentrates only on individual or small number of strategies.

According to Schmitt (1997:223), research has shown that patterns of strategy use can change over time when the learner gets older or becomes more proficient in the language he or she is studying. Therefore some strategies are more popular in certain age groups.

2.3.3. Classification of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

There are several different ways to classify L2 vocabulary learning strategies. Sokmen (1997:237-257) summarises that the main categories of vocabulary learning strategies are implicit and explicit teaching of words. Implicit teaching includes only word inferring from context. Explicit teaching is consists of several elements such as building a large sight of vocabulary, integrating new words with the old ones, providing adequate amount of encounters with a word, promoting deep level processing, facilitating imaging and concreteness, using different techniques and encouraging independent learner strategies.

In recent years these explicit methods have attained sustainable position in vocabulary teaching. In addition, Sokmen (1997:237) also points out that in the 1970s and 1980s vocabulary learning was seen as an implicit and incidental and it was not seen as important as, for instance, grammar. However, currently the use of explicit vocabulary teaching is growing.

Vocabulary learning strategies can also be divided into two groups the first being the group concentrating on understanding the meaning of words and the other including the strategies for acquiring words (Cook 2001:66-68).

Strategies for understanding the meaning of words (by Cook 2001 :66-67)

1. Guessing from the situation or context

2. Using a dictionary

3. Making deductions from the word from

4. Linking to cognates (finding similarities in words of two different languages)

Strategies for acquiring words (by Cook 2001 :69-70)

1. Repetition and rote learning

2. Organizing words in the mind

3. Linking to existing knowledge

Another classification of vocabulary learning strategies has been proposed by Nation (1990:159-176). In his earlier work he identifies three different vocabulary learning strategies: guessing word from context, using mnemonic techniques and using prefixes, roots and suffixes and word parts in general. However, in a later study, Nation (2005:589-593) includes learning words from cards as a fourth major vocabulary learning strategy and mentions also using dictionary being one of the most important vocabulary learning strategies.

According to Nation (1990:160), once learners have gained a vocabulary total of about two or three thousand words, they can use their reading skills in guessing the meanings of unfamiliar words based on the context they are represented. Nation (1990:160-161) continues that clues, such as grammar, punctuation and the learner's experience and common sense are used to infer the meanings of unknown words.

Even though inferring meanings from the context is used often as a vocabulary learning strategy it has also been criticised. For example, Sokmen (1997:237-255) emphasises that inferring word meaning from texts was considered to be the primary vocabulary skill, even though it is very slow process. It is prone to errors and individuals even have different styles in learning. In addition, guessing words from context is not necessarily an effective way to learn words. Besides, learners' comprehension of the language may not be high enough to learn words efficiently merely by inferring them from context.

Another vocabulary learning strategy mentioned by Nation (1990:166) is using memory strategies which are also known as mnemonic techniques. Basically they consist of the process of making an effort to remember the word later made by the learner. The learners create associations between the word form and its meaning. According to Nation (1990:167), finding a keyword from one's first language and associate it with the new word and its meaning is a very useful method. Nation (1990:167) sums up that studies have proved the keyword technique to be

very effective and in addition, it is not restricted to adults or children and it can be used with all words.

Also knowledge of prefixes, roots and suffixes can help to learn words and their meanings. Nation (1990:169) points out that it is useful for the learners to study lists of prefixes and roots. With the knowledge of prefixes and roots one can check whether an unfamiliar word has been successfully guessed from the context.

In addition to Nation's classifications (1990:159-176), other well-known and studied vocabulary learning techniques are key words, making notes of the words, identifying words into groups, making own vocabulary exercises and using the new word in one's communication. (see, e.g., Juurakko & Airola 2002 and Kristiansen, 1998).

2.3.4. Taxonomies of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Word knowledge is an essential component of communicative competence (Seal, 1991), and it is important for both production and comprehension in a foreign language. Knowing a word involves knowing:

- a great deal about its general frequency of use, syntactic and situational limitations on its use,
- its underlying form and the forms that can be derived from it,
- the network of its semantic features and,
- the various meanings associated with the item.

(Richards 1976)

Knowing a word is also defined as knowing its spelling, pronunciation, collocations (i.e. words it co-occurs with), and appropriateness (Nation 1990). Therefore, lexical competence is far more than the ability to define a given number of words and covers a wide range of knowledge which in turn requires a variety of strategies to gain the knowledge. Foreign language

learners may then use various strategies to acquire the target language word knowledge. Taking this into consideration, second and foreign language researchers have made various attempts to classify vocabulary learning strategies employed by foreign and second language learners (F&SLL). Instances of such classifications are the taxonomies proposed by Gu and Johnson (1996), Schmitt (1997) and Nation (2001) which are briefly discussed below.

Gu and Johnson (1996) list second language (L2) vocabulary learning strategies as metacognitive, cognitive, memory and activation strategies. Metacognitive strategies consist of selective attention and self-initiation strategies. F&SLLs who employ selective attention strategies know which words are important for them to learn and are essential for adequate comprehension of a passage. Learners employing self-initiation strategies use a variety of means to make the meaning of vocabulary items clear. Cognitive strategies in Gu and Johnson's taxonomy entail guessing strategies, skillful use of dictionaries and note-taking strategies. Learners using guessing strategies draw upon their background knowledge and use linguistic clues like grammatical structures of a sentence to guess the meaning of a word. Memory strategies are classified into rehearsal and encoding categories. Word lists and repetition are instances of rehearsal strategies. Encoding strategies encompass such strategies as association, imagery, visual, auditory, semantic, and contextual encoding as well as word-structure (i.e., analyzing a word in terms of prefixes, stems, and suffixes). Activation strategies include those strategies through which the learners actually use new words in different contexts. For instance, learners may set sentences using the words they have just learned. All these suggested strategies can be summarized in a table as follows:

Strategies			
Metacognative	**Cognative**	**Memory**	**Activation**
-Selective Attention: Identifying essential words for comprehension - Self-initiation: Using a variety of means to make the meaning of words clear	-Guessing: Activating background knowledge, using linguistic items -Use of dictionaries -Note-taking	- Rehearsal: Word lists, Repetition, etc. - Encoding: Association (imagery, visual, auditory, etc.)	-Using new words in different contexts

Table4: A Comprehensive Inventory of Vocabulary Learning Strategies (Schmidt 1997)

He distinguishes the strategies into two groups: The ones to determine the meaning of new words when encountered for the first time, and the ones to consolidate meaning when encountered again. The former contains determination and social strategies and the latter contains cognitive, metacognitive, memory and social strategies. Schmitt includes social strategies in both categories since they can be used for both purposes. To Schmitt, determination strategies are used when "learners are faced with discovering a new word's meaning without recourse to another person's experience" (205). Hence, learners try to discover the meaning of a new word by guessing it with the help of context, structural knowledge of language, and reference materials. For Schmidt, the second way to discover a new meaning is through employing the social strategies of asking someone for help with the unknown words. Beside the initial discovery of a word, learners need to employ a variety of strategies to practise and retain vocabulary. Learners thus, use a variety of social, memory, cognitive and metacognitive strategies to consolidate their vocabulary knowledge. Cooperative group learning through which learners study and practice the meaning of new words in a group is an instance of social strategies for consolidating a word Memory strategies, traditionally known as Mnemonics,

involve relating the word with some previously learned knowledge by using some form of imagery or grouping. Cognitive strategies in this taxonomy are similar to memory strategies but are not focused on manipulative mental processing. They include repetition and using mechanical means such as word lists, flash cards, and vocabulary notebooks to study words. Finally, metacognitive strategies in Schmitt's taxonomy are defined as strategies used by learners to control and evaluate their own learning, by having an overview of the learning process in general. Testing oneself is an instance of metacognitive strategies which provides "input to the effectiveness of one's choice of learning strategies, providing positive reinforcement if progress is being made or a signal to switch strategies if it is not" (Schmitt, 216).

In a more recent attempt, Nation (2001) proposes taxonomy of various vocabulary learning strategies. The strategies in the taxonomy are divided into three general classes of 'planning', 'source' and 'processes', each of which is divided into a subset of key strategies. The taxonomy separates different aspects of vocabulary knowledge (i.e., what is involved in knowing a word). The first category (i.e., planning) involves deciding on where, how and how often to focus attention on the vocabulary item. The strategies in this category are choosing words, choosing aspects of word knowledge and choosing strategies as well as planning repetition. The second category in Nation's taxonomy involves getting information about the word. This information may include all the aspects involved in knowing a word. It can come from the word form itself, from the context, from a reference source like dictionaries or glossaries and from analogies and connections with other languages. Process is the last category in Nation's (2001) taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies. It includes establishing word knowledge through noticing, retrieving and generating strategies.

According to Nation (ibid), noticing involves seeing the word item to be learned. Strategies at this level include putting the word in a vocabulary notebook or list; putting the word onto a word card and orally and visually repeating the word. He argues that although these strategies are all

of recording type, they are useful steps resulting in deeper processing of words. Retrieval involves recalling the items met before. It contains recalling knowledge in the same way it was originally stored. Generating strategies include "attaching new aspects of knowledge to what is known through instantiation (i.e., visualizing examples of words), word analysis, semantic mapping and using scales and grids (Nation 2001 : 222). Generating strategies include rule-driven generation, as well; such as, creating context, collocations and sentences containing the new word. Besides, the mnemonic strategies and using the word in different context through four skills are also defined as generating strategies.

In general, although the taxonomies cited above may slightly differ in terms of strategies they categorize, they all provide a list of widely applicable vocabulary learning strategies. There are many words on which teachers may not be able to spend time within the class time limits. Thus, if students are equipped with a number of the strategies mentioned in the taxonomies, they can deal with these words on their own and as a result have access to a large number of target language words.

2.3.5. Intentional Versus Incidental Learning

Vocabulary can be learned intentionally or incidentally. Intentional learning results from a planned activity intended by the teacher or the student. Incidental learning is the product nf doing or learning something else; it happens without any preparation or intention on the part of the learner.

In intentional learning, the intention of the learners to learn vocabulary can be planned through different activities where the primary concern is vocabulary. These activities require the learners to :

Make up charts and memorize them.

Learn words in context. "

Learn words that are associated.

Use new words in phrases.

Use a dictionary when necessary

Carry a notebook to write down new items.

Naiman et al (1978) and Pickett (1978) cited in Ellis (1985) report how learners develop their SL vocabulary. According to them, some learners prepare and memorize vocabulary lists by keeping a notebook where the English word, its pronunciation and its equivalent in the mother tongue, are written. The arrangement of these lists is held in an idiosyncratic way. Some learners referred to the use of alphabetical lists or associations of words by themes or topics or simply writing the words at random. Others did not attempt to keep lists; they relied on pick.ing out key vocabulary items from the contexts in with they were used. Others reported that they drilled themselves deliberately putting words in different sentences or reading or playing word games. The techniques used for teaching vocabulary are similar to those used for learning other aspects of language learning such as grammar and pronunciation, but vocabulary seems to be the area that learners are most interested in. Naiman et al (ibid) conclude that the techniques associated with vocabulary learning are the most frequently used.

In incidental learning, the assumption is that new vocabulary will be picked up "incidentally", through exposure to dialogues, reading passages and other materials without deliberate memorization being involved (Singleton 2001). According to Schmidt (2000; cited in Singleton 2001), incidental vocabulary learning is learning through exposure when one's attention is focused on the use of language, rather than on learning itself. Context, then, plays a very important role in assisting such learning. The general argument in favour of the notion that we learn SL vocabulary without "special teaching" or any planned work is the same as that proposed by Nelson (1981; cited in Singleton 2001) which is in relation with first language vocabulary acquisition. He posited that the amount of vocabulary we assimilate "by chance" doing something else than really learning is much greater than the one we are taught. Hatch and

Brown(1995) suggest assuring success of incidental learning. According to them, it is essential to encounter new words; that is, having a source for words. This source can be any k.ind of material learners are used to, but what is important about it is that it has to be of interest, authentic, and related to the actual need of the learners. It is also proposed that there must be variety in material: learners need various encounters with the same word in multiple sources in order to ensure its learning.

The term incidental has been given a more general educational meaning since it is considered as no longer specific to vocabulary only. It refers now to general learning of one thing when the learner's focus is on doing something else, for example to communicate (Schmidt 1994). It is in this meaning, that incidental learning bas become known in the field of SL/FL pedagogy. The most frequently quoted example is learning as the by-product of reading (Krashen 1989). In many classrooms, learners have very few opportunities to learn vocabulary through constant listening, and teachers are aware of this. Learners consider that the phase of rapid vocabulary expansion is when they move into reading. They think that the more they read, the more their knowledge of vocabulary increases. According to Nagy and his followers (1987) the pedagogical trust of their argument has been that vocabulary growth is Largely determined by reading and that students must be encouraged to spend much time on reading:

"incidental learning of words during reading may be the easiest and single most powerful means of promoting Large-scale vocabulary growth"(Nagy and Herman 1987:27). What often happens is that learners see a reading text as a very rich source of new vocabulary and generally react to any text accordingly. Clearly, this can be very beneficial since learners are exposed to new vocabulary items, especially if they encounter them in interesting reading material in which a context of familiar words helps to understand the meaning of the new vocabulary. Learning vocabulary is in a direct relationship with success in reading and vice versa. Contracting text meaning and understanding a text depends in part on the success in

understanding the individual words since they are the building blocks of that text. In order to comprehend reading texts, some necessary words are to be included. These are "high frequency sight" words: those that occur frequently in printed matter, "selection critical" words: those items necessary to the understanding of a particular selection, and old/familiar words presented with new meanings. Krashen's (1989) studies show that the mere reading of a text in the SL/FL causes vocabulary learning. This view was supported and confirmed by surprise vocabulary tests on which the readers in question performed better than those who had not seen the texts.

3. Learning Styles, Strategies and Good Language Learners

There have been a number of attempts to specify the qualities of the "Good language learners", based on studies carried out by Rubin (1975), Naiman et al. (1978). These studies found that "…good language learners take advantage of potentially useful learning situations, and if necessary create them. They develop learning techniques and strategies appropriate to their individual needs".

Good language learners, according to Stern (1983), are prepared to study and practice. As they are aware that language is a formal system with rules and regular relationships between language forms and meaning, they will pay more attention to these features. They also develop the second language as a consciously perceived system which they constantly revise until the learning process is completed (Stern 1983). Furthermore, they analyze the language and use appropriate techniques of practice and memorization.

Early researchers tended to make lists of strategies and other features presumed to be essential for all "good L2 learners". Rubin (1975) suggested that good L2 learners are willing and accurate guessers; have a strong drive to communicate; are willing to make mistakes, focus on form by looking for patterns and analyzing; take advantage of all practice opportunities; monitor their speech as well as that of the others; and pay attention to meaning. Cook

(2001:127-128) summarises the study of Naiman et al. (1995) about the six broad strategies shared by good language learners the following way:

1. Good language learners find a learning style that suits them best by adapting or modifying the strategies they encounter.

2. Good language learners include themselves in the language learning process by participating actively in learning situations.

3. Good language learners develop an awareness of language both as a system and as communication.

4. Good language learners pay constant attention to expanding their language knowledge.

5. Good language learners develop the second language as separate system, not relating everything to their first language.

6. Good language learners pay attention to the demands that second language learning imposes.

Different learning strategies can be combined during practice. Some strategies are easier to use if one has good knowledge of some other strategies (Kristiansen, 1990:44). Wenden (1991 cited by Kristiansen, 1998:13) stresses the fact that learner should become aware which strategies are effective in learning a language. This means that learner need to be aware of his metacognitive skills which include, in addition to learning strategies, reflecting his/her own learning and realizing his/her limitations (Kristiansen 1998: 44). Cook (2001:132) guides the teachers to develop the student's independence and make them aware of the range of strategies they can adopt. In addition, Cook advices that providing specific training in particular strategies and remembering the similarities and differences between learning a second language and other subjects can prove to be useful. According to Sewell (2203) becoming a better language learner may not require learner training, and may instead be achievable by matching learning styles and teaching styles.

As Lightbown and Spada point out, "when learners express a preference for seeing something written or for memorizing [input] which we feel should be learned in a less formal way, we should not assume that their ways of working are wrong" (1999:58).

Important effect of training in the use of language learning styles and strategies have been discovered by a number of researchers (Atkinson, 1985; Bejarano, 1987; Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Cohen & Hosenfield, 1981; Oxford, Crookall, Lavine, Cohen, Nyikos & Sutter, Forthcoming). Much more investigation is necessary to determine the precise role of styles and strategies, but even at this stage as Oxford (1989) states. Teachers need to become more aware of both learning styles and learning strategies through appropriate teacher training. Teachers can help their students by designing instruction that meets the needs of individuals with different stylistic preferences and by teaching students how to improve their learning strategies. Based on the above view, a new approach to language teaching has emerged.

4. Styles and Strategies Based Instruction (SSBI)

Styles – and strategies – based instruction is a name of an approach that has been given to a form of learner -focused language teaching that explicitly combines styles and strategy training activities with everyday classroom language instruction (Oxford 2001; Cohen & Dörnyei 2002). The underlying premise of the styles- and strategies- based approach is that students should be given the opportunity to understand not only what they can learn in the language classroom, but also how they can learn the language they are studying more effectively and efficiently (Cohen 2002). Research seem to suggest that there are a wide variety of strategies that learners can use to meet their language learning and using needs.

Cohen (2002) states that styles- and strategies- based approach to teaching emphasizes both explicit and implicit integration of language learning and use strategies in the language classroom. The aim implied by this approach is to assist learners in becoming more effective in their efforts to learn and use the target. The utility of SSBI is that it helps learners become more

aware of what kinds of strategies are available to them, understand how to organize and use strategies systematically and effectively given their learning-style preferences, and learn when and how to transfer the strategies to new language learning and using context (Cohen 2002).

Following Cohen's work, SSB I is based on the following components :

a)Strategy Preparation

In this phase, the teacher's goal is to determine just how much knowledge of an ability to use strategies his/ her learners already have.

b) Strategy Awareness-Raising

The goal of the teacher here is to alert learners to presence of strategies they might never have thought about or may have thought about but had never used. The SSBI tasks are explicitly used to raise the students general awareness about: what the learning process may consist of; their learning style preferences or general approaches to learning; the kinds of strategies that they already employ, as well as those suggested by the teacher or classmates ; the amount of responsibility that they take for their learning, or approaches that can be used to evaluate the students' strategy use.Awareness-raising activities are by definition always explicit in their treatement of strategies

c) Strategy Training

After raising students' strategy awareness, They are explicitly taught how, when, and why certain strategies (whether alone, in sequence, or in clusters) can be used to facilitate language learning and use activities . In a typical classroom strategy-training situation, the teachers describe, model, and give examples of potentially useful strategies. They elicit additional examples from students based on the students' own learning experiences; they lead small-group or whole-class discussions about strategies (e.g. the rationale behind strategy use, planning an approach to a specific activity, evaluating the effectiveness of chosen strategies); and they can encourage their students to experiment with a broad range of strategies.

d) Strategy Practice

Students in this phase, are encouraged to experiment with a broad range of strategies. It is not assumed that knowing about a given strategy is enough. It is crucial that learners have ample opportunity to try them out on numerous tasks. These "strategy-friendly" activities are designed to reinforce strategies that have already been dealt with and allow students time to practice the strategies at the same time they are learning the course content. These activities should include explicit references to the strategies being used in completion of the task. In other works; either students :

• plan the strategies that they will use for a particular activity,

• have their attention called to the use of particular strategies while they are being used ,

or

• "debrief" their use of strategies (and their relative effectiveness),

e) Personalization of Strategies

In this stage, learners personalize what they have learned about these strategies, evaluate to see how they are using the strategies, and then look to ways that they can transfer the use of these strategies to other contexts.

According to Cohen (2002), in SSBI it is the teachers' role to see that strategies are integrated into everyday class. materials and are both explicitly and implicitly embedded into the language tasks. Teachers may: "start with the established course materials then determine which strategies might be inserted; start with a set of strategies that they wish to focus on and design activities around them, or insert strategies spontaneously into the lessons whenever it seems appropriate" (Cohen 2000).

In a nut shell, these strategies-based activities are designed to raise awareness about strategies, to train students in strategy use , to give them opportunities to practice strategy use ,and to encourage them to personalize these strategies for themselves and match them with their

own learning styles to store the language input. Teachers also allow students to choose freely their own strategies and do so spontaneously

5. A Rationale For Vocabulary Learning Strategy Training

It has been suggested that one way to accelerate the learning of a second or a foreign language is to teach learners how to learn more efficiently and effectively. To this end, teachers are recommended to train their students in different learning strategies. Learning strategies instruction can help "EFL learners become better learners. In addition, skill in using learning strategies assists students in becoming independent, confident learners (Chamot, 1999, p.1). Research has also demonstrated that there is a relationship between strategy use and success in second or foreign language learning. For instance, Cohen and Aphek (1981, cited in Chamot, 2001) taught students of Hebrew to remember vocabulary items by making paired mnemonic associations and found that those who made associations remembered vocabulary more effectively than those who did not.

In another attempt, Sanaoui (1995) carried out a study to demonstrate the relationship between vocabulary strategies use and success in acquiring and retaining vocabulary items. The study demonstrated that adult learners of L2 vocabulary were likely to fall into two categories: Those who adopted a structured approach to their learning and those who did not. Learners in the first group took control of their vocabulary learning. They did not merely rely on what the language course provided them with. They used their own initiative in regularly creating opportunities for vocabulary learning by listening to the radio, watching movies, reading and using self-study. They kept systematic record of vocabulary they learned by using vocabulary notebooks and lists. They reviewed what they had done several times a week. However, the learners in the second group who followed unstructured approach relied mainly on course material. If they made lists of vocabulary items, they did not review them and they occasionally lost them. Sanaoui concluded that students who had a structured learning approach were more

successful in retaining the vocabulary items taught in their classrooms than learners who had an unstructured approach.

The research suggests that helping learners gain control over processes for managing their own lexis is an important task in vocabulary learning and teaching in L2 classrooms.

Thus, going through the literature, one encounters empirical evidence that strategy use will result in more effective vocabulary acquisition and recall among L2 learners. This, in turn justifies why teachers should embark on strategy training. Moreover, the significance of strategy training is pointed out even by scholars who believe that context is a major source of vocabulary learning. These scholars have expressed their concern over how well students can handle context on their own. Therefore, they have strongly emphasized the teaching of pecific learning strategies to students so that they can effectively learn from context (Coady, 1997).

Conclusion

In all classrooms, there will be students with multiple learning styles and students with a variety of major, minor and negative learning styles. An effective means of accommodating these learning styles is for teachers to change their own styles and strategies and provide a variety of activities to meet the needs of different learning styles. By employing effective teaching styles that suit learners' styles, students can learn a considerable number of words in a reasonable period of time, which can further motivate them to learn more words by making a greater learning effort. Vocabulary teaching/learning has greatly developed: many strategies and techniques for teaching/learning vocabulary have been introduced. Vocabulary is now given more importance as a detached aspect from teaching grammar. Learner-centered approaches in teaching have taken over teacher-centered ones in language teaching. Nowadays, we concentrate more on the learners and how we can make them develop strategies in learning by themselves. The most important one has proved to be that of incidental learning where reading texts is one of the most appropriate means to achieve effective vocabulary learning.

Vocabulary learning like other types of learning needs to be initiated, continued and completed, by motivation that is essentially linked to learning styles (Erhman 1996).

Chapter Two : Motivation

Introduction

1. Definitions and Approaches to Motivation

1.1. A Brief Overview about some Contemporary Approaches and Theories of Motivation

1.1.1. Behavioural Theories

1.1.2. Cognitive Theories

1.2. Approaches and Theories of Motivation

1.2.1. Behavioural Approach

1.2.2. Cognitive Approach

1.2.2.1. Attribution Theory

1.2.2.1.1. Attribution in the Classroom

1.2.2.2. Expectancy vs Value Theory

1.2.2.3. Goal Theory

1.2.2.3.1. Goal Orientation and Motivation

1.1.2.3.2. Types of Goals and Goal Orientation

1.2.2.4. Self-Schema Theory

1.2.3. The Humanistic Approach [II]

1.2.3.1. Maslow's Needs Theory

6.Motivation and Interaction

6.1.Group Dynamics, Teacher and Motivation

Conclusion

Chapter Two: Motivation

Introduction

Our focus on motivation is justified by the fact that our students seem to display lower and lower interest in studies, and their motivation seems decreasing tremendously. Their interest in learning English is important, but their level and the different problems they encounter in learning this language weaken that interest. As a consequence, this chapter attempts to tackle motivation and how it can be enhanced to help learners reach success and develop proficiency in SL. This chapter has no pretention to investigate different approaches of motivation deeply. On the contrary, it just attempts to treat the matter putting a special emphasis on the self-determination theory and the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Furthermore, it attempts to shed light on the role played by the instructors to enhance students motivation toward learning and how this affective factor can help learners reach proficiency in SL focusing our interest on a crucial aspect which is vocabulary acquisition since it is the key to an ultimate level of proficiency.

1. Definitions and Approaches to Motivation

It seems that one of the undergrounds in succeeding in FLL is much a matter of motivation before being its linguistic or didactic nature (i.e teaching methods and the available material. In this, Chomsky (1989) says that: ' the truth of the matter is that about 99percent of teaching is making students interested in the material'. Many researchers and educationalists have emphasized the necessity to understand and explain motivation and to understand what factors affect it They also emphasize the fact that it should be taken into account in any Endeavour to investigate and explain potential successes or failures in learning and teaching.

According to educational psychologists, language learning situations are characterized by a very important factor which is motivation. The definitions of motivation are numerous and diverse. They are usually connected to different schools of psychology. Motivation is basically regarded as very complex concept whose definition is very difficult to approach.

Denis (2004) proposed that "motivation consists of internal processes and external incentives which spur us on to satisfy some needs". Based on this view, the definitions of motivation can be grouped into those that emphasize internal processes, those that highlight external processes, and those that highlight both processes.

We try to highlight just some definitions done by specialists in the field of psychology, motivation, education, and English language learning.

From behavioral perspective, motivation is explained with reference to external processes. Skinner, Pavlov, and Thorndike put motivation at the center of their theories of human behavior. In a behavioral view, performance in tasks-and motivation to do so-is likely to be at the mercy of external forces: parents, teachers, peers, educational requirements, job specifications, and so forth.

In cognitive terms, motivation places much more emphasis on the individual's decision. "The choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect" (Keller 1983:389). Some cognitive psychologists see underlying needs or drives as the compelling force behind our decisions. Hall for example in his drive's theory highlighted the notions of energy, dynamism and mobility which are considered responsible for peoples actions (2003:6)

Other researchers such as Richard et all (1992:61) stress internal processes. They define motivation as "the factor that determines a person's desire to do something in S & FLL …" On a similar vein, Pantanella define it as something like an energy that makes us run (1992:10). Motivation, then, is that energizer which drives forward the learning operation for success.

Deci and Ryan who are the proponent of self determination theory, stressed both internal and external process with a special emphasis on action made towards needs. According to them:

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

Simply stated, then, the field of motivation explores all aspects of an organisms needs and the processes and structures that relate those needs to behavior.

A constructivist view of motivation places even further emphasis on social context as well as individual personal choices (Williams Burden.1997:120).

Several decades ago, Abraham Maslow (1970) viewed motivation as a construed in which ultimate attainment of goals was possible only by passing through a hierarchy of needs, three of which were solidly grounded in community, belonging and social status. Motivation in a constructivist view, is derived as much from our actions with others as it is from one's self-determination.

To sun up, the term motivation in a second language learning context is seen according to Gardner (1985) as "referring to the extent to which the individual works or strive to learn the language because of desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced is this activity"(10).Hence, the abstract term"motivation" on its own is rather difficult to define. It is easier and more useful to think in terms of the motivated learners: one who is willing, or even eager to invest effort in learning activities and to progress.

1.1. A Brief Overview about some Contemporary Approaches and Theories of Motivation

The approaches and theories of motivation are numerous and diverse. From the beginning of the twentieth century onwards, there have been differing theories of motivation according to the main currents of ideas and thoughts. During the first half of 20th century, behavioral ideas were

dominant, giving rise to a couple of approaches and theories such as Skinner's, Pavlov's, etc. These approaches and theories of motivation were characterized by their focus on external behavior and their disregard of internal factors.

Following this, appeared drive theories which were mainly based on internal processes. By the 1970s, new trends of thought in connection with motivation reacted violently against behavioral and drive reduction thought. Such new ideas introduced the cognitive aspect as a key element in determining motivation.

1.1.1. Behavioral Theories

Behavioral theories view motivation as a change in the rate, frequency of occurrence, or form of behavior (response) as a function of environmental events and stimuli. Pint rich et all argue in this direction that a response to a stimulus becomes more likely to occur in the future as a function of how it has been paired with the stimulus or what has happened following it (2002:21). From a behaviorist standpoint, motivation is then defined by the standpoint; motivation is then defined by the rate or likelihood of behavior.

1.1.2. Cognitive Theories

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

1.2. Approaches and Theories of Motivation

Motivation is considered one of the most powerful driving forces on learning (Slavin2006:317).Although many researchers agree on the undeniable effects of motivation, they have not yet agreed on a unique theory to explain or define motivation, they do not contradict

each other but rather complement one another to have an ultimate, complete and clear view of what motivation is and how it is maintained.

Woolfork (2004) suggests four approaches to motivate on, behavioral, humanistic, cognitive, and social. The four approaches are summarized in table bellow.

	Behavioral	Humanistic	Cognitive	Sociocultural
Source of Motivation Important Influences	Extrinsic Reinforces, rewards, incentives, and punishers	Intrinsic Need for self-esteem, self-fulfillment, and self-determination	Intrinsic Beliefs, attributions for success and failure, ex pectations	Intrinsic Engaged parti cipation in learning com munities, maintaining identity through participation in activities of group
Key Theorists	Skinner	Maslow Deci	Weiner Graham	Lave Wenger

Table5 : Four Views of Motivation (cited in Woolfork 2004)

1.2.1. Behavioral Approach

The behavioral view of motivation insists on the impact of reinforcement on motivating desired behavior (Williams, Burden1997).In other words; the nature and system of rewards would determine the kind of the behavior and how often it would happen again. According to Brown (2007), the behavioral perspective links motivation to a large extent to external factors, such as anticipation of reward as determiner of our behavior

1.2.2. Cognitive Approach

Cognitive approach views focus on the role of our thought, expectations and understanding of the world (Feldman1997). That is to say, people do not react on the events or others behavior but on the interpretation of these events. According to wool fork (2004), it includes attribution theory, Expectancy, value theory, goal theory and self-schemas theory.

1 .2.2.1. Attribution Theory

Attribution theory of motivation looks for finding justifications for success and failure (Slavin2006). People may relate their success, or failures to self or others influences, like ability, effort, mood, luck, difficulty of the task influence of others and so on.

Weiner (1992 cited in Wool fork,2004) has classified these excuses into three domains. Firstly, the cause can be either external or internal to the person. Secondly, this reason can either be stable or instable. Finally, the cause can be controlled by the person or uncontrolled (344). Thus, the person would believe that either the cause is due to this own effort or ability or out of him; he can think of the cause as changeable or unchangeable; and finally, he would either believe that he can control his cause or not.

1.2.2.1.1. Attribution in the Classroom

When usually successful students fail, they often make internal, controllable attributions: they misunderstood the directions, lacked the necessary knowledge, or simply did not study hard enough, for example. As a consequence, they usually focus on strategies for succeeding next time. This response often leads to achievement, pride, and a greater feeling of control (Ames, 1992).

The greatest motivational problems arise when students attribute failures to stable, uncontrollable causes. Such students may seem resigned to failure, depressed, helpless- what is generally called "unmotivated" (Weiner, 2000; Weiner, Russell, & Lerman, 1978). These students respond to failure by focusing even more on their own inadequacy; their attitudes

toward university work may deteriorate even further (Ames, 1992). Apathy is a logical reaction to failure if students believe the causes are stable, unlikely to change, and beyond their control. In addition, students who view their failures in this light are less likely to seek help; they believe nothing and no one can help(Ames & Lau, 1982).

1.2.2.2. Expectancy vs Value Theory

Expectancy vs Value Theory insists on the anticipated gain or benefit; the learners are motivated by how much they expect to achieve the benefits and by the value of that benefit (Cohen et al.2004). This theory claims that the individuals expectation of reaching a goal and the value of that goal to him/her would produce together motivational power for the learner. Woolfork (2004) argues that if one factor is missing, no motivation would exist.

1.2.2.3. Goal Theory

Locke and Latham (1990cited in Woolfork 2004:359) define a goal as "an outcome or attainment an individual is striving to accomplish goal theory states that setting appropriate goals and making the needed forces to reach them can be an important part of motivational theory (Williams, Burden1997).According to Brophy(2004),this theory focuses on deciding about the goals and structuring strategies to achieve them rather than looking just for what learners need .

Slavin (2006) claims that researchers have distinguished between two types of goals: learning goals(or mastery goals),and performance goals. Wool folk(2004) explains that students who set mastery focus on gaining competences in the skills taught, they look for difficult and challenging tasks; and about scores and grades.

1.2.2.3.1. Goal Orientation and Motivation

A goal is an outcome or attainment an individual is striving to accomplish (Locke & Latham, 1990). In pursuing goals, students are generally aware of some current condition, some ideal condition, and the discrepancy between the current and ideal situations. Goals according to

woolfork (2004) motivate students to act in order to reduce the discrepancy between "where they are" and " where they want to be".

1.2.2.3.2. Types of Goals and Goal Orientation

The types of goals students set influence the amount of motivation they have to reach. Goals that are specific, moderately difficult, and likely to be reached in the near future tend to enhance motivation and persistence (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Stipek, 2002).

Goals are specific targets. Goal orientations are patterns of beliefs about goals related to achievement (Woolfolk 2004). The most common distinction in research on students' goals is between mastery goals (also called task goals or learning goals) and performance goals (also called ability goals or ego goals) (Midgley, 2001). The point of a mastery goal according to Woolfolk (2004) is to improve, to learn, no matter how awkward you appear. Students who set mastery goals tend to seek challenges and persist when they encounter difficulties. Because they focus on the task at hand and are not worried about how their performance "measures up" compared to others in the class, these students have been called task-involved learners (Nicholls & Miller, 1984). It is often said that these students "get lost in their work".In addition, they are more likely to seek appropriate help, use deeper cognitive processing strategies, apply better study strategies, and generally approach academic tasks with confidence (Butler & Neuman, 1995; Midgley, 2001; Young, 1997).

The second kind of goal is a performance goal. Students with performance goals care about demonstrating their ability to others. They may be focused on getting good test scores and grades, or they may be more concerned with winning and beating other students (Wolters, Yu, & Pintrich, 1996). Students whose goal is outperforming others may do things to look smart, such as reading easy books in order to "read the most books" (Young, 1997). The evaluation of their performance by others, not what they learn, is what matters. Nicholls and Miller (1984) call these students ego-involved learners because they are preoccupied with themselves. Deborah

Stipek (2002) lists the following behaviors as indicative of a student who has a performance goal orientation:

. Relies on his classmates' answers.

.Seeks attention for good performance.

. Only works hard on graded assignments.

. Is upset by and hides papers with low grades.

. Compares himself with his classmates.

. Chooses tasks that most likely steer him towards his favoured manner of learning.

. Is uncomfortable with assignments that steer him towards one of his weaker or at least one of his less favored manner of learning.

1.2.2.4. Self Schemas Theory

This theory argues that what students believe about themselves is an aspect that should be considered in explaining motivation. Wool folk (2004) insists on the motivational effect of learners "self schemas", which includes self-efficacy the learners beliefs about his effectiveness in certain area, and his beliefs about his ability and his self-esteem.

Brown (2007) indicates that people get their self-esteem, which is judgment and evaluation people make about themselves and their self-worth, from past experiences and from assessment of the world around them.

1.2.3. The Humanistic Approach

From a humanistic perspective, to motivate means to look at the human as an entire individual who has many components and to make the links between these elements in order to understand human behaviors. It include many theories, among which Maslow's needs theory and self-determination theory (SDT).

1.2.3.1. Maslow's Needs Theory

This theory suggests that motivation comes from the inside of human, and that cognitive, affective and physical needs are all interrelated (Cohen et al.2004).

Maslow (1970cited in Brown2001) highlights a system of needs inside each individual and orders them hierarchically like a pyramid. The lowest level cancers the physiological needs, then safety needs level, and the highest level consists of self-actualization need, after that, there is esteem needs level, and the highest level consists of self-actualization needs (Cohen et al -2004).

Feldman (1997) argues that Maslow has explained that each level of these needs cannot be achieved unless lower levels are achieved. Therefore, self-actualization or self-fulfillment cannot be achieved unless other needs are achieved first.

1.2.3.2. Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

Ryan and Deci (2000:65) explain that " Self – determination theory is the investigation of People's inherent growth tendencies and in rate psychological needs that are the basis of their self-motivation and personality integration as well as for the conditions that foster those positive processes". In other words, SDT examines human behavior as an attempt to satisfy internal psychological needs and develop one's personality traits.

In motivational theory, there are different classifications of factors initiating and maintaining behavior. Ryan and Deci (2000) have identified two characteristics, level and type (or orientation) (54). According to them, level refers to the amount of motivation, or the quantity; whereas type or orientation is the kind or quality of motivation. They have define orientation of motivation as the 'under lying attitudes and goals that give rise to action'. (ibid).

In SDT, there are two general types of motivation based on the goals and reasons that initiate our behavior, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation.

Intrinsic motivation in Ryan and Deci words (2000:55) is doing something based on inherent interest in the activity purse, and extrinsic motivation is defined as doing something based on rewards and out come not related to the activity itself.

Noels et al. (1999) claim that these two types of motivation are not "categorically different; however; but rather lie along a continuum of self-determination" (380).

1.2.3.2.1. Self-Determination in the Classroom

Classroom environments that support student self-determination and autonomy are associated with greater student interest, sense of competence, creativity, conceptual learning, and preference for challenge. When students can make choices, they are more likely to believe that the work is important, even if it is not fun. Thus, they tend to internalize educational goals and take them as their own. Ruth Garner(1998) sums up the value of self-determination: " It is through this self-determination, measured though it might be, that wise teachers allow each of their students to guide them to what the students find particularly enjoyable and worth learning" (236).

In contrast to autonomy-supporting classrooms, controlling environments tend to improve performance only on rote recall tasks. When students are pressured to perform, they often seek the quickest, easiest solution. One discomforting finding, however, is that both students and parents seem to prefer more controlling teachers, even though the students learn more when their teachers support autonomy (Flink, Boggiano, & Barrett, 1990).

1.2.4. Socio- Cultural Conceptions of Motivation

Learning does not occur in empty or slated spaces. Slavin (2006) emphasizes the role of context, social environment and communities in the conception of learning, mainly to test validity and importance of the learner's beliefs, and their ideas by comparing them to the beliefs and ideas of others who are parts of the culture around them. Wool folk (2004) claims that*students are motivated to learn if they are members of a classroom or school communities,

learners become able to build their identities (ibid). Brown (2007) added that people have several ways to get motivated and therefore different ways of dealing with their environment; however these behaviors cannot be separated from the social and culture context (169). It is then the surrounding social context that has the great effect on shaping one's individuality and thus one's motivation.

2. Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination

Human are by nature active, and through their natural activity, they learn expand and refine those capacities and also acquire new knowledge. This learning proceeds at own pace (1994:9).

In motivational terms, it is said that this learning is intrinsically motivated the innate psychological needs and self-determining are manifested such as curiosity and interest, and this leads people to explore and manipulate. Keller(1984) indentified "interest" as one of the main elements of motivation, defining it as a positive response to stimuli based on existing cognitive structures in such a way that learners curiosity is aroused and sustained . It is this view that underlies discussions of motivation in language pedagogy. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) observed that "it is probably fair to say that teachers world describe a student as motivated if s/he becomes productively engaged in learning tasks, and sustains that engagement, without the need for continual encouragement or direction" (480).teachers see it as their job to motivate students by engaging their interest in classroom activities. One possibility, supported by a strong pedagogic literature (holec1980; Dickinson 1987), is that interest is engendered if learners become self-directed (i.e. are able to determine their own learning objectives, choose their own ways of achieving these, and evaluate their own progress).

Dickson referred to a study by Bachman (1964) which indicated that involving learners indecision-making tented to lead to increased motivation and, thereby , to increased productivity.

For Pintrich et al . "Intrinsic motivation refers to motivation to engage in an activity for its own sake" (2002:245).in a similar vein, valley and et al state that intrinsic motivation signifies that we do an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction that we get. A person is intrinsically motivated when s/he does an activity voluntarily and for the sake of this activity alone (1993:254). Deiced Ryan propose quite an explicit definition of intrinsic motivation: "intrinsic motivation is the energy source that is central to the active nature of the organism" (1985:11).the definition explains that intrinsic motivation is an energy source that derives from the organism which is turn is fed by curiosity, exploration, control of the environment, et, motivation as intrinsic motivation, suggesting that the energy is intrinsic to the nature of the organism. Although there has been considerable debate over the best way to conceptualize this motivation source, there seems to be competent and self-determining.

2.1. The Need for Self-Determination

In intrinsic motivation, the terms competence and interest are very important. They are crucial elements in the theory of intrinsic motivation and self-determination. However, as Deci and Ryan argue that to be truly intrinsic ally motivated, and in addition to competence, a learner must also feel from pressures, such as rewards or contingencies. They carry on and suggest that intrinsic motivation will not be operative unless action is experienced   as autonomous free from external pressures (1985:29) at the physiological level this was done by arousal theories; at the psychological level it was done by incongruity theories and by theories that focus on the needs for competence and self-determination, or the emotions of interest and enjoyment. Deci and Ryan state that when we take all the above works and theories together, it is possible to offer a more satisfactory definition of intrinsic motivation. They define: "intrinsic motivation is based on the innate, organism needs for competence and self-determination" (1988:32).

As this issue-intrinsic need to involve competence and control-several theorists suggested that intrinsic motivation is based on the need for self-determination for example, Decharmes

writes: "Man's primary motivational propensity is to be effective in producing changes in his environment. Man strives to be a causal agent, or the origin of his behavior, he strives for personal causation". (1968:269).

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

"Whenever a person experiences himself to be the causality for his own behavior ……he will consider himself to be external to himself…he will consider himself to be extrinsically motivated" (1968:328).

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

To be competent and self-determining also means to seek challenges; for otherwise, life becomes boring. A challenge is something that requires stretching one's abilities, trying something new. The challenge must not be too easy difficult when it is too easy it is no more challenging and leads to boredom. When it is too difficult it leads to frustration and loss of feeling of perceived competence (Deci & Ryan 1985). Both too easy and too difficult challenges play a negative effect on intrinsic motivation.

Based on the above discussion and in terms of self-determination theory, the more self-determines a learner's motivation is the greater the achievement. This study, then, bears out the general claim that intrinsic motivation contributes strong to L2 learning.

2.2. Cognitive Evaluation Theory

Cognitive evaluation theory is a sub-theory of SDT that specifies factors explaining intrinsic motivation and valuably with it and looks at how social and environmental factors help or hinder intrinsic motivation. It focuses on the needs of competence and autonomy.

Deci (1981) claims that social context events like feedback on work or rewards lead to feelings of competence and so enhance intrinsic motivation. According to then positive feedback enhance intrinsic motivation and negative feedback diminished it, Vallerand and Reid went further and found that these effects were being mediated by perceived control.

Autonomy, however must accompany competence in order for people to see their behaviors as self-determined by intrinsic motivation, for this to happen there must be immediate contextual support for both needs or inner resources based on prior development support for both needs.

CET and intrinsic motivation is also linked to relatedness through the hypothesis that intrinsic motivation will flourish if linked with a sense of security and relatedness. Grolnik and ryan found lower intrinsic motivation in learners who believed their teachers to be uncaring or cold and so not fulfilling their relatedness needs.

2.2.1. External Rewards

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

2.2.1.1. Monitory Rewards

After having referred to several studies on the influence of external rewards on intrinsic motivation, Deci and Ryan have proved that external rewards and particularly monetary rewards exert a negative influence on intrinsic motivation. They write:

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

They reinforce this idea by referring to a simple fable. In a small town, a shop-owner was annoyed by a bunch of kids who came to his shop every day and insulted him. He was so annoyed that he had to think about a way to stop that. One day, he addressed the kids and told them that he would give them an amount of money each if every morning they called him with

vulgar language. On the first day he gave them a sum of money; on the second day he gave them less; on the third day the sum of money he had given them was so small that they refused to insult. That's how he got rid of them.

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

Besides monetary rewards, there are other external factors and/ or constraints that can affect intrinsic motivation.

2.2.2. Constraints and Other Extrinsic Factors

It has said above that external and particularly monetary rewards have been found to decrease intrinsic motivation by making the activity dependent on the extrinsic reward, thereby decreasing self-determination, and changing the perceived locus of causality from internal to external.

2.2.2.1. Surveillence

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

2.2.2.2.Evaluation

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

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

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

2.2.2.3. Goal Imposition

A study made by Manderlink and Harackiewicz (1984) explored the effects of imposition of goals on subjects' intrinsic motivation for an interesting activity. They used two kinds of goals: proximal goals and distal goals. They found that only proximal goals affected intrinsic motivation negatively while distal ones did not. The reason is that these proximal goals are more intrusive and confining than distal goals.

2.2.2.4. Competition

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

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

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

2.2.2.5. Threats and Deadlines

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

3.Instrumental and Integrative Orientation

One of the best-known and historically studies of motivation in SLL was carried out by Gardner and Lambert (1972). According to then, motivation was examined as a factor of a number of different kinds of attitudes two different divided two basic lips of what Gardner and lambert identified as instrumental and integrative orientation to motivation. The instrumental side of the dichotomy referred to acquiring a language a means for attaining instrumental side of the dichotomy referred to acquiring language as a means for attaining instrumental side of the dichotomy referred to acquiring a language a means for attaining instrumentals: fathering a career, getting a job, reading a foreign material translation, passing and examination, and so forth. The integrative side described learners who wished to integrate then selves is to the culture of the second language group and become involved in social interchange in that group.

It is important to note that instrumentality and integrativeness are not actuality pes of motivation as such, but rather, as Dornyei (2001) , Gardner and Macintyre (1991), and others have noted, are more appropriately termed orientations. That is, depending on whether a

learner's context or orientation is academic or career related (instrumental), or socially or culturally oriented (integrative) different needs might be fulfilled in learning language. The importance of distinguishing orientation from motivation is that within either orientation, one can have rather high or low motivational intensity. One learner may be only mildly motivated to learn within a career context, while another learner with the same orientation may be inters elf driven to succeed in the same orientation.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) found that integrativeness was indeed an important requirement for successful language tearing. But evidence quickly began to accumulate that challenged such a claim. Lukmani (1972) in contrast emphasized on the instrumental orientation as a crucial requirement for success in acquiring a language.

Such variable findings in empirical investigation do not necessarily the integrative instrumental construct. They point out again that there is no single.

Means of learning a second language: some learners in some contexts are more success full in tearing a language if they are interactively oriental, and other in different contexts benefit from an instrumental orientation. The findings also suggest that the two orientations are not necessarily exclusive. SLL is rarely taken up in contexts that are exclusively instrumental or exclusively integrative. Most situation involve a mixture of each oriental for example "international students learning English in the united state for academic purposes may be relatively balanced in their desire to learn English both for academic (instrumental) purposes and to understand and become somewhat integrated with the culture and people of the united state" (1998).

In sum, both integrative and instrumental orientations may be important factors accounting for successful language learning and that degree of impact of either orientation will depend on individual learners, educational contexts, cultural milieu, teaching methodology, and social interaction.

4. Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

For a long time, two power full types of motivation have been of interest to researcher psychology. Cognitive psychologists, therefore, come to draw a distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Vallerand and Ratell define intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in this light:

"The concept of intrinsic motivation refers to behaviors performed out of interest and enjoyment. In contrast, extrinsic motivation pertains to behaviors carried out to attain contingent outcome" (2002:37).

When we take a quick look at this definition, it seems that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is different in nature and that the same person can be intrinsically motivated for certain activities or behaviors and extrinsically motivated for others.

On a similar scope, Deci (1975:23) defined intrinsic motivation as follows:

Intrinsically motivated activities are ones for which there is no apparent reward except the activity-15-itsely. People seem to engage in the activities for their own sake and not because they lead to an extrinsic reward …….intrinsically motivated behaviors are aimed at bringing about certain internally rewarding consequences namely, feelings of competence and self-determination.

On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is fueled the anticipation of a reward from outside and beyond the self. Typical extrinsic reward are grades, types of positive feedback, behaviors initiated solely to avoid punishment are also extrinsically motivated, even though numerous intrinsic benefits can ultimately accrue to those who, instead view punishment avoidance as a challenge that can build their sense of competence and self-determination (Deci 1975:23) .

Many researchers, most notably Harter (1981) view 'intrinsic' and 'extrinsic' motivation as the opposite ends of a continuum. Harter distinguishes five separate dimensions that are considered to comprise motivation.

	Intrinsic		Extrinsic
Preference for challenge		Vs	preference for easy work
Curiosity/interest		Vs	pleasing teacher/getting grades
Independent mastery		Vs	dependence on teacher in figuring out problems
Independent judgment		Vs	reliance on teacher's judgment about what to do
Internal criteria for success		Vs	external criteria for success

Figure 1: Dimensions of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

(Harter 1981 Cited Williams And Burden 1972).

Harter claims that, it is probably far more realistic to suggest that one from of motivation influences another, or indeed to see all the factors interacting to affect each other (both kinds of motivation can be found in the same situation).

In learning it is important to present tasks which tap into the learner's intrinsic motivation both at the stage initiating and sustaining this would include a consideration of interest, curiosity, challenge, and the development mastery and judgment. Yet, all too frequently, educators, parents, and policy makers have ignored intrinsic motivation and viewed education as an extrinsic process. Deci & Ryan write:

> Intrinsic motivation is in evidence whenever student's natural curiosity and interest energize their learning. When the educational environment provides optimal. Challenges, rich sources of stimulation, and a context of autonomy, this motivational wellspring of learning is likely to flourish (2002:245).

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

4.1.Factors Influencing Intrinsic Motivation

Dornyei (2005:67-68) mentions that due to the social dimension of language, learning can be in some sense separated from other school subjects and also the motivational factor's behind the learning process can differ from those of other school subjects. Dornyei (2001:35-36) mentions that the teacher's role in student motivation is complex but the teacher can have an impact on the learner's motivation. The teacher's motivational influence as well as parental influences and group motivation is a part of social motivation. The factors affecting the learner intrinsic motivation are the personal characteristics of the teacher, teacher immediacy (the closeness between people), active motivational socializing behavior which consists of modeling, task presentation and feedback/reward system fur the more, classroom management is also important factor and it consist of setting maintaining group norms and the teacher's authority (Dornyei 2001:35-37).

Conventional wisdom and decades of psychological research have linked the provision of choice to increased levels of intrinsic motivation, greater persistence, better performance, and higher satisfaction. It has been increasingly recognized in the fields of education and psychology that parents have significant impact on student's intrinsic motivation. Fan and Williams (2010:54) claimed that students show less intrinsic motivation when choices are made for them by others than when they make their own choices, whether the other are authority figures or peers. This viewed is supported by an American social psychological research that have contended that providing the freedom of choice to learners will increase their intrinsic motivation and its absence hinder their interest and decreases it.

Also a study by Muhonen(2004:70) suggests that the teacher can be a demotivational factor in language due to the important role he has in the learning situation. According to muhonen's (2004) data, the demoptivating aspects the teacher were related to personality, teaching methods and lack of competence. However, some aspects(for example, group work) were seen as

motivating factors by some students where as other students regarded the same factor as demotivating and due the complexity of the field, analyzing the demotivational factors can be somewhat challenging.

The language teacher who finds hinds himself caught between possibly hostile cultures, or cast as the representative of a "resented" or "resisted" culture, has immense problems in coping these intangible pressures. In follows, attention is directed more to the motives that appear to play an immediate role in the learning process, than to the sociocultural background. Some inexperienced teachers may confuse the generating of enthusiasm, undoubtedly an important motivation element; with the whole task of motivating the students to undertake and persevere with work and this may demotivate the learners.

In addition to the demotivated factors that reduce or diminish the learners intrinsic motivation, this latter is actually characterized by four features whish when available is really enhanced: challenge, curiosity, control, and fantasy.

Challenge: activities that challenge student's skills are usually intrinsically motivating. Pint rich et al state that challenging activities should be intermediate in level of difficulty, and as students develop skill, difficulty level must be adjusted up-ward to maintain this intermediate level. Attainment of challenging goals conveys to learners that they are becoming more competent, whish self-efficacy and perceived control over outcomes. In turn, learners are apt to set new, challenging goals, whish servers to maintain intrinsic motivation (2001:268).

Curiosity: curiosity is helped by activities that offer students discrepant to the information or ideas that students have however; again, the discrepancy must not be too big. Lowenstein proposed that curiosity is a feeling of cognitive deprivation that occurs when one becomes aware of a gap in information. It is necessary for students to have a pre-existing knowledge base so that they will be aware of a gap (1994:85).

In the absence of prerequisite know ledge pint rich et al say that prompting students to ask question-a technique often advised to raise curiosity-should not have much effect. Students also must believe that the gap is manageable, which can be fostered through moderate Discrepancies curious who believes that the gap is attainable should feel efficacious and motivated to manage the gap and learn (2002:269).

Control: activities that provide students with a sense of control over their academic outcomes may enhance intrinsic motivation. Allowing student's choices in activities and a role in establishing rules and procedures fosters performing well. Deci and his colleagues (1981;Deci & ryan 1985). Virtually equates intrinsic motivation with individual choice and personal self-determination, in this analysis, learners are views as actors seeking to exercise and validate sense of control over their external environment. As a result, they are theorized to enjoy, to prefer, and to persist at activities that provide them with the opportunity to make choices, to control their own outcome, and to determine their fate. In contrast, students are not motivated to engage in activities when they believe their actions bear little relationship to outcomes. Apperceived lack of control may lead to learned helplessness.

Fantasy: intrinsic motivation can be rein forced with activities that that involve learners in fantasy through simulation and games that present them with situation that are not actually present. By identifying with fictional characters, students can derive a vicarious pleasure not ordinarily available to them.

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

4.2. Intrinsic Motivation in the Classroom

The main question we would ask is how to maintain and enhance learner's intrinsic motivation for learning. Researchers have begUn to identify those aspects of the teaching situation that enhance students intrinsic motivation (Lowman 1984; Lucas 1990;Weiner and

Kluwe 1987;Bligh 1971). To encourage students to become intrinsically motivated, instructors can do the following: According to Lowman (1990)

   • Give frequent, early, positive feedback that supports students beliefs that they can do well;

   • Ensure opportunities for student's success by assigning tasks that are neither too easy nor too difficult;

   • Help students find personal meaning and value in the material;

   • Create an atmosphere that is open and positive;

   • Help students feel that are valued members of a learning community.

Research has also shown that good everyday teaching practices can do more to counter students apathy, i,e, lack of interest or concern, especially regarding matters of general importance or appeal, indifference, than special effons to attack motivation directly(Erickson 1978). Most students respond positively to a well organized course thought by an enthusiastic instructor to promote learning will also enhance student's motivation.

Based on the work done by Dornyei and Csizer(1998) to enhance learner's intrinsic motivation, the following commandments are offered to teachers:

      Capitalize on student's existing needs: Students tern best when incentives for learning in a classroom satisfy their own motives in the course. Some of the needs students may bring to the classroom as pproposed by Mc million and Forsyth (1991) are the need to learn something inorder to complete a particular tack activity the need to seek new experiences, the need to perfect skills, the need to overcome challenges the need to become competent, the need to succeed and do well, the need to feel involved and to interact with other people. Satisfying such a variety of needs is rewarding, and such rewards sustain learning more effectively than do graded. Teacher's assignments, in class activities, and discussion questions must address his student's needs.

Make your student's active participants in learning students learn by doing, making, writing, creating, solving. Teacher's passivity dampens motivation and curiosity. Involve your students in the lesson; ask them questions instead of giving them the Reponses by yourself. Encourage them to guess the appropriate answers to classroom activities and stress active participation (Lucas1990).

Ask students to analyze what make their classes more or less motivating. Sass (1989) asks his students to recall two recent class periods; one in which they were highly motivated and one in which their motivation was low. Each student makes a list of specific aspects of the two classes that influenced his / her level of motivation, and students then meet in small groups to reach consensus on characteristic that contribute to high and low motivation. In order twenty courses, sass report, the same eight characteristics emerge as major contributors to student's motivation: instructor's enthusiasm, relevance of the material; organization of the course; appropriate difficulty level of the material; active involvement of students; variety; match between teacher's style and students styles; use of appropriate, concrete, and understandable examples.

Incorporating instructional behaviors that motivate students – hold high but realistic expectations for your students. Research has shown that a teacher's expectations have a powerful effect on a student's performance. If a teacher acts as though he / she expeets his / her students to be motivated, hardworking, and interested in the course, they are more likely to be so. Teachers should set realistic expectations for their students when they make assignments, give presentations, conduct discussions, and grade examinations. "Realistic" in this context means that the teacher's standards are high enough to motivate students to do their best work but not so high that students will be frustrated in trying to meet those expectations. To develop the drive to achieve, students need to believe that achievement is possible – which means that teachers need to provide early opportunities, for their students, for success (Forsyth and Mc Millan 1991).

Help students set achievable goals for themselves. Failure to attain unrealistic goals can disappoint and frustrate students. Teachers should encourage students to focus on their continued improvement, not just on their grade on any one test or assignment. According to Cashin (1979) teachers should encourage their students to critique their own work, analyze their strength, and work on their weaknesses in order to help them evaluate their progress. For example, consider asking students to submit self-evaluation forms with one or two assignments.

Tell your students what they need to do to succeed in your course. The teacher here should not let his/her students struggle to figure out what is expected of them. Reassure your students that they can do well in your course, and tell them exactly what they must do to succeed. The teacher's words or structures should encourage the students, for example*If you can handle the examples on these problem sheets, you can pass the exam. Students who have trouble with these examples on can ask me for extra help "Or instead of saying", you are way behind", tell your student, " Here is one way you could go about learning the material. How can I help you?" (Tiberius 1990).

Strengthen student's self-motivation. While teaching, the teacher should avoid messages that reinforce his/her power as an instructor or that emphasizes extrinsic rewards. Instead of saying,'I require', 'you must', or 'you should', as Lowman (1990) proposed, it is preferable by the teacher to stress.' I think you will find', or ' I will be interested in your reaction'.

Avoid creating competition among students. Competition produces anxiety, which can interfere with learning. The role of the teacher is to reduce student's tendencies to compare themselves to one another. Blight (1971) reports that student's are more attentive, display better comprehension, produce more work, and are more favorable to the teaching method when they work cooperatively in groups rather than compete as individuals.
Refrain from public criticisms of student's performance and from comments or activities that pit student's against each other.

Be enthusiastic about your subject. An instructor's enthusiasm is crucial factor in student motivation. If the teacher becomes bored or apathetic, students will too. An instructor's enthusiasm as highlighted by Eble(1988), comes from confidence, excitement about the content and genuine pleasure in teaching.

Structuring the course to motivate students-work from student's strengths and interests. The teacher should find out why students are enrolled in his/her course how they feel about the subject matter, and what their expectations are.

Teachers should explain how the content and objectives of his/her course will when possible let students have some say in choosing what will be studied. Many researchers (Ames and Ames 1990; Cashin 1979; Lowman 1984) advocate this commandment. In class, teachers should give their students options on term papers or other assignments (but not on tests). Give your students opportunities to select which topics to explore in greater depth. If possible include optional or alternative units in the course.

Increase the difficulty of the material as the semester progresses. Teachers should give their students opportunities to succeed at the beginning of the semester. Once students feel they can succeed, you can gradually increase the difficulty level. If assignments and exams include easier and harder questions, every student will have a chance to experience success as well as challenge (Cashin 1991).

Vary your teaching methods. Variety reawakens students involvement in the course and their motivation. Forsyth an Mc Millan(1991) advice teachers to break the routine by incorporating a variety of teaching activities and methods in their course: role playing, debates, brainstorming, discussion, demonstrations, case studies, audiovisual presentation, or small group work.

De-emphasizing grades. Emphasize mastery and learning rather than grades.

Avoid using grades as threats. As Mc Keachie (1986à points out, the threat of low grades may prompt some students to work hard, but other students may resort to academic dishonesty, excuses for late work, and other counterproductive behavior.

Design tests that encourage the kind of learning you want your students achieve. Many students will learn whatever is necessary to get the grades they desire. If teachers base their tests on memorizing details, students will focus on memorizing facts. If the teacher's tests stress the synthesis and evaluation of information, students will be motivated to practice those skills when they study (Mc Keachie 1986).

Motivating students by responding to their work . Give your students feedback as quickly as possible. Return tests and papers promptly, and reward success publicly and immediately. Give students some indication of how well they have done and how to improve. Rewards can be as simple as saying a student's response was good, with an indication of why it was good, or mentioning the names of contributors.

Reward success. Both positive and negative comments influence motivation, but research consistently indicates that students are more affected by positive feedback and success. Praise builds students self-confidence, competence, competence, and self-esteem. Recognize sincere efforts even if the product is small. If students performance is weak, let your student know that you believe S/He can improve and succeed overtime (Cashin1979; Lucas 1990).

Introduce students to the good work done by their peers. Share the ideas, knowledge, and accomplishments of individual students with the class as a whole: teachers should make available copies of the best papers and essay exams and provide class time for students to read papers or assignments submitted by classmates.

Be specific when giving negative feedback. Negative feedback is very powerful and can lead to a negative class atmosphere. Whenever you identify a student's weakness, make it clear that your comments should be addressed to a particular task or performance, not to the students

as person. Try to cushion negative comments with a compliment about aspects of the task in which the student succeeded (Cashin 1979).

Avoid demeaning comments. Many students in the class may be anxious about their performance and abilities. The teacher should be sensitive to how S/He phrase your comments and avoid offhand remarks that might prick their feelings of inadequacy.

Avoid giving into students please for the *answer* to home work problems. Fiore (1985) claims that, when teachers simply give struggling students the answer, they rob them of the chance to think for themselves.

Suggest to the students a way to check the answer for themselves and give them chance to correct themselves.

In sun, following these steps, will help learners to work at their own pace, and will in turn drive them to experience a sense of achievement and confidence that will increase their intrinsic motivation to learn.

4.2.1. Motivation to Learn

Teachers are concerned about developing a particular kind of motivation in their studentsthe 'motivation to learn'. Jere Brophy(1988) describes student motivation to learn as "a student tendency to find academic activities meaningful and worthwhile and to try to derive the intended academic benefits from them. Motivation to learn can be construed as both a general trait and a situation-specific state"(205-6). Motivation to learn involves more than wanting or intending to learn. It includes the quality of the student's mental efforts. For example reading the text 10times may indicate persistence, but motivation to learn implies more thoughtful, active study strategies, such as summarizing, elaborating the basic ideas, outlining in your own words, and so on (Brophy, 1988).

It would be of great benefit if students came filled with the motivation to learn.And even they did, learning might still seem boring or unimportant to some students. Teachers have three

major goals according to woolfolk (2004).The first is to get students productively involved with the work of the class; in other words, to create a state of motivation to learn. The second and longer-term goal is to develop in our students the trait of being motivated to learn so they will be able "to educate themselves throughout their lifetime" (Bandura, 1993: 136). And finally, students should be cognitively engaged- to think deeply about what they study(Blumenfeld, Puro, &Mergendoller, 1992).

Motivation to learn is encouraged when the sources of motivation are intrinsic, the goals are personally challenging, and the student is focused on the task, has a mastery orientation, attributes successes and failures to controllable causes, and believes ability can be improved (Woolfolk 2004).

	Characteristics of Motivation to Learn	Characteristics that Diminish Motivation to Learn
Source of Motivation	Intrinsic: Personal factors such as:needs interests, curiosity, enjoyment	Extrinsic: Environmental factors such as rewards, social pressure, punishment
Type of Goal Set	Learning Goal: Personal satisfaction in meeting challenges and improving; tendency to choose moderately difficult and challenging goals	Performance Goal: Desire for approval for performance in others' eyes; tendency to choose very easy or very difficult goals
Type of Involvement	Task-Involved: Concerned with mastering the task	Ego-Involved: Concerned with self in others' eyes
Achievement Motivation	Motivation to Achieve: mastery orientation	Motivation to Avoid Failure: prone to anxiety
Likely Attributions	Successes and failures attributed to Controllable effort and ability	Success and failures attributed to Uncontrollable causes
Beliefs about Ability	Incremental View: Belief that ability can be improved through hard work and added knowledge and skills	Entity View: Belief that ability is a stable, uncontrollable trait

Table 6: Building a Concept of Motivation to Learn (Woolfolk 2004)

4.2.2. Autonomy-Supportive Teachers

Two or three decades of empirical research support the following established fact that: autonomously motivated students thrive in educational setting; students benefit when teachers support their autonomy.

Concerning this established fact, Reeve (2004:184)provides a work in which he show the merits and benefits of autonomy-motivated students and autonomy supportive teachers backed with major supportive reference. According to reeves, the quality of a student's motivation explains part of why he or she achieves highly, enjoys school, prefers optimal challenges, and generates creative products. This essentially means that students achieve highly, learn conceptually, and stay in school in part because their teachers support their autonomy rather than control their behavior likewise, he believes that the quality of a student's motivation depends, in part, on the quality of a student-teacher relationship.

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

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

4.2.2.1.Nature of Autonomy-Supportive Teaching

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

a. Motivating style is partly a matter of personality. Deci thinks that same people have personalities oriented toward controlling others, he believes that autonomy-support on the other hand is " A personal orientation you take toward other people". (1995:142).

b. Autonomy support is an interpersonal style composed of acquired skills. Just as behavior modification (a controlling style) requires practiced skill, supporting the autonomy of pthers also requires deliberate practice. Reeve says that requisite skills include some qualities. He writes: Requisite skills include, for instance, taking the other person's perspective acknowledging feelings, using non-controlling language, making information available for decision making, and so on' (1998:313).

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

While it is clear now that students benefit from their relationships autonomy-supportive teachers, it is never the less not very clear of how this actually works in practice. The question that is perhaps worth asking is this: What exactly are the 'so-called' autonomy-supportive teachers doing in the classroom that their'so called' controlling counterparts are not doing ? Are they listening more, using less rewards and/or constraits.etc? Do they use rewards in different ways and for different purposes ? so long as we can understand what autonomy-supportive behaviors consist of , we can argue how and why it is beneficial to students.

4.2.2.2. Autonomy-Supportive Teaching Behaviours

The argument here turns around which acts characterized as autonomy-supportive, and which are characterized as controlling. Reeve (1998:187) highlights the behaviors or acts of both autonomy-supportive teachers and controlling ones. Twenty-two possible behavioral differences between autonomy-supportive and controlling teachers are provided. Among the set of instructional behaviors-from a social psychological investigation-autonomy-supportive teachers

distinguished themselves by listening more, spending less time holding instructional materials such as notes or books, giving students time for independent work, and giving fewer answers to the problems students face. Among the set of conversational statements, autonomy-supportive teachers distinguished themselves by avoiding directives, praising mastery, avoiding criticism, giving answers less often, responding to student-generate questions, and communicating statements rich in empathy and perspective-taking. Among the set of subjective impressions, autonomy-supportive teachers distinguished themselves by supporting intrinsic motivation, supporting internalization, and coming across as less demanding or pressuring. These finding allow us to begin it understand what autonomy-supportive teachers are:

    a. Responsive (e.g, spend time listening)

    b. Supportive (e.g, praise the quality of performance)

    c. Flexible (e.g, give students time to work intheir own way)

    d. Motivate through interest (e.g, support intrinsic motivation)

Controlling teachers, on the other hand, essentially are:

    a. Essentially take charge (e.g, hold the instructional materials)

    b. Use directives/commands.

    c. Shape students toward a right answer(e.g, give solutions)

    d. Evaluate (e.g, criticize)

    e. Motivate through pressure(e.g, seen demanding and controlling)

4.2.2.4. Autonomy-Supportive Teachers and Helping Students

Now that an attempt has been made to understand what autonomy-supportive teachers do and how thay act, it seems that the job is done. In actual fact, this is merely half of job. The concern now is how these behaviors help students. In other words, It is quite beautiful to identify autonomy-supportive teachers, but it seems indispensable to grasp the impact of all this on students motivation, achievement, etc.

According to the self-determination theory, intrinsic motivation is fostered, reinforced and enhanced by means autonomy and choice, and competence means control and efficacy. Hamm and Reeve (2002) conducted an investigation in this light and found that:

a. The way a teacher teaches and motivates has a substantial and direct impact on how free and self-determining each student perceived himself or herself to be. Behaviors like listening and affording time for independent work nurtured autonomy while behaviors like holding instructional materials and teacher-dominated problem solving frustrated autonomy.

b. How instruction affected students perceived competence. Mostly, stuents felt competent when they performed well. Moreover, students felt competent when teachers provided opportunities for independent work, opportunities to talk, timely hints, and perspective-taking statements; students felt increasingly incompetent when teachers hogged instructional materials, gave answers, and solved problems for the student .

4.2.2.4. Controlling Teachers

It seems reasonable to say that students benefit in their studies more when their teachers are autonomy-supportive than when they are controlling yet, classroom, i.e, most teachers are rather controlling. There are obviously reasons to this. Reeve (1998:191) provides eleven reasons to explain why teachers are sometimes controlling with students.

1. Prevalence and popularity of behavior, modification principals in teacher training programmers.

2. Relative absence in those teacher-training programmers of how to design instruction to promote students autonomy.

3. Recognizing interest in others is difficult. So teachers, like everybody else, have a difficult time coordinating their instructional decisions with how interested/disinterested students are.

4. Teachers are themselves subjected to controlling, pressuring conditions within their jobs.

5. The more disengaged students are the more they put controlling behavior out of the teacher.

6. Both parents and students adhere to the 'maximal-operant' principal of motivation, which is basically the belief that 'the larger the incentive, the greater the motivation'

7. Teachers sometimes underestimate student's abilities to motivate themselves.

8. Some teachers view motivation as a fixed trait in students. Accordingly, when motivation is low, controlling motivational strategies are used to overcome the perceived deficit.

9. The culture (U.S) identifies teachers as powerful actors and students as relatively weak actors.

10. Both parents and students rate controlling teachers as significantly more competent than autonomy-supportive teachers.

11. Some teachers deeply and sincerely believe that researchers just do not really understand, as in, 'if you tried that (i.e, autonomy-support) in my classroom, chaos would break loose

Reasons 1and2 illustrate the inappropriateness of the teaching programmes(they are often rigid and rarely promote students autonomy). Moreover, teachers themselves lack instruction to promote autonomy support, mainly because of received ideas. Reasons 3,4and5 basically evoke teachers personality, pressure and control. The more teachers are pressured, the more they control their students; likewise, the more students show little interest the more teachers exert pressure to motivate them. This of course is the consequence of false understanding of motivation and pedagogy.

5. Motivation and Interaction

Many studies identify this process of motivation as an internal drive which pushes learners to accomplish a given task to achieve an already planned objective.In this case, Clement et al. (1994: 418) postulate that "increasing classroom relevance of the motivation research is certainly a worthwhile objective". Accordingly, concepts like subject matter, presentation skills, methods

of teaching and more importantly learner's interaction become focal factors affecting motivation in the classroom.

Classroom is the real arena of interaction; it serves as a small and complicated community group in which a student interacts both with his peers and his teacher (Pica, 1992 In Kral, 1999: 59). Its complexity resides in the different personalities, motives and expectations that exist at play. Accordingly, in order to foster an interactive atmosphere that generates high motivation, "we need an ambiance and relations among individuals [peers and teachers] that promote a desire interaction" (Rivers, 1987: 9). As a logical consequence, the type of interaction results in the level of motivation (whether low or high).

Teacher-student interaction is a focal dimension that affects the learners' level of motivation. Thus, we can explain this interaction and its relationship with motivation through empathy and genuine interaction. The first dimension involves the caring quality of the teacher. Hence, a teacher who is friendly, genuine in dialogue and expresses high immediacy tends to generate positive feelings in learners, which in turn bolsters high motivation. Relating to this, Arnold and Brown (1999), in their definition of motivation, state that this latter and emotions are two intertwined dimensions. That is, if the positive feelings and emotions characterize the interaction, a high motivation is more likely to be generated and vise versa. Yet, a teacher is an aloof figure that is merely going through the motions of teaching heedless of the students may engender negative feelings such as shyness, anxiety and anger. Hence, this negative interaction tapers off the students' motivation. The point here is that if the nature of teacher- student interaction exemplifies empathy, it is more likely to affect positively their motivation.

The genuine interaction is the common theme that is expected in student-teacher interaction. This entails the teacher to be " active listener, positive in error correction facilitator and stimulate genuine interaction" (Kral 1999). Succinctly stated, he should interact not only asking students to things for the sake of it. In this situation, the learner will be more aware of his teacher's positive

and actual involvement which results in high motivation. However, if the teacher, for instance, is very offensive in his way of correcting errors while interacting, he is more likely to inhibit the learner's desire for learning.

Peer- mediation or group interaction persistently plays a focal role in the process of motivation. Many researchers believe that this interaction develops a great understanding of others diverse social, interpersonal adjustments and learning needs, and more importantly learner's motivation. According to Gardner:

> Language is a defining behavioral feature of a cultural group, and thus acquiring the language involves taking on patterns of behavior of that group. As a consequence, an individual's attitudes towards that group and towards other cultural groups in general will influence his or her motivation to learn the language, and thus the degree of proficiency attained (2002: 160).

That is, the more positive the relationship among the group members is, the greater commitment to the group, feeling of responsibility is to be. That is, interaction exerts in learners a positive interdependence since they perceive that they can reach their goals if and only other individuals with whom they interactively linked reach their goal. Therefore, they promote each other motivation. Yet, this interaction may also impede the motivation if it implies a more competitive and negative individualistic efforts. That is, learners perceive that they can obtain their goals if and only other individuals with whom they competitively linked lose . Accordingly, some learners who are involved in this interaction will certainly feel the pressure of their peers which certainly decreases their motivation. Besides, this type of interaction according to Gardner(2002) may also hold some non-humanistic characteristics (such as bullying, teasing, etc.) that taper off the target learners' self-esteem. When this occurs, their motivation automatically lowers down.

In a nutshell, we can say that interaction and motivation are interrelated; a positive interaction can increase motivation and vice versa. In other words, if it generates positive interpersonal relationship, feelings and healthy attitudes, this exerts a high motivation; whereas,

an interaction that is characterized by irrational beliefs, dog-eat-dog relationship and negative emotions are more likely to deplete motivation.

5.1. Group Dynamics, Teacher and Motivation

The difficult nature of foreign language learner together with the number of the learners in the classroom and the multiplicity of the characteristics of each individual including the teacher is a recipe which makes the foreign language classroom a crucible. In this, we can refer to what Thomas (1991: 29) notes:

> The way that participants in classroom feel about each other, and about the situation they are in, has an important influence on what actually goes on in a classroom. Feelings and attitudes can make for smooth interaction and successful learning, or can lead to a conflict and a total breakdown of communication.

The interaction can in no way be smooth and successful without the instructor's powerful position. That is, one of the responsibilities of the teacher is to guide and motivate the his students to work out the appropriate strategies to succeed in such a delicate assignement as FLL. It is, indeed, a difficult task to motivate the students or to maintain their motivation alive. The reason is that foreign language classrooms are"… complicated Social communities. Individual learners come to them with their own constellation of native languages and culture, proficiency level, learning style, motivation and attitudes toward language learning" (Pica, 1992 In Kral, 1999: 59). In other words, learners are different from each other and the instructor is said to be aware of the individual learners' differences to succeed in teaching. Consequently, it is difficult for the teacher to deal with each individual solely and to motivate him successfully(Turner, 1978: 234) especially that what may help motivate a student may prove to be detrimental for another.

Accordingly, the students' motivation can be either high or low before attending the classroom and even once in the classroom. However, the interaction between the learners and the teacher may affect the students' level of motivation because everything depends on the emotions

and feelings that this interaction generates. Additionally, the strains that the peers exert on the learner and the teacher's error-correction method have an effect on the beginners' motivation.

6. Motivation and Vocabulary Acquisition

Vocabulary knowledge plays a critical role in students academic development to a degree that it is strongly related to reading comprehension (Graves 2006), academic achievement and lives beyond schools (Beck, Mc keown 2002).

Students are expected to be persistently motivated in vocabulary learning, to engage in vocabulary instruction, meet vocabulary learning standers to peruse required accomplishment. Central to understanding student's behavior and emotions in vocabulary learning activities, student's motivation is necessary step toward identifying the factors that affecting student's behaviors and emotion in vocabulary learning. Motivation is what activates behavior and helps individuals persist in given tasks (Guthrie, Wigfield2000).

Even though motivation has been traditionally recognized as one of the key factors related to language learning and one which has a paramount role in FL achievement by mediating the actual effect of other affective and attitudinal constructs at stake(Gardnet2007), very few studies have been carried out to determine the role of motivation in vocabulary.
Learning (eysenk and eysenck 1980; Elley 1989; Gardner and Macintyre 1991; laufer and hustling 2001; Kim 2008) and not even one has examined the relationship between motivation and vocabulary.

Many investigations have proved the positive relationship between motivation and scores in FL learning (Dornyei 2005 ; bureaus and Gardner 2008; Yu and Watkins 2008)

In the same vein and although the connection between motivation and FL vocabulary learning has not recued much attention in research, different studies have identified a positive effect of motivation on different aspects of FL vocabulary learning (Gardner, lalonde and Moorcroft 1985).

Gardner, Lalonde and Moorcroft(1985) investigate the effect of motivation on vocabulary acquisition. They found that learners with a high motivation leer and faster than those with a law motivation.

Apart from these results ,a current trend of research attempts to shed light on the effect of the motivational and cognitive load of the task over the learners lexical competence. In this line laufer and Hulstjin(2001) formulate the involvement load hypothesis, according to which the higher level of the cognitive and motivational load hypothesis, according to which the higher task will be in increasing lexical competence, Based on this hypothesis, Kim (2008) concludes that the higher this cognitive motivational index is in the task, the better the results in the initial steps of vocabulary learning and in the retention of new words will be also, they found that the factor that mostly correlates with vocabulary learning is not so claim that motivation should be approached as a dynamic factor comprising a number of stages, and that each of these stages will affect in different ways the process of vocabulary acquisition which is also dynamic.

Students need to be motivated to learn vocabulary intentionally as well as incidentally. In the educational arena, researchers have stated the fact that vocabulary learning occurs both in explicit instructions in classroom and incidental learning written context (Graves 2006) Vocabulary learned from explicit instructions in classroom is far less than the the total vocabulary that students actually learn throughout academic years.

Vocabulary researchers find that a large proportion of vocabulary growth occurs incidentally through a massive amount of immersion reading, rather than through explicit vocabulary instruction (Chall, Jacobs, and Baldwin 1990; Nagy & Scott 2000). The national reading report (NICHD 2000) also reported that vocabulary could be learned incidentally through extensive reading, reading of storybooks, and listening to others.

If student are not motivated to learn vocabulary in reading classroom and especially in incidental learning, the gap in vocabulary knowledge will be larger and subsequently is likely to hinder academic achievement for years to come.

Although effectiveness vocabulary development depends in large part on meaningful vocabulary instructions (Karmil 23 & Hibert 2005) the importance of motivational variables in vocabulary learning seems to be ignored in vocabulary research students without motivation for vocabulary learning might not persist in learning new words encountered in written texts and listening situations, accordingly limiting incidental teaching of vocabulary. The reason for little information on motivation for vocabulary learning might be that vocabulary knowledge has been closely tied to reading research, due to that, motivation for vocabulary learning might not be considered separate from motivation for reading.

Sweet & Gurthries (1996) introspect on motivation to read related intrinsic motivation to long – term literacy. They speculated that intrinsic motivation demonstrated that enhanced long term learning commitments such as spending time searching for books, reading, and learning while extrinsically motivated students had short term behaviours that controlled behavior for reasons such as competition. Extrinsic behaviors were linked to work – avoidance and minimized the importance of positive behaviours Cameron & Pierce (1994) additionally found that when extrinsic rewards were attached to learning objectives, intrinsic motivation decreased in their meta analysis of 150 related studies.

Goal oriented learning as a facet of vocabulary acquisition could also do much to clarify vocabulary acquisition learning words for the purpose of passing test or gaining favour from the teacher, or performance goal orientation could result in less depth of processing. Learning words for goal orientation could provide a deeper understanding of the word and the ability to demonstrate this depth of process by transferring vocabulary into writing.

6.1.Building Motivation Inside Classrooms for Learning Vocabulary

There exits different methods for building motivation inside classrooms for learning more vocabulary items through reading, since reading is considered as the best way to get exposure to unknown words, though, students may face difficulties in understanding What they are reading. In this respect, no one can ignore the crucial role of the teacher, who should en sure that there is a practice, so that passive knowledge is activated (Kim 2008).

A creative teacher according to Staehr (2008: 140) can use common methods for building motivation. Among these methods relating student academic performance and classroom participation to acidic rewards or privileges. Yet, he can refer to other ways that do not require the use of formal reward system by cooperative learning and task involvement that may kindle the students motivation and encourage them to challenge difficult reading passages. The teacher should help to strengthen the students' reading motivation with an emphasis on how reading competence may well lead to future professional success. Furthermore, he should strive for ensuring the availability of appropriate materials and attitudes that have major influences on motivation, which in turn may influence the decision to read in 2nd language .Another method that can be used by teachers' to increase students' motivation for the acquisition of vocabulary is the use of a variety of vocabulary games and activities. Takala (1985) claims that vocabulary activities can easily start off a pre-reading lesson. When it comes to using vocabulary activities, a pre-reading lesson should contain some if not all, of the new vocabulary. Takala(ibid) introduced a variety of vocabulary activities that have game like features and are very motivating; teachers give the class a few definitions corresponding to five or six vocabulary words and the students guess the word; word association; giving students a situational context and they use the vocabulary learned; students fill in a sentence using a choice from three words the teacher says. If the teacher feels that an adequate amount of practice via these recognition activities has been reached, he can opt for more challenging vocabulary games and activities that aim to reduce fear

and hesitancy that is sometimes characteristic of language learners studying a language that is not their mother tongue.

6.2. The Relationship between Vocabulary Learning, Reading And Motivation

Building a large vocabulary is essential when learning to read in a second language. Yet, this is likely to be out of reach for most foreign language learners, since the vocabulary of any language is huge and its acquisition takes time, even for a native speaker. Foreign learners need to use effective strategies, to deal with the difficulties they may face during the reading process, and a motivated atmosphere is mostly required in this respect (Sweet,Gurthries 1996).

Most motivation theories assume that motivation is involved in the performance of all learned behaviors. There is a casual relationship between the learning of vocabulary and the reading process and motivation. This is clearly revealed through the fact that the more learners are motivated to read, the better the outcome of vocabulary improvement will be (Tseng and Schmitt 2008). From Nutgall's own words, it can be deduced that reading may be a way of raising the student's interest and that motivation is, in fact a very important factor in any learning situation. In short terms, reading fluency and vocabulary growth are two of the most important components of both performance and competence in a foreign language. Each of them depends on the other and motivated atmosphere and creative tut or are mostly required in that respect.

Conclusion

Motivation is said to be one of the most powerful driving forces in learning. After providing some useful definitions about motivation and giving a concise picture of the main contemprary theories, we attempt to tackle motivation and how it can be enhanced to help learners reach success and develop profiency in SL focusing our interest on vocabulary acquisition since it is the key to ultimate level of proficiency.

Chapter Three : Processing Information in Writing

Introduction

1.Cognitive Theory of Learning

    1.1.Short-Term Memory

    1.2.Long Term Memory

2.Information Processing Theory

    2.1.Input

        2.1.1.The Source of Vocabulary

            2.1.1.1. Acquiring Vocabulary from Extensive Reading

            2.1.1.2. Models of Reading

                2.1.1.2.1. The Bottom-up Model

                2.1.1.2.2. The Top-down Model

                2.1.1.2.3. Bottom-up and Top-down Views of Reading

            2.1.1.3. Productive and Receptive Vocabulary Distinction

            2.1.1.4. The Scope of Receptive/Productive Distinction

        2.1.2.The Sequence of Information Processing

II

        2 .1.3.Retrieving Information from Long-Term Memory

        2.1.4. The role of Memory in Vocabulary Learning and Acquisition

Chapter Three: Information Processing in Writing

Introduction

Learning is a natural, acquired or developed, activity which every human being uses in a way or another. The only evidence of learning is memory. In this chapter, we investigate processing information and vocabulary learning. It represents the role of memory and processing information in vocabulary learning and its recall in new contexts to show how the effective transfer of the learned vocabulary can improve the students' writing.

1. Cognitive Theory of Learning

The cognitive view of learning is a general approach that views learning as "an active mental process of acquiring, remembering and using knowledge" (Woolfolk, 2004:236). According to this view learners, rather than simply receive knowledge, seek new information to solve language problems and reorganize what they already know to achieve new insights. On the same scope, Rubins (1987:29) defines learning as :"the process by which information is obtained, stored, retrieved, and used".

The cognitive theory of learning, which is largely based on the theory of human information processing, deals with mental processes involved in learning. This mainly refers to three fundamental cognitive aspects of learning: how knowledge is developed, how knowledge becomes automatic and how new knowledge is integrated into an existing cognitive system of the learner.

Emphasis is placed on "meaningful learning", i.e. learning with understanding which is not manifested in behaviour, but which can he described as "a clearly articulated and precisely differentiated conscious experience that emerges when potentially meaningful signs, symbols, conc. pts, or propositions m related to and incorporated within a given individual's cognitive

structure" (Ausuhel 1963:10). Researchers in this domain have also endeavored to explain the way in which knowledge about the language is stored in the memory and how the process of language learning results in automatic comprehension and production of language. The cognitive theory suggests that linguistic codes and structures are stored and retrieved from the memory in exactly the same way as other kinds of information. What is important is the extent to which the bas learned formal and functional characteristics of the language and mental process. This implies the possibility of "degrees" of knowledge, i.e. the fact that the learner can know something only partially (Ellis, 1996).

Learning and memory are like two sides of a coin neuroscientists. You cannot talk about one without the other. After all, if you have reached something, the only evidence of learning is memory. One acknowledged expert on human memory, Baddeley (1999:19) slates:"Memory does not comprise a single unitary system, but rather an array of interacting systems, each capable of encoding or registering information, storing it, and making it available for retrieval in new context". The role of memory is crucial in any kind of learning and vocabulary learning is no exception. Vocabulary learning is a four stage encoding process involving selection, learning, construction and generation with transfer of the learned words in new contexts. The way learners store the items learned contribute to their success in retrieving them when needed. Most learners simply list the items learned in chronological order, indicating meaning with translation, synonyms, or using dictionary. This system is far from helpful. As items are decontextualized. The more familiar learners are with words, the easier it will be for them to improve their writing production.

The cognitive theory defines SL learning as a complex cognitive skill which like other such skills, engages cognitive systems (such as perception, memory and information processing) to overcome limitations in human mental capacity which may inhibit performance (Ellis 2000:1975). This theory sees memory as functioning into stages. The first is the working (or

short-term) memory, and the second stage of storing information is the long-term memory.

1.1 Short-Term or Working Memory

   Short-term memory is a storage system that can hold a limited amount of information for a few seconds. According to Baddeley (1986:43), working memory is "the tempor.ary storage of information that is being processed in any range of cognitive tasks". It is the "workbench" of the memory system where new information is held temporarily and combined with knowledge from long-term memory i.e. it has limited capacity. This means that short-term memory requires conscious effort and control to retain only modest amounts of information.

1.2 Long- Term Memory

   Long- term memory is that part of our memory system where we keep information for long period of time. Allan Paivio (1971-86; cited in Woolfork, 2004:247) suggested that information is stored in long-term memory as either visual images or verbal units, or both. It is hypothesized by Ericsson and Kintch (1995) that not only information is stored in long-term memory but also learning strategies.

   Theorists divide long-term memory into at least three parts: episodic memory, semantic memory, and procedural memory. Episodic memory is our memory of personal experiences, a mental movie of things we saw or beard. When someone remembers what happened at his/her high school prom, she/he is recalling information stored in his/her long-term episodic memory.
 Long-term semantic memory is memory for meaning including facts and generalized information that we know; concepts, words, theories, principles, or rules and how to use them, and learning strategies. Procedural memory refers to "knowing how" in contrast to "knowing that" (Solso, 2001; cited in Woolfork). The abilities to drive, type, and ride a bicycle are examples of skills that are retained in procedural memory. According to Anderson (1995), episodic, semantic, and procedural memory store and organize information indifferent ways.

Information in episodic memory is stored in the form of images that are organized on the basis of when and where events happened. Information in semantic memory is organized in the form of networks of ideas. Whereas, information is stored as a complex of stimulus-response pairings in procedural memory.

2. Information Processing Theory

Information -processing theory is a dominant theory of learning and memory since the mid-1970s. The most prominent example of the information-processing approach is a model that was designed and developed by Richard Atkinson and Richard Schiffrin (1968) to explain memory. Figure1 is a schematic representation of a typical information processing mode1 of memory by (Atkinson & Schifrin, 1968).

Information received from external input is encoded in sensory memory where perception and attention determine what will be held in working memory for further use. In working memory, new information connects with knowledge from long-term memory. Thoroughly processed and connected information becomes part of Long-term memory. Thoroughly processed and connected information becomes part of Long-term memory, and can be activated to return to working memory.
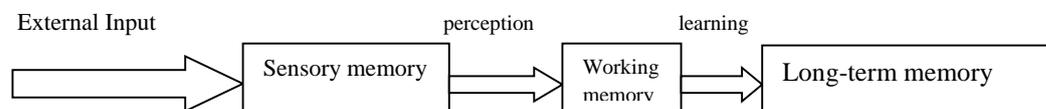
Figure2: Information Processing Model By Atkinson& Shiffrin 1968 (Cited In Matlin, 2003:11).

Following this mode the source of information that enter our memory is external input Since this present research is carried in the field of FL teaching and learning, we will focus on language input.

2.1. Input

The term input has become specific to language teaching. It refers to the linguistic forms to which learners are exposed. In other words, it stands for the language that is addressed to the SL learner by either a native speaker, a teacher or another SL learner. This language can be written or spoken.

One of the first SL learning researchers to investigate issues related to input, Krashen (1987), he proposed that SL learners require comprehensible input (i.e. language that is understandable). More specifically, Krashen hypothesized that when learners understand language at the level of i+1 (i.e. language that is slightly more advanced than their current level of competence), learning would automatically occur. krashen (1987:27) writes: "a necessary (but not sufficient) condition to move from i to stage i +1 is that the learner understands input that can contains i+1, where "understanding" means that the learner is focused on the meaning and not the form of the message". However, while this proposal represented a learning major first step in exploring the relationship between input and learning, researchers (e.g. Swain, 1985) have pointed out that input is not sufficient for SL learning. In other words, white input is obviously a crucial element in learning English, input alone cannot account for the entire process.

2.1.1. The Source of Vocabulary

Research on L1 vocabulary acquisition has shown that the primary source of vocabulary for native speakers is a wide range of contexts that enables them to experiment and to confirm, expand or narrow -down the lexical nets(Carter& McCarthy, 1988). Naturally, this process is not based on explicit formal instruction, but on incidental learning from large amounts of language input. When it comes to learning a SL, however, the answers is not that simple. Although some research results have confused the assumption that L2 vocabulary can also be learned through exposure to various contexts (such as reading).

An important source of vocabulary in L2 learning is a wide range of contexts. Learners can learn lexical items if they are exposed to sufficient amounts of comprehensible input. Nagy (1997) claims that an overage learner can learn to recognize up to 1000 words a year from written materials. As has already been stated, the role of the context in initial stages of Iearning is limited, but its significance grows as the leaner's knowledge expands. An ideal source for learning L2 vocabulary from context is reading, low-frequency lexical items (the ones that are characteristics of individuals with a wide vocabulary) occur more frequently in written than in spoken language. Besides, the learner bas more time at his/her disposal for analysis, hypothesis testing and inference, if working on a written text. Researches on the field confirm that this strategy helps learner in an effective retention of the word in long-term memory and leads to an easy output (reproduction) in new contexts.

Integrationists as opposed to the behaviorist and mentalist views of learning, emphasize the importance of both input and internal language processing. They argue that learning a language is the result of an interaction of the linguistic environment (input) and the learner's internal mechanisms.

2.1.1.1. Acquiring Vocabulary from Extensive Reading

During the last two decades, a number of studies (Paribackht and Wesche, 1997; Zimmerman, 1997) have confirmed that second language learners can acquire vocabulary through reading. At the same time, Megara (1997) comments that most of these studies do not contribute to the understanding of the acquisition process, since they do not investigate the factors that lead to word retention.

In an attempt to further this understanding, Pigada and Schmitt(2006: 2) carried a study to investigate the relationship between incidental vocabulary acquisition and extensive reading, with a particular focus on a variable that is commonly assumed to affect the retention of words, i.e. the number of times a word occurs in the text. They state that:

Reading and vocabulary studies have almost exclusively focused on word meaning to determine vocabulary acquisition. However, it has been acknowledged by a large number of lexically-minded researchers that knowing a word involves much more than just understanding its meaning.

The objective of the study is to examine the effects of text frequency on the acquisition of word meaning, spelling and grammatical behavior.

Considering the literature on extensive reading, Grebe and Stuller (2002: 259) point out that "Extensive reading exposes learners to large quantities of material within their linguistic competence".

This idea is shared by a number of researchers who consider that there are several reasons why it is so attractive to develop language knowledge, and more specifically vocabulary, through extensive reading. Husking and Coaly (1999: 182) consider extensive reading as "A pedagogically efficient approach, as two activities- vocabulary acquisition and reading- occur at the same time".

According to them, this approach facilitates learner autonomy, provides learners with the opportunity to meet words in their context of use, increases sight vocabulary, and could theoretically result in substantial vocabulary learning, which seems difficult to achieve with explicit teaching during the short period of time spend in the classroom.

Later, Nation (2001: 155) argues that "The use of reading and other input sources may be the only practical options for out of class language development for some learners, especially in EFL contexts".

Considering the above, we may say that extensive reading is an important approach in the teaching of vocabulary.

2.1.1.2. Models of Reading

Reading research in the 1970's was characterized by a search for accurate models which represent the reading process as appropriately as possible. This gave rise to the emergence of bottom-up model and the top- down model.

2.1.1.2.1. The Bottom-Up Model

The interest given to reading led researchers to carry out studies in order to answers the question of what goes on in the reading process. This in turn led to a detailed explanation of the different stages of the reading process.

Cough (1972: 58) represented the reading process as a bottom-up view. "The sequence of processing is from letters to sounds, to words, to sentences, and finally to meaning". He characterized reading as a letter by letter progression through text, with letter identification followed by the identification of the sounds of the letters. His model is a phonic approach. The evidence on which Cough based his model was drawn from laboratory studies of adult readers engaged in letter and word recognition tasks. However, more recent research does not support Cough's view of the reading process. Smith (1971: 60) states that "One of the weaknesses of phonic-based approaches is that they do not account for the fact that there are at least 166 different grapho-phonic rules covering the regular spelling-to-sound correspondences of English words and that these are not easy to teach".

According to Smith, one of the weaknesses of Cough's model is that it focused on the spelling-to-sound correspondences of English words, and these are not easy to teach.

Reading is referred to as the ability to decode written words, which includes essentially the mechanics of reading based on visual processing- eye movements, perceptual span, letter shape, and finally words. In this model, reading is viewed as a process of reconstructing the writer's intended message through the recognition of printed letters and words and building up the meaning of a text from the smallest textual units at "the bottom" – letters and words – to larger

and larger units at the "top", phrases, clauses, and inter-sentential linkages. This means that the bottom-up processing is decoding individual linguistic units – phonemes, graphemes, and words, and building textual meaning from the smallest units to the largest ones.

The Bottom-up model is also concerned with the identification of grammatical and lexical forms which can assist second language decoding skills. Concerning grammar, emphasis is laid on the identification of cohesive devices such as substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions, and their functions across sentences. At the level of lexis, vocabulary development and word recognition have long been recognized as crucial to successful bottom-up decoding skills.

According to Camborne (1979), the Bottom-up approach was the basis of the vast majority of reading schemes. The central notion behind the Bottom-up approach is that reading is basically a matter of decoding a series of written symbols into their aural equivalents. Camborne, who uses the term "outside-in" rather than bottom-up, provides the following illustration of how the process is supposed to work:

.

> Print……Every letter discriminated……Phonemes and graphemes matched
>
> ……Blending……Pronunciation……Meaning
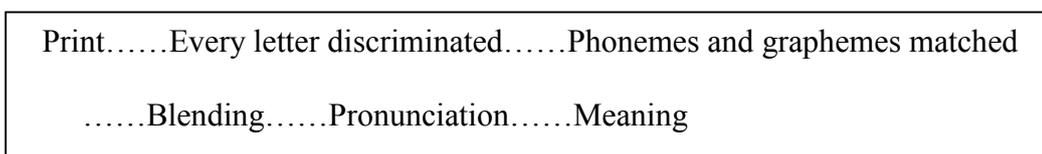
According to this model, the reader processes each letter as it is encountered. These letters or graphemes are matched with the phonemes of the language, which it is assumed the reader already knows. These phonemes, the minimal units of meaning in the sound system of the language, are blended together to form words. The derivation of meaning is thus the end process in which the language is translated from one form of symbolic representation to another. So, when we read, letters do represent sounds, and despite the fact that in English twenty-six written symbols have to represent over forty aural symbols, there is a degree of consistency. In fact, it seems more logical to teach readers to utilize the systematic correspondences between written

and spoken symbols than to teach them to recognize every letter and word encountered by memorizing its unique configuration and shape.

According to Asher and Simpson (1994), the phonic method proceeds from the conventionalized "sound values" of letters. "The main advantage of this approach is that it enables learners to build up by saying aloud, and hopefully recognizing words that they know but have not previously met in printed form. One obvious disadvantage is the lack of consistency letter-sound relationship in English".

2.1.1.2.2. The Top-Down Model

In the top-down model, and as it has been called by Goodman (1971: 2), the reading process is viewed as a "psycholinguistic guessing game". The idea is that the reader does not decode in a sequential way, but instead attacks the text with expectations of meaning developed before and during the act of reading. In this model, the emphasis is on the reader's knowledge of the world. According to Goodman, reading is a process of "predicting", i.e., expectation of what is coming next, "sampling", i.e., testing and revising the prediction and "confirming", i.e., relating the information to past experience. The reader interacts with the text by combining information he discovers there with the knowledge he brings to it, thus constructing a comprehensive meaning of the text as a coherent structure of meaning.

Another reading expert, Stanovitch (1980: 34), has characterized the top-down model as conceptually-driven in which "higher level processes interact with, and direct the flow of information through lower-level processes". This model is founded on the making of predictions about a text based on prior experience or background knowledge, followed by the checking of the text for confirmation or refutation of those predictions. However, and in order to make predictions, one has to refer back to his background knowledge, which is considered as a very important factor in this model. This was claimed by Kant as long ago as 1781 when he stated that

"new information, new concepts, new ideas can have meaning only when they can be related to what the individual already knows".

Sharing the same idea, Anderson et al. (1977: 369) propound that "Every act of comprehension involves one's knowledge of the world as well". As added emphasis on the importance of background knowledge, Anderson (1977) says that " without some schema into which it can be assimilated, an experience is incomprehensible, and therefore, little can be learned from it".

According to Anderson, schema is an important aspect in reading comprehension. He defines it as being the reader's knowledge already stored in memory which functions in the process of interpreting new information and allowing it to enter and become part of the knowledge store. He explains that there is an interaction between old information(readers knowledge already stored) and new information(what the text brings). According to schema theory proponents, any text, either spoken or written, does not by itself carry meaning. It provides directions for listeners or readers as to how they should construct meaning from their own previously acquired knowledge, also called background knowledge. In fact, the term schema refers to the mental organization of an individual's past experience and is based on the psycholinguistic model of reading which views reading as an interaction between the reader's background knowledge and the text.

The number of major criticisms has led to the postulation of an alternative to the Bottom-up, phonic approach. This has become known as the Top-Down or psycholinguistic approach to reading. As with the bottom-up model, there are a number of variations in this approach, but basically all agree that the reader rather than the text is at the heart of the reading process. Camborne (1979: 65) provides the following schematization of the approach:

Past experience, language… selective aspects….meaning….sound pronunciation…….intuitions and expectations of print if

From the diagram above, it can be seen that this approach emphasizes the reconstruction of meaning rather than the decoding of form. The interaction of the reader and the text is central to the process, and readers bring to the interaction their knowledge of the subject at hand, knowledge of and expectations about how language works, motivation interest and attitudes towards the content of the text. Rather than decoding each symbol, or even every word, the reader forms hypotheses about text elements and then samples the text to determine whether or not the hypotheses are correct.

2.1.1.2.3. Bottom-up and Top-down Views of Reading

Any analysis of the task facing the non-native speaker has to recognize that there are many aspects to problem. For example:

. Identification of word meaning

. Recognition of grammatical cues

. Recognition of print and orthographic cues

. Use of contextual information

. Use of background knowledge

. Discrimination of main and supporting details

. Reconstruction of the argument

. Recognition of the type of text

All of these require both recognition features of the text and appropriate interpretation, using knowledge brought to the task by the reader. A very broad distinction is commonly made between these two kinds of activity:

Bottom-up, or text driven, processes

Vs

Top-down, or concept driven, processes

Eskey (1988: 98) has argued persuasively for an interactive model, "in which both of these kinds of processing complement each other, and in which reading by less than proficient non-native speakers is represented by relatively strong bias towards text-driven or bottom-up processes."

Fluent reading entails both skillful decoding and relating the information so obtained to the reader's prior knowledge of the world. Thus, the fluent reader is characterized by both skills at rapid, context free word and phrase recognition, and, at higher cognitive levels, the skillful use of appropriate comprehension strategies. For the proper interpretation of texts the latter skills are crucial, but such lower level skills as the rapid and accurate identification of lexical and grammatical forms are not merely obstacles to be cleared on the way to higher-level "guessing game" strategies, but skills to be mastered as a necessary means of taking much of the guess work out of reading comprehension. An interactive model of reading provides the most convincing account of this reciprocal/cognitive process.

Eskey is arguing essentially for a balanced view of two trends in reading research and exercise design which have evolved in the last few years. One perhaps inherited from earlier psycholinguistic theorizing, emphasizes the use of language-specific knowledge to decode language elements: recognition of syntactic structure, lexical cohesion, word meaning, punctuation, morphology and so on. The other, also deriving in part from the psychology, emphasizes the use of pre-existing knowledge of text structures and content to enable prediction and anticipation of events and meanings, and of inference of meaning from wider context. This approach is often referred to as schema-theories, following Carrel (1984). The first trend explored the bottom-up process; the second trend investigated top-down processes. Eskey is, of course, arguing that a second language reader needs skills at both kinds of processing in order to be a successful reader.

2.1.1.3. The Receptive / Productive Vocabulary Distinction

In the literature on vocabulary learning, a distinction between receptive and productive types of knowledge should be made. A number of researchers (Palmer, 1921; west, 1938; crow, 1986) have dealt with this dichotomy. Palmer (1921:118) states that "Receptive carries the idea that we receive language input from others through listening or reading and try to comprehend it, productive that we produce language forms by speaking and writing to convey messages to others".

It is to be noted that a synonymous dichotomy has been used in the literature. The term "passive" was used for 'listening' and 'reading' and the term 'active' was used for 'speaking' and 'reading'

Corson (1995:44) uses the terms active and passive to refer to productive and receptive vocabulary. According to him "Passive vocabulary includes the active vocabulary and three other kinds of vocabulary- words that are only partly known, low frequency words not readily available for use and words that are avoided in active use".

For him, the three kinds of vocabulary overlap to some degree. His description is based on the idea of use and not solely on degrees of knowledge. He argues (1995:179) that for some people the Greco-Latin vocabulary of English may be passive for several reasons. Firstly, Greco-Latin words are generally low-frequency words and thus require more mental activation for use. Secondly, the morphological structure of Greco-Latin words may be opaque for some learners, thus reducing the number of points of activation for each of these words. Thirdly, some learners because of their social background get little opportunity to be become familiar with the rules of use of the words.

He concludes by saying that the lexical barrier is the result of lack of access to the academic meaning systems strongly reinforced by the morphological strangeness of Greco-Latin words.

2.1.14. The Scope of the Receptive / Productive Distinction

In view of vocabulary learning literature, the terms receptive and productive apply to variety of kinds of language knowledge and use. When they are applied to vocabulary, these terms cover all the aspects of what is involved in knowing a word. From the point of view of receptive knowledge and use, Nation (2001:26) says that knowing a word, for example 'underdeveloped' involves:

. Being able to recognize the word when it is heard

. Being familiar with its written form so that it is recognized when it is met in reading.

. Recognize that it is made up of parts under-, -develop-, and –ed and being able to relate these parts to its meaning.

. Knowing that underdeveloped signals a particular meaning.

. Knowing what the word means in the particular context in which it has just occurred.

. Knowing the concept behind the word which will allow understanding in a variety of contexts.

. Knowing that there are related words like overdeveloped, backward and challenged.

. Being able to recognize that underdeveloped has been used correctly in the sentence in which it occurs.

. Being able to recognize that words such as territories and areas are typical collocations.

Knowing that underdeveloped is not an uncommon word and is not a pejorative word.

From the point of view of productive knowledge and use, knowing the word underdeveloped involves.

. Being able to say it with correct pronunciation including stress.

. Being able to write it with correct spelling.

. Being able to construct it using the right word parts in their appropriate forms.

. Being able to produce the word to express the meaning 'underdeveloped'.

. Being able to produce the word in different contexts to express the range of meanings of underdeveloped.

. Being able to produce synonyms and opposites for underdeveloped.

. Being able to use the word correctly in an original sentence.

. Being able to produce words that commonly occur with it.

. Being able to use or not to use the word to suit the degree of formality of the situation (At present, developing is more acceptable than underdeveloped which carries a slightly negative meaning).

The receptive/productive aspects involved in knowing a word can be summarize in the following table:

Form	Spoken	R	What does the word sound like?
		P	How is the word pronounced?
	Written	R	What does the word look like?
		P	How is the word written and spelled?
	Word parts	R	What parts are recognizable in this word?
		P	What word parts are needed to express the meaning?

	Form and meaning	R	What meaning does this word form signal?
		P	What word form can be used to express this meaning? II
	Concept and	R	What is included in the concept?

Meaning	referents	P	What items can the concept refer to?
	Association	R	What other words does this make us think of?
		P	What other word could we use instead of this one?

	Grammatical Functions	R	In what patterns does the word occur?
		P	In what pattern must we use this word?
Use	Collocation	R	What words or types of words occur with this one?
		P	What words or types of words must we use with this one?
	Constraints on use (register, frequency…)	R	Where, when, and how often would we expect to meet this word?
		P	Where, when, and how often can use this word?

Table7 : What is involved in Knowing a Word

In view of what proceeds, and if we say a word is part of someone's receptive vocabulary, we are making a very general statement that includes many aspects of knowledge and use, and we are combining the skills of reading and listening. In general it seems that receptive learning and use is easier than productive learning and use, but it is not clear why receptive use should be less difficult than productive use. There are in the literature several explanations which are

probably complementary rather than competing. Ellis and Beaton (1993:548) provide three different explanations:

The "amount of knowledge" explanation: Productive learning is more difficult because it requires extra learning of new spoken or written output patterns. This will particularly be noticeable for languages which use different writing systems from the first language and which use some different sounds or sound combinations. For receptive use, learners may only need to know a few distinctive features of the form of an item. For productive purposes their knowledge of the word has to be more precise.

The "practice" explanation: In normal language learning conditions, receptive use generally gets more practice than productive use, and this may be an important factor in accounting for differences in receptive and productive vocabulary size. There is some evidence that both receptive learning and productive learning require particular practice to be properly learned.

The "access" explanation: A new foreign language word in the early stages of learning has only one simple link to its first language (L1) translation (the receptive direction).

2.1.2. The Sequence of Information Processing

Information is received from the external input and held in the sensory memory which meets large amounts of information from each of the senses (sight, hearing, touch, smell, taste). The received information is held for a very short time, no more than a couple of seconds. The existence of sensory registers bas two important educational implications. First, learners must pay attention to information if they are to retain it. Second, it takes time to bring all the information seen in a moment into consciousness (Slavin 2003:174). The information content of sensory memory resembles the sensations from the original stimulus (external input). Visual sensation are coded briefly by the sensory memory as images (an image of the word). Auditory

sensations are coded as sound patterns. In these moments, we have a change to select and organize information for further processing. Perception and attention are critical at this stage.

Perception: Woolfork (2004:240) states that the process of detecting a stimulus (word) and assigning meaning to it is called perception. It involves mental interpretation and is influenced by our mental state, past experience, our knowledge, motivation, and many other factors. Since perception is the interpretation of sensory information, two kinds of explanations for how we recognize patterns and give meaning to those information are part of information processing theory. The first is called "feature analysis", or "bottom-up processing", because the stimulus must be analyzed into features or components and assembled into a meaningful pattern from the bottom up. Perception does not rely on feature analysis, otherwise learning would be very slow. Humans are capable of other type of perception based on knowledge and expectation often called top-down processing. To recognize patterns, in addition to noting features, learners use what they already know about the situation and what they know about words.

Attention: Psychologists maintain that attention (focus on stimulus) to stimulus is needed for long-term memory storage and that, little; if any; learning can take place without attention. The most widely accepted view in SL learning is that without awareness, input can be processed only in short-term memory and therefore cannot be deeply processed for learning to occur. According to Schmid's (2001) "attention is the necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input into intake". What we pay attention to is guided to a certain extent by what we already know and what we need to know, so attention is involved in and influenced by ail three memory processes.

Information that a person perceives and pays attention to is transferred to short-tenn memory where the mind operates on information, organizes it for storage or discarding, and

connects it to other information. Information may enter working memory from sensory memory or from long term memory. To hold information in working memory learners need to repeat the word more than one time. This process of maintaining an item in working memory by repetition is called rehearsal (Baddeley, 1999). Rehearsal is important in learning because the longer an item remains in working memory, the greater the chance that it will be transferred to long-term memory. Without it, items will probably not stay in working memory for more than about 30 seconds. Rehearsal helps learners to process information in working memory and thereby to establish it in long-term memory.

Long-term memory seems to store an unlimited amount of information for a very long lime. Information is stored in one of the three types of long-term memory (semantic, episodic and procedural memory) as explained before. The way information is learned in the first time affects its recall later. One important requirement is to integrate new material with knowledge already stored in long-term memory using elaboration . Organization is a second element of processing that improves learning. Material that is well organized is easier to learn and to remember than bits and pieces of information. Context is a third aspect of processing that influences learning; It is a kind of prime that activates the information. If a leamer team a vocabulary item in context (linguistic or situational) later, it will be easier to remember and transfer it if the current new context is similar to the original one.

2.1.3. Retrieving Information from Long-term Memory

When learners need to use information from long-term memory, they search for it. Sometimes the sea.rch is conscious as when you see a 'robin' and search for its name. At other times, information from long-term memory is automatic, as when you fill in a CV without having to search for the words. Retrieval or recall from long-term memory is partially through the spreading1of activation from one bit of knowledge to related ideas in the network (Woolfork, ibid). According to Thornburg (2002:24) a word is retrieved easily from long-term memory, this

depends on bow this word was stored. Nation (1990) argues that guessing word meaning from context is an effective strategy for permanent retention and it leads to a successful retrieval of !!he word in new contexts. The way a learner encode (that is, put information into memory) determines his/her ability to retrieve it when needed.

To sum up, processing generally consist of: recognition, storage, recall and reconstruction or construction of information.

2.1.4. The Role of Memory in Vocabulary Learning and Acquisition

The role of memory is crucial in any kind of learning and vocabulary learning is no exception. According to the above-described continuum, learning of lexical items is not linear. Learners, without fail, forget some components of knowledge. In both long-term and short-term memory forgetting takes place in a similar way. When obtaining new information, most of it is forgotten immediately, after which the process of forgetting slows down. On the basis of available research results, Thornburg (2002) has compiled a list of principles that facilitate the transfer of the learning material into the long-term memory. These include multiple encounters with a lexical item, preferably at spaced intervals, retrieval and use of lexical items, cognitive depth (cf. Schneider et al., 2002), affective depth, personalization, imaging, use of mnemonics4 and conscious attention that is necessary to remember a lexical item.

3. The Mental lexicon

The way words are stored in the mind resembles less a dictionary than a kind of network or web. Words are stored in semantic memory neither randomly nor in the form of a list, but in a highly organized and interconnected manner in what is often called the mental lexicon. The mental lexicon is "a memory system in which a vast number of words, accumulated in the course of time, has been stored" (Holstein, 2000: 210). This system is seen to be organized and structured, because it is the only possible explanation for the fact that people can, at an

astonishing rate, in a vast quantity of lexical items stored in the memory, recognize and retrieve the lexical item they need to express what they want. Human memory is very flexible and it can 'process' a large quantity of data, but only if it is systematically organized. Another definition of a mental lexicon is that it is "a memory system in which a vast number of words, accumulated in the course of time, have been stored and organized". (Takac, 2008:125). In other words, vocabulary words are stored in semantic memory in schemata. Piaget introduced tbe word scheme to describe a cognitive framework that individuals use to organize their perceptions and experiences. Cognitive processing theorists similarly use the term schema and schemata to describe net work of concepts that individuals have in their memories that enables them to understand and incorporate new information. According to Slavin (2008:180), schema is like an outline, with different concepts or ideas grouped under larger categories. Various aspects of schemata may be related by series of proposition. For example, Figure3 illustrate a simplified schema for the concept "antique". The schema tells what features are typical of a category.

Antique			
Uses	characteristics	Kind	Sources
Decoration	older than 25 years	Cars	Stores
Investment	served a function	jewelry	other collectors
Hobby	preserved	furniture	ads
Understand history	material material	silver	flea markets
	Valuable	costumes	trips to the country
		dishes	
		house hold implement	
		tool	
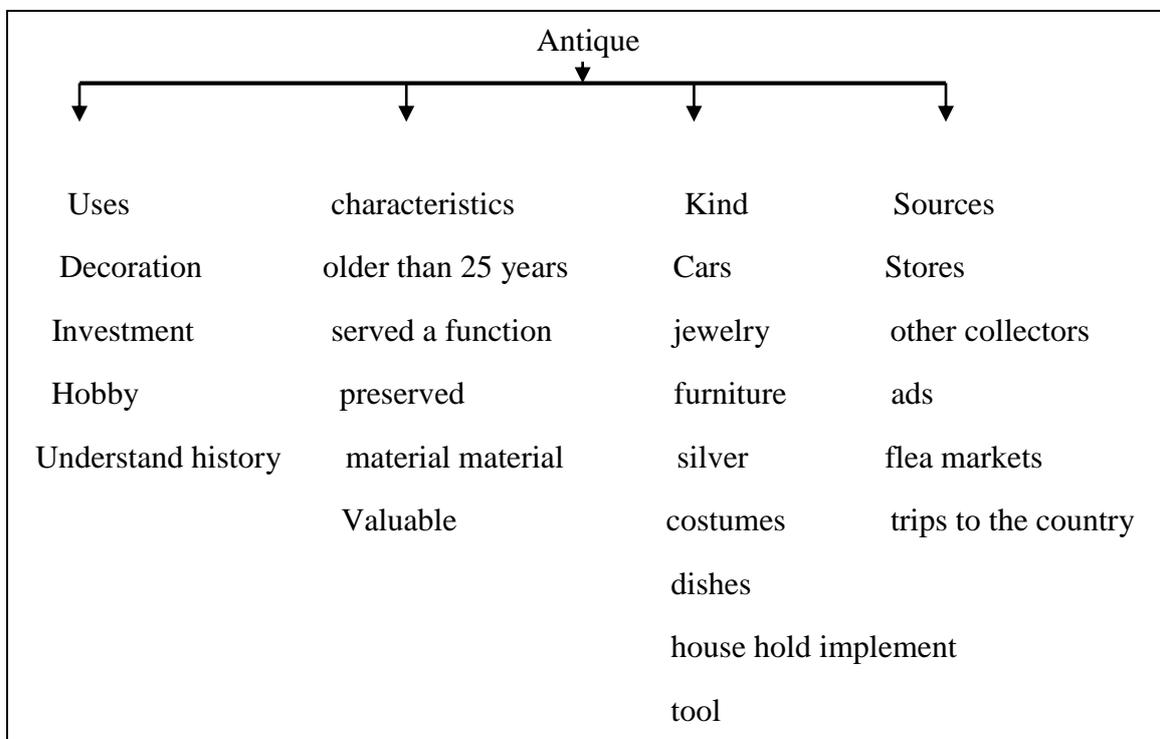
Figure 3 : A Schema of "Antique"

The sentence "my grandparent's house is full of antique furniture that belong to the Victorian Age" is an example of information !hat will be easily incorporated into a learner's 'antique' schema, because a learner knows that (1) furniture is a kind of antique objects(2) and other kinds, such as: cars, jewelry also belong to it(3) all what belongs to the Victorian age is antique because it is very old, and belongs to a historical period. Furthermore, when a learner encounter a vocabulary item in several contexts, in each context the word holds a new meaning, a schema network will be built of the various meanings of that item under its super ordination with relation to other features deduced from each context. Because of this incorporation of meaning into the learner's schema with the .help of the contextual clues, the learner's writing performance will be improved. Any new information relating to this schema will probably be learned and incorporated into the schema much more readily than would information relating to less established schemata or rote learning that does not attach to any schema.

According to Alexander (1992; cited in Slavin 2003:201), one important insight of schema theory is that "meaningful learning requires the active involvement of the learner, who has a host of prior experiences and knowledge to bring to understanding and incorporating new information.

4. Remembering

To move from input to achieve a successful output, the learner needs not only to learn a lot of words, but to remember them. In fact, learning is remembering. Unlike the learning of grammar, which is essentially a rule-based system, vocabulary knowledge is largely a question of accumulating individual items.

In the view of the literature on vocabulary learning, there are three important general processes that may lead to a word being remembered. These comprise noticing, retrieval and creative or generative use.

The first process encouraging learning is noticing, that is to give attention to an item. This means that learners need to notice the word, and be aware of it as a useful language item this process also occurs when learners rely on different strategies to get the meaning of a word especially when guessing from context. Sanz (2005:207) argues !hat noticing a word in context leads to mere intake. Another important aspects to consider as far noticing is concerned are interest and motivation. Texts to be taught to or read by the learners must be of their interest. "Natural learner interest and motivation may cause learners to pay more attention to some words than others". (Hatch Brown 1995:373).

Another important aspect to consider as far as noticing is concerned is decontextualisation. Nation (2001:64) defines this latter as being the fact that "the word is removed from its message context to be focused on as a language item".

He explains that learners need to consciously see language items as parts of the language system rather than only as messages. As a matter of fact, this can occur in a variety of ways:

. While reading, the learner notices that a word is new or thinks, "I have seen that word before", or thinks, "that word is used differently from the ways I have seen it used before.

. The teacher highlights a word while writing it on the board.

. The teacher explains a word for the learners by giving a definition, a synonym, or a first language translation.

According to some studies (Elley, 1989; Brett, Rothlein and Hurley, 1996) show that vocabulary learning is increased if vocabulary items are briefly explained while learners are reading.

The second process that may lead to a word being remembered is retrieval. According to Baddeley (1990:156) "A word may be noticed and its meaning comprehended in the textual input 10 the task, through teacher's exp1anation or inferring". If that word is subsequently retrieved during the task then, the memory of that word will be strengthened".

He explains that retrieval can be receptive or productive. If receptive retrieval involves perceiving the form and having to retrieve its meaning when the word is met, in reading, productive retrieval involves wishing to communicate the meaning of the word and baving to retrieve its written form.

As far as repetition is concerned, Baddeley (1990:156) suggests that "lt is not simply repetition which is important, but the repeated opportunity 10 retrieve the item which is to be learned".

He explains that when learners hear or see the form of the word, they need to retrieve what they know of its meaning. In fact, for him, each retrieval of a word strengthens the path linking form and meaning and makes subsequent retrieval easier.

The third major process in word remembering is generation. There is an increasing number of studies (Joe, 1995; Ellis, 1995) that show that generative processing is an important factor in language vocabulary learning. Nation (2001:68) states that "Generative processing occurs when previously met words are subsequently met or used in ways that differ from the previous meeting with the word".

This process is mainly concerned with the different meanings a word may have according to context. For example, if a learner has met the word 'crush' used as a verb as in 'We crush grapes to make wine', and then meets 'Her refusal crushed ail our hopes' ,the learners will need to rethink the meaning and uses of "crush" and this will help firmly establish the memory of this word.

To conclude this third process, we may say that generative uses of vocabulary are those where meeting the word in new context forces learners to reconceptualize that they previously bad for that word.

5. Vocabulary's Influence on Writing

Vocabulary is strengthened by use. The more the new words are used, the more they are solidified in the mind. "Vocabulary is particularly strengthened when new words are used in writing. Consequently, we should look for opportunities to have students use the new learned words in their writing" (Lauflamme, 1997:373).

English learners need exposure to the English language in a variety of contexts. They need to see the similarities and differences of English words within and across types of texts. It is through his exposure that learners will learn when and how to use words and general sentences properly. According to Flores (2008:9-10) writing is a process by which we transfer our knowledge, our ideas, our vocabulary into written form. For learners, their vocabulary knowledge of the English language, their experiences will serve as building blocks for writing. Teachers will in turn supply the context (authentic texts) as support for learners about how written English is structured and organized and as source to show how vocabulary is used in its real context.

5.1. Reading and writing

If the writing process is inextricably linked to the reading process, and the reading process is heavily dependent upon vocabulary, it naturally follows that the writing process is heavily dependent upon vocabulary, it naturally follows that the writing process is likewise dependent. On the same scope Wu (1994;cited in college connection, 1997) states that reading is one of the best ways to improve your vocabulary since words are used in context. Not only will reading help you better understand new words and deduce their meaning, reading also helps you to become a better writer by exposing you to well-written prose.

Wu (l994) reports on a study that focused on a reading-towrite task- that the findings indicate that learners produce successful passages rich of vocabulary borrowed from the source text.

In some ways, the ability to write effectively hinges upon having an adequate vocabulary even more than does the ability read. Once students have learned to decode words, they may be able to read and pronounce many words !hat are unfamiliar to them. They may even be able to determine accurate meanings of unfamiliar words simply by examining the context in which those words are used. During the writing process, however, a student does not have the luxury of examining the context in which a word is used; he or she is creating the context. Therefore, the learner must be able to spontaneously recall words that are known not only by sight, but that are understood well enough to use correctly.

The breadth and depth of a students' vocabulary will have a direct influence upon the descriptiveness, accuracy, and quality of his her writing. As Ediger (1999:1) notes, "variety in selecting words to convey accurate meanings is necessary in speaking and writing, the outgoes of the language arts".

5.2. Using Vocabulary to Improve Writing

While improved vocabulary can enhance students' writing performance, there is no guarantee that it will do so automatically. Improvement in vocabulary will result in improved writing performance only if the teacher is able to create a classroom that takes writing seriously. "In such a classroom, process and environment are closely intertwined and interdependent. The process does not come alive unless the environment is conducive to it" (Corona, Spangenberger& Venet, 1998:24).

Laflamme {1997:377-84) proposes five techniques teachers can use to create a writing centered classroom:

• Sharing vocabulary-rich literature. He explains that in his quest to help his students become better writers, he "went to the best source for teaching good writing: good books». By having students read books, poems, and stories" that contain interesting vocabulary, teachers can both help learners deduce the meaning of new words and provide a forum for discussing them.

• Helping students become aware and look for interesting words. There are many different forms this can take. For example, students could pair up and look through books for words that catch their attention, then write down common words that the author could have used instead. Other method include having student: write words they deduced their meaning on a notebook where they have to generalize sentences.

• Offering a variety of writing opportunities. "A writer-centered classroom emphasizes written expression to communicate ideas. Writing is an important part of all areas of the curriculum". Laflamme goes on to note that students have a greater investment in their writing when they are given choices about their assignments.

• Another interesting technique for him is providing ample time for students to fully experience the writing process. The teaching of writing should be approached as a process that must be studied in depth, and substantial blocks of time should be devoted to writing.

• The last technique Laflarnme proposes is allowing students to conference with teachers and fellow students. When the teacher chose a topic which must be of students' interest, he should allow students to recall all the words they have in their schemata that are related to the topic of discussion, exchange ideas with each other and ask him questions for more clarification. Through this discussion writing is going to be an easy task where learners can successfully a text or composition rich in terms of vocabulary and ideas.

To sum up, we can say that reading is one of the best ways to !cam vocabulary. It does not only help learners get words meaning but also belps them become better writers by showing learners how written texts are structured, organized and how vocabulary is used in its real context.

6. Topic-type

It is believed that the best way to teach vocabulary is through authentic texts where words are used in their native context.

In this scope, the TAVI approach whose objective is to provide students with the experience of dealing with the full range of authentic texts, they are likely to encounter in their studies, makes use of the notion of topic-type (Davies 1982-83) sometimes called conceptual frame (Fillmore 1976).

6.1. The Topic-type Hypothesis

According to Davies (1985:7) the topic-type hypothesis is as follows:"while it is possible to envisage an unlimited range of topics which might be identified in ESP texts, there is a strictly limited set of topic-types. A topic-type can be defined by means of its 'information constituents'• certain categories of information which consistently co-occur over a wide range of different topics. For instance, the following topics appear on the surface to be quite unrelated: a suspension bridge, a flowering plant, a skeleton, a blast furnace". While such topics are clearly distinct, descriptions of them are consistently represented through certain categories of information: namely information about parts, about the location of parts, and about the properties or attributes of parts, including their function. Furthermore, Davies claims that coherent texts describing such ' physical structures', (the topic type label for this class of texts) consistently contain information fitting each of these categories, but (virtually) no information of any other kind.

The approach is based on the premise that writers make choices at the lexico-grammatical and rhetorical levels in order to achieve their purpose, but in doing this they draw upon the underlying information which they wish to present and over which they have very little choice.lt thus focuses on the semantic level of text and uses the concept of frame in which an overall framework is made up of slots with the potential for containing information constituents (Davies, 1985). The topic-type hypothesis states that ' white it is possible to envisage an infinite number of topics which might be represented in text, there is a strictly limited set of topic-types' (Davies ibid) and the topic-types which have so far been suggested for informative texts are as follows:

instruction, physical structure, mechanism, process, concept-principle, hypothesis-theory, characteristics, force, social structure, state situation, adaptation, system/production and classification. The pedagogical value of topic type is helping L2 students in their reading and writing. In other words, the value of the topic-type approach for ESL students is that it allows the use of authentic texts, thereby providing an opportunity for students to work with the actual syntax and lexis which they will meet in their subject disciplines. lt thus provides face validity and should encourage the principle of intertextuality to come into play, thus assisting transfer.lt also involves an interactive approach to text, whereby top-down and bottom-up processing can take place conjointly, the topic-type acting as the controlling schema, and while the dominant focus is on the semantic level(with the surface level seen as its realization), the approach allows for subsequent focus on the rhetorical and surface levels and for authentic tasks to be completed in follow-up work.

Learners should be pushed to write on a range of topics. Topic is most likely to have an effect on the vocabulary that is used as each topic is likely to have its particular technical topic related vocabulary. Covering a good range of topics in a course ensures that a wide range of vocabulary is used. The topic-type approach helps learners to analyze a text and see how information are classified through reference to certain super-ordinate semantic categories, through his analysis learners can rewrite a text (composition) based on the different categories of information deduced from the topic-type. Nation (2008:127-133) states that the greatest value of a topic-type approach is in gathering ideas for writing where the topic clearly fits into a known topic type. Using guiding questions like those proposed by Davies for the twelve topic-types mentioned above can be a very effective way of putting learners in control of the data gathering part of the writing process. The following example is taken from the list of the topic-types given by Davies with their information constituents: [11]

Process --state or form of object/material--location + time or stage + instrument or Agent +property or structure + Action

Social structure--- Member or Group-- location(place, time)+conditions+Effects+event or innovation(Davies 1985:8).

Topic-type approach helps learners widen their schema of different topics which lead to casy recall of the incorporated features or ideas in the students' writing.

7. Transfer of Learning

Learners may remember that they learned these words, but they will not be quite sure exactly what they learned. These questions are about the transfer of learning.

Whenever something previously learned influences current leaming, transfer bas occurred (Wittroick, 1996). If a student learn the meaning of a word in a given context and use it days or weeks later in another context, then transfer has taken place. However, the effect of past learning on present learning is not always positive. If a learner grasp the meaning of a word

in a situation and is unable tore-use it in a new one, this is called in psychopedagogy 'functional fixedness' (inability to use what has been learned previously in a new situation) which is an example of negative transfer.

Salomon and Perkins (1989) describe two kinds of transfer, tenned low- road and high-road transfer. Low-road transfer "involves the spontaneous, automatic transfer of highly practiced skills, with little need for reflective thinking" (118). The key to low-road transfer is practicing a skill often, in a variety of situations, until the performance becomes automatic. So if a learner practice the guessing strategy on any text be meets, after certain period of time, he probably would be able to guess the meaning of new words from most texts easily. The learner practice with many texts would let him/her transfer his/her strategy automatically to a new situation.

High-road transfer, on the other band, involves consciously applying abstract knowledge learned in one situation to a different situation. For instance, if a learner has met the word 'cement' used as a verb as in 'we cemented the path', and deduce its meaning and learn it, then he uses it in new context such as 'we cement our relationship with a drink'. In this situation, transfer is successfully achieved.

The key to high-road transfer is mindful abstraction, or the deliberate identification of a principle, main idea, strategy, or procedure that is not tied to one specifie problem or situation but could apply to many. Such an abstraction becomes part of the leamers' metacognitive knowledge, available to guide future leaming.

7.1 Teaching for Positive Transfer

Students will master new-knowledge, procedures, and learning strategies, but they will not use them unless prompted or guided. For example, studies of real-world mathematics show that people do not always apply math procedures learned in school to solve practical problems in their homes or grocery stores (Lave, 1988; Lave &Wenger, 1991). This is the case in foreign language learning, learners do not always apply the learned vocabulary in their writing and speaking. This happens because learning is situated, that is, learning happens in specific situations. Because knowledge is learned in a particular situation, we may not realize !hat the knowledge is relevant when we encounter a situation !hat seems different, at least on the surface (Anderson, 1989:304-05).

To reach transfer effectively two conditions have been stated by Woolfolk (2004:305), how well students understood the material to be learned, material !hat is memorized by rote is unlikely to transfer to new situation no matter how thoroughly it was mastered. Learning must be contextualized.

To have something to transfer, students must first learn and understand. They will be more likely to transfer information to new situations if they have been actively involved in the learning

process. Satisfactory learning is unlikely to take place in the absence of sufficient motivation to learn. Corder (1967:196) states that in language teaching, given motivation, a student will inevitably learn a language if she/he is exposed to date of that language. Motivation, then, is that energizer which drivers forwards the learning operation for success. lt is widely recognized !hat motivation is of an immense importance for successful SL leaming. lt affects the degree of attainment to which individual learners persevere in learning tbe SL, the types of leaming behavior and their real acbievement, as proposed by Ellis (1994).

Anotber aspect for worth leaming is !hat of comprehensible input. Krashen's(l985) input bypotbesis posits that language is pickcd up, or leamed when leamers receive input from texts which contain language a little above their existing understanding and from which they can infe.r meaning. An ideal source for leaming L2 vocabulary from context is reading because it contextualizes lexical items for students and show how words are used in natural situation items for students and show how words are used in natural situation to ensure effective transfer in similar or different situations. Teachers should provide students with interesting input. The more interest, the more deep processing, remembering and successful use of the material.

Greater transfer can also be ensured by over learning, practicing a stratcgy or a vocabulary learned item past the point of mastery.Over learning helps students retrieve the information quickly and automatically when it is needed. The more learners practice the new words they have learned througb different aetivities and contexts the more retention and successful transfer are aehieved.

7.2. Stages of Transfer Strategies

Sometimes students simply do not understand that a partieular strategy applies in new situations or they do not know to adapt it to fit.

Gary Phye (1992-2001) suggests we think of the transfer of learning strategies as a tool to be used in a 'mindful' way to solve academie problems. He deseribes three stages in developiing strategie transfer. ln the acquisition phase, students should not only receive instruction about a strategy and how to use it, but they should also rehearse the strategy and practice being aware of when and how they are using it. In the retention phase, more practice helps students hone their strategy use. ln the transfer phase, the teacher should provide new situations that help the students to use the same strategy, even though the situation appears different on the surface.

Positive transfer is encouraged when vocabulary is practiced under authentic conditions, similar to those that will exist when vocabulary is needed. In other words, vocabulary is transferred successfully in new situation depending on how it was learned at the first time. According to Nation and Newton (2008:48), information transfer bas a useful role in pushing learners' production. By providing original input, vocabulary can be deduced and learned, and learner can use to re-write a text based on the given input.

8. Good Language Learner and Vocabulary

The Ahmed (1989) study was amongst the first to elicit vocabulary strategies leamers spontaneously employ.The good learners were found to be more aware of what they could leam about new words, paid more attention to collocation and spelling and were more conscious of contextual leaming. Good leamers leam vocabulary through reading they immediately practice the new leamed words by keeping a notebook where words are put in sentences of their own to ensure retention and positive transfer in new contexts. By, contrast, the underachieving leamers refused to use the dictionary and almost always ignore unknown words. They were generally characterized by their apparent passiveness in leaming. They also took each word as a diserete item unrelated to previously learned words. Another study that explored students' ability level and their guessing strategies is Schouten-van Parreren (1989). It was found that, compared to their counter parts, weak students tended to focus on the problem word and ignore the context,

their knowledge of the world was more restricted, they had difficulty integrating knowledge from different sources, and they bad difficulty generalizing from words they had already leamed to slightly different new words.

Conclusion

One way to see the overall task of vocabulary learning is through the distinction between knowing a word and using a word. In other words, the purpose of vocabulary learning should include both remembering words and the ability to use them automatically in a wide range of language contexts when the need arises. Thus, each strategy a learner uses will determine to a large extent how and how well a new word is learned and us

Chapter Four : The Study

Introduction

1.Hypothesis

2.Design of the Study

   2.1. Combination of Methods

   2.2. Qualitative Approach

   2.3. Quantitative/ Experimental Approach to Language Teaching Research

3. Population and Sampling of the Study

   3.1. Population

   3.2. Sample

4. Data Collection and Procedures

5. Methods of Analysing Data

   5.1. The Teachers' Questionnaire

   5.2. The Learners' Questionnaire

   5.3. The Interview

   5.4. The experiment

6. Pedagogical Instruments of the experiment

   6.1. Texts

   6.2. Tests for Vocabulary Learning in Context

   6. 3. Production Tasks

   6.4. Consolidating Task

Conclusion

Chapter Four: The Study

Introduction

In this chapter we present a number of methodological considerations concerning the research design which is both qualitatively and quantitatively-based. We also discuss the choice of tools used to gather information about the subjects of the study and the methods we relied on in the interpretation of students/teachers answers. In addition, we shed light on the pedagogical instruments used in the experiment according to the reviewed literature about some vocabulary activities that we relied on in the present study.

1. **Hypothesis**

Generally, students' failure in acquiring vocabulary may originate from major reasons; students' styles, motivation, and difficulty in the retrieving process of the acquired items in new contexts. All these factors affect the proficiency levels achieved by different learners.

The underlying hypothesis is that learners of English will enhance their vocabulary proficiency level and ease their retrieving process of the acquired items in new contexts if their learning styles and motivation are focused on and are taken into consideration. In other words, the general hypothesis can be stated as follows: if teachers focus on the learners' learning styles, match their teaching styles accordingly, and attempt to raise their motivation, this may help them for better vocabulary acquisition. So the observable and measurable variables on which this hypothesis is built are:

Independent variables: focusing on learners' styles, matching the teaching styles accordingly, and raising their motivation.

and Dependent variable: learners' vocabulary acquisition.

2.   Design of the Study

The research design is both qualitatively and quantitatively based as is discussed bellow.

2.1. Combination of Methods

The nature of the subject to be treated dictates the choice of the research method, i.e. the topic, the aim of the research, the sample under investigation and the collected data, impose the use of specific method.

Since the present study is designed to establish the importance of learning styles and motivation as interrelated and inseparable factors that directly contribute to the process of learning/teaching and how they affect students' vocabulary acquisition as a key aspect of developing proficiency in a SL for writing purposes, we opt for a combination of qualitative and quantitative research tools. Combined methods work is not that new, appearing in the work of Campbell and Fiske (1959), for example. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003) claim that there has recently been an increase of interest in combined approaches from a number of sources. Educational research claims are stronger when based on a variety of methods (National Research Council 2002).

To review briefly, Brown defines quantitative data as information " gathered using those measures which lend themselves to being turned into numbers and statistics. Examples might include test scores, student rankings within a class, or simply the number of males and females in a program" (1989: 231). Qualitative data will be defined here as information gathered using techniques that do not necessarily lend themselves to being turned into numbers and statistics. Examples might include meetings, interviews, open-ended questionnaire items observations, etc (Lynch 1997).

2.2. Qualitative Approach

When the objective of a study is to explore situations, behaviours and processes, a qualitative seems better indicated than a quantitative approach. Known to be used mostly in

fields such as psychology, sociology and anthropology, qualitative research has been recently introduced in educational research. Verma and Mallik (1999) point out that such an approach has been used to inform many disciplines. Discussing the utility of case studies, in particular, Verma and Mallik highlight the strengths and weaknesses of such a research device as follows: their remarks are listed under a) and b) respectively:

a) "…It allows the research to focus on a specific instance or situation and to explore the various interactive processes at work within that situation".

" Its supporters stress the meaningfulness of the data, gathered as it is from the interaction between people and events in their natural environment".

b) " Information obtained by this method cannot be generalized and there is always a danger of the findings being distorted as a result of unrecognized biases in the researcher".

"(it) is one of the more difficult methods to use in educational research".(118)

Obviously, one has to weigh meanings against numbers; put otherwise this refers to a choice between two options; derive meanings and concepts that may be specific to one situation only or obtain figures and numerical patterns with higher generalizability.

Remarks in a) above highlight two aspects of case studies or a qualitative data-based study, they make it possible for a researcher to break a focal area into "manageable bits" so as to conduct a thorough investigation of a phenomenon. The second positive aspect depicts the close relationship between data gathered and reality. Reality is precisely one among other advantages emphasized by Nunan(1992). Aware that remarks under b) clearly point to such features as validity, reliability and generalizability, we now examine them briefly.

Reports of some "skepticism", voiced by proponents of experimental design, with regard to control(by researchers) over these two requirements are pointers towards great caution. A fairly widespread criticism is that given the type and function of research procedures which are based on a qualitative design, it might prove difficult for a researcher to keep things under control and

ensure the results obtained a greater amount of generalisability. Notwithstanding the claim, we might all the same value Holliday's (2001) suggestion that differently to quantitative methods, a qualitative approach is not bound to rigorous methodology; it thus allows for adaptability to the purpose of investigation and context.

> It (qualitative research) has the resources to be liberated from a tight step-by-step approach…Whereas the rigour in quantitative research is in the disciplined application of prescribed rules for instrument design, the rigour in qualitative research is in the principled development of strategy to suit the scenario being studied (8).

It is thus conceivable that an approach which seeks qualitative data varies in form and type. Rigour applies to the researcher's procedural moves and the need for informed decisions to be taken during data exploration phase.

In support of the view, Cresswell (1994) sets a number of conditions to be met if a study is to truly help a researcher to understand the theme being investigated.

These are summed up in a) to d) below:

a) A study ought to be appropriate to the context and the sample of people.

b) Elicitation procedures/devices should address focal themes in the study at hand.

c) Researchers in person should design the instruments and conduct interviews; they should strive to minimize subjectivity and maximize objectivity.

d) Data collection and analysis procedures should ensure high confidentiality with regard to the identity of the participants and information elicited.

Merriam (1998) warns against a few drawbacks; adding to those brought to attention by other scholars and pertaining to validity, reliability and generalizability, she pinpoints a risk of " oversimplification or exaggeration of a situation…". But foremost, and like Verma and Mallik, Cresswell (ibid), she emphasizes ethics, and the necessity to take into account confidentiality of claims or statements and people's identity as well as the demands made on the researcher's capacity to collect and analyze data.

Thus, appropriacy to the context under concern, exhaustiveness and careful design feature qualitative research and case study in particular.

To conclude the above brief discussion of qualitative-based design, we might also pinpoint the fact that a given design might gain credibility when it is a user of well selected techniques and procedures.

2.2. Quantitative/Experimental Approaches to Language Teaching Research

An experiment is defined as "a situation in which the researcher observes the relationship between two variables by deliberately producing a change in one and looking to see whether this alteration produces a change in the other" (Gorard& Taylor 2004).

The most formal kind of applied linguistics experiment might involve research that tests whether method A or method B is more effective. According to Brown and Rodgers (2009) such experimental study would have the following characteristics:

  a. Students are randomly selected and assigned to two groups;

  b. Two experimental conditions or treatments are provided; and

  c. For both groups, a pre-test and post-test are given.

The two groups of participants are assumed to be equivalent because they were assigned to the groups randomly. Both groups will be pre-tested. One group, usually called the control group, will receive a control treatment in the form of standard instruction; the second group, often called the treatment group, will receive the experimental treatment in the form of some new approach to teaching. Finally, both groups will receive a post-test, which will indicate what changes have occurred in either groups. This is a typical experimental design.

However, there are many studies reported in the literature which lack one or more of the finding characteristics of a true experimental study. At the lower end of the scale which some commentators have called XO studies (Brown& Rodgers 2009), where X is some kind of

educational treatment and O is an observation following the treatment. As Campbell and Stanley note:

Much educational research today confirms to a design in which a single group is studied only once, subsequent to some agent or treatment presumed to cause change. Such studies might be diagrammed as follows:

XO

Such studies have such a total absence of control as to be of almost no scientific value…It seems well-nigh unethical…to allow, as theses or dissertations in education, case studies of this nature (Campbell and Stanley 1963: 176-77).

More adequate experimental designs are generally of one of four types. These four types (A, B, C, &D) are shown in table 8. It would seem to follow from the above that an ideal experimental study would be of type D. Often, however, second language researchers are unable to obtain randomly selected groups of participants and have to deal in their experiments with already existing intact groups. Thus, although the classes might be assumed to be at the same educational or language learning level and thus equivalent, they have not been pre-tested or randomly assigned to groups. Such variation from the formal requirements for a true experiment as stated by Brown and Rodgers (2009) causes such a study to be called Quasi-Experimental. It is often difficult to conduct educational studies with human participants(i.e. real students and real teachers) that are pure experimental studies. Thus, most studies in our field tend to be quasi-experimental rather than truly experimental.

	One treatment	Two treatments
One group	A Pre-test/Post test. Single group followed throughout treatment.	B Treatments may be simultaneous or sequential. For example, one might involve two L2s taught with two different methods.
Two groups	C Groups vary on some assumed critical dimension such as age, sex, intelligence, motivation, etc	D Classic method studies involving a a control group and an experimental group, each taught by a different method.

Table8 : Experimental Approaches to Language Teaching Research (Brown& Rodgers 2009)

3. Population and Sampling of the Study

3.1. Population

According to Miller(1975), the term population is used in statistics to refer to all subjects of a particular type. We take samples through which we seek to make inferences about the target population. There are two ways of selecting the population: using pre-existing groups as they occur in nature- true experimental groups- or using groups constructed for the experiment-quasi-experimental groups.

In our study, we opted for using pre-existing groups. The population, to which we wish to generalize to the results of the experiment, is second year L.M.D students in the Department of Letters and English Language, Faculty of Letters and Languages, Constantine1 University. The total number of the students during the University year 2011-2012 was ≈ 520 scattered over 12 groups. They study written expression module for 3 hours per-week divided in two sections, 1h30mn for each.

3.2. Sample

A sample is relatively small group selected from a population. This group is supposed to be representative of the target population. When developing a research with the human and social sciences, we generally take a sample of the population to which we wish to generalize the finding of the study. The sample of the present study consists of 52 students selected randomly following the Stratified Sampling. It permits the researcher to identify subgroups within a population and create a sample which mirrors these sub-groups by randomly choosing subjects from each stratum (Yount 2006). Such a sample according to Yount is more representative of the population across these sub-groups than a simple random sample would be. Subgroups in the sample can either be of equal size or proportional to the population in size. Equal size sample subgroups are formed by randomly selecting the same number of subjects from each population subgroup percentages in the population are reflected in the sample. Our sample in the present study is a proportionally stratified sample. Bellow are the steps we followed the following to create a stratified sample of 520 students:

1. The population is 520 students.

2. The desired sample size is 10% or 52 students.

3. The variable of interest is learners level. There are three subgroups; good, average, and bellow average.

4. Classifying the learners into the subgroups. Based on the results we get from the department 15% or 78 are good students, 40% or 208 are average, and 45% or 234 are bellow average.

5. Our sample consists of 52 students. So, 15% of the sample(78) should be 8, 40% (208) should be 21, and 45% (234) should be 23.

This is our proportionally stratified sample.

6. We now have a sample of 52 (8+21+23), which is representative of the population (520 Studs) and which reflects proportionally each teaching level.

We opt for this type of sampling to test the effect of learning styles and motivation on vocabulary acquisition for different proficiency levels.

4. Data collection and Procedures

To achieve the research' aim and attempt to confirm the hypothesis; data collection requires an experiment we led in four steps. First, teachers' questionnaire and learners' questionnaire were administered. Then, a pre-test was organized. In the next step, the sample was divided into two groups -of equal number- representing an experimental group and a control group. Only students of the experimental group were interviewed and they learned vocabulary through an exposure to different strategies and through the provision of a variety of motivating activities. After two months break, a post test was administered.

Seliger and Shohamy (1989) consider the questionnaire as being one of the procedures of data collection a researcher can use to provide her/him with a good and expanded picture of the phenomenon she/he is studying. " In second language learning research, questionnaires are used mostly to collect data through different but inter-related and inter-dependent questions on phenomena which are not easily observed"(35). This research has made use of two questionnaires: one questionnaire about students' attitudes towards leaning , teachers' styles, motivation, and vocabulary acquisition. , and the other, a teachers' questionnaire about their teaching styles, motivation, and vocabulary teaching.

Since we want to know every learner's style in order to individualize him/her and match our vocabulary teaching methods to his/her learning style we opted for an interview. A formal interview consists of a series of well-chosen questions which are designed to elicit a portrait of a student's understanding about a scientific concept or set of related concepts and it provides feedback that is especially useful to instructors to improve their teaching and the organization of

their courses (Souther Land, Smith & Comms 2000). The interview may be videotaped or audio taped for later analysis. In this study, we rely on Cloze, Fixed-Response Interview where all interviewee are asked the same questions and asked to choose answers from among the same set of alternatives.

According to Campbell and Stanley (1963:223-27), the experimental research design consists of organizing an experimental treatment and an observation or measurement of the effects of the treatment. Two major designs prevail: the one-shot design where a single treatment is given to a single group or individual. The group or the individual is then observed, tested, or measured and the one group pre-test + post-test where we rely on a pre-test, a treatment and a post-test. The pre-test is given prior to the actual experimental manipulations. The scores obtained in the test form a base line against which we will measure the effects of the manipulations. By comparing the results obtained in the post-test, given at the end of the experiment, with those of the pre -test, the researcher is provided with data to either confirm or refute the hypothesis.

The experimental cross-sectional study was opted for because studies of this type produce findings more quickly; they are less likely to suffer from control effects and are more likely to secure the co-operation of respondents: the learners generally participate in the experiment with enthusiasm and do not show any stress. The post-test was taken a long time after the pre-test to avoid the likely disadvantages of the system - the pre-test may sensitize the subjects to specific aspects of the treatment, which would confound what is measured by the post-test.

The choice of the texts from which we teach vocabulary was selected through conducting an informal needs analysis. According to Iwai et all (1999), formal needs analysis generally refers to the activities that are involved in collecting information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the needs of a particular group of students, however,

informal needs analysis have been conducted by teachers in order to assess students' needs and what they are interested in.

The choice of the activities to consolidate the meaning and the use of the acquired words from the texts was selected in match with students' needs and learning styles, and the same thing for the productive activities.

5.1. Methods of Analyzing Data

Inherent to qualitative data analysis is that nothing is taken for granted. Each piece of datum is to be scrutinized and identified in terms of both what it represents and any connection it might bear with another data bit. Hence, the necessity to code and label the various bits for what they represent and continually search for the conceptual links that exist between them. Such links would allow for "natural" clustering of data bits or data segments to occur. In other words, bits of data which denote similar topics will naturally fit into a corresponding group. A category is thus formed that requires a label or name that depicts its essence. Then links across groups should, together with shared features, lead to additional clusters of meanings. Concept forming is determined by the extent to which a) the set of clusters obtained include alike data bits and b) the extent to which these differ from one another in essence.

The general picture we gather is that every step in the analyzing process is both purposeful and principled. There is no random move in the process of de-constructing a text in order to show how it "grounds" reality.

On the other hand, experiments are almost always analyzed using inferential statistics. That is, they are analyzed using statistical computations that allow the experimenters to make inferences about what is going on- particularly what is going on with respect to their original research questions. As analyzing descriptive research data , you can compute frequencies and percentages, display the scores on a histogram, determine measures of central tendency (mean, mode, and median), and calculate estimates of dispersion(low-high, range, and standard

deviation) (Brown& Rodgers, 2009). Once you have computed these, you will want to know if the difference between the two means is significant or not. Significance is a statistical way of talking about whether the difference between two groups' means is biggish or smallish (Alderson, Clapham, and Wall,1995). When comparing pairs of means the statistical measure typically used is the t-test.

5.1. The Teachers' Questionnaire

Most teachers' questionnaire consists of more or less open-ended questions. The purpose of choosing such a type of questions is to gather as much information as possible. The purpose of choosing such a type of questions is to gather as much information as possible. However, some half-open questions which propose options to choose from are also used. The choice of the first or the second type is dependent on the nature and purpose of the question, and the information that is sought; so, the type of questions is mainly dependent on the research question and hypothesis.

5.2. The Students' Questionnaire

The method of analyzing data of the questionnaire is as follows:

a. In questions like age, sex, and type of "Baccalaureate", numbers, percentages, and tables have been used.

b. In half-closed questions with options to choose from as well as the options " other, please specify", or "why", again numbers, percentages, figures, and tables have been used, as well as analyses and comments.

c. In additions to all those methods of analyzing data, useful and significant correlations between different questions have been used so as to tackle the issue of learning, teaching, and vocabulary from different angles according to how they are conceived of by students.

II

5.3. The Interview

According to Seliger and Shohamy (1995) and Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005), data which results from interaction between teachers and learners or students in a learning context are to be analysed as " learner language"; here content results from interaction for learning purposes.

Interview data were treated as "talk" and we were interested in the "meaning" that are contained in the talk (Silverman, 2000, Patton, 2007). Deriving from interaction, interview data makes up a piece of discourse. According to Silverman (2000), it is talk exchange, which when transcribed turns into text. However, in view of the particular context and the interactional nature of the exchanges between interviewer and interviewee, it is believed to turn into conversation rather than another type of talk of the type above mentioned commonly held between teachers and learners for study purposes and nowadays consensually called "interactional talk". Data obtained by means of interview consists of a text. Its characteristics is that it owes its existence to a particular context a particular purpose and one or more participants who are knowledgeable of the situation and the phenomenon which the study purports to explore. Talk in an interview is to be turned to script, and then freezes as text(Silverman ibid). This is believed to ease the analytical process. In the present study the students answers were videotaped then analysed as written discourse. The method we relied on to analyse data is the use of illustrations, numbers, percentages, and comments.

5.4. The Experiment

Since we want to measure the effect of matching teaching styles with learners' styles and enhancing their motivation on vocabulary acquisition, we relied on t-test as statistical measure.

According to Brown and Rodgers (2009), the t-test is the most frequently used measure in second language research when comparing mean scores for two groups. The t-test, with a bit of adjustment, can also be used to compare mean scores of just one group, say between a pre-test and a post-test, when checking to see if some skill had been acquired by the group during training.

The t-test is presented with the symbol t. It is a very useful measure because it can be used with very large or very small groups. The adjustment for group size is made by using a table that shows different values for various group sizes. Group size is adjusted for by degrees of freedom. Degrees of freedom (df) for t-test can be determined by subtracting one from the number of participants in each group and then adding the two resulting numbers together.

Adjustments for differences in types of decisions is made by considering one-tailed and two-tailed decisions separately. These two concepts work very much like directional and non-directional decisions for correlational analyses . One- tailed decisions for t-tests are like directional decisions in correlational analysis in the sense that you should use them when you can reasonably expect one mean to be higher than the other; two-tailed decisions for t-tests are like non-directional decisions in correlational analysis in the sense that you should use them when you have no reason to expect one or the other of the means to be higher.

6. Pedagogical Instruments of the Experiment

6.1. Texts

Vocabulary used to be offered to learners in the form of lists .Nowadays, the tendency is to present vocabulary in texts. For vocabulary building purposes, texts - whether spoken or written - have enormous advantages over learning words from lists. For a start, the fact that words are in context increases the chances of learners appreciating not only their meaning but their typical environments, such as their associated collocations or grammatical structure. Moreover, it is likely that the text will display topically connected sets of words (or lexical fields) Evidence suggests that words loose(y•connected by topic may be easier to learn than more tightly connected lexical sets.

Short texts are ideal for classroom use, since they can be subjected to intensive grammatical and lexical study, without over taxing leamers' attention or memory, as my be the

case witb longer iexts. Leaming to cope with short texts is also good preparation for independent reading and listening; iocluding dealing with longer texts moreover short texts provide useful models for student production, in the form of speaking and writing.

According to Thombury (2002:53), a characteristic feature of cohesive texts is that they are threaded through with words that relate to the same topic-wbat are sometimes called lexical chains. This is even more likely if the tex!is authentic - that is ,if it bas not been especially written or doctored for the language classroom.

Different kinds of texts are likely to display different lexical features. Academie writing, for example, is noted for having a bigher proportion of nouns over verbs than non-academie texts. Not only that, but the nouns are often stacked together with adjectives or nouns (or both) to from relative!y long sequences. On the other band, less formai kinds of texts also have their own lexical characteristics. Horoscopes in magazines, for example, are typically rich in idiomatic language, including phrasai verbs.

Their typical environments, such as their associated collocations or grammatical structure. Moreover, it is likely that the text will display topically connected sets of words (or lexical fields) Evidence suggests that words loose(y•connectcd by topic may be easier to learn than more tightly connected lexical sets.

Finally, short literary texts offer multiple possibilities for vocabulary development. It goes without saying that writers and poets choosc their words carefully, not only for their meanings but for their formai features as weil. (Someone once defined poetry as "the right words in the right order"). Seeing how writers put words to use for their expressive function can only hclp enrich the network of word associations for the leamer.

6.2. Types of Tests for Vocabulary Leaming in Context

Vooabulary tests oan be divided into tests of: recognition and production (Thombury 2002: 93-102)

There are many different kinds of tasks thal teachers can set leamers in order to help move words into long-lerm memory. Sorne of these tasks will require more brain work than others.That is to say, they will be more cognitively demanding. Tasks in which leamers make decisions about words are devidcd by Thombury (ibid) into the following types, roughly arranged in an order from least cognitively demanding to most demanding:

- ldentifying

- Selecting

- Matching

- Sorting

- Ranking and sequencing

Identifying words simply means finding them wbere they may otherwise be "hidden", such as in texts. Selecting tasks are oognitively more complex than identification tasks, since they involve both recognizing words and making choices amongst them.This may take the form of choosing the "odd one out". A matching task involves first reoognizing words and then pairing them with -for instance- a visual representation, a translation, a synonym, an antonym, a definition, or collocates. Shorting activities require leamers to sort words into different categories. The category can be given, or –guessed. Finally, ranking and sequencing activities require learners to put the words into sorne kind of arder. This may involve arranging the words on a cline: for example, adverbs of frequency (always, sometimes, never, occasionally, often, etc).

6.3. Production Tasks

The decision -making tasks we have been looking at are principally receptive: learners make judgments about words, but do not necessary produce them. However, tasks that are productive from the outset are those in which the learners are required to incorporate the newly studied words into sorne kind of speaking or writing activity. Tbese can be classified as being of two main types:

- Completion -of sentences and texts
- Creation of sentences and texts
- Compositions and essays

Thornbury states that sentence and text completion tasks are what are more generally known as gape-fills. They are usually writing tasks and they are often used in tests as they are easy to design and mark. They have many different formats, but a basic distinction cao be made between open and closed gap-fills. The open type is one when the learner fills the gaps by drawing on their mentallexicon. In a closed gap -fil!, on the other hand, the words are provided, in the form of a list at the beginning of the exercise, for example .lt is sim ply a matter of deciding which word goes in which gap .ln completion •tasks, the context is provided, and it i:s simply a matter of slotting the right word in. Sentence and text creation tasks, however, require learners to create the contexts for given words.Here are sorne typical tasks instructions:

• Use each of these words to make a sentence which clearly shows the meaning of the word.

• Choose six words from the list and write a sentence using each one.

• Use each of these words to write a true sentence about yoursetf for someone youknow.

• Write a short narrative text which includes atleast five words from the list.

• write a short essay using the previously learned words

In the present research, we relied on ten authentic texts from" An Integrated Course for Advanced Students " (see appendix III and IV) because the texts in this book have beeo fond suitable for teachers to leach vocabulary in authentic context and for students who wish to study on thcir own. The passages in this book are multi - purpose texts. Each passage is used to trnin the students in the following: reading silently, understanding ; vocabulary ;and composition. ln other words, passages in this book aims at training the students' three skills: understanding, reading and writing. The passages provided by this book are rich in terms of unknown vocabulary words and are examples of weil structured English. ln addition, they ail discuss interesting topics for students. The questions used with the passages are almost ali about vocabulary and writing a composition .For vocabulary questions students are required to explain the meaning of difficult words as they are used in each passage the question about the composition contain topic related to the previously mentiooed passage or a different topic with elues related to the passage to help students use the learned vocabulary in their writing.

6.4. Consolidating Vocabulary Tasks

In the present study we relied on pre-reading lesson. Vocabulary activities can easily start of a pre-reading lesson. When it comes to using vocabulary activities, a pre-reading lesson should contain some if not all, of the new vocabulary.

Fun Vocabulary Games and Activities

There are a variety of fun vocabulary activities that have game like features and are very motivating at the same time.We used some in the present study. The activities were selected to suit every student's learning style (we relied on comprehension activities for field dependent students and on activities that need a focus on details for field independent students). Here are some:

a. Giving the students a few definitions corresponding to 5-6 vocabulary words and the students guess the word;

b. Word association where students jot down all the words linked to the target (this activity enrich the schematic framework of the word)

c. Giving the students a situational context and they need to use the vocabulary learned;

d. Fill in a sentence using a choice from three words we gave (multiple choice)

e. Rearranging letters to make appropriate English words;

f. Matching items where students are given a list of possible answers or definitions which they have to match with other list of words;

g. Information transfer which is a reading comprehension task where students have to transfer words and phrases from the text on to a chart, table, form or map (Alderson et al 1995);

h. Ordering activity. In this activity the subjects of the study are asked to put a group of words and phrases in order (it is a reading comprehension task);

i. Editing activity. Here we gave the candidates a sentence or passage in which vocabulary errors have been introduced which the candidate has to identify and look for the suitable word;

j. Gap-filling activity in which the candidate is given a short passage in which some words or phrases have been deleted. The candidate's task is to restore the missing words;

k. Cloze-test(a gap-filling reading activity). It requires the students to integrate lexical knowledge in order to be able to supply the missing words. A close test according to McNamara (2000), "is a reading test, consisting of a text of approximately 400 words in length. After an introductory sentence or two which was left intact, words were systematically removed-every 5th, 6th,or 7th word was a typical procedure- and replaced with a blank. The task was for the student to supply the missing word" (15-16).

l. C-activity in which mechanical deletion is involved, but this time it is every second word which is mutilated, and half of each mutilated word remains in the text in order to give the student a clue as to what is missing. Each blank in the text must be filled by the second half of a

word. If he whole word has an even number of letters, then exactly half are missing. If the whole word has an uneven number of letters, one more than half are missing (Alderson et al 2000).

The activities mentioned above were selected based on the following literature provided by Schmitt (2000); most frequently mentioned in the literature are the following:

• Word manipulation. This includes examples of tasks such as match¬ing words and their definitions, grouping words, finding the odd one out, etc.

• Integrating new words with the already known. Activating linguistic pre-knowledge and knowledge of the world creates a link between new words and already known words. In the process of creating the links, new words become more meaningful and organised, and thus easier to learn. This can be achieved in various ways, as for example by semantic elaboration.

• Semantic elaboration. It facilitates the creation of links and semantic networks, as well as deep level of processing. According to Sokmen (1997), the following are procedures based on semantic elaboration: semantic feature analysis (e.g. a componential analysis); semantic mapping, which also serves as a visual reminder of links between words; ordering or classifying words, which helps learners to organize and distinguish differences in meaning between words; pictorial schemata, such as grids or diagrams, which emphasize distinctive features and require learners to deeply process words by organizing words and making their meanings visual and concrete. These techniques are also suitable for presenting and revising collocations.

• Creating mental images by drawing diagrams, illustrations of mean¬ing etc.

• Personalization. Personalization makes the learning material psycho¬logically 'real'. It can be achieved by giving personal examples, i.e. by relating a word to real events or personal experience, etc.

• Tasks for word identification. The aim of these tasks is to get learners to pay attention to specific lexical items and to recognize their form. Concrete examples are finding words in a text, working on a 'word snake' puzzle, solving anagrams, etc.

• Tasks for recalling words from memory. Activating knowledge, i.e. an attempt to recall a word's meaning with the help of the given form or vice versa, by recalling the form on the basis of given meaning, and thereby enhancing memory. Therefore, the teacher should deliberately encourage recall at spaced intervals. This task may be realized through a number of activities: acting the word out, replacing the word with its synonym or antonym, giving a definition, translation, cross-word puzzles, etc. Also, reading activities stimulate word identification.

• Tasks for expansion of lexical knowledge. These are concerned with providing additional information on lexical items in order to cover as many components of lexical knowledge as possible. The activities that seem worthwhile in this respect are analysis of word formation, analysis of grammar categories and forms, highlighting collocations, etc.

• Productive use of words. By using words in a meaningful context learners create mental links. Activities that promote productive use of vocabulary include the following: completing sentences or texts, with words offered or not, using words in sentences, conversations, stories, etc.; various games (e.g. Hangman, I spy, Bingo). All speaking and writing activities by definition include productive use of vocabulary.

• Multiple encounters with the word. All above-listed activities can offer learners opportunities to encounter words many times and in different contexts. A variety of tasks and multiple encounters of a word ensure a more systematic coverage of various aspects of lexical knowledge and enable learners to build up an adequate lexical knowledge and consolidate it in long-term memory.

Conclusion

Considering the vital importance of students' learning styles and motivation in foreign language learning, one expects that a detailed attention is given to it. An examination of the situation in the department of Letters and English Language, however, shows that it is not the

case. The present study is designed to establish the importance of learning styles and motivation as interrelated and inseparable factors that directly contribute to the process of learning/teaching and how they affect students' vocabulary acquisition as a key aspect of developing proficiency in a SL for writing purposes. Accordingly, the tools of analysis and the methodology adopted have been explained.

Chapter Five : A Qualitative Investigation of Teachers' and Students' Questionnaires

Introduction

1. **The Teachers' Questionnaire**

   1.1. Description of the Questionnaire

   1.2. Analysis and Interpretation of the Teachers' Questionnaire

2. **Summary of the Findings**

3. **Learners' Questionnaire**

   3.1. Description of the Questionnaire

   3.2. Analysis and Interpretation of the Learners' Questionnaire

4. **Summary of the Findings**

5. **Correlation of the Results of the Two Questionnaires**

Conclusion

Chapter Five: A Qualitative Investigation of Teachers' and Students' Questionnaires

Introduction:

In this chapter both teachers' and learners' questionnaires are described and analysed. The teachers' questionnaire investigates the views and impressions about students' learning styles and their teaching styles, motivation, and teaching vocabulary. The students' questionnaire investigates students' opinion about their studies, their teachers' styles, motivation, and vocabulary acquisition. At the end a correlation of the findings of both questionnaires is made.

1. The Teachers' Questionnaire

The administration of the questionnaires and their collection was held from hand to hand. 25 questionnaires were given to teachers of written expression at the University of Constantine1, Department of Letters and English Language and were collected two days later. 20 questionnaires were given back: the teachers, who did not return 5 questionnaires, were absent the day of the collection of the questionnaires and did not hand them in at a later date.

1.1. Description of the Questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire seeks to collect data about the teaching qualification and experience and mainly to investigate their views and impressions about students' learning styles and their teaching styles which, in the self- determination perspective, is crucial in the enhancement or undermining of motivation. Besides this, teachers are invited to express themselves on motivation. At last, they are introduced to the most important issue which is teaching vocabulary as a crucial aspect in SL proficiency.

The questionnaire (see Appendix I) consists of 29 questions divided into 5 sections;

Section One: Teaching Qualification and Experience (Q1—Q4)

It aimed at collecting information about the respondents' teaching qualification and experience, and the different levels they teach. In addition, it investigates teachers' awareness about the main teaching approaches and methods that have emerged; the purpose of this question

is not to give a full account of teaching approaches and methods; it is more about the useful teaching and learning insights that teachers may get from an acquaintance with the subject.

Section Two: Learning Strategies/Styles and Teaching Strategies (Q5—Q9)

This part investigates how teachers consider students' learning styles and strategies and their teaching strategies.

Section Three: Motivation (Q10—Q14)

This section inquires about teachers' view about motivation and learning and about motivation and vocabulary acquisition. It investigates the importance given by teachers to motivation. Teachers are then invited to say if they consider their students motivated intrinsically or extrinsically according to the categorization proposed by Deci and Ryan. Then, they express themselves on the factors that enhance motivation and those that undermine it, and state if the environment in which they are exercising their job is motivating for their learners. At last, teachers are asked about their view towards motivation and vocabulary acquisition. They are asked too if they motivate their students to read in order to acquire vocabulary and if they use motivating activities to enhance their students' vocabulary acquisition.

Section Four: Teaching styles (Q15—Q20)

In this part, teachers' teaching styles are investigated in connection with autonomy-support and control. Firstly, it questions teachers about the impact of teachers' styles on students in general; secondly, it tacitly investigates teachers' view about some autonomy-supportive attitudes versus some controlling ones; thirdly, it tackles intrinsic and extrinsic motivation through some external factors and some constraints that subtly indicate whether the teacher's attitude is autonomy-supportive or controlling.

Section Five: Teaching Vocabulary (Q21—29)

This section deals with the investigation of the different techniques teachers' use when teaching any new word in class and if they motivate their students to acquire new items. It

inquires also about the different procedures both teachers and students have resource to whenever dealing with an unknown word in class. At last, it inquires about the check of students' vocabulary learning and which activities the teacher relies on to achieve this aim.

1.2. Analysis and Interpretation of the Teachers' Questionnaire

Section One: Teaching Qualification and Experience

1.　　What degree do you have?

　　　B.A 　　　　☐

　　　M/Magister 　　☐

　　　Doctorate 　　☐

Degrees	Number of Teachers
B.A	6
M/Magister	12
Doctorate	2
Total	20

Table 9 : Teachers' Degree

Nearly, the majority of teachers have Magister (16), six teachers have B.A and only two have doctorate. This indicates that there is no big significant difference between teachers' qualifications.

2.　　How many years have you been teaching written expression?
　　　....... years

Number of years	Number of teachers
1	4
2	4
3	4
4	3
7	1
9	1
22	1
27	1
32	1
Total	20

Table 10 : Teaching Experience

The average teaching experience of the teachers is approximately 4 years. The longest teaching experience is of 32 years, and the shortest is of 1 year. This indicates that teachers belong to different generations, and thus have most probably used different types of approaches in teaching.

3. What level(s) have you been teaching?

1st ☐

2nd ☐

3rd ☐

Levels	Number of teachers
1st	3
2nd	6
1st + 2nd	6
1st + 3rd	2
2nd + 3rd	1
1st + 2nd + 3rd	2
Total	20

Table 11: Teaching Experience of Written Expression Teachers by Level

Eleven teachers have taught more than one level: six taught 1st and 2nd levels, one taught 2nd and 3rd levels, two 1st and 3rd levels and two taught the three levels. The others(9) have taught only one level: 6 taught 2nd year and three taught 1st year. No teacher taught the 3rd year only. This indicates that generally, the same teachers are in charge of the same levels.

4. Which teaching methods are you acquainted with? Which do you prefer to use in your teaching?

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………

This question is meant to inquire about teachers' knowledge about the evolution of teaching methods and the most successful methods that teachers may draw insights from. Before commenting teachers' answers, let's give some sample answers:

a."The teacher method" is so far the best method. It so depends on the type of students one has in his/her class. It's not that easy to really and frankly decide upon a strait-jacket method, isn't it?."

b. "I personally use the communicative method in my classes since the teaching material is always linked to a context."

c. "There is no one specific teaching method I am familiar with. I assume that my teaching is eclectic: I use a combination of different methods that could be communicative and interactive, structural, task-based, more students/learners centered ways of teaching. I have no preference of any particular method of teaching; I prefer the one that students derive some learning benefits from."

d. "My approach is rather eclectic in the sense that every aspect of the course will require one particular method."

e. "Learner-centered methodology which focuses on learners' commitment."

According to teachers' answers in general, it seems that most of them are well acquainted with different kinds of teaching methods. The main problem lies in their beliefs that an eclectic way of teaching is so far the best way of teaching. Out of the 20 teachers who completed the questionnaire, 13 referred to eclectic way of teaching. It is true that being eclectic means being dependent on no particular method. As a consequence, teachers enjoy some freedom and a room of manoeuvre that allows them to adapt their teaching to the teaching situation at hand.

However, an eclectic method is almost devoid of meaning. Eclectic means everything and nothing at the same time. It is not clear and the risk here is an improvised and/or random way of teaching. Moreover, only the "jack of all trades" can manage to meet his students' expectations and at the same time enhance their motivation with such an eclectic method. Very few teachers referred to some methods or approaches that they themselves adopt. For instance, the learner-centered method is given by five teachers. In actual fact, there is such learner-centered method. It is more an approach than a method. This particular method (as teacher call it) is learner-centered in the sense that it starts with the beliefs that the learner is an active agent in the learning-teaching process and the role of the teacher is mainly to promote his involvement by means of a motivating environment and a clear definition of the learner's role and the objectives to achieve. Only two teachers said that they use the communicative method in their classes because they prefer teaching in a real context.

Section Two: Learning strategies/Styles and Teaching Strategies

5. When you choose a teaching material do you take into consideration your students':

      a. Needs ☐

      b. Styles ☐

      c. Both ☐

      ☐

d. None of them

Options	Number of Teachers
a	3
b	2
c	2
d	13
Total	20

Table12 : Teachers' Instructional Decisions in Relation to their Students

The results obtained show that the majority of teachers (13) when they choose a teaching material do not take into consideration their students' needs or styles. Only three teachers said that they take into consideration their students' needs, and two teachers base their choices on the multiple learning styles brought met in their classrooms. On the other hand, a very surprising result shows that a very few minority (2 teachers) design their teaching material in relation to the different preferences of their learners and what they need as a beneficial material.

In all academic classrooms, there will be students with multiple learning styles and needs. Teachers should make instructional decisions before, during, and after meeting the students, and these decisions lead to tailored instruction to individuals or groups in the classrooms.

6. Do you think that your students have different learning styles?

   Yes ☐   No ☐

   If no, does it mean that they share the same learning style?

All teachers recognized that learners possess different learning styles.

   If yes, should teachers get documented on the subject, or can they on impulse notice them and adapt their teaching accordingly? ||

……

……

…………………………………………………………………………………………

Some teachers' answers are given:

a. "You are talking about an ideal teaching. Who really does his/her job, a teacher who has motivated students and motivating environment, and many other things…"

b. "I think being aware of such things is always useful, but one should not be too idealistic and should adapt such theories to the context of teaching"

c. "Most teachers ignore learning styles and strategies and develop only one way of teaching. Teachers really need nowadays to vary activity/task types"

d. "Frankly, with the diversity of the learners' styles I teach following a way that fits me and make me feel at ease with the material that I am teaching."

The answers are not surprising since this question is linked to question "5".

First of all, we feel that this question has stirred the deep emotions of teachers who suddenly started to reveal their genuine inner feelings about the matter.Few teachers believe that students' learning styles is such an important issue that teachers ought to know and build their teaching accordingly. Others continue to complain about the disparity between researchers' findings and our teaching and learning realities. A third group of teachers believes that despite the inadequacies of teaching and learning circumstances, it is yet still possible to get out of this awkward situation cleverly.

Secondly, as all teachers admit that students have different learning styles which require adapted teaching, constant reference to the context, the situation, the learning conditions, etc., denotes, I am afraid, a certain lassitude on the part of teachers before such obstacles. Usually, when problems or obstacles have been identified, as is the case by teachers, it is possible to undertake remedial solutions to counteract their negative effects on learning and teaching.

7. Do you think that matching your teaching styles with your learners' styles enhance their achievement?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………

Some teachers' answers are given:

a. "It is all this"

b. "Sure the match raise the students' motivation and achievement, but in ideal situations."

c. "Well from my experience in teaching and the level of our students I can say that even when we match our teaching styles to the students' styles it is not going to enhance their achievement since almost all of them come with the idea of "passing their exams" and that's all."

d. "Teachers' attitude and ways of teaching can either motivate or demotivate students. Having a positive attitude towards what we teach and using efficient teaching techniques and procedures that match with our students styles and raise their interest in our classrooms generally result in students' learning"

Teachers' answers shows that they all agree on the idea, but they keep on complaining about the bad teaching conditions. Others (3 teachers) do emphasize on the idea that to enhance the students learning "we have to design our teaching in relation to our students' styles". If we compare their answers with the ones in question "5" we see that a small minority are using this technique in their classrooms.

8. Which learning strategies do you favour?

a. Push students to look for some significant details in the written material? [   ]

b. Just ask them to concentrate on the gist? [   ]

Options	Number of teachers
a	11
b	9
Total	20

Table 13: Learning Strategies that Teachers' Favour

This question was a tricky one indeed. It is true that there are several learning strategies that if adequately administered will not only improve students' learning in general and their receptive skills in particular but will enhance motivation by means of motivating strategies and tasks and teachers' teaching styles as well.

The results of teachers' answers reveal that most teachers opt for option "a", "push learners to look for some significant details in the written material" and not far from this, a significant number of teachers (9) opt for option "b", "just ask them to concentrate on the gist".

These are some strategies students can be taught to use in reading. It is very important to merely expose learners to varieties of written English. Teachers also need to urge their students to go and read at home to reinforce and consolidate what they are doing at the university. It is undoubtedly useful and important to use tasks that show learners the appropriate strategies but this shouldn't be an end in itself. The end should be to expose learners and mainly to monitor.

9.   On the basis of the tasks you assign your students, what strategies do you want them to use? Why?

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………… ‖

Here are some teachers' answers:

a. "As students have different learning styles, I tend to use standard communicative tasks and cater for the range of styles. To put it simply, I devise both tasks that aim at developing the students' general understanding of the input and those that foster the students' ability to make sense of small details that relate to one another to gradually make the students grasp the whole of the input dealt with. I do so because I know that there are different types of learners, global learners and analytic learners, among others."

b. "Anticipation is the most important strategy; on the basis of background knowledge every student predicts what comes next; every step of understanding helps the students to go ahead in the next tasks and hence becomes a permanent challenge."

c. "I have no pre-conceived strategies in my mind, frankly speaking, when I start teaching."

d. "They have to concentrate, pay attention to minute details, and learn and know."

e. "Teachers should first be aware of the fact that students have different styles of learning; they should be informed about all these styles and attempt to adapt or make their teaching in line with the students' ways and preferences of learning."

Teachers' answers in general are discrepant. Some emphasize teaching strategies that take into consideration students' disparate learning styles, others stress anticipation which is in their mind crucial to understanding, and others argue that before they start teaching they have no strategies in their mind; for them, it is the students and mainly the context which decide upon some strategies and not others. In any case, all these attempts are all laudable to motivate students and give them the best solutions for their learning.

Section Three: Motivation

In this part, teachers give their impressions about the role of motivation in learning in general and foreign language learning in particular. They are also invited to express themselves about their students' motivation.

10. Do you think motivation is important in learning?

………

………

…………………………………………………………

Some teachers' answers:

   a. "Any learner should be motivated to and have willingness to try new learning strategies in any teaching learning operation. Without motivation, there is no guarantee of learning."

   b. "Affectively, topics that are related to students' age interest are much more motivating than others. Transactionally purposive activities can create a motivated atmosphere."

   c. "Motivation is rather important. I should say that topic if adequately selected may be itself a source of motivation together with the teacher's ability to motivate students."

   d. "Extremely important"

   e. "Every aspect of teaching is bound to motivation. I don't see how it is likely to do otherwise."

   The comments are unquestionably clear. All teachers recognize that motivation is a key element in learning and success. Some teachers (rather hastily) have already taken the bull by the horns arguing that some motivational strategies reinforce motivation. Others have been even more specific by arguing that transactional purposive activities can create motivation. In learning, variety in activities, strategies, topics, etc., is crucial if we are to create and reinforce motivation.

11.   What are in your opinion the factors that undermine motivation?

………

II

………

…………………………………………………………

Some teachers' answers:

a. "Too many. A good timetable, good teaching atmosphere, equipment, and most of all small groups (up to 20, not more)."

b. "The learning context including the material used and the quality of teaching, the wrong conception of studies in the mind of learners."

c. "Motivation is undermined if the topic chosen may be boring, i.e., going around a situation that is altogether not able to help students use their abilities to use their writing competence."

d. "Threatening, over dominating teachers. Injustice of opportunities for learners to express their ideas."

e. "Well, the factors could be anxiety, attitude, and the teaching learning conditions."

Most teachers (15 teachers that represent 75%) refer to learning conditions, topic, timetable, writing materials, etc. However, very few (4 teachers) refer to teachers' attitude. One teacher yet referred to controlling teaching style as being responsible for the undermining of motivation. He/she spoke about threatening, over-dominating teachers. This proves that some teachers, at least, are quite conscious about autonomy support and control.

What teachers though have omitted to mention are students' current level and teachers' expectations of their students in accordance with a programme. In the self determination theory, perceived competence is very important in enhancing or undermining motivation. We believe that students' current level and teachers' expectations constitute the major factors that undermine motivation.

Indeed, most of our learners come to the university with a relatively low level in English. Of course, the reasons are numerous and diverse but will not be treated in this research. As a consequence to this, we think that there exists a disparity between students' level and teachers' expectations. No sooner had teachers started teaching than they would immediately realize that

the students are basically not up to the level that allows them to follow, understand, ask questions, and prepare works. More than that, the students' level is coming down each year.

As soon as teachers realize that their students have quite a low level in English, their motivation is unfortunately affected. When teachers have a programme to cover and at the same time feel that they inevitably have to lower down the level of teaching so as to go along with their students' pace, teaching, learning, and motivation are knocked silly. This issue deserves to be taken in charge more globally.

12.   What are in your opinion the factors that enhance motivation?

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………

Some teachers' answers:

a. "The teacher's attitude, good social learning environment, (the classroom setting…), the aim of learning: professional reasons, purely intrinsic individual learning reasons."

b. "Diversity of input and activities, freedom of opinions, equal opportunities for learners whatever their levels of proficiency."

c. "To enhance motivation: the teacher's choice of an adequate topic is rather important. Hence, students might feel boosted and so captivated by the topic."

d. "Keep small groups; a suggestopedic environment (nice rooms, nice equipments, and the like)."

Most teachers put forward the learning environment and conditions. For them, motivation can be enhanced if such conditions and environment are improved to allow learners express their capacities and their intrinsic capabilities. However, most of them, again, complain about the unsuitability of such conditions. Some other teachers have emphasized teachers' attitudes in the

classroom. They think that if teachers are fair and allow learners to express themselves without any partiality, students' motivation is thus enhanced (this indeed relates to teaching styles). Few teachers (4) raised the issue of students' intrinsic motivation and its importance in learning.

13.   How would you rate your students' motivation? Are they:

a. Motivated intrinsically   ☐

b. Motivated extrinsically   ☐

c. Unmotivated   ☐

d. Further comments   ☐

Options	Number of teachers
a	3
b	12
c	5
c	0
Total	20

Table 14: Rate of Students' Motivation by their Teachers

According to teachers' answers, it seems that most of them (12 teachers) consider that their students are rather motivated extrinsically. A small number of teachers (5) thinks though that most of their students are unmotivated. Very few teachers consider some of their learners motivated intrinsically. As we see, the picture is rather not very encouraging. One wonders why teachers have answered like this. The reasons have already been expressed above, but for

practical reasons, let's state some of them:

a. As our students come with a relatively low level, their motivation is certainly affected when they realize that they face real difficulties to follow.

b. The fact that most teachers consider their students motivated extrinsically seems in accordance with everyday life in general which is rather material bound in which material gains represent the end in everything.

c. The learning and teaching environments and conditions are to a large extent unfavourable to the blooming of intrinsic motivation.

14. Is the learning environment:

a. Motivating

b. Demotivating

Please, explain briefly why?...

…………………………………………………………………………………………………...

Let's give some teacher' answers:

a. "Demotivating. This could be due to some teachers' attitude, oversized classes, students' level…"

b. "Demotivating. Large groups of students, limited and poor materials, etc. The wrong conception in the mind of the students. Most of them believe in a magic formula that would allow them to learn the maximum. Most of learning, in reality, happens outside the classroom and depends on the daily personal effort. Students, these days, do not read out of what is assigned to them."

c. "Demotivating. Crowded corridors, cold or hot and stuffy, cell-like rooms with no grand opening; some dictation-bound teachers; crowded groups, etc. I guess that all these do not really motivate students."

d. "Demotivating. Huge number of groups, no time to give equal opportunities to all learners, lack of materials."

As we can see, all teachers regard the learning environment as rather demotivating. This is dramatic. Teachers in their arguments have tried to explain why they think that the learning environment is demotivating. Globally, the reason centres around five basic things:

. Poor and inadequate equipments

. Stuffy and cell-like rooms and labs

. Numerous and large groups of students

. Some teachers' attitude (controlling, dictation-bound, etc.)

. Students' level

However, what all teachers haven't highlighted is the effects of such conditions on teachers' motivation. When they say that the environment is demotivating, they only mean for learners. It is true that the general tendency nowadays, is learner-centered. Nevertheless, if teachers are demotivated, the consequences are even more serious

Section Four: Teaching Styles

15. To what extent do you think that students' motivation and achievement are dependent on their teachers' teaching styles?

Some teachers' answers:

a. "To some extent students may be somewhat motivated. But the teachers' attitude, if rather positive and stimulating can be a major source of motivation."

b. "To a great extent, the teacher is responsible of creating a healthy, confident and enjoyable atmosphere of learning."

c. "It is all this."

d. "The teachers' attitude is very important. It is well-known that to like the teacher is to like the topic taught. The teacher should avoid anything that may be a source of students' uneasiness. A certain sense of humour is most helpful and stimulating."

e. "Teachers' attitude and ways of teaching can either motivate or demotivate students. Having a positive attitude towards what we teach and using efficient teaching techniques and procedures in the classroom generally result in students' learning."

All teachers consider teachers' teaching styles as crucial in enhancing or undermining their students' motivation. They distinguish between what they call positive teachers and negative ones. In the subsequent question, we will see how teachers conceive of this issue.

16. Controlling and severe teachers are said to be more competent and more serious than autonomy-supportive ones. Do you agree with this view?
Some teachers' answers:

a. "It could be rather the opposite. Being controlling and severe can turn out to be an impediment to any students' progression."

b. "Not I don't think so. Being severe teachers may demotivate students to learn. A teacher should be tolerant, flexible and understanding. As learning is our main concern, we should not create any psychological obstacles in our classrooms."

c. "I do not fully agree. I believe that being well at ease is a prerequisite for learning."

This question is indeed a very important one. It relates to the opinion that people may have of teachers. The commonplace belief is that almost everybody in his/her inner feelings think that controlling teachers are more respectable, more awe inspiring, and, more importantly, more competent than autonomy-supportive ones. Reeve (2004) above, in the eleven reasons justifying why teachers are rather controlling, explains clearly in reason ten that controlling teachers are rated by parents and students themselves as more competent than autonomy-supportive ones. In education, this wrong idea cannot be overcome easily. We saw in chapter I that new approaches and new insights are little by little giving their fruit in connection with teachers' styles, people's

perceptions of competence, and people's awareness of the distinction between autonomy-support and disorder.

As for teachers' answers, it seems that teachers are basically against severity. However, what these teachers are not well documented on is that severity does not necessarily mean control. Severity is a behavior that teachers may adopt so as to have control of the situation or to discourage some trouble-makers or disrespectful students; it is just part of control. On the other hand, control is more tacit. It is not necessarily expressed by teachers by showing irritation or being unpleasant; it is more related to all teachers' behaviors' and attitudes in class that students notice and feel and are therefore influenced by them. Generally speaking, most teachers hardly distinguish between autonomy-support and permissiveness, and severity and control.

17.   When you give students an assignment, do you:

        a. Give students time to work in their own way   ☐

        b. Let them work and interfere   ☐

        c. Give them a limited time   ☐

        d. Control what they are doing so as to interfere   ☐

Options	Number of teachers
a	8
b	2
c	3
d	7
Total	20

Table 15: Teachers' Reaction When they Give their Students an Assignment

Most teachers (15 teachers) chose options "a" and "d", i.e., "give students time to work in their own way" and "control what they are doing so as to interfere". 3 teachers opted for option "c" "give them a limited time" and only 2 teachers choose option "b" "let them work and interfere".

The first option is significant of autonomy-supportive teaching whereas the second option for teachers is related to controlling teaching. To give students time to work in their own way does not mean to be permissive with them. On the contrary, autonomy-support means to give students some responsibility and to create a contact with them.

18.   When some student shows that he/she is doing well, do you:

     a. Praise the quality of his/her performance

     b. Encourage others to do the same

     c. Reprimand others for not doing the same

     d. Other, please specify

Options	Number of teachers
a	9
b	8
c	3
d	0
Total	20

Table 16: Teachers' Feedback When their Students Do Well

Most teachers opt for options "a" and "b" whereas only 3 teachers chose option "c". This means that they are for positive feedback and, at the same time, would like to see other students get inspired by the brilliant ones and do well too. Feedback is more controlling than informative.

19.   How do you see competition in the classroom? Is it:

a. Constructive

b. Destructive

c. Other, please specify

Options	Number of teachers
a	15
b	5
c	0
Total	20

Table 17: Teachers' View about Competition in the Classroom

From the table above we see that most teachers regarded competition as constructive. Their arguments in favour of competition turn around the belief that competition prompts students to imitate each other and, therefore, to work harder and harder. We think that this issue is deeply related to the opposition between competition and cooperation. Competition is basically when students want to get the highest marks and to gain their teachers' esteem for hard work while cooperation is when students cooperate to learn and succeed together.Taken from this perspective, competition creates negative feelings among learners and, the same as marks, creates jealousy and makes the learning atmosphere full of adversity.

From the self-determination perspective, competition undermines intrinsic motivation and does not lead to better learning. Moreover, if competition is coupled with rewards it becomes even more destructive in the sense that it may create animosity between students. Cooperation, on the other hand, is more productive because it creates an atmosphere of the mutual help

between students to the extent that unmotivated students can find interest in learning. It all depends on teachers. Autonomy supportive teachers are likely to be more in favour of cooperative learning; whereas the less autonomy supportive ones are more in favour of competition.

Unfortunately, teachers are rather in favour of competition. This of course does not necessarily mean that our teachers are rather controlling ones. However, and this is a commonplace belief, most people believe in the power of extrinsic factors to enhance motivation. Such extrinsic factors nonetheless undermine more than they reinforce motivation.

20.   In your teaching, do you:

a. Have freedom to teach according to what you think is right for students

b. Strictly respect the programme

c. Other, please specify

This question is a very good example of potential causes of teachers' controlling attitudes when they are teaching. Let's come back again to the eleven reasons for teachers' controlling attitude put forward by Reeve (2004) above. In fact, reason 4, namely, teachers are themselves subjected to controlling, pressuring conditions within their jobs. This is true to a large extent. Most teachers feel their hands tied up whenever the matter is about teaching. Usually, teaching a module involves covering a programme that is not always interesting. Furthermore, teachers are very much concerned with discipline so as to teach correctly. The consequence of all this is that as teachers feel pressured and controlled, and as autonomy-support is not yet on the agenda in education in general, they in turn control and put pressure on students willy-nilly. Autonomy-support is yet to be recognized and adopted as a motivating attitude. Besides all this, relative absence in teacher-training programmes of how to design instruction to promote students' autonomy does not encourage teachers to engage in such adventurous enterprise.

Concerning teachers' answers to this question, it seems that most of them think that they enjoy some freedom to teach freely. However, what is actually taking place is that most of these teachers are unaware that they are overwhelmed by the programme that they have to cover and by their students' discipline because of the environment.

Section Five: Teaching Vocabulary

21. Do you present new words in every lesson?

Yes ☐   No ☐

	N	%
Yes	13	65
No	7	35
Total	20	100

Table 18: Rate of Teachers Who Present New words in Every Lesson
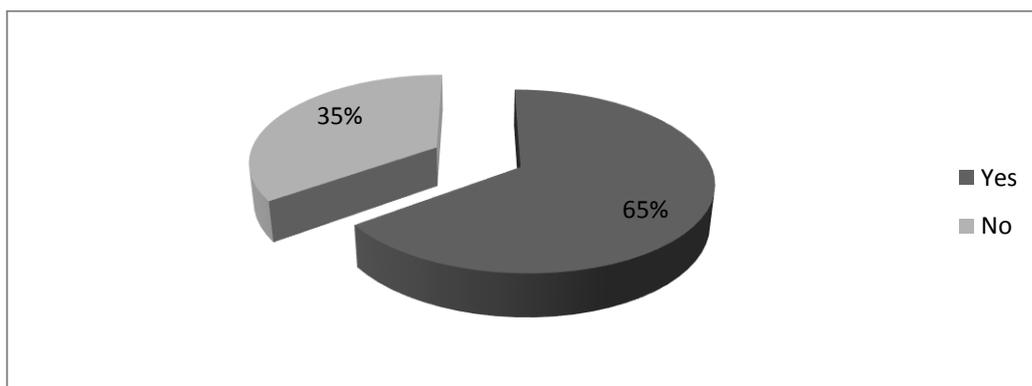
Figure 4 : Rate of Teachers Who Present New Words in Every Lesson

II

65% of teachers present new words in every lesson. This result shows the importance that teachers give to the teaching of vocabulary, considering it as an important component of their teaching of a FL.

22.Do you use texts to teach vocabulary?

    Yes   ☐   No   ☐

If yes, do you motivate your students while reading to acquire vocabulary?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………….

	N	%
Yes	5	25
No	15	75
Total	20	100

Table 19 : Rate of Teachers Who Use Texts to Teach Vocabulary

Results obtained show that the highest majority of teachers (15 out of 20 teachers)do not use texts in teaching vocabulary whereas only 5 teachers present new vocabulary in texts. The results reveal that the majority of teachers still follow the traditional method of teaching vocabulary in isolation without a reference to written context.

Only 5 teachers use texts to teach vocabulary. Here are some answers provided by teachers:

a. "yes, I motivate my students because if students are not motivated to learn vocabulary through reading the gap in vocabulary knowledge will be larger and subsequently is likely to hinder students' acquisition".

b. "yes, I do motivate my students since reading is the best way to get exposure to unknown words".

c. "sure, students without motivation for vocabulary learning might not persist in learning new words encountered in written texts".

As for teachers' answers, there is a casual relationship between the learning of vocabulary and the reading process and motivation. This is clearly revealed through the fact that the more learners are motivated to read, the better the outcome of vocabulary improvement will be.

23.Do you explain all the unknown words in a text?

Yes ☐   No ☐

	N	%
Yes	6	30
No	14	70
Total	20	100

Table 20 : Rate of Teachers Who Explain all the Unknown Words in a Text
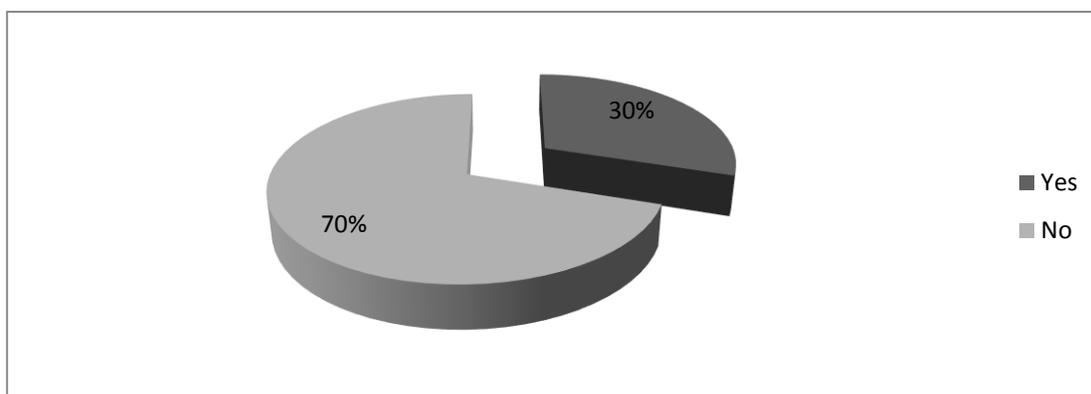
Figure 5 : Rate of Teachers Who Explain all the Unknown Words in a Text

The majority of the teachers (70%) said they do not explain all the unknown words. This means that they explain the words they think are important for the understanding of the text. These words are generally content words that teachers consider as key words.

If yes, do you do it:

a. Before reading ☐

b. During reading ☐

c. After reading ☐

Moment of explanation	N	%
a	1	16.66
b	3	50
c	1	16.66
b+c	1	16.66
Total	20	100

Table 21 : Rate of Teachers Who Explain Words Before, During and After Reading
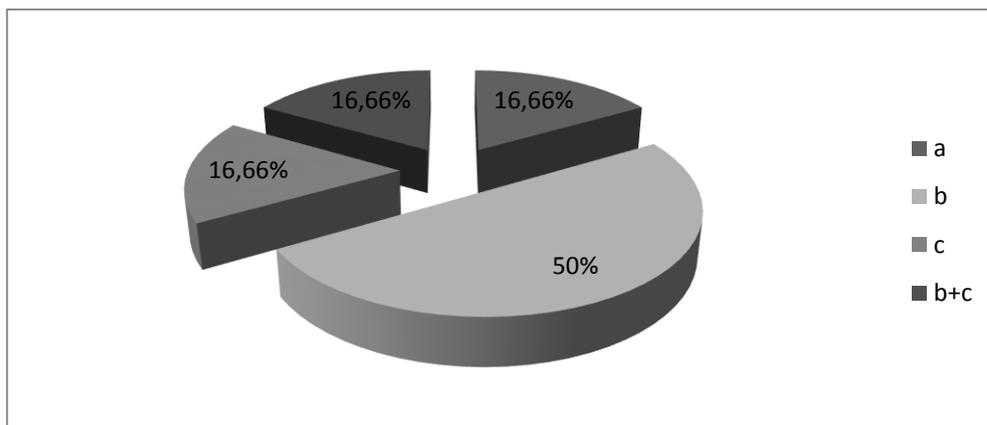
Figure 6 : Rate of Teachers Who Explain Words Before, During and After Reading

‖

Option "b" (during reading) recorded 4 answers (3 during reading+1 during reading and after reading). Option "a" (before reading) recorded 1 answer. Option "c" (after reading) recorded 2

answers (1after reading+1 during reading and after reading). So the most common answer given by teachers is "during reading" followed by "after reading".

24.   Which technique do you use to explain the meaning of new words?

a. Translation

b. Definition

c. Word in context

d. Synonyms/opposites

Techniques used to teach new words		N	%
c		1	5
c+d		9	45
b+d		2	10
a+d		1	5
b+c+d		4	20
a+b+c+d		3	15
Total		20	100
Other	Gestures/mime	2	
	Realia	2	
	Dictionary	1	

Table 22: Techniques Used to Teach New Words

It appears from table that the most used techniques are "d" (giving synonyms and opposites) 19 teachers used it (9 "c+d", 4 "b+c+d", 3 "a+b+c+d", 2 "b+d", 1 "a+d") and putting words in context "c" used by 17 teachers (9 "c+d", 4 "b+c+d", 3 "a+b+c+d", 1 "c"). We think that these

two techniques make the learners memorize the new words easily and help recalling them at any moment. Nine teachers use definitions. This can be explained by the fact that it is difficult for the learners to memorize or write dawn a definition since most of the time the latter necessitates the use of other unknown words. Only four teachers opted for translation. This implies that teachers think that since they are teaching a foreign language (FL), the use of the L1 (mother tongue) must be prohibited. 5 teachers mentioned other techniques they use when presenting new words. 2 use realia; 2 teachers explain words using gestures or mimes; 1 teacher stated that s/he gives the opportunity to his/her learners to look words up in the dictionary.

25. Do you match your techniques with your students' preferred strategies while explaining the meaning of the unknown words?

Yes   ☐   No   ☐

	N	%
Yes	6	30
No	14	70
Total	20	100

Table 23: Rate of Teachers Who Match or Mismatch their Techniques with their Students' Strategies While Explaining the Meaning of Unknown Words

This question is very important in the process of learning in general and in teaching vocabulary particularly. Results in the above table reveals that only 6 teachers out of 20 while explaining the meaning of unknown words for their students, match the techniques they use with the preferred strategies of their students. Whereas the highest majority of teachers answered "no" i.e, they do not take into consideration their students' strategies in teaching vocabulary.

If yes, do you think that the match enhance students' vocabulary acquisition?

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

Some teachers' answers:

a. "It is all this"

b. "When the learning styles and strategies of students and the teaching styles match this will raise students' will to acquire a big number of vocabulary"

c. "Students will gain more input, retain more words, and perform better when teaching styles match with their learning styles"

As for teachers' answers, to increase students' vocabulary acquisition there must be a link between their teachers' styles and strategies and their preferred way of acquiring vocabulary. It has been mentioned in chapter I that Felder and Henriques (1995) hold that matching teaching styles to learners' styles can significantly enhance students' vocabulary acquisition and attitudes especially in foreign language instruction.

26.   Do you make a kind of needs analysis to know about your students' needs and learning styles in teaching vocabulary? Say why?

                Yes   ☐   No   ☐

Justify……………………………………………………………………………………………

	N
Yes	7
No	13
Total	20

‖

Table 24: Rate of Teachers Who Use/Don't Use Needs Analysis with their students to teach Vocabulary

The table above shows that only 7 teachers use needs analysis with their students whereas 13teachers said that they do not use it.

Some Answers by teachers who said "no":

a. "It is difficult to use it in our classes because we have huge number of students per group".

b. "We are restricted by the programme and we are limited by the time so we can not introduce needs analysis"

c. "the majority of teachers are not knowledgeable about the task so they teach only for the sake of teaching"

d. "full classes make it an impossible task"

e. "You're talking about a perfect situation…"

Some answers by teachers who said "yes"

a. "It helps to bridge the gap between teaching and learning styles which leads to better acquisition"

b. "To increase our students' learning in general and vocabulary acquisition in particular it is all this"

c. "If we do so, this is going to increase our students' motivation to acquire vocabulary in an effective way"

d. "It raises the teachers' awareness of the teaching task and help to direct them toward the appropriate choices for their students"

Teachers who answered by "no" keep on complaining about the bad teaching conditions; it reveals that they are not motivated to overcome the problems and enhance the quality of their teaching process. In other words, they are dependent on those conditions. Whereas the minority of teachers who said yes on the other hand, keep on emphasizing on the awareness of their learners needs and styles.

Bridging the gap between teaching and learning styles can only be achieved when teachers are aware of their learners' needs, capacities, and learning style preferences in meeting these needs. By developing awareness of learning styles and providing a variety of activities to meet the needs of different learning styles, learners are motivated to learn more vocabulary and become better learners.

27.   Do you check students' vocabulary learning?

Yes   ☐   No   ☐

	N	%
Yes	14	70
No	6	30
Total	20	100

Table 25 : Rate of Teachers Who Check Students' Vocabulary Learning
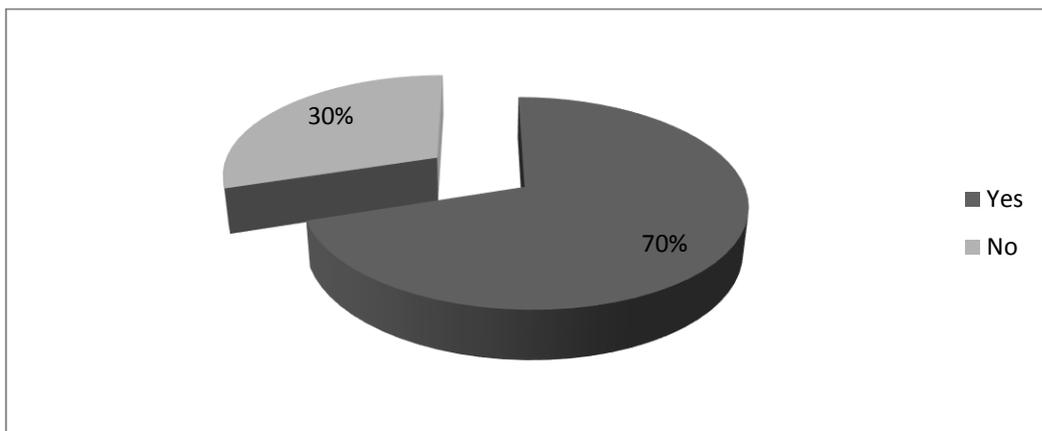
Figure 7: Rate of Teachers' Who Check Students' Vocabulary Learning

The vast majority of teachers (70%) affirm that they check their students' vocabulary learning; whereas 30% of the remaining teachers do not.

If yes, how often do you check it?

a. Always ☐

b. Often ☐

c. Sometimes ☐

d. Rarely ☐

Times	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Total
N	1	5	7	1	14
%	7.15	35.70	50	7.15	100

Table 26 : Rate of Times Teachers Check Students' Vocabulary Learning

The results show that teachers' check of vocabulary learning is not an occasional one: 50% of the teachers sometimes check it, and 35.70% do it often. Except one teacher is a regular user of this technique.

28.   Which activity(es) you use to consolidate lexical items?

a. Word association ☐

b. MCQ activities ☐

c. Vocabulary games ☐

d. Fill in the gaps ☐

e. Matching items with definition/synonyms ☐

Options	N
a	2
b	2
c	1

d	3
e	7
a+b	2
a+b+c	3
Total	20

Table 27 : Rate of Teachers Who Use Activities to Consolidate Vocabulary Items

The results obtained show that the majority of teachers (15 teachers) use only one type of activity to consolidate the meaning of the new vocabulary items. Only 5 teachers use multiple activities.

Since teachers are not aware of their learners learning styles the results obtained are expected. In all the classrooms we will have students with multiple learning styles. Teachers should provide a variety of activities to meet the needs of different learning styles. Then all students will have at least some activities that appeal to them based on their learning styles, and they are more likely to be successful in these activities.

29.   Which techniques/activities do you rely on to check students' recall of the learned vocabulary?

    a. Composition   ☐

    b. Guided writing   ☐

    c. Rewriting full sentences   ☐

    d. Matching items with definition/synonyms   ☐

    e. Fill in the gaps   ☐

Techniques/activities	N	%
a	5	25
a+b	6	30
a+c	1	5
a+e	3	15
b+c	2	10
a+b+c	1	5
a+b+d+e	1	5
No answer	1	5
Total	20	100

Table 28: Techniques Used by Teachers to Check Students' Recall of the Learned Vocabulary

As it can be seen in the table above, the most frequently used technique is composition 17 teachers use it (6 "a+b", 5 "a", 3 "a+e", 1 "a+c", 1 "a+b+c", 1 "a+b+d+e"). Technique "b" (guided writing) comes second with 10 answers . Techniques "c" (rewriting full sentences) and "e" (fill in the gaps) are not highly used by teachers. These techniques were opted for by 4 teachers. Technique "d" (Matching items with definition/synonyms) received the lowest answer, only one teacher use it. Therefore, teachers often use composition and guided writing to check the degree to which vocabulary has been learned by their students.

For further suggestion , 5 teachers wrote that, we need to convince students to read a lot since it is the most effective method to learn vocabulary, two others emphasized on the use of authentic texts for presenting (teaching) vocabulary.

II

2. Summary of the finding

The questionnaire has tackled the issue of teaching vocabulary within the framework of learning styles and motivation. It has investigated teachers' view and opinion about many learning and teaching issues, mainly learning/teaching styles, in connection with how vocabulary is taught, how motivation is accounted for, and how self determination can be achieved through autonomy-support. Through the analysis and the interpretation of the questionnaire, we can say that the selected teachers are a representative sample in what concerns the teaching experience, especially in the teaching of written expression. Based on the analysis above, the results demonstrate that teachers in general though more or less documented on the issue of teaching approaches and methods, do not actually take full advantage of their knowledge in their teaching. All teachers consider motivation a crucial element in learning and achievement but they generally seem to be not documented enough on how motivation can be enhanced or undermined. As far as learning/teaching styles are concerned, all the teachers said that they are aware about the fact that they have students with multiple learning styles but only a very few minority combines their teaching styles with their students' styles i.e. the results indicate that the learning styles of many students and the teaching styles of many teachers do not match. On the same vein, only this minority make curriculum choices and needs analysis to complement their students' interest, strengths and needs. When it comes to vocabulary teaching, the results demonstrate that teachers fail to give students effective strategies to learn vocabulary. On the one hand, a large percentage of the teachers do not require their students' extensive reading and only very few teachers consider reading texts as a useful activity to acquire vocabulary and tend to use it as a source of input in their classes . As a result, the students will be less motivated and will show a very restricted knowledge of vocabulary. The majority of teachers do not help foster their students' development of a large "word bank" and effective vocabulary learning strategies. On the other hand, most teachers tend to teach vocabulary explicitly and lack varieties of

teaching strategies and lack also the provision of a variety of activities to meet the needs of different learning styles. As what concerns what techniques teachers use to check students' vocabulary learning, teachers showed their frequent use of composition and guided writing that, they think, it boosts their learners performance.

3. The Learners' Questionnaire

The learners' questionnaire was handed in at the beginning of the university year 2011-2012 on the 28th of October. Only 48 students were present since it was the beginning of the year and not all students registered on time. The questionnaire was finished in class and collected immediately. The aim of this questionnaire was not mentioned explicitly in order not to bias the research. What was mentioned is only that this questionnaire will help in the preparation of a research work, it was also mentioned that they do not hesitate to ask any question whenever they do not understand a question or an instruction.

3.1. Description of the Questionnaire

The learners' questionnaire seeks to gather information about the students' age, gender, their choice to study English, and the results they obtained. It aims also to investigate students' opinion about their studies, their teachers' styles, their motivation, and vocabulary acquisition. The students were requested to answer the questionnaire by ticking the appropriate box and making full statements whenever required. The questionnaire (see appendix II) consists of 27 questions divided into 3 sections:

Section One: General Information about the Students Q1→Q5

This section is about the learners' age, gender, choice to study English, and results obtained in English exams.

Section Two: Learning, Teaching and Motivation Q6→Q18

This section puts a special emphasis on four main issues:

1. Students' view about their studies, i.e., whether they are satisfied or not with their studies. Satisfaction or dissatisfaction can have a big influence on motivation.

2. Students' view about their teachers, i.e., whether they consider their teachers as controlling or autonomy supportive.

3. Students' interaction in the classroom with their teachers and how their behavior affects their motivation.

Section Three: Learning Vocabulary Q19→27

In this section, we investigate what the learners prefer as a source of acquiring vocabulary and what they prefer as a skill to reproduce what has been learned. It inquires also about if students are motivated to learn vocabulary from reading texts and if their teachers do so to enlarge their scope of vocabulary acquisition. In addition, we investigate the students' vocabulary learning strategies, the recall ability of the learned vocabulary, guessing meaning from context, and the students' use of vocabulary in their writing performance.

3.2. Analysis and Interpretation of the Questionnaire

Section One: General information about the Students

Q1.Age

Age	N
19	4
20	8
21	6
22	11
23	5
24	6
25	4
26	2

27	2
Total	48

Table 29 : Learners' Age

Nearly all students are between the age of 19 and 27.The youngest student has 19 years old and the eldest is 27. This implies that their motivation to learn is different

Q2.Gender

Male   [ ]   Female   [ ]

Gender	N	%
Male	10	20.83
Female	38	79.17
Total	48	100

Table 30: Learners' Gender

The aim of this question is to check whether as has always been for several years now in the Department of English, University of Constantine 1 at least, girls by far outnumber boys. After the analyses of the results it has been found that boys constitute 20.83%, while girls represent 79.17%

Q3. Did you choose personally to study English at the university?

Yes   [ ]   No   [ ]

II

	Yes	No	Total
N	39	09	48
%	81.25	18.75	100

Table 31: Learners' Choice to Study English

This question is deeply interesting as it can reveal the possible link between free choice (self-determination) and intrinsic extrinsic motivation.

The results indicate that a high majority of students which represent 81.25% rather choose freely and 18.75 did not choose freely .At first sight ,this is rather encouraging .We may assume that being motivated means that they would make extra effort for better achievement in SLL.

. If your answer is no, say briefly who else participated in the choice

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

Below are some answers of students who did not choose freely :

a."I wanted to study "Medicine"

b. "My father and my sisters participate in the choice of studying English"

c. "My old brother and mum"

According to the students' answers , it seems that it is rather the family which usually takes part in the choice or imposes it . When we look at how "a" answered, we interpret that the student wanted to choose Medicine but probably his overage is not sufficient to opt for this field.

Free choice may indicate motivation .This issue has, unfortunately, not been perused in this research because it does not constitute the main object of investigation. In any case ,in spite of the fact that most students said that they had chosen freely to study English at the university,

many of them, perhaps had done it randomly, haphazardly, or simply to imitate their peers .This issue is presumably an interesting track to follow in future investigations .

Q4. Why did you choose to study English at the university?

    a. Future career   ☐

    b. You like English very much   ☐

Other; please specify……………………………………….................

……………………………………………………………………………

Options	N	%
a	33	68.75
b	09	18.75
c	06	12.50
Total	48	100

Table 32 : Students' Justification about "Why they Choose to Study English at the University"

According to the results shown in the table above, it appears that a high majority of students is rather motivated extrinsically. 33 out of 48 represent a high majority. If the option "future career" which, as it was explained above , indicates really extrinsic motivation (the main purpose behind this choice is an external desire, i.e, to find a job in the future), then it would mean that most of our students are rather motivated extrinsically. This implies that a big number of the students who chose this option are not completely interested in English for its own sake, but are rather more interested in what English can bring them –an extrinsic purpose. The number of students who chose option (b) "you like English very much" and who may be said to be

motivated intrinsically is only 09 out of 48. The number as it appears is quite small. Those students seem to chose to study English for the desire of pick up the language

Six students opted for "others". Below are some answers of students who chose to study English for other purpose :

  a. "Because English is a universal language"

  b. "I like travelling ……….."

  c. "I want to reach native fluency to chat and understand what is said in the films and songs"

  d. "I am forced to study this langue, I hate English"

According to the students' answers, it seems that they have chosen English not because they like it but because they think it is profitable. Only one student is rather inhibited to study this language only to satisfy the needs of his family.

Q5. Results obtained in your English exams.

Options	N	%
Below average	2	4 .16
Average	36	75
Good	09	20
Excellent	01	1.04
Total	48	100

Table 33: Students' results in their English Exams

The high majority of student(36) affirm that they have obtained average results. This high percentage means that students of English are not successful learners (good level). This can be linked to their purpose for studying English(need langue but not the content of the modules).

Section Two: Learning, Teaching and Motivation

Q6 . How do you describe your motivation to study English?

Low ☐

High ☐

Say why……………………………………………………………………………………...

……………………………………………………………………………………………...

	N	%
Low	15	31.25
High	33	68.75
Total	48	100

Table 34: Students' Motivation to Study English

According to the results shown in the table above, it appears that the majority of students which represent 68.75 from the sample population are highly motivated to study English. It is not the case for the remaining 15 students. These results prove at least one important thing, most students have a high desire to study English .

Below are some reasons of students who said that they have high motivation to study English:

a. "I like this language too much"

b. "I have an inner desire to study English"

c. "The university , my friends and teachers all these factors increase my motivation toward studying English" .

According to the students illustrations, it seems that it is the inner desire that characterizes students high motivation toward studying English .In spite of the fact that most student said that their inner desire is the cause of their high motivation some of them , were pushed by extrinsic desire .

On the other hand , students who constitute 31.25 from the sample population , justified their low motivation to study English as follows:
"Self confidence", "not their own choice" and "teachers luck of motivation" .

According to the students justification , it seems that it is rather the family ,which motivation usually take part in the choice or impose it , that hinder students motivation .other students link their low motivation to tow self-confidence .this can be interpreted in relation to self-efficacy for learning . when we look at how (c) justified his low motivation, can simply reveal that teachers' extrinsic motivation(use of incentives or motives) indeed appears to be a significant factor in enhancing students motivation toward learning .

Q7. Is this motivation expressed through :

       a. Raising hands to participate

       b. Asking and ansering questions

       c. Participating in class conversation

       d. Other, please specify…………………………………………………………

Options	N	
a	17	
b	10	
c	19	
d	02	Chatting on the net with
		Writing composition in English

Table 35: How Students Express their Motivation

- raising hands   need to secceed

 - asking and answering questions   interest

c- desire to achieve native like

d- desire to produce an output and achieve native like

This question deals with the student's way of expressing their motivation in the classroom. According to the above results , it is clear that students answers can be linked to their desire. Results to this question show that 19 students opted for participating in class conversation. This may be linked to their desire to achieve native fluency. Where as those who opted for options ."a" and "b" they seem to express their need for success and show interest to the subject in hand (lessons).only two students express their motivation by making individual efforts-outside the classroom .we may assume that motivated means that they would probably make extra to produce a spoken or written output individually.

Q8. Are you satisfied with your studies at the university ?

Yes   □   No   □

Option	N	%
Yes	17	35.42
No	31	64.58

Table 36: Students' Satisfaction with their Studies

The table shows that 64.58% of the students are not satisfied with their studies and only 35.42% are satisfied.

The results prove at least one important thing : most students are indeed unsatisfied with their studies at the university. The possible interpretation of such results can be as follows :

Firstly, the fact that most students are not satisfied with their studies may not be so disappointing. Indeed, it may just be a matter of pedagogy where teachers can skillfully

familiarize students with those modules to the extent that these latter will appreciate their studies gradually. We think it is just a matter of teaching style and motivational problem.

Secondly, many students do not see the usefulness of certain modules and their programs for their studies. Nonetheless, teachers can with their teaching styles, capture the attention of students and enable them to see more clearly the importance and value of each module.

Another important issue to add, concerns teacher's pedagogical training, indeed, if many teachers do have the necessary pedagogical training to teach correctly and to motivate their students, a big number of « vacataires » teachers, who have just graduated, bitterly lack such training and may be one of the causes of the students dissatisfaction with studies . All this may be related to students expectation. In any case, when students answered « why », they relieved that most of them were complaining about teachers' styles, teaching programs, and teacher's' pedagogical training.

Here are some answers by students who are satisfied and unsatisfied :

a) Some answers of students who are satisfied :

"studying English at the university directs me toward new subjects of interest and help me to find a job"

 "I like English"

"I like my teachers, they are always seeking for new methods to motivate us"

" I like the university"

 "The modules and the programs are interesting"

b) Some answers of students who are not satisfied :

" I did not expect the university that way"

"The conditions are bad"

"Some teachers are hard"

" I don't have a good level in English and i did not find any motivation factor that encourages me"

"Teachers are borring"

Q9. are you satisfied with the programs of the modules that you're taught ?

Options	N	%
Satisfied	20	41.66
Unsatisfied	28	58.34

Table 37: Students' Satisfaction about the Programs of the Modules

This question is slightly similar to the preceding one. Here, the concern is with the programs of the modules in question. If most students are not really satisfied with their studies in general, are they at least, satisfied with the programs of the modules ?

According to the results, 20 students are satisfied with the programs of the modules and 28 are unsatisfied.

The results are slightly better than those in the preceding question .if the number of student who are satisfied has risen a little bit .conversely the number of those who are not satisfied has fatten from 31 to 28 .what do these results mean ?

In our opinion they indicate that the tendency is still negative , how do we expect to motivate students who are globally unsatisfied with their studies .the modules they are taught, as well as the programmers of those modules ? As is motivation and particularly intrinsic

motivation partly depend on teachers and some other factors .the restoration of good learning condition and particularly motivation is not out of reach .as teachers play a crucial role in undermining or enhancing motivation .The question that follows will probably provide a part of the solutions to this state .

An other important point that students expectation are somehow disappointed .In spite of the fact that students level in English in Constantine is coming down each year , there are fortunately few students who are not only motivated but come with an approvable level in English . However ,with dense programs ,many less-well-trained teachers especially in the 1 year, students expectation little die out and their motivation is undermined .

Below are some illustrations provided by students who are satisfied and students who are unsatisfied:

a. Answers by students who are not satisfied :

"The programs are difficult and teachers do not help us to catching"

"I don't feel the need for some modules"

"I am disappointed,i didn't expect the programs of some modules to be like that"

"I want to pick the language not about the language"

b. Answers by students who are satisfied:

"The modules and the programs are motivating"

"The programs investigate very interesting issues"

"Even though the programs are not interesting but some teachers make then amazing" .

Q10. How do you find your teachers ?

a.Authoritative (not allowing free communication and co-operative learning) ?   ☐

b.Non authoritative (allowing co-operative learning and freedom of expression about programme,content,etc) ?   ☐

Explain why

……

………..

options	N
a	30
b	18
Total	48

Table 38: How Students Consider their Teachers

This question asks students to expend themes lives on their teachers teaching styles .the results are illustrated in the table below:

The above results show that 30 students consider their teachers authoritative and only 18 consider them as not authoritative .

From the point of view of the self-determination theory ,such results are devastating .with their general dissatisfaction with their studies .the modules they are taught .the programs of these modules ,and their view that their teachers are rather authoritative ,students have perhaps hit the nail on the head . students answers to how revealed that those students who considered their teachers authoritative and who represent a majority, basically complained about four aspect :

a- Many if not all of their teachers are severe

b-Their teachers lack pedagogical training , most of them were vacataires especially when they were in the 1 and 2 years.

c- Dictation

d- The teachers' instructional styles and their learning styles do not match.

It was important to get an idea about teaching styles from the point of view learners.it should be noted that autonomy support and control , which constitute the backbone of successful or unsuccessful teaching in the self-determination perspective , is only one aspect , though very important ,of successful teaching yet, the impact of teachers style on students motivation ,achievement ,and success, undoubtedly big.

Q11. How do you like your teachers to be?

    a. Friendly and understanding

    b. Just to guide and explain the lessons

This question deals with the way students like their teachers to be

option	N	
a	37	77.08
b	11	22.92

Table 39: How Students' Like their Teachers to Be

This question is linked to the previous one. Since 62.50% of the student see their teachers as authoritative the results obtained for this question are quite predictable and reveal how students like their instructors to be.

Here,77.08% of the students prefer to works with an understanding ,friendly teacher .that is most learners in a foreign language classroom like to feel confident and secure with their teachers because this leads to high intrinsic motivation and to success.22.92% like their teachers just as guides and to come to explain the lesson . these students may prefer to maintain a distance with their instructors and see the teacher as a mere source of information and advice. No student opted for other roles they like to be performed by their teachers.18% of the students did not justify their answer .from remaining number .70% of the students like friendly and

understanding teachers because this helps them reduce anxiety and enhance intrinsic motivation is an encouraging factor that to ward learning. We cam refer to Kristen's affective hypothesis wore late low anxiety to high motivation to let intake in other like such teachers who are more likely to help them, the classroom and facilitate the process of learning .another rate of the Informant say that when they like the teacher, they also like the subject he teaches .hence , most of the learners ,though the reasons are different, relate good learning atmosphere created by the teacher is more likely to help them enhance their motivation toward successful learning .this indeed related to this teaching methods together with his personality and attitudes .only 12% students who prefer interaction with the teachers and like them just guides justifying this by the instructors role in keeping discipline in the classroom .in other words ,these learners perceive the teachers permissive behavior as a factor causing disturbance and lack of organization .they rather feel lack of concentration and give way to irrelevant , Informal discussions in the classroom .

Q12 . How often your teachers invite you to participate?

a.Always

b.Often

c.Sometimes

d.Rarely

e.Never

Option	N	%
a	07	14.58
b	10	20.83
c	30 =	62.5
d	1	2.08
e	0	0

Table 40: Students' Answers about How Often their Teachers Iniciate Interaction

The results illustrated in the table above reveals that teachers are the center of teaching .The majority of students said that their teachers sometimes invited them to participate. 10student mentioned that their teachers of ten invited them to speak .only 14.58% of the sample population consider their teachers as always giving them chance to participate .Only 1 student said that teacher, rarely invited them to speak and no student opted for never. How can there we analyze these results?

The above results were slightly predictable since in question 12 only 18 consider their teachers as been not authoritative and 30 students consider them as authoritative. In foreign leg classes student should be given chance to participated and practice their language .The lack of pedagogical training by the majority of teachers may be one of the causes that make them focus on the teaching process and forget about the learners needs. On the some scope we can link the results obtained to teachers centered teaching whish undermine student's motivation.

Q13. When you do not participate in class, is it because you :

    a. Are not motivated ?

    b. Are afraid of mistakes ?

    c. Have not built a communicative competence in English ?

    d. Others……………………………………………………………………………...

……………………………………………………………………………………………..

This question requests about why student do not participate in class.

option	N	%
a	12	25
b	26	54.16
c	10	20.83
d	0	00
Total	48	100

Table 41: Rate of Why Learners do not Participated in Classroom.

These results demonstrate that in most cases, learners do not participate in classroom because they are afraid of making mistakes (26/48: per) 12 student said hair luck motivation is the cause behind not participating in classroom. The remaining 10 students which represent 20.83% from the sample population have not built a communication competence in English .one of the problems encountered by our students is inhibition .the majority of students are afraid of speak ,and therefore ,do not participate in the classroom .this is often explained by the fear of making mistakes .another possible explanation to inhibition is the fact that students have a low proficiency in english which leads them to avoid speaky , this results an anxious situation and in a passive role of the students who will get nervous because they are afraid of being asked question and inevitably make mistakes .luck of motivation is also considered as one of the reasons that leads students not to participate in the language classrooms .the teachers role is very important in helping them participate ,they should encourage and device them to speak and participate .this will at the same time allow him to correct his students mistakes and therefore help improve their confidence and this their competence.

Q14. How do you feel when your teacher corrects your errors ?

a. Very motivated ☐

b. Motivated ☐

c. Less Motivated ☐

d- Embarrassed ☐

e-Frustrated ☐

Option	N	%
a	0	00
b	05	10.41
c	31	64.58
d	02	4.16
e	10	20.83
total	48	100

Table 42: Students Feeling When Teachers Correct their Errors

The results obtained in the above table show students feel less motivated when their teachers correct their errors.10 students feel frustrated .and only 2 students feel embarrassed when teachers corrects their mistakes .from all the sample population only 5 students aside that they feel motivated when corrected by their teachers.no student opted for been very motivated visa teachers error correction.

What are the possible interpretation of such results ?the fact most students feel less motivated when teachers correct their errors may hinder their intrinsic motivation and this decreases their participation in the class room.contrarly.5 students participation claim that they still feel motivated even taught their teachers correct their errors those students show their readiness to take risks again and try to avoid making the same mistakes .on the other hand ,the remaining 12 students feel embarrassed and even frustrated this raises their anxiety and anger and leads them to stop participating in the classroom…teachers errors correction is a vocal dimension that effects the learners level of motivation. a teacher who avoid dreaming comments white correcting students errors tends to generate positive eagling's in learners , which in turn bolsters high motivation .where as teachers who and student-teachers interacting use off hard remarks and address the student as a person teach to negative class atmosphere and en gender

negative feeling such as shyness ,anxiety ,danger. Hence, this negative feeling topers off the students' motivation in the classroom.

Q15.In a learning environment, how often do your teachers initiate interaction with you

a-Always ☐

b-Frequently ☐

c.Sometimes ☐

d.Rarely ☐

e-Never ☐

Options	N	%
a	04	08.33
b	03	6.25
c	33	68.75
d	08	16.67
e	0	00
total	48	100

Table 43: Rate of Times Teachers Initiate Interaction in the Classroom.

Since the majority of students in question 12 consider their teachers as authoritative and the center of teaching in question 14, the results obtained were predictable .the results show that 68.75% of the students said that their teachers sometimes initiate interaction in the classroom . 04 students considered their teachers as always interacting in the classroom .only 3 students (06.25%) of the sample population mentioned that their teachers frequently initiate interaction . on the other hand ,08 students said that their teachers rarely initiate interaction in the classroom and no student opted for never .The results obtained reveals that teachers are the center of teaching in SL classes .

We can link the results obtained to teacher-centered teaching .the interaction can in no way be smooth and successful without the instructor's powerful position. The analysis of interaction

shows that teacher-centered teaching provide rare opportunities for learners to feel involved at learning a process is more likely to inhibit the learners desire and motivation .in contrast , learner centered classes provides opportunities for peer interaction which creates an environment favorable to L2 learning and generate positive feelings in learners toward their teachers, which in turn boosters their motivation.

Q16. Do you think that success can not take place in the absence of :

a. Motivation

b.Self efficac

c.Both of them

option	N	%
a	11	22 ,92%
b	22	45,83%
c	15	31,25
Total	48	100%

Table 44: Students' Thaughts about their Success

The results in the above table show that a representative number of students(45,83%) link success with self efficacy .11 students which resent from the simple population think that cannot take place in the absence of motivation . Whereas 15 students believe that is product of both motivation and self efficacy.

The results obtained reveals that students believe that success is due to their efforts or abilities. Those are FI students who are impersonel-oriented they show reliance on their own internal abilities to succeed. On the other hand, students who link their success to motivation are said to be FD learners. They are learners with an external locus of control (those students are more likely to believe that motivating environment and motivating teacher, cause success . From

the point of view of attribution theory, success is a product of both students' self-efficacy (internal factor) and teachers' motivation (external factor).

Q17. When in class, what do you think ideal teacher should focus on

    a.   Learner's affective and attitudinal factor? ☐

    b.   The appropriate and effective teaching? ☐

    c.   The necessary material? ☐

    d.   The suitable learning material? ☐

    e.   All of them ☐

option	N	%
a	04	8.33
b	20	41.66
c	02	4.16
d	22	45.83
e	00	00
Total	48	100

Table 45: Students View of What Teachers Should Focus on for Effective Teaching

This question inquiries about view of that teacher should focus on effective teaching. According to the above results, it is clear that the number of students who think that deal teachers should focus on « the appropriate and effective teaching styles » and those who think that deal teachers should focus on ' the suitable learning environment '' is approximately the same.4 students considered who focus on learners affective an attitudinal factor'' an ideal ones. Only 02 students think that ideal instructors are those who focus on ''the necessary material'' in the classroom no student opted for option « e ». i.e. all of them. These results can be interpreted as follows. Students put forward the suitable learning environment and the appropriate and effective teaching styles. Those learners think that ideal teachers should focus on the suitable

learning environment think that motivation can beenhanced if their teachers create an encouraging atmosphere for learning. If such environment is improved it allows learners to express their capacities and their intrinsic capabilities have emphasized ''the appropriate an effective teaching styles'', as a factor that enhance their motivation. Some students believe that instructors teaching styles is such an important issue that teachers. Ought to know and build their teaching an accordingly. Teachers should first be aware of fact that students have different styles of learning, they should be informed about all these styles and attempt to adapt or make tier teaching in line with the students' ways and performances of learning when matching teachers styles with learners styles this with increase students intrinsic motivation and encourage to be involved n the learning task. Instructors should opt for appropriate styles that cordon at with those of their students and fit their needs. Whereas, non- encouraging atmosphere will create a sense of fear in students and decrease their self-confidence.

4 students think that ideal teachers should focus on their effective and attitudinal. Those are studentswith low intrinsic motivation and expect their interest through the focus on their effective attitudinal factors. Only 02 students think that inclass ideal teachers should focus on the necessary material. Those are students who want only to pick up the language they do not care about the environment or the teachers stylesonly the necessary material.

Q18. Do you feel that your teachers use incentive as :

a. Motivating factors for efforts and attempt.

b. Effective students to enhance performance

option	N	%
a	33	68,75%
b	15	31,25%
Total	48	100

Table 46: Students' Answers about how their Teachers Use Incentives

This question is about how teachers use incentives in their classes. The results obtained reveal that the majority 68 ;75%. Said that their teachers use incentives as ''Motivating factors for efforts and attempt'' whereas 15 studentsthat represent 31,25% from the simple population opted for option ''b'' effective stimulus to enhance learners' performance''. These results prove at efforts and attempts. The use of incentives as motivating factors for efforts and attempt by teachers may hinder the students intrinsic motivation .

The results obtained can be interpreted as follows:

When incentives are motivated, student's' intrinsic motivation for and interesting activity (for learners) is negativity effected when hose rewards are stopped or even decreased.

On the other hand, it was shown that only 15 students said that their teachers use incentives as effective stimulus to enhance their performance. From the results obtained we can see that few teachers se incentives to urge and/ or force students to participate and get involved . Incentives can indeed push students to get more involved in the learning process. However, we think that the self determination theory in right , to a large extent, when it explains that incentives (rewards) are a double edged sword.

Inspite of the fact that incentives give the impression that they capture students attention, they, in reality, destroy any intrinsic interest in students. When learners are engaged in an interesting activity and whose intrinsic motivation is high will see their intrinsic motivation decrease if external rewards are involved.

Q19. Which of the following language skills do you prefer while acquiring vocabulary ?

        Listening   ☐

        Reading   ☐ "

Say why ………………………………………………………………………

In this question students are asked to express themselves on the two language skills (listening and reading) in connection with their importance for their vocabulary acquisition.

The result are illustrated in the table bellow

skills	N	%
listening	07	14.58
reading	41	86.42

Table 47: What Students Prefer as a Skill to Learn Vocabulary

The result obtained show that only 07 student prefer listening as a source of acquiring new vocabulary items and the highest majority of students representing 85,42% prefer reading to learn vocabulary.

These results prove at teats one important thing that reading is given a significant importance by students as source of enlarging the scope of their vocabulary students' answers to 'why' revealed that those students who prefer trading and who represent the highest majority ,basically illustrate their choice by saying that.

"I don't feel anxious and i lake all my time to get the meaning of new word "

"I prefer to see the context where word are used so that i can get their meaning from the detail in the Witten context "

."I prefer to learn vocabulary from witten context so i get the meaning the from and it denotation and connotation "

."I feel an inactivation while reading "

."While reading i can stop at every word but while listening ican not catch up the new words because of the speed of delivery that raise my anxiety too"

Illustration by students who prefer listening :

" I feel motivated while listening "

" Iam quick at new words while listening unlike while reading "

"I am not patient an reading , while listening i feel free as if i am not in a learingenvironment so Iam not anxious and Icam do my best to acquire new vocabulary tens "

From the illustrations provided by the students towards what they prefer as a language skill we can say that auditory learners have inner will that push them to pick up new words and learn them with high motivation when they are introduced in a listening content. On the other hand, visual learners express high motivation to acquire vocabulary when it is presented in written texts(he while reading) since it goers with their learning style.

Q20. When retrieving word that you have learned from spoken or written context which language production skill you prefer ?

      Writing

      Speaking

Say why…………………. …………………………………………………………………

This question is linked to the previous one. It inquires about students' prefered reproduction skill when re-using the acquired words.

Skills	N	%
Speaking	10	20.89
Writing	38	79.17

Table 48: What Students' Prefer as a Skill to Reproduce the Learned Words

The results in the above table reveals that writing is the preferred production skill by the majority of students (79.17%) whereas the remaining students from the sample population (10students) prefer speaking to re-use the learned vocabulary.

The results confirmed to some extent the findings that a majority of SLL prefer to re-use words learned from the source text in their writings and a minority prefer speaking as a context where they retrieve the learned words .

Answers by some learners who prefer speaking :

" I prefer speaking because i am not going to focus on the from of word "

"while speaking i concentrate on the transmission of the message and not accuracy and that's what raise my motivation to use the words i learned "

Answers by some learners who prefer writhing:

"feel shy ican not express my self orally that's my i prefer writing"

"I prefer writing because i take my time to think and recall words without been anxious "

"I am a visual leaner ,i re-use words ilearned from reading easily in writing because iremember wore are used in the source text"

"I prefer writing because i am not controlled and I feel at ease"

" I did not develop a communicative ability in English …..I feel shy"

Affective aspect of learning implies that when a student for example, has a negative feeling towards the input (source of vocabulary), he may develop a negative feeling towards the type of the output (context where he is going to reuse the words learned from the input).This will indirectly affect his motivation.

Results obtained in question 19 and 20 form an over view about the design of the test. Exception for 3 students who prefer reading as a source of acquiring new words but prefer to re-use them in speaking .Those students focus on the transmission of the message and have negative feeling towards paying more attention to accuracy in writing.

Q21. When you encounter an unknown word while reading do you :

    a. Read again to guess the meaning from the context

    b. Ask the teacher about its meaning

    c. Ask a peer

    d. Look it up in the dictionay

    e. Ignore it

Options	N	%
A	10	20.83
D	16	33.33
E	3	6.25
a+b	3	6.25
a+c	3	6.25
a+d	3	6.25
b+d	5	10.41
a+b+d	5	10.41
Total	48	100

Table 49: Rate of What the Learners do When Encountering New Words While Reading

The results demonstrate that in most cases the learners either have recourse to the dictionary : 29/48 learners (d : 33.33%, a+d : 6.25%, b+d : 10.41, a+b+d : 10.41%) or to the context by reading again to guess the meaning 24/29. Learners showed low score for option 'b' (asking a teacher). However, very few students said that they ignore an unkown word while reading 6.25% or ask a peer as a mutual help (a+c : 6.25%).

Q22. Do your teachers use strategies/activities that fit your prefereable manner(s) to acquire vocabulary ?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Options	N
Yes	09
No	39
Total	48

Table 50: Rate of Teachers Who Use Strategies/Activities that Fit or Do Not Fit Their Learners Prefereable Manner(S) of Acquiring Vocabulary

The table above shows that the highest majority of learners(39) said that their teachers do not match their strategies and activities with their learners styles and prefereable strategies to acquire vocabulary. Only 9 students answered by 'yes'.

The results obtained reveals that the majority of teachers do not take into consideration their students manner(s) of learning. They are the center of teaching. Whereas few others consider their learners as the center of learning/teaching ; they use strategies and choose activities to fit the needs of their learners.

Q23. When reading do you think that a motivating environment is required for acquiring new vocabulary items?

Yes ☐   No ☐

If yes, say how…………………………………………

This question inquires about student view towards external motivation for acquiring new vocabulary items while reading .

Yes	No
37	11

Table 51: Students' View Towads Motivation While Reading to Acquire Vocabulary

From questions "10" and "11" the results obtained for this question are quite predictable. Here, 33 students answers by " yes " .that is most learners prefer a motivating environment while reading because this leads to high intrinsic motivation and to better vocabulary acquisition . 11 students answer by "No" mainly those are students who prefer authoritative teachers and perceive the teacher's permissive behavior to create a motivating atmosphere feel lack of concentration to learn new word.

Bellow are some illustration provided by student who said " Yes" (how)

"while reading a motivational environment allow me to memorize new words and re-use them easily"

"when I read texts I feel anxious and I could not concentrate on any word and get borred but when the teacher creates a motivating environment through his attitude it helps me to feel at ease and persist in learning new words from those texts "

" I prefer to learn new words from reading but when the teachers is controlling. I don't feel at ease and I could not remember what I learned"

"when the teacher uses some techniques to helps us deduce the meaning of new words from leading texts I feel motivated and I can memorize them easily"

Students consider motivation a key element in learning and acquiring vocabulary while reading .motivational environment allow learners express their capacities and their intrinsic capabilities.

Motivation for vocabulary learning might not be considered separated from motivation or reading .this is clearly revealed through .the fact that the more learners are motivated to read. The better the outcome of vocabulary improvement will be.

Q24. Do your teachers motivate you to enlarge your scope of vocabulary from reading ?

Yes ☐   No ☐

This question asks students if their teachers motivate them to widen their vocabulary from reading as their input.

Yes	No
11	37

The results obtained show that only 11 students representing 22.91% answer by –Yes- and the highest majority (37) answer by –No- Those results reveal that the majority of teachers are authoritative ; they are the center of teaching. They do not take into consideration their learners motivation in learning and accomplishing any task. A minority of teachers(based on students answer) motivate their learners and raise their will to enlarge their scope of vocabulary from reading.

If yes, how do you find it :

a.Very helpful   b. Helpful   c. Not helpful

Options	N
a	4
b	5
c	2

Table 52: Rate of Help Considered by Students

The above table show the rate of help considered by students whose teachers motivate them to learn vocabulary from reading. 5 students said that tteachers' motivation is helpful for re-using the learned words in new context

On the same scope 4 students found it very helpful. Only 2 students opt for not helpful may be they are learners who prefer listening.

Research in the field assume that the more learners are motivated to read, the better the outcome of vocabulary improvement will be. Vocabulary is strengthen by use, the more the new words are used, the more they are solidified in the mind. Motivation is a key factor that raise students interest to use their learning styles to get the meaning of the encountered words in the written texts.

Vocabulary learning like other types of learning needs to be initiated, continued, and completed by motivation that help learners in enhancing their vocabulary acquisition and the process of retreiving becomes easier.

Q25. How often do you re-use the learned words in writing ?

  a. Always
  b. Sometimes
  c. Never

Options	N	%
A	12	25
B	33	68.75
c	3	6.25
Total	48	100

Table 53: Frequency of Vocabulary Use in Writing

It appears from table that more than half of the students in the sample population(33 students) sometimes re-use the learned vocabulary in their writing. On the other hand, vocabulary learned is always re-use by 12 sudents. Only 3 students said that they never re-use words they learned in their writins.

Whatever is your answer say why…………………………………………………………….

Here are some answers by students who re-use always the learned words in their writing :

'i re-use them easily because when i return home i look for examples and other contexts for the words i learned in class'

'my teachers provided us with a variety of explanations and examples about any new word so i couldn't forget it and use it always'

'i am a risk taker i always use the new words in my writing eventhough i am not sure of the meaning '

Some answers of students who said that they sometimes re-use the words they learn in their writing :

'because i generally remember the form easily but the meaning somehow'

'i spend too much time to remember and use the words in my essays because i memorize them in a difficult way'

'most of the time i don't feel motivated to re-use them'

'i always think that i have memorized many words , but when i try to use them i find difficulty and most of the time i feel anxious because i feel that i have no word in my mind'

'teachers explain the new words in a way that does not help me to lean any word'

This implies that the teachers' teaching styles and strategies help students to memorize the meaning of the new words and retieve them easily in their writing. Motivation too is considered as a crucial factor that decreases students' anxiety and fear of taking risks toemploy new learned words in their writing.

The 3 students who said that they never re-use the learned vocabulary when they write are mainly those who were forced to study English and are not motivated to do so.

Q26. Do the assignements in class activities addressed to you satisfy your needs

Yes ☐

No ☐

Yes	No
9	39

Table 54: Students' View About the Correlation Between the Assignements Addessed to Them and their Needs

The results obtained are quite expected. 34 students representing the highest majority answer by no and only 14 students said yes.

The student's answers by 'no' reveals that teachers are not aware of the different learning styles their students have and their needs. Since the majority of teachers are authoritative what matters for the mis to deliver their lessons and been the center of teaching. Whereas, 9 students said that the tasks assigned to them go with their needs mainly those are teachers who take into consideration the strengths and weaknesses of their students as well as there different learning styles to help them meet their needs.

The assignements addressed to learners (answer by yes) suit the needs to learn by 6 students and suit the need to overcome challenges by 3 students.

Students with the need to learn are those with mastery goal they focus on mastering the task, learning and understanding. They tend to persist when they encounter difficulties since they are intrinsically motivated. Whereas those with the need to overcome challengies are students

with a performance goals ; they tend to respond to extrinsic motivation. They are more concerned with winning and challenging other students .

Teachers should first be aware of the fact that students' have different styles of learning they should be informed about all these styles and attempt to adapt or make their teaching in line with the students' ways and preferences of learning(needs) and opt for tasks that reinforce their strengths or overcome their weakness.

4. Summary of the Findings

The analysis and the interpretation of the questionnaire make us say that the majority of learners are not satisfied with their studies at the university and they link it to their teachers' styles and motivational problems such as the unusefulness of certain modules and their programs. Besides, we can notice from Q12 and Q13 that 62.50% of the students see their teachers as authoritative and 77.08% prefer to work with an understanding friendly teachers. That is to say, most learners in a foreign language classroom like to feel confident and secure with their teachers because this leads to high intrinsic motivation and to success.

It was important to get an idea about the teaching styles from the point of view of learners. It should be noted that autonomy support and control, which constitute the backbone of successful or unsuccessful teaching in the self-determination perspective, is only one aspect, though very important, of successful teaching. Yet, the impact of teachers style on students motivation, achievement, and success is undoubtedly big.

As far as interaction is concerned a minority of students said that their teachers sometimes iniciate interaction with them and give them opportunities to use their iniciatives. On the other hand, a high majority of students said that their teachers rarely or even never give them any opportunity to use their own iniciatives. The results obtained are linked to teacher-centered teaching. They reveal that the majority of teachers in our department opt for teacher-centered method. The analysis of the results shows that teacher-centered teaching provides rare

opportunities for learners to feel involved in learning and is more likely to inhibit the learners' desire and motivation. In contrast, learner centered classes provide opportunities for students to use their own iniciatives, create a motivating environment, and generate positive feelings in learners that booster their learning.

As what concerns vocabulary learning, learners prefer to acquire vocabulary from reading and they affirm that they prefer composition and fill in the gaps as two writing tasks to recall new learned words. Besides, they strongly emphasize the role of motivation to learn vocabulary. According to them motivattion while reading raise their will to get the meaning of new words and retreive them easily later.

Students' answers about if their teachers' match their teaching strategies with their learners prefereable strategies while teaching vocabulary reveal that the majority of teachers explain the meaning of new words in a way that does not match with their strategies and which decreases their motivation and result in difficulty in memorizing the meaning of the new learned words and they encounter difficulty in re-using them in new context.

5. Correlation of the Results of the Two Questionnaires

Through the process of conducting several questionnaires, the results indicate that the learning styles of many students and the teaching styles of many teachers do not match. This leads to frustration on the part of the teacher and a missed opportunity on the part of the student. Few teachers in the study are able to teach to a wide variety of students and at the same time satisfy all the various different learning styles . Furthermore, the present research shows that there are many problems in the present state of English vocabulary teaching. The teachers lack the initiative to explore new methods in vocabulary teaching: most teachers still keep a traditional English vocabulary teaching procedure; their teaching pattern is unitary; some teachers cannot

help students develop vocabulary learning strategies; other teachers cannot use various methods in vocabulary teaching in a flexible way. In other words, there are few strategies involved in their vocabulary teaching. However, teaching strategies can take students to promote their own learning success, which include a vast number of teaching techniques so as to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more effective, and to boost performance. Developing teaching strategies can help students find a variety of tools to aid learning and understanding. In the case of the visual learners, this will mean validating those techniques that appeal to their learning channel preferences while promoting other appropriate techniques for other learners.

In all academic classrooms, no matter what the subject is, there will be students with multiple learning styles. Everyday teachers make instructional decisions before, during, and after meeting the students, and these decisions lead to tailored instruction to individuals or groups in the classrooms. There are academically diverse learners and teachers need to make curriculum choices that complement our students' interests, strengths and needs. The effective teacher is constantly making decisions about how to present information to achieve this, as well as monitoring and adjusting presentations to accommodate individual differences and enhance the learning of all students. An effective means of accommodating these learning styles is for teachers to change their own styles and strategies and provide a variety of activities to meet the needs of different learning styles . Then all students will have at least some activities that appeal to them based on their learning styles, and they are more likely to be successful in these activities. When presenting content, effective teachers gain their students' attention, interact positively with the students, review previously covered material, and provide an organization for the material (e.g. graphic organizers , outlines, anticipation guides). Clear directions, adequate examples, and practice need to be provided in a relevant context for students.

When it comes to vocabulary teaching, the traditional way of vocabulary teaching makes the students lazy and bored. The teacher needs something different to make students interested and

motivated. They should combine their vocabulary teaching method with the different learning styles . The suggested multisensory approach requires the integration of visual, auditory , and kinesthetic techniques in classroom teaching. It can simultaneously meet the various needs of learners to enhance memory and learning. The right combination of these activities varies with the class profile.

Therefore, EFL teachers should encourage students to build their confidence by using direct, audio-lingual, community language learning and communicative approaches, methods and practices and give them more active practice in their learning skills. Individual differences of students need to be considered and the instructional delivery system needs to correspond to the varying abilities of the students. Students may fail to learn the material if the teacher's style of teaching does not match their learning styles . Many researchers claim that students with highly preferred learning styles achieve higher test scores when instructional conditions or resources complement their preferred styles . By teaching to the particular learning styles of students, learning outcomes can be improved.

Conclusion

The results obtained from the analysis of both teachers' and learners' questionnaires in this chapter gave us an overview about the learners' prefered learning/teaching styles in general and their prefered strategies to learn vocabulary in particular and about motivation. It also provided us with a clear image about the teachers ways of teaching and treating their students especially while presenting new vocabulary items. The results obtained from these questionnaires are of great contribution in the design of the test.

Chapter Six : The Experiment

Introduction

5. **The Test**

    5.1. Description of the Pre-test

    5.2.Analysis and Interpretation of the Test (Pre-Test)

 2.Description of the Interview

    2.1.The Analysis of the Interview

    2.2.Summary of the Findings

3.The Post Test

    3.1.Analysis and Interpretation of the Results of the Post-Test

 4.Triangulation of the Results

Chapter Six: The Experiment

Introduction

This chapter describes the the steps that were taken in the process of carrying out the study and it presents the circumstances of tests administration and a description of the treatment. Then, a correlation of the results obtained from the analysis of the two questionnaires and the results obtained from the tests and experiment is made. The study combined qualitative and quantitative research methods. At the end of the chapter, a summary of the results leads to a triangulation of the research findings.

1. The Test

To achieve the research' aim and attempt to confirm our hypothesis that if teachers focus on the learners' learning styles, match their teaching styles accordingly and attempt to raise their motivation, this may help them for better vocabulary acquisition. Data collection requires an experiment we led in four steps. The type of the test opted for is pre-test plus post test. Thus, a pres-test and post-test were held at a given interval (5 months). A pre-test was organized (see appendix III) to see if learners are capable of getting the meaning of the unknown words and using them in their compositions even though we have not focused on their learning styles and their motivation. Then the sample (52students) was divided into two groups of 26 representing an experimental group and control group. In the next step, students of the experimental group were interviewed (see appendix IV) after the pre-test to see how they get the meaning of the unknown words from the text and to help us to individualize them depending on their learning styles. After individualizing them, we used eight interesting texts as a source to teach them vocabulary and we selected motivating vocabulary activities that match with every student'

learnig style to consolidate the meaning of the new words and to facilitate the retrieving process (see appendix VI). After one month break, a post test was administered (see appendix V).

1.1. Description of the Pre-test

The pre-test took place on the 13th of November 2011 in room 108. It was administered at 9:30a.m. 52 students (representing the sample population; 10 males and 32 females) participated in the pre-test. It contains a passage (see appendix III) and two questions. The questions have been chosen taking into consideration the teachers' and the learners' views about the way they used to teach vocabulary for the former and the way they wanted to learn vocabulary for the latter in addition to the way of checking vocabulary by the teachers and the preferred tasks to do so (see teachers' questionnaire and learners' questionnaire). The first question is about vocabulary to check the students' ability to deduce the meaning of words from a context and to explain them by means of other words and phrases. After this exercise students are asked to write a composition on a topic which enables them to use the previously learned words. The aim of this test is to see if learners are capable to get the meaning of the unknown words and to use them in their compositions even though we have not focused on their learning styles and motivation.

It was explained to them that they are not in a testing session but in learning/teaching one.

1.2. Analysis and Interpretation of the Pre-test

Scores obtained in the pre-test were analysed to gain an idea or determine whether the learners have been able to deduce the appropriate meaning of the words from the context(text) and to check whether they have used the learned words in their writing (composition). In other words, the results will give an idea about their level in learning vocabulary from reading a text and to what extent they can re-use those words in their compositions even though their learning

styles have not been focused on and they are not motivated to deduce the meaning of the new words from the text.

I.Vocabulary

Explain the meaning of the words written in italics as they are used in the text.

1. Prevent

Word	Answer	Pre-test	
		N	%
Prevent	Avoid	30	57.70
	Stop	18	34.61
	Refuse	04	7.69
	Total	52	100

Table 55: Answer to the Word "Prevent"

The majority of the learners have explained the meaning of the word "prevent" by "avoid" (57.70). It would appear that the context where this word appears is not clear to certain extent for those students which is not the case for 18 students- representing 34.61% from the sample- who deduce the appropriate meaning of the word from its context. We note that 7.69% did not succeed to give the appropriate meaning of "prevent".

2.   Reliance

Word	Answer	N	%
Reliance	Trust	20	38.47
	Confidence	27	51.92
	Dependence	05	9.61
	Total	52	100

Table 56: Answer to the Word "Reliance

The results are surprising, the majority of the students' answers for the word "reliance" is either "confidence" (51.92 %) or "trust" (38.47%), whereas only 5 students gave the appropriate meaning of the word "reliance" in this context which is "dependence". This is mainly because they are field independent learners; they broke down the word into affixes to get its meaning.The word "reliance" is a rather usual word. Most students associate it with trusting someone or have confidence on someone, this is may be the reason for giving such answers or they are not motivated and they wanted just to finish the test.

3.   Puzzles

Word	Answer	N	%
Puzzles	Problems	20	38.46
	Difficult problems	29	55.77
	No answer	03	5.77
	Total	52	100

Table 57: Students' Answers to the Word "Puzzles"

The results here strikingly change from the previous ones. The majority of the students (55.77%) explain "puzzles" as "difficult problems" which is more closer to the appropriate

meaning than "problems" only. It shows that at least the learners (38.46%) who explained the word "puzzles" as "problems" have identified that the word refers to a problem, no matter how difficult it is. It would seem that the context where this word appears has helped them to guess the meaning and to reach these results or may be the word activated in their minds the background knowledge they get from their daily life about "puzzles". Three students did not give any answer may be they are students who prefer ignorance as a strategy rather than try to guess the meaning.

4.   Particular

Word	Answer	N	%
Particular	special	52	100
	Total	52	100

Table 58: Students' Answers to the Word "Particular"

All the students gave a correct explanation for the word "particular". This is mainly because this word has been previously learned effectively, when students encountered it in this context they recall its meaning easily.

5.   Occupations

Word	Answer	N	%
	Jobs	20	38.46
Occupations	Professions	22	42.30
	Works	10	19.24
	Total	52	100

Table 59: Students' Answers to the Word "Occupations"

As it can be seen in the above table the most suggested answers are "professions" and "jobs" without the ignorance of "works" (19.24) which is an acceptable explanation. However, still "professions" considered as the nearest explanation for the word occupation in this context

6.   Counteract

Word	Answer	N	%
Counteract	Act against to reduce the effect	18	34.61
	Solve	05	9.62
	No answer	29	55.77
	Total	52	100

Table 60: Students' Answers to the word "Counteract"

More than half of the learners (55.77%) have given no answers. This seems to imply that those learners used to depend on other strategies. However, 18 students deduced the meaning of "counteract" and gave an acceptable answer (act against and reduce the effect of something). Five students who represent who represent (9.62%) of the sample gave a very far explanation from the expected one this could be because of their low proficiency level and their low motivation to study English.

6. Reason

Word	Answer	N	%
Reason	Cause	30	57.69
	Form an opinion	04	7.70
	Understand	18	34.61
	Total	52	100

Table 61: Students' Answers to the Word "Reason"

The majority of the students (57.69%) did not succeed in guessing the meaning of the word from the text and explained it as "cause". This result leads to one explanation that those students did not infer the meaning from the context but rather rely on the graphical assimilation between the verb "to reason" which means (understand in this context) and the noun "a reason" which means "a cause". 18 students succeeded in explaining the meaning and give a right answer "understand"; may be those are motivated learners that adapt their learning styles and strategies to any new context. Others (4 students) explained "reason" as "form an opinion". In fact, this meaning is one of the several meanings the verb "to reason" holds but in this context, they can not be interchangeable.

8.   Judge

Word	Answer	N	%
Judge	Criticize (criticism)	29	55.77
	Comment	15	28.84
	Form an opinion	08	15.39
	Total	52	100

Table 62: Students' Answers to the Word "Judge"

The answer expected for the word "judge" in this context is "form an opinion", only 08 students gave the appropriate answer. May be those are good language learners that are motivated intrinsicly and rely on themselves to enlarge the scope of their vocabulary knowledge. A considerable number of students representing 55.77% answered "criticize" instead of "form an opinion" which is the right answer. Finally, 15 students, the word "judge" for them in this context means comment which is not acceptable.

The total number of the two answers combined is 84.61%, this may explain the fact that only 08 students manage to guess the right answer, even if the two answers "comment" and "criticize" are incorporated meanings in judge but they are not suitable in this context. Students do not take into account the syntactic relation noun/ verb or rather to respond to syntactic clues because some of them use "criticism" noun to explain the word "judge" which is a verb in this context. This shows students lack of motivation and awareness about what they read.

Smmary of the Students' Answers to the Eight Words

Words	Acceptable	Not acceptable	No answer	N
1	18	34	/	52
2	05	47	/	52
3	29	20	3	52
4	52	00	/	52
5	22	30	/	52
6	18	05	29	52
7	18	34	/	52
8	08	44	/	52

Table 63: Summary of the Students' Answers to the Eight Words

The results obtained from the explanation of the eight words "prevent, reliance, puzzles, particular, occupations, counteract, reason, and judge" show that the majority of learners did not

succeed in guessing the meaning of the words from the text. Only 02 words out of 08 were successfully explained by the highest majority of the learners.

The results obtained gave us an over view about the students' level, awarness of their learning styles, and motivation while guessing the meaning of the words from the written context.

II. Composition

Using the words you learned in the previous activity, write a composition (not more than two paragraphs) explaining how do you behave when you face a problem in life, do you solve it by yourself or seek help/ advice from someone else?

The following table shows the number of words used by the students in their compositions.

Number of words	N	%
1 Word	07	13.47
2 Words	12	23.07
3 Words	23	44.23
4 Words	04	07.69
5 Words	06	11.54
Total	52	100

Table 64: Number of Words Used by Learners in their Compositions

The results show that 44.23% of the students recall only 3 words and use them in their compositions. 19 students re-use only 1-2 words. The highest number of words used is 5 words but only 6 students used this number. Not far from this, 4 students representing 7.69% used 4 words. The results obtained from the composition were expected since learners' learning styles have not been focused on and they are not motivated to deduce the meaning of the words from

the context, thus effective vocabulary learning was not achieved and it cannot be re-used or transferred in new contexts.

The scores obtained in this test form a base line against which we will measure the effect of focusing on the learners' learning styles and raising their motivation on their vocabulary acquisition by employing effective teaching styles that suits their styles and using activities which can further motivate them to learn more words by making greater efforts.

After the results obtained in the pre-test, the sample (52 students) was devided into two groups of 26 representing an experimental and controlling groups. Then, students of the experimental group were interviewed to see how they explained the meaning of the unkown words from the text in the pre-test and to help us to individualize them depending on their cognitive styles (field dependent and field independent).

2. Description of the Interview

The interview that took place at the department of Letters and English Language, university of Constantine1, on Sunday, 20 November 2011 from 9:30 a.m to 12:30 and Monday,21November from 8 a.m to 9:30, aims to let us have a close view on how every learner read the text in the pre-test and explained the meaning of the words and to help us individualize every student in the experimental group so that we can match our teaching styles with their learning styles while teaching them new vocabulary items and provide them with motivating activities that suit every student's prefereable style inorder to enhance the retention, the consolidation, and the retrieving ability of the new words.

Twenty four questions divided into three parts framed our structered interview (see appendix IV). The first part from Q1 to Q3 is related to the students' answers in the pre-test. The second part from Q4 to Q6 addressed the participants' attitudes to learn English and their over all proficiency. The third part from Q7 to Q24 contains more specific questions concerning the students' own manner(s) of learning English and is more focused on vocabulary acquisition.

Due to practical and managerial concerns, the questions were asked in an ordered manner in each of the interviews. Most questions were close-fixed where all interviewees are asked the same questions and are asked to choose answers from among the same set of alternatives and where it was felt relevant, followed by a sufficient amount of probing. Attempt was made to minimize interference.

Similarly, it was ensured that extensions and elaborations by participants remained relevant to the purpose of the study and the central theme. Each of the interviews was recorded with participants' knowledge of it and agreement and was transcribed, labelled and numbered following a chronological order. Names of the interviewees are replaced by their initial letters and the name of the interviewer is replaced by T.

2.1. Analysis and Interpretation of the Interview

As mentioned earlier, students' answers were videotaped. Immediately after the interview was turned into a scripted version, we analysed it as written discourse (see appendix VI). The method we relied on to analyse data is the use of illustrations, numbers, percentages, and comments.

Part I: Students' Answers about the Pre-test (Q1- Q3)

Q1. T: While reading the text how did you proceede?

9/26: said that they read the text many times till they got a general idea about it.

12/26: said that they stop and focus on every word right from the first reading.

5/26: said that they get bored and stop reading the text right from the first lines and start to answer directly the questions.

Here are some students answers (check appendix VI for the full answers of the 26 students)

O: …*I read the text three times till I got an over view, sorry I mean a general idea*

A*: Well, I read the text many times….because if I do not understand the meaning I can   not answer any other question*

T: *I don't remember how many times I read the text, I was reading and reading to know what is it about before I answer the questions*

M: *I skimmed the text two times and I got a general meaning…*

W: *I traveled quickly on the text*

A: *Well, I stoped at every word des le debut, sorry, from the beginning*

M: *I focused on every individual word till I get the meaning then I carry on reading*

R: *HHH, I scanned every detail in the text*

H: *I read the text and the highlighter in my hand, I highlighted every word I read because I prefer to read word by word*

K: *I was reading the text carefully, I used a paper and I write every difficult word I stop at so that I can check its meaning*

S: *I read the text with attention to the meaning of words and not to what is the text about*

I: *The text for me was difficult I focused on explaining the meaning of every word to understand its meaning*

M: *I feel bored, I didn't like the text, I stoped reading it from the 2nd line and I start answer the questions*

II

N: *frankly, I started directly answering the questions without even getting an idea about the general meaning of the text*

S: *I read the text once and I felt bored because I understant nothing and I dislike reading*

From the students answers we can say that 09 students consider the text as a whole. 15 students representing 57. 69 % preferred to focus on details while reading those maily are analytic students.The remaining five students showed their boredom towards the text; they are mainly students who are not motivated to study English and they were forced to do so.

Q2. T: Did you focus on the words or the whole text?

10/26: Answered that they focused on the whole text

16/26: Answered that they focused on words

Results show that 4/5 students from the ones who said that they felt bored focused on words and only one focused on the text as a whole.

Q3. T: How did you explain the meaning of the eight words?

Below are some students' answers

A: *Well, at the beginning I read the text quickly but when I saw the question "give the explanation of the words as they appear in the text" I read the text three times till I got the general idea then I tried to explain the words from what I understood from the text*

T: *I guessed the meaning from the text….for two words I asked my friends*

M: *The text helped me a lot to explain the meaning of the words, I relied only on what I understood from the text*

C: *For some words I guessed the meaning from the text but for others I checked in the dictionnary*

Y: *Some words I already know them before but for others I tried the gramatical clues or I linked them to other words I know*

S: *Frankly, I ignored two or three words I don't remember but for others I linked them to the words that seem to be the same in French and gave the meaning*

W: *I break the words into parts I mean morphemes and try to get the meaning*

R: *I didn't explain some words, others I asked my friend*

H*: I focused on all the details in the text and within the words themselves*

K: *I took every word and try to link it to the words of the text, for some words that were really difficult I jot down all the words that I have in my mind and try to link them to those in the text*

S: *I relied on every detail and clue in the text and for some I didn't gave any answer*

Students' answers to this question (see appendix VI) explains the results obtained in the pre-test. They show that 9 students out of 26 depend on their peers or read again the text to guess the meaning whereas 17 out of 26 depends on their capacities; break down the word into affixes, use the dictionnary, look for translation, association with other words they know or simply ignore.

Part II Students' attitudes to learn English and their over all proficiency (Q4- Q7)

Q4. T: Are you satisfied about your achievement in English, or you would like to know more?

Satisfied	Not satisfied	Would like to know more

08/26: Said that they are satisfied but they would like to know more

18/26: Said that they are not satisfied. 6 said that they are not satisfied at all and would like know more and gave some further details. 4 students from the 18th who are not satisfied said that they have the intension to stop the study.

Here are some answers provided by **Anis, Rahma, Walid, and Mohamed** who said that they are not satisfied at all and would like to know more

A: *I am not satisfied at all about my level, I would like to learn more English and have better level in speaking and writing*

R: *Sure I'm not satisfied, I would like to learn more words in English so that I can speak without been shy*

W: *I would like to be fluent and even write in an acceptable way in English*

M: *I am not satisfied about my achievement till now all the teachers blame me about my grammar mistakes and difficulty of understanding written or spoken English because I have poor vocabulary*

AN: *Frankly, I'm not satisfied… I like to know more especially concerning vocabulary*

For some students' answers we went deeply to understand their responses. In this case with Anissa for example who said that "Frankly, I'm not satisfied…I like to know more especially concerning vocabulary" we went further to undestand why vocabulary in particular.

T: *Why vocabulary?*

AN*: I have poor vocabulary, that make me shy to express myself*

T: *Explain more*

AN: *I do not participate in class because I feel anxious since I don't know much words in English*

T: *What about writing?*

AN*: I like writing because I feel at ease but I face the same problem, I don't know much vocabulary*

Students' answers show that 8 students seem to be motivated to study English and they have the will to know more even though they are good learners. More than half of the experimental group (18 students) are not satisfied about their level but they have an inner will to reach better level and satisfy their needs to write and speak in fluent way. 4 students are not satisfied about their achievement and they think to abandon their studies mainly English was not their choise or other conditiond dismotivate them.

Q5. T: How do you describe your motivation to study English?

Are you: Very motivated   Motivated   Dismotivated

T: Why………………………………………………………………………………

Degree of motivation	N	%
Very motivated	03	11.53
Motivated	07	26.92
Dismotivated	16	61.55
Total	26	100

Table 65: Students' Evaluation of their Motivation to study English

Results show that more than half of the students (61.55%) are dismotivated to study English. 10 students said that they are motivated in general 3/10 are very motivated. Below are some justifications provided by students

M: *I like English so much so I feel so glad to study it*

R: *At the beginnig I was motivated to study English but the bad studying conditions decreased my motivation and now I feel stressed and dismotivated*

I: *I am motivated to study English because it's my choise and I like.*

S: *I like English more than my mother tangue*

N: *In my first year I was motivated but now I don't feel at all motivated*

T: *Why?*

N: *Sorry, but the behaviour of some teachers and the way they teach us makes me more anxious….also the difficulty of some modules*

T: *I choose to study English with high motivation but when I started my studies almost all the conditions at the university make me feel stressed and I lose my motivation*

T*: What do you mean by the bad conditions?*

T: *The bad conditions in the classes, big number of students in the group, lot of noise, and what decreases my motivation more is the way some teachers teach and behave*

T*: How your teachers behave?*

T: *Some are too severe and they teach in a way that doesn't help me to understand or retain what they explain*

K: *My teachers are the source of my motivation*

G: *In my first year I was not motivated to study English but the group that I belong to, my friends, classroom comptetition, and the encouragement of some of my teachers enhanced my motivation*

H: *I am not motivated because I want to study Medecine*

A: *I don't have much knowledge and vocabulary and that make me lose motivation especially because I can't communicate with my friends in the classroom or my teachers*

Students' answers and justifications about their motivation to study English can be interpreted as follows: more than half of the population are not motivated to study English they share features of field independent learners. Their motivation is linked to external factors; they are extrinsicaly motivated learners whose motivation could be enhanced by the effective teaching styles used by their teachers, the motivating learning/teaching environment, and the use of incentives. 10 out of 26 students from their answers show that they are intrinsicaly motivated. They are field independent students who have this inner will to study English.

Among the students answers we noticed that" Amina, Tarek, Nessrine, and Radouane" were intrinsicaly motivated to study English but the behaviour of some teachers and the bad environmental conditions hinder their motivation. This leads us to draw a conclusion that, the teachers' teaching styles and the learning/teaching environment play a vital role in enhancing or hindering students' motivation.

Q6. T: Considering your level of success/ failure in learning English, would you say this was due to:

The teacher

Or   The university environment (motivating/dismotivating)

Or   You developed some special study habits

Or   Some particular personal characteristics that helped/hindered you in learning English

3/26 students they failed because of the teachers, some particular personal habits that hindered them in learning English, and the administration that dismotivate them

17/26 students relate their success to their developed study habits and some particular personal characteristics that helped them in learning English

6/26 related their success to their teachers

The majority of students are self-directed learners they rely on their learning habits and depend on their personal capacities (they show features of field independent learning style). Whereas 6 students through their answers gave us an idea that they are teacher-directed learners and it is the same interpretation for those who failed in learning English(they show features of field dependent learning style).

Part III Students' own manner(s) of learning English and vocabulary in particular Q7- Q24

T: I would like now to ask you a few more specific questions concerning your own manner(s) of learning English in general and vocabulary in particular

Q7. T: Do you have a preferred manner(s) of thinking, processing information, and demonstrate learning? If yes, what are they?

The question was ambigious for the majority of learners so we rephrased it as follows "Do you have a preferred manner(s) of learning English?

5/26 answered no

21/26 answered yes

Below are some answers provided by learners who said yes

A*: I just read the lesson to have a general idea and I memorize the key words*

R: *I stick on every difficult or new word till I understand it then I link everything to form a general idea*

S: *I prefer to make my own summaries from the lectures or any learning material*

M: *I change all the lesson into a text of my own i,e, I use my own words*

AN: *I focus only on key words then I form my own notes*

I: *I learn everything by heart*

N*: I focus on every detail then I memorize it*

D*: I prefer to take notes and develop them later on*

W: *I like taking notes then when I return home I link them and add extra information*

Y*: I prefer listening and focussing on details*

Students' answers were surprizing. We expected all the learners to be aware of their prefereable manner(s) of learning. 5 students are not aware of their manner(s) of learning this can be explained as follows: they are dismotivated to study English mainly if it is not their choice or they belong to the category of learners who are careless and would llike only to get their diploma and attend only the exams. Students who answered "yes" have different learning manners. Their ways of learning vary from being holistic or top-down learners to bottom-up or analytic learners.

Q8. T: Do you feel confident in your ability to succeed in learning this language?

Very confident   Confident   Uncertain   inhibited

3/26 Feel very confident

7/26 Feel confident

11/26 Feel uncertain

5/26 Feel inhibited

All students stressed on their answers about their confidence towards studying English which correlate strongly with their motivation. "

Q9. T: Do you prefer working alone or in groups?

9/26 prefer to work in goups (FD)

17/26   prefer to work alone(FI)

   Walid, Marwa, Issam, and Oussama expressed their deep feeling of excitation to work in groups. It was the same feeling for Amina, Anissa, and Sabrina who said that they really enjoy to work alone.

   Q10. T: Do you prefer learning English in a structural way or communicative way?

10/26 prefer to learn English in a structural way

16/26 prefer to learn English in a communicative way

   Participants who prefer to study English in a structural way are mainly students who prefer authoritative teachers who follow the traditional teaching methods whereas the other category of learners show their preference to non-authoritative teachers who rely on interaction with students and follow communicative methods.

   Q11. T: In the process of learning English are you:

   Holistic   Analytic   or Both

7/26 Are holistic

17/26 Are analytic

2/26 Are both holistic and analytic

   Q12. T: How do you deal with the language material (input) (novels, poems, diaries, conversations, etc):

   Do you like to analyse the many details of language and understand exactly what is said or written

Or   You like to get the general meaning of what is said or written

This question it linked to Q11.

9/26 like to get the general meaning of what is said or written

17/26 like to analyse the many details of language and understand exactly what is said or written

The two participants who said that they are " both analytic and holistic", this questions clarified for them their prefereable manner of learning English.

Q13. T:Do you control yourself consciously when you speak and write?

T: If yes, is it: More consciously   consciously   not overly consciou

5/26 Do not control themselves

21/26 Control themselves

7/21 Control themselves more consciously

5/21 Control themselves consciously

9/21 Control themselves not overly conscious

Students answers following Krashen's devision of types of monitors show that 7 students are monitor over users, 9 participants are monitor under users, and only 5 learners are optimal users who share characteristics of good language learners.

Q14. T: While reading or listening do you:

Have to stop and stuck at every word

Or   perceive the situation as a whole

9/26 Said that they have to stop and stuck at every word

17/26 Said that they perceive the situation as a whole

Participants strongly stress their answers in questions 11& 12.

Q15. T: While speaking and writing do you like to try out new words and structures that you are not completely sure of or you like to use only words that you are sure are correct?

11/26 Like to try out new words that they are not completely sure of

15/26 like to use only words that they are sure about their correctness

Following students' answers we can say that they differ from each other in being risk takers who like to use words in their outcomes even though they are not sure of and in being

monitor over users who do not take risks and use only words that they are completely sure of their correctness.

Q16. T: When faced with a learning activity that might steer you towards one of your weaker or at least one of your less favoured manner of learning, how do you perceive?

Do you begin with a prediction or rule and applies it to interpret particular instance of input?

Do you begin with examining input to discover some pattern and formulate generalization?

Do you ask your teacher for a help?

Do you seek explanation from one of your peers?

Do you ignore it?

3/26 Ask their teachers for help

10/26 Begin with examining input to discover some pattern and formulate generalization

3/26 Ignore it

8/26 Begin with a prediction and applies it to interpret particular instance of input

2/26 seek explanation from one of your peers

Q17. T: Do you like to learn vocabulary from written texts?

W*: Personally I prefer listening, but when it comes to vocabulary I prefer to see the word in its written context and take my time to explained it*

S: *It's only while reading a text that I don't feel anxious and I can learn new words*

Y*: I prefer listening but I feel more comfortable while reading because I take my time to get the meaning of words*

O: *texts are the best source of vocabulary for me because they give a context to the word, how it is used, its form, and the possible words that can be used with it i.e. association*

I: *A text helps me to know how the word is written so that I can re-use it without being afraid of spelling mistakes*

Q18. T: When you encounter an unknown word while reading, do you:

Read again to guess the meaning from the context

Or   Try to focus on details, grammatical clues, and connections between the words to get the meaning

9/26 Said that they read again to guess the meaning from the context

16/ prefer to focus on details, grammatical clues, and connections

Students answers start to give us a clear image about their learning styles and raise their awareness about them.

Q19. T: When understanding is impossible, what you do?

7/26 Ask peers and use dictionaries

2/26 Ask the teacher or ignore it

16/26 Try to think of a word that looks like it, I devide it into affixes or I use the dictionary

Q20. T: While writing, do you use words that you have memorized easily?

5/26 Said that they retrieve them easily

21/26 said that they find difficulty in re-using the new learned words in their writings

We noticed that the highest majority of learners(21 students) do not re-use the memorize words easily in their writings.

Here are some clarifications provided by learners:

I: well, I always think that I have many words in my mind, but when I try to use them I find difficulty and in most of the times I feel that I have no word in my mind, this happened to me in the pre-test you gave us

S: I feel anxious because I am not sure about the word I want to use it happened to me all the time

K: *I remember the form easily but the meaning somehow*

AN*: I spend too much time to remember and use the words in my essays*

L: *Many times I leave the space empty for words that I want to use because I can't remember them like I did in my essay in your test*

M*: I don't feel motivated to re-use them*

Q21. T: When you write draft and attempt to correct yourself?

2/26 Said not always 3/26 Said no

21/26 Said yes

T: *How do you perceive when you do so ?*

W: *I read quickly the whole essay or paraghraph or whatever and that's all*

I*: I revise the draft as a whole, I don't focus on details*

A*: I travel quickly over the text*

AN: *I focus on every word and I try to link it to others and I change it if possible*

L*: well, I revise every detail and correct the mistakes*

Y: *I focus on all the details in the text and I rewrite it and when I go home I keep on reading and correcting mistakes*

O*: Generally, I read my draft twice*

L: *I feel always stressed I read every detail but I feel afraid that I used wrong words, not well structured sentenses, etc*

Here are answers provided by students who said that they "not always" revise their drafts:

N: *If I find time I read my draft and try to correct my mistakes and change some words*

B: *Depending on my mood…..if I am not anxious I read my draft and focus on every detail I have written if no when I stop writing I do not even take a look at it*

From the students' answers we noticed that the majority are analytic they focus on details while revising and some of them are global; they read the text as a whole.

Q22. T: Do you feel that the teaching styles used by your teachers fit your own learning styles?

22/26 Said no

Only   4/26 said yes

Here are some justifications provided by the participants:

R*: I feel all the time bored because the majority of my teachers teach in a way that makes me loose concentration in class*

W*: They dictate and I prefer to study in a communicative way*

O: *There is no interaction, they teach for themselves*

I: *I feel always that there is a gap betwwen the teachers and me*

Q23. T: Does it affect your success in acquiring vocabulary?

7/26 Said no; they are mainly the students who prefer to study in a structural way and rely on themselves

19/26 Said yes

Below are some students' answers extracted from their full interviews

H: *I want to have a big amount of vocabulary, when teachers use new words I can not memorize them for a long time…. I think that if they try to take our learning styles and strategies into consideration I will feel motivated and learn more words*

S*: while teaching vocabulary the majority of teacher give us difinitions or they translate the word into French or Arabic, this does not help me to get the meaning because I prefer to have an example so that I can re-use it later on*

K: *Some teachers try hard to use different strategies to teach us new words and this help us a lot but because of the big number of students in the class they are obliged to give a definition and move on*

I: *Teachers are the source of information for me I learn many words from them when they present them in a way that fits my prefereable one but if no I feel stressed and forget about the meaning in few time*

Q24. T: Do you rely on the teacher and the classroom activities for everything you need to be successful?

Or   Do you find ways to continue learning language by yourself outside of the classroom?

10/26 Said that they continue learning by themselves outside the classroom

16/26 Said that they totally rely on their teachers and the classroom for everything

K: *Frankly, I have never tried to continue learning outside the classroom…even when a teacher gives us a home work I copy it from my friends*

L: *I like always to look for extra information when I go home from books, the internet and I ask other teachers*

O: *Learning for me ends when I go outside the classroom*

W: *I rely on the teachers notes and explanation but I prefer to make my own lessons so that I memorize them easily*

Y: *I rely on the teacher for everything because he is the only source of English for me, even in exams or in the classroom I use only his/her examples I do not look for extra information outside the classroom*

2.2. Summary of the Findings

Being able to consider the strength and weaknesses of students as well as their different learning styles is an ideal way to help students meet their goals. We attempt through this interview to consider every student as a whole and try to form a clear view about every

individual student' prefereable manner of learning English in general and acquiring vocabulary in particular since it's the dependent variable of our research without ignoring their motivation.

Based on the analysis above, the results demonstrate that learners in gereral though are more or less aware of their learning styles are not motivated to take part in the learning/teaching environment to enhance their abilities and achieve their goals.

The majority of learners are not satisfied with their achievement and are not motivated to study English and they also tend to lack confidence in ability to communicate effectively. An explanation could be that EFL education in our department results in passive knowledge, not active knowledge of English. The EFL classroom climate and the teachers' teaching styles might affect the learners' attitudes and achievement. Learning should be fun, and one goal of activities should be to build confidence. Teachers should first be aware of the fact that students have different styles of learning. They should be informed about all thsese styles and attempt to adapt or make their teaching in line with the students' ways and preferences of learning and opt for motivating tasks that reinforce their strengths or overcome their weaknesses.

Too much field independence is noticeable in the way many of our students seem to be able to pick out details very well, while been unaware of the larger context. They also show self-dependence, intrinsic motivation, and take risks and try new words and structure. Whereas some students focus on the whole context to deduce the meaning to reach understanding. They show high dependence on their teachers and the teaching materials which make them extrinsicaly motivated and prefer to be taught in a stuctural way. As far as vocabulary learning is concerned, field independent learners strongly emphasize on inductive strategies which is not the case for field dependent learners who prefer deductive strategies.

To sum up, students answers in the interview gave us a clear image about every student' learning style. 9 students (**Basma, Oussama, Radouane, Amina, Anissa, Karima, Lamia, Hanane, and walid**) are field dependent and **Leila, Belkiss, Yasmine, Sabrina, Issam,**

Nessrine, Khadija, Hadjer, Amina, Meriem, Nawal, Dounia, Zakaria, Houssem, Rihame, Tarek, and Imane (17 students) are field independent students.

3. Post Test

Students' answers and opinions in the questionnaire and interview allow us to form an over view about their needs, their learning styles, their prefereable ways to learn vocabulary, and their motivation.

The selection of the texts we relied on in our experiment to teach students vocabulary was not done randomly and it was not our proper choise but it was done following students interest. Only students of the experimental group were invited to watch a sery of 3 films and we asked them to select the most interesting one for them. The films were watched by the 26 students (experimental group) in room 116 one after the other, then we asked them to select. The most interesting film for them was "The Bank Job". This film was the source of inspiration of the topics of the texts that we relied on to teach vocabulary. 10 interesting topics were selected by students of the experimental groups, then, we selected texts that corespond to the topics chosen by students from "An Integrated Course for Advanced Students" (see appendix V) since texts in this book have been found suitable for teachers to teach vocabulary in authentic context and for students who wish to study on their own.

Both groups were taught vocabulary through different strategies for the same period of time, 16 weeks scattered over 32 sections (1h30 mns for each). Time provided for every text is around 4h 30mns.

With the experimental group we motivated students while reading the texts through being non-authoritative with them and make the learning environment more relaxed. We also matched our teaching stategies with theirs through the use of a variety of vocabulary teaching strategies and techniques(guessing the meaning from the text, give synonyms and antonyms, use translation, dictionary definitions, mimes, gestures, realia, and word association) to explain the

meaning of the new words inorder to give chance to all students to get the meaning following the strategy they prefer. It was not the case with the control group with which we rely on the traditional method of teaching vocabulary. We read the text and we gave a dictionary difinition to difficult words (we were the center of teaching).

After the meaning of the words was explained from the text, we used a variety of motivating activities to consolidate the meaning of the previously learned items (see appendix7). Since in the experimental group we have 16 field independent students and 9 field dependent, we used comrehension activities for FD learners to match with their needs and learning styles(guessing, scanning, predicting) whereas with FI students we used activities that focus more on details since they prefer strategies such as contrastive analysis, dividing words and phrases. The in-class activities were planned to match the needs as well as the interests of the students in the experimental group. Whereas with the conntrol group we used only matching items with their definitions as a unique activity.

Here are some fun vocabulary games and activities we used with the experimental group to consolidate the meaning of the learned words from the texts: word association, multiple choice, matching items, rerranging letters, information transfer, ordering activity, editing activity, gap-filling activity, cloze-test, C-activity, giving the students few definitions corresponding to 5-6 words and the student guess the word, and giving a situational context and students use the vocabulary learned. Then, we provided the learners with activities that promote productive use of vocabulary: completing sentences or texts, using words in sentenses, conversations, stories, etc; various games such as Hangman, I spy, and Bingo. Whereas with the control group we used only writing sentences.

After one month break the two groups were given the same post test. The test contains only one question where the learners were asked to write a composition (see appendix 8)

Composition

Every one of us has some scary memories in his/her life. Write a composition of not more than three developmental paragraphs in which you talk about a turning point in your life.

The objective of this test is to determine whether learners can retrieve successfuly the previously learned words in their compositions after the focus on their learning styles and raising their motivation while teaching vocabulary . In other words, this test seeks to determine if the independent variables of the research have an effect on the dependent variable.

The results obtained are interpreted in table .They represent the number of words used by learners in their compositions.

Students	Experimental Group X_1	Control Group X_2	X_1^2	X_2^2
S1	13	6	169	36
S2	13	9	169	81
S3	25	8	625	64
S4	24	7	576	49
S5	22	7	484	49
S6	26	5	676	25
S7	11	9	121	81
S8	22	4	484	16
S9	22	8	484	64
S10	25	5	625	25
S11	10	4	100	16
S12	12	6	144	36
S13	26	9	676	81
S14	25	7	625	49

S15	30	5	900	25
S16	22	8	484	64
S17	14	5	196	25
S18	23	3	529	9
S19	15	10	225	100
S20	10	3	100	9
S21	22	5	484	25
S22	14	4	196	16
S23	27	3	729	9
S24	28	10	784	100
S25	19	14	361	196
S26	27	16	727	256
N=26	$\overline{X}_1$= 20.26	$\overline{X}_2$= 6.92	ΣX_1^2= 11727	ΣX_2^2= 1506

Table 66: The Number of Words Used by Students in their Writing (compositions)

3.1. Interpretation and Analysis of the Results

The analysis of the results is done trough the use of t-test for independent groups because it is the most powerful one. This test facilitate the measurement of the effect of the independent variable on the dependent one. T-test is based on the idea that if the observed value of 't'(level of significance) is equal or greater than the critical value of 't' then we reject the null-hypothesis and in favour of the alternative hypothesis, which means that the independent variable(s) has an effect on students' performance.

The Calculation

1st Calculation of the mean

$\overline{X}$ ⟶ The mean

The formula is : $\overline{X} = \dfrac{\sum X}{N}$ / N : The number of the students per-group

$\overline{X_1} = \dfrac{\sum X_1}{N_1}$ /N$_1$= 26, $\sum X_1$ =527

$\overline{X_1}$= 20.26

$\overline{X_2} = \dfrac{\sum X_2}{N_2}$ /N$_2$= 26, $\sum X_2$ = 180

$\overline{X_2}$= 6.92

2nd Calculation of the Variances

S_1^2 : The variance of the experimental group

S_2^2 : The variance of the control group

The formula is : $S^2 = \dfrac{\sum X^2}{N} - \overline{X}^2$

So : $S^2_1 = \dfrac{\sum X^2_1}{N_1} - \overline{X}^2_1$

S^2_1= 40.57

$S^2_2 = \dfrac{\sum X^2_2}{N_2} - \overline{X}^2_2$

S^2_2= 10.04

3rd Calculation of the level of significance 't' "

The formula is :

$t(n_1+n_2-2) = \dfrac{(\overline{X_1}-\overline{X_2})\sqrt{(N_1+N_2-2)(N_1 N_2)}}{\rule{4cm}{0.4pt}}$

$$\sqrt{(N_1S_1{}^2+N_2S_2{}^2)(N_1N_2)}$$

t (50)= 2.59

t= 2.59

4th Calculation of the degree of freedom

df=N1+N2−2

df= 50

Using statistical tables for 50 degree of freedom, the value of "t" required is (2.41). As the observed "t" (2.59) is greater than (2.41) : thus we confirm the alternative hypothesis which means that focusing on students styles and enhancing their motivation increase their vocabulary acquisition. We can notice from table 66 that students experimental groupproduce high number of words in their compositions. The number of words used by the highest majority of students can be represented as follows:

Words 14≤ students≤ 30words

However, students in the control group produce few words in their writing i.e. their compositions were poor in term of vocabulary. This implies that the transfer of the previously learned words is not effective. The number of words used by learners in this group can be represented as follows:

5≤students≤14

The results of the test showed that the learners acquired more than half of the words, they did not know, when we focus on their styles and raise their motivation through motivating activities, and re-use them in their compositions with different degrees of attainment. Likewise, they also confirmed the research hypothesis.

4. Triangulation of the Results

To achieve the aim of this research, answer the research questions, and attempt to confirm the hypothesis we relied on quantitative tools (tests) and qualitative tools (learners and teachers questionnaires and interview).
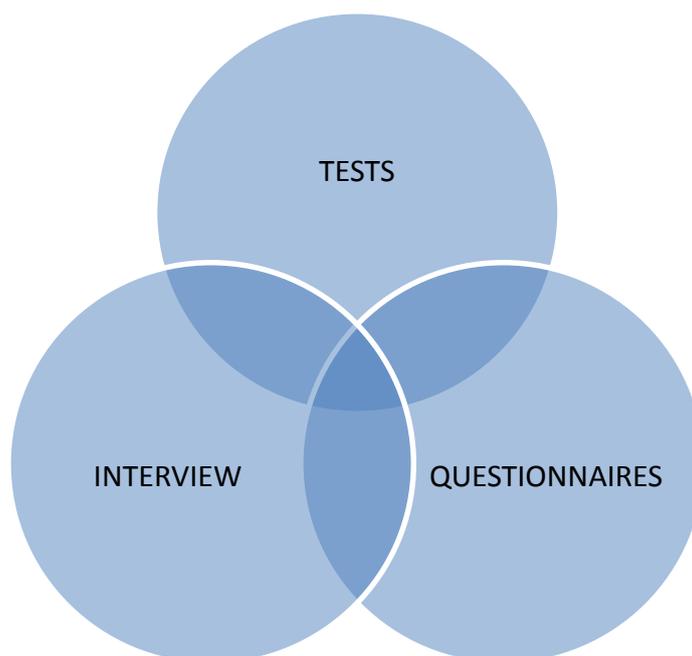
The triangulation of the evidences produced by the three tools of research confirmed our hypothesis and proved that linking the teacher's teaching styles with his learners styles and raise their motivation while teaching vocabulary leads to better rettention and retrieval of the new learned words.

Through the process of conducting several questionnaires, the results indicate that the learning styles of many students and the teaching styles of many teachers do not match. This leads to frustration on the part of the teacher and a missed opportunity on the part of the student. Few teachers in the study are able to teach to a wide variety of students and at the same time satisfy all the various different learning styles. Furthermore, the present research shows that there are many problems in the present state of English vocabulary teaching. The teachers lack the initiative to explore new methods in vocabulary teaching: most teachers still keep a

traditional English vocabulary teaching procedure; their teaching pattern is unitary; some teachers cannot help students develop vocabulary learning strategies; other teachers cannot use various methods in vocabulary teaching in a flexible way. In other words, there are few strategies involved in their vocabulary teaching. However, teaching strategies can take students to promote their own learning success, which include a vast number of teaching techniques so as to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more effective, and to boost performance. Developing teaching strategies can help students find a variety of tools to aid learning and understanding. In the case of the visual learners, this will mean validating those techniques that appeal to their learning channel preferences while promoting other appropriate techniques for other learners.

In all academic classrooms, no matter what the subject is, there will be students with multiple learning styles. Everyday teachers make instructional decisions before, during, and after meeting the students, and these decisions lead to tailored instruction to individuals or groups in the classrooms. There are academically diverse learners and teachers need to make curriculum choices that complement our students' interests, strengths and needs. The effective teacher is constantly making decisions about how to present information to achieve this, as well as monitoring and adjusting presentations to accommodate individual differences and enhance the learning of all students. An effective means of accommodating these learning styles is for teachers to change their own styles and strategies and provide a variety of activities to meet the needs of different learning styles . Then all students will have at least some activities that appeal to them based on their learning styles, and they are more likely to be successful in these activities. When presenting content, effective teachers gain their students' attention, interact positively with the students, review previously covered material, and provide an organization for the material (e.g. graphic organizers , outlines, anticipation guides). Clear directions, adequate examples, and practice need to be provided in a relevant context for students.

When it comes to vocabulary teaching, the traditional way of vocabulary teaching makes the students lazy and bored. The teacher needs something different to make students interested and motivated. They should combine their vocabulary teaching method with the different learning styles . The suggested multisensory approach requires the integration of visual, auditory , and kinesthetic techniques in classroom teaching. It can simultaneously meet the various needs of learners to enhance memory and learning. The right combination of these activities varies with the class profile.

Therefore, EFL teachers should encourage students to build their confidence by using direct, audio-lingual, community language learning and communicative approaches, methods and practices and give them more active practice in their learning skills. Individual differences of students need to be considered and the instructional delivery system needs to correspond to the varying abilities of the students. Students may fail to learn the material if the teacher's style of teaching does not match their learning styles . Many researchers claim that students with highly preferred learning styles achieve higher test scores when instructional conditions or resources complement their preferred styles . By teaching to the particular learning styles of students, learning outcomes can be improved.

Based on the analysis of the interview, the results demonstrate that learners in gereral though are more or less aware of their learning styles are not motivated to take part in the learning/teaching environment to enhance their abilities and achieve their goals. Their results in the pre-test confirmed what has been said above

The majority of learners are not satisfied with their achievement and are not motivated to study English and they also tend to lack confidence in ability to communicate effectively. An explanation could be that EFL education in our department results in passive knowledge, not active knowledge of English. The EFL classroom climate and the teachers' teaching styles might affect the learners' attitudes and achievement. Learning should be fun, and one goal of activities

should be to build confidence. Teachers should first be aware of the fact that students have different styles of learning. They should be informed about all thsese styles and attempt to adapt or make their teaching in line with the students' ways and preferences of learning and opt for motivating tasks that reinforce their strengths or overcome their weaknesses.

Too much field independence is noticeable in the way many of our students seem to be able to pick out details very well, while been unaware of the larger context. They also show self-dependence, intrinsic motivation, and take risks and try new words and structure. Whereas some students focus on the whole context to deduce the meaning to reach understanding. They show high dependence on their teachers and the teaching materials which make them extrinsicaly motivated and prefer to be taught in a stuctural way. As far as vocabulary learning is concerned, field independent learners strongly emphasize on inductive strategies which is not the case for field dependent learners who prefer deductive strategies.

Students' answers and opinions in the questionnaire and interview allow us to form an over view about their needs, their learning styles, their prefereable ways to learn vocabulary, and their motivation.

The triangulation of the results shows that the learners prove to have learned nearly all the new words and retrieved them successfully in their writing productions when we focus on their learning styles and raised their awareness about how to use them and enhance their motivation while accomplishing the task of vocabulary learning.

Focusing on the learners' learning styles and matching our teaching styles accordingly

$+$

Raising students' motivation while presenting new items

॥
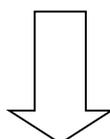
Conclusion

The results of this investigation confirm the hypothesis and show that the learners prove to have learned nearly all the new words and retrieved them successfully in their writing productions. When we focus on their learning styles and raised their awareness about how to use them, we enhance their motivation while accomplishing the task of vocabulary learning. Hence, we conclude that students' internal factors should be considered in order to improve learning efficiency. When teachers are aware of the importance of learning styles and motivation, they can provide their students with better vocabulary learning opportunities.

Chapter Seven : Study results and Pedagogical implications

Introduction

1. **Discussion of the Results of the Study and Answering the Research Questions**

2. **Confirming the Hypothesis**

3. **Some Suggestions and Pedagogical Implications**

4. **Limitations of the Study**

Conclusion

Chapter Seven: Study Results and Pedagogical Recommendations

Introduction

On the basis of what has been discussed in both the theoretical aspect and the practical one, this chapter follows to provide some interesting insights that are more directly related to implementation and practice. It takes into account the relevant answers that the research provides to the research questions and attempts to discuss the hypothesis in the light of the research findings.

1. Discussion of the Results of the Study and Answering the Research Questions

The present research was conducted to examine whether learning styles and motivation contribute to the acquisition of vocabulary and the level of proficiency achieved. The ultimate objective was to answer the main research questions :

- Can instructors identify the types of learning preferences that students exihibit ?

- How can teachers deal with differences they observe ?

- Which of these differences require different instructional techniques ?

- Do instructors give students scope to use their own initiative ?

- Does increased proficiency lead to higher motivation ?   or

- Do more motivated learners reach higher level of vocabulary acquisition ?

- Does the teacher's focus on his students' learning style increase their vocabulary acquisition ?

- Does the teacher's focus on his students' learning styles and motivation while teaching new vocabulary items help them retrieve what has been learned successfully in new contexts ?

According to the teachers' questionnaire, it was found in question '5' section 2 that the majority of teachers (13teachers) cannot identify their students' preferences. While teaching,

they do not take into consideration their students' needs and preferences complaining about the bad teaching conditions such as : the big number of students per-group, and the programme that they have to cover (see question 20 section 4) which prevent them from identifying their students' needs and preferences. The above results confirm the students' answers about their teachers' teaching styles. Almost all students consider their teachers as controlling. They teach without taking into consideration their students' motivation, needs, and learning styles.

As far as how can teachers deal with the differences they observe in their classrooms, only few minority make curriculum choices and needs analysis to complement their students' interest, strengths, and needs. Although all teachers admit that students have different learning styles which require adapted teaching, only very few use different teaching techniques to fit the needs of their students.

Besides, the results obtained in the present study about whether instructors give students scope to use their own initiatives can be linked to teacher-centered teaching. The analysis of the teachers' and students' answers show that teacher-centered teaching (the majority of students-31-in question 12 consider their teachers as authoritative and the center of teaching in question 14) provide rare opportunities for learners to feel involved at learning a process is more likely to inhibit the learners' desire and motivation.

 Out of 37 students who were unsatisfied with their studies, 31 considered their teachers as authoritative. The results prove that students' dissatisfaction with studies strongly correlates with their view that their teachers are rather controlling. Furthermore, the other correlation, i.e., students' negative opinion about teachers too, strongly correlates with their dissatisfaction with studies. One possible explanation to this is that because students consider their teachers authoritative, they have little by little been demotivated towards studies. It is undeniable that teachers' styles do play a crucial role in their students' motivation and interest.

Concerning motivation to acquire vocabulary, all teachers and learners agree that motivation leads to better vocabulary acquisition. Results obtained show that the highest majority of teachers (15 out of 20 teachers) (see question 22) do not create a motivating environment and do not provide a variety of motivating activities while teaching vocabulary. Following students' answers, all of them prefer a motivating environment because it leads to high intrinsic motivation and to better vocabulary acquisition. Students and teachers consider motivation a key element in learning and acquiring vocabulary. Motivational environment allow learners to express their their capacities and their intrinsic capabilities and lead to better vocabulary improvement.

'Does the teacher's focus on his students' learning styles increase their vocabulary acquisition ?'. Students' answers to question '22' (see learners questionnaire) reveal that their teachers do not match their teaching styles and activities with their learning styles and prefereable strategies to acquire vocabulary. They are the center of teaching. Whereas, few others consider their learners as the center of learning/teaching. They use strategies and choose activities to fit the needs of their learners for better vocabulary acquisition. Moreover, they (44 students) confirm that while their teachers focus on their prefereable manner of learning vocabulary this leads to high motivation and better acquisition of new words.

The research questions were deduced from the learning/teaching context in the department of Letters and English Language at Constantine1 University. Both teachers' and learners' answers from the analysis of the 2 questionnaires gave us an over view about the teaching/learning styles and motivation that directly contribute to vocabulary acquisition. The answers obtained also helped us in the design of the experiment and in confirming the hypothesis. From the triangulation of the results obtained in this research, the research questions were answered successfully and the hypothesis was confirmed.

2. Confirming the Hypothesis

The present research attempts to establish the importance of students' learning styles and motivation in second language teaching/learning and how they affect their vocabulary acquisition as a key aspect of developing proficiency in a Second Language. The underlying hypothesis is that if teachers focus on the learners' learning styles and attempt to raise their motivation, this may help them for better vocabulary acquisition.

The research questions build a platform in the design of the experiment in order to measure the the effect of the independent variables (focusing on the learners' styles, matching the teaching styles accordingly, and raising their motivation) on the dependent variable (learners' vocabulary acquisition) to confirm or reject our hypothesis. The students' and teachers' answers gave us an overview about the learners motivation and prefered manners and strategies of learning in general and learning vocabulary in particular. Besides, they provide us with a clear image about the teaching atmosphere and the teachers' styles in the department of Letters and English Language since it is the educational setting in which we conduct our research.

Through interviewing the students in the experimental group we formed a deep image about every individual's prefereable learning style and motivation to acquire vocabulary. This helped us to consider every student as a whole, to provide a variety of motivating activities, and to match our teaching styles accordingly.

The results of this investigation answered the research questions and confirmed the hypothesis. It shows that the learners in the experimental group proved to have learned nearly all the new words and retrieved them successfully in their writing productions when we focused on their learning styles and raised their awareness about how to use them and attempted to enhance their motivation while accomplishing the task.

3. Some Suggestions and Pedagogical Implications

EFL Learning and Teaching

The term learning applies to a conscious process of accumulating knowledge of features, such as vocabulary and grammar, of a language, typically in instructional settings (Yule 2006:163). More than any other species, people are designed to be flexible learners and active agents of acquiring knowledge and skills. Much of what people learn requires formal training, usually in schools. While activities associated with learning have traditionally been used language teaching in schools and have a tendency, when successful, to result in more knowledge 'about' the language (as demonstrated in tests) than fluency in actually using the language (as demonstrated in social interaction) (Yule 2006:163) . The need for instruction in other languages has led to variety of educational approaches and methods of fostering L2 learning. More recent approaches designed to promote L2 learning have tended to reflect different theoretical views on how an L2 might best be learned.

The most traditional approach is to treat L2 learning in the same way as any other academic subject. Vocabulary lists and sets of grammar rules are used to define the target of learning, memorization is encouraged, and written language rather than spoken language is emphasized. This method has its roots in the traditional teaching of Latin and is described as the grammar-translation method (Yule 2006:165). In this case, the focus is on the language itself, rather than on the information which is carried by the language. Therefore, the goal for the teacher is to see to it that students learn the vocabulary and grammatical rules of the target language. The learners' goal in such a course is often to pass an examination rather than to use the language for daily communication interaction. Traditionally the teaching of EFL is dominated by a teacher-centered, book-centered, grammar-translation method and emphasis on rote memory (Liu & Littlewood 1997). These traditional language teaching approaches have resulted in a number of typical learning styles, with introverted learning being one of them.

Introverted learners enjoy generating energy and ideas from internal sources, such as brainstorming, personal reflection and theoretical exploration. These learners prefer to think about things before attempting to try a new skill. Most students see knowledge as something to be transmitted by the teacher rather than discovered by the learners. They , therefore, find it normal to engage in modes of learning which are teacher-centered and in which they receive knowledge rather than interpret it. Therefore, the students are often quiet, shy and reticent in language classrooms. They dislike public touch and overt displays of opinions or emotions, indicating a reserve that is the hallmark of introverts. Other students likewise name "listening to teacher" as their most frequent activity in senior school English classes (Liu & Littlewood 1997). This teacher-centered classroom teaching also leads to a closure-oriented style— focusing carefully on all learning tasks.

A very different approach, emphasizing the spoken language, became popular in the middle of the twentieth centuryIt involved a systematic presentation of the structures of the L2, moving from the simple to the more complex, in the form of drills that the student had to repeat. This approach is called the audiolingual method (Yule 2006:165). It was influenced by a belief that the fluent use of a language was essentially a set of 'habits' that could be developed with much practice, which involved hours spent in a language laboratory repeating oral drills.

More recent revisions of the L2 learning experience can best be described as communicative approaches. Although there are many different versions of how to create communicative experiences for L2 learners, they are all based on a belief that the functions of language (what it is used for) should be emphasized rather than the forms of the language (correct grammatical or phonological structures) (Yule 2006:166). Communicative instructional environments involve learners whose goal is learning the language itself, but the style of instruction places the emphasis on interaction, conversation, and language use, rather than on learning about the language. The communicative approach is based on innatist and interactionist

theories of language learning and emphasizes the communication of meaning both between teacher and students and among the students themselves in group or pair work. Grammatical forms are focused on only in order to clarify meaning (Lightbown & Spada 2006:95). In these classes, the focus may occasionally be on the language itself, but the emphasis is on using the language rather than talking about it. The teacher tries to lead learners to use the language in a variety of contexts. Students' success in these courses is often measured in terms of their ability to "get things done" in the second language, rather than on their accuracy in using certain grammatical features. Through communication-based approach, pupils will be able to gain knowledge by challenging its meaning. The emphasis in this activity is on communicating messages where meaning is the clear priority in the interaction (Lightbown & Spada 2006:113) . With this kind of communication between teacher and students, students are able to understand the meaning of a subject by analyzing, critical thinking and freely expressing their knowledge.

The most fundamental change in the area of L2 learning in recent years has been a shift from concern with the teacher, the textbook and the method to an interest in the learner (Yule 2006:166). This method is to focus on the learnerFor example, one radical feature of most communicative approaches is the toleration of 'errors' produced by students. Traditionally 'errors' were regarded negatively and had to be avoided. The more recent acceptance of such errors in learners' use of the L2 is based on a fundamental shift from the traditional view of how L2 learning takes place. An 'error' is not something that hinders a student's progress. Just as children acquiring their L1 produce certain types of ungrammatical forms at times, so we might expect the L2 learner to produce similar forms at certain stages.

Generally speaking, students learn more when information is presented in a variety of modes than when only a single mode is used. The point is supported by a research study carried out several decades ago. Felder and Henriques (1995:28) claim that students retain 10 percent of what they read, 26 percent of what they hear, 30 percent of what they see, 50 percent of what

they see and hear, 70 percent of what they say , and 90 percent of what they say as they do something. Thus, what must be done to achieve effective foreign language learning is to balance instructional methods, so that all learning styles are simultaneously accommodated.

However, teaching styles are made up of the methods and approaches with which instructors feel most comfortable; if they tried to change to completely different approaches they would be forced to work entirely with unfamiliar, awkward, and uncomfortable methods, probably with disastrous results from the students' point of view . Fortunately , instructors who wish to address a wide variety of learning styles need not make drastic changes in their instructional approach. The way they normally teach addresses the needs of at least three of the specified learning style categories; regular use of at least some of the instructional techniques given below should suffice to cover the remaining five (Felder & Henriques 1995:28-29).

• Motivate learning. As much as possible, teach new material (vocabulary, rules of grammar) in the context of situations to which the students can relate in terms of their personal and career experiences, past and anticipated, rather than simply as more material to memorize (intuitive, global, inductive).

• Balance concrete information (word definitions, rules for verb conjugation and adjective-noun agreement) (sensing) and conceptual information (syntactical and semantic patterns, comparisons and contrasts with the students' native language) (intuition) in every course at every level. The balance does not have to be equal, and in elementary courses it may be shifted heavily toward the sensing side, but there should periodically be something to capture the intuitors' interest.

• Balance structured teaching approaches that emphasize formal training (deductive, sequential) with more open-ended unstructured activities that emphasize conversation and cultural contexts of the target language (inductive, global).

• Make liberal use of visuals. Use photographs, drawings, sketches, and cartoons to illustrate and reinforce the meanings of vocabulary words. Show films, videotapes, and live dramatizations to illustrate lessons in texts (visual, global.)

It is impossible for instructors to do all that in a course and still cover the syllabus. They can make extensive use of some of the recommended approaches, particularly those involving opportunities for student activity during class. The idea, however, is not to adopt all the techniques at once but rather to pick several that look feasible and try them on an occasional basis. In this way a teaching style that is both effective for students and comfortable for the instructor will evolve naturally , with a potentially dramatic effect on the quality of learning that subsequently occurs. In all classrooms, there will be students with multiple learning styles and students with a variety of major, minor and negative learning styles . An effective means of accommodating these learning styles is for teachers to change their own styles and strategies and provide a variety of activities to meet the needs of different learning styles. Then all students will have at least some activities that appeal to them based on their learning styles, and they are more likely to be successful in these activities. Creating multi-sensory lessons that help students focus on the material at hand is a helpful way to meet this goal. These activities will be that the student has a visual memory from seeing materials, an auditory memory from hearing the sound it makes, and a kinetic memory from having body movement. When planning a unit, the teacher should try to check to be certain that he or she includes elements like movement activity , pictures, tape recorder and so on. In order to meet diverse needs from individual students, many multi-sensory activities need to be presented at once.

Vocabulary Teaching

Vocabulary instruction is one of the most important aspects of language teaching. One of the main tasks of a language teacher is to help students develop a sufficiently large vocabulary This section will present a few vocabulary teaching points that related to the study

Word Associations

The words are related to each other in various ways . Richards (2008:37) illustrates two examples to show the word association: (1) the meaning of the word depends to some extent on its relationship to other similar words, often through sense relations, and (2) words in a word family are related to each other through having a common base form, but different inflectional and derivational affixes. It seems logical to assume that these relationships are not just quirks, but reflect some type of underlying mental relationship in the mind. In association methodology , a stimulus word is given to subjects and the automatic responses that have been thought out will have the strong connection with the stimulus in the subjects' lexcion. For a stimulus word like needle, typical responses would be thread , pin, sharp, and sew. However, different people might have different associations attached to a word like needle. They might associate it with "pain", or "blood", or "hard to find". These associations are not treated as a part of the word's conceptual meaning. Not only can words be treated as "containers" of meaning, or as fulfilling "roles" in events, they can also have "relationships" with each other (Yu l e 2006:104). Word s cannot be treated as if they were a swarm of bees — a bundle of separate items attached to one another in a fairly random wayThey are clearly interdependent In some cases it is difficult to understand a word without knowing the words around it: orange is best understood by looking at it in relation to red and yellow, or warm by considering it as the area between hot and cold (Aitchison 2003:75). Every word in the language has similar links with numerous others. In everyday talk, we often explain the meaning of words in terms of their relationships. For example, if we are asking the meaning of the word shallow, we might give the meaning as "the opposite of deep". This approach is used in the semantic description of language and treated as the analysis of lexical relations. Suppose the mental lexicon is a sort of connected graph, with lexicon items at the nodes with paths from each item to the other ". Theories of this type are known as network theories. A network is 'anything reticulated or decussated at equal distances, with interstices

between the intersections'. A network in relation to the mental lexicon simply means "an interconnected system" (Aitchison 2003:84). If you ask a thousand people what you think of when you say hammer, more than half will say nail. If you say table, they will mostly say chair, and butter elicits bread , needle elicits thread and salt elicits pepper. A network of some type is inevitable. The link between one particular word and another is formed by habits. There are many different types of link between the stimulus word and the response. Collocation is a common response involving a word which was likely to be collocated (found together) with the stimulus in connected speech, as with salt water, butterfly net, bright red (Aitchison 2003:86) . Lexical collocation has been defined as the occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text (Sinclair 1991: 170). The list of lexical collocation includes information about the frequency of words used in collocation as well as specific statistical counts used to calculate the figures needed for comparison and authorization of the examples of collocation. Collocation is the relationship between two words or groups of words that often go together and form a common expression. There is a principle to interpret the way in which meaning arises from language text. Collocation illustrates the idiom principle, that is, a language user has available to him or her a large number of semi-preconstructed phrases that constitute single choices, even though they might appear to be analyzable into segments (Sinclair 1997:110). This may reflect the recurrence of similar situations in human affairs; it may illustrate a natural tendency to economy of effort; or it may be motivated by the exigencies of real-time conversation. At its simplest, the principle of idiom can be seen in the apparently simultaneous choice of two words, for example, ofcourse (Sinclair 1997:110). On some occasions, words appear to be chosen in pairs or groups and these are not necessarily adjacent. If the expression is heard often, the words become 'glued' together in our minds. "Crystal clear", "middle management", "nuclear family" and "cosmetic surgery" are examples of collocated pairs of words. Some words are often found together because they make up a compound noun, for

example "riding boots" or "motor cyclist". English has many of these collocated expressions and some linguists argue that our mental lexicon is made up of many collocated words and phrases as well as individual items.

Vocabulary in Discourse

Most people think of vocabulary as lists of words. However, apart from single words, vocabularies include numerous multi-word items. Richards (2008:97) states that the words take on aspect of a single entity, that is, a string of words acts as a single lexeme with a single meaning. When this happens, those lexemes are called multiword units. Vocabulary is more than just individual words working separately in a discourse environment (Richards 2008:113). Therefore, once words are placed in discourse, they establish numerous links beyond the single orthographic word level, such as set phrases, variable phrases, phrasal verbs and idioms. Thornbury (2002: 6) mentions the term "lexeme" which he defines as "a word or group of words that function as a single meaning unit." Additionally , he talks about lexical chunks, which vary in the degree in which they can be fixed or idiomatic, sentence frames, and phrasal verbs. Despite the differences in terminology, it is obvious that the above-mentioned classifications highlight the fact that words require their neighboring words to express meaning. Learners need to keep in mind that these multi-word units are necessary if natural communication is to happen. For example, in order to acquire phrasal verbs, students need to understand their form, their meaning and their use. Larsen-Freeman (2001: 254) mentions that knowing the form of a phrasal verb includes knowing whether it is followed by a particle or by a preposition, whether it is transitive or intransitive, whether it is separable or not, and what stress and juncture patterns are used. Knowing the meaning encompasses literal, figurative and multiple meanings. Finally, knowing the use covers understanding the fact that phrasal verbs are part of informal discourse and that they operate by the principle of dominance. For example, if learners encounter the verb "look" in a reading passage and have trouble understanding what it means, their chances of

guessing the meaning from context are minimized if they ignore the particle or preposition that follows it, such as look afterlook up, look around. If then they decide to look it up in a dictionary, they will not necessarily find the definition that fits the context.

There is a need for the instructor's direct intervention in the teaching of selected vocabulary items. There are several techniques and procedures a teacher might choose to help learners acquire new vocabulary items. Lewis (1997) claims that what teachers need to do is adapt activities so that the tasks have a clear lexical focus. To achieve this goal, Lewis (1997: 205) points out that teachers should do the following:

• Consciously take every chance to expand the learners' phrasal lexicon.

• Highlight Fixed Expressions and prototypical examples, so ensuring learners have maximum benefit from the language they meet.

• Encourage accurate observation and noticing by learners, but without excessive analysis .

• Use many different ways to increase learners' awareness of the value of noticing, recording and learning multi-word items.

• Encourage lexical, but not structural, comparison between L1 and L2 .

• Help learners to hear and learn language in multi-word units.

Using the context of surrounding words and sentences, students will be able to figure out the meaning of new and unfamiliar words to enhance reading enjoyment. They will practice looking for new and unfamiliar words in prepared sentences and use context to determine meanings of words.

Techniques

During a child's early years, the order in which he learns the vocabulary in his mother tongue is this: the child has an experience with some object (perhaps a new toy truck). While his attention is on the truck, the child then hears the name of the object which has attracted his interest. First the child's attention is drawn to the truck; then the child gets the word that names

it. In second-language classes, we can apply what has been discovered about the acquisition of first language vocabulary (Allen 1983:13). Whenever possible, teachers offer their students some sort of experience with an object for which the English word will be taught. They can draw students' attention to an object before spending much time on the English name for it. For instance, if the textbook has a picture that shows a man and a woman, and the English words man, woman have not already been taught, we do not need to introduce those words now. When the students see the pictured man and woman, they will request the English words. When that happens, we are delighted to supply those words. Therefore, at the beginning of the vocabulary lesson, we call students' attention to the set of stick figures. This can be done by pointing, or by covering one of the figures with a piece of paper, or by drawing a frame around the figures.

One of the best known proposals for second language teaching approach is called Total Physical Response (TPR). TPR was developed by James Asher, whose research has shown that students can develop quite advanced levels of comprehension in the language without engaging in oral practice (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 130). In TPR classes, students participate in activities in which they hear a series of commands in the target language, for example: "stand up", "sit down", "pick up the book", "put the book on the table". For a substantial number of hours of instruction, students are not required to say anything. They simply listen and show their comprehension by their actions. Asher's research shows that, for beginners, this kind of listening activity gives learners a good start (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 130). It allows them to build up a considerable knowledge of the language without feeling the nervousness that often accompanies the first attempts to speak the new language. When we ask students to respond physically to oral commands which use the new words, the activity is very much what happens when one is learning one's mother tongue (Allen 1983:23). Each of us — while learning our own language — heard commands and obeyed them for many months before we spoke a single word. Children have frequent experiences in obeying commands during the early years of learning the mother

tongue. Those experiences appear to play an important part in the learning of vocabularyComparable experiences should be provided in the second language classroom for students of all ages. When students have observed an action — touching, for example — and have wondered what the action is called in English, it is not difficult to teach them the word touch. For mastery of the word, we can ask the class to obey simple commands that contain touch; the commands are given first by the teacher, then by selected students.

Demonstrating an action is the best way of teaching meaning of many verbs (Allen 1983:37). To teach the word walk, for instance, we start walking toward another part of the classroom. When it appears that the students are paying attention and wondering about the purpose of our action, we say , while continuing to walk, "I'm walking...walking." The meaning of other verbs can be shown through simple dramatic presentations. Even teachers with no dramatic ability can mime certain actions well enough to show the meaning of verbs like eat, drink, laugh and smile. Pictures are very useful for showing the meanings of verb phrases (is running, isjumping, areplayingfootball). But they do not offer the best way of introducing the single-word verb forms like jump, play, or walk. To introduce the meaning of a verb, it is easy and helpful to use our commands. The command is spoken loudly by the teacher in English, the students perform the action.

Games

Gibb (1978), quoted by Rixon (1992:3), claims that a game is an activity carried out by cooperating or competing decision-makers, seeking to achieve, within a set of rules, their objectives. Applying this to teaching, we can know how students playing a game are encouraged to use language to some purpose. Language should always be the basis of the game, especially in classes where students are of different abilities. Looking at the language skills involved is a good start when considering whether a particular game will be suitable for a particular purpose, but other features may be just as important (Rixon 1992:1). For language-teaching purposes we need

to make sure that the skills needed in any game are heavily enough weighted on the language side. For example, chess is an excellent game in itself, but it is almost useless from the language-teaching point of viewLee (1997:2) claims that most language games distract the learners' attention from the study of linguistic forms. They stop thinking about the language and instead use it. A language is learnt by using it, and it means using it in situations and communicatively. Thus, all language games must be communicative in order to aid language learning activity, and provide the learners with communicative experience of one sort.

The actual language that is called for varies from game to game, but there is a basic division in what the students must do with it to achieve success, which can help to keep up the students' interest. Games that involve running around in response to words of command are also popular with the very active students and give them training in listening skills (Rixon 1992:39) . Much enjoyable language work could be built into their physical training lessons. The games could interest the students in formal accuracy —through enjoyment.

Two games in language teaching and learning run through everything a teacher does, that is, games whose main focus is on correctness and those in which it is on communicative effectiveness (Rixon 1992:22) . Different types of game are appropriate for different purposes. The games which depend upon players producing correct language must be controlled or at least led by the teacher, who awards credit for correct answers. Correct repetition of a limited range of language is the important thing in these games. Players must get things right in order to win. Players can be required to say something correctly , sometimes to practice a structure, or to extend vocabulary and challenge memory , while the emphasis of communication games is on the overall message of players' language (Rixon 1992:27) . Success is judged by the outcome of what is said rather than by its form. The language used by the players may be formally less than perfect, but if the message is understood the objective will be reached. The students can measure their own success by the speed and efficiency with which they reach the objective of the game. A

good example of communication game is Describe and Draw the main rule in this game is the one that forbids player B to see the original picture before the end of the game. The only way he can find out about it is by having a conversation with A. The language used as the two sides try to solve the problem will be free and varied.

Games, in the strict sense, have definite beginning and end and are governed by rules (Lee 1997:3). A well-designed game has its own momentum and is far less likely to 'run out of stream' than many other classroom activities. This closure is useful and students know when a game will be overIt helps to give some structure to what they are doing. There is a definite point at which the game is over, and it is easy to monitor students' performance and give them appropriate help on the language side.

Strategies that Enhance Motivation

Return to Autonomy-Support versus Control

We have explained in chapter 2 that autonomy-support is important but that it is misunderstood and often confused with permissiveness.

The Main Criteria and Advantages of an Autonomy-Supportive Teaching Practice

1. Allow more learner involvement in the learning process.

Probably the key issue in increasing learner involvement is to share responsibility with the learners about their learning process. They need to feel that they are, at least partly, in control of what is happening to them. This can be achieved by different ways:

1a.   Allow learners choices about as many aspects of the learning process as possible, for example, about activities, teaching materials, topics, assignment, or the peers they want to work with. In the listening session, teaching materials, topic, and activities can be discussed with students. As we consider choice as being the essence of responsibility, it must be, however, gradual, starting, for instance, with given options from a menu or list which students are invited

to choose from, then they are allowed to make modifications, and changes, till they arrive at finally selecting goals and procedures completely on their own.

1b.   When appropriate, allow learners to use self-assessment procedures (meta-cognitive strategies). This will raise students' awareness about the mistakes and successes of their own learning, and gives them a concrete sense of participation in the learning process.

Change in the Teacher's Role.

The increase of learner autonomy is partly dependent on a less traditional teaching style. A more autonomy-supportive style is somehow a facilitating style. The teacher as facilitator does not actually teach in the traditional sense- that is, does not consider the students empty vessels that need to be filled with words of wisdom coming entirely from the teacher and the course-book- but views himself/herself as a helper and instructional designer who leads learners to discover and create their own meanings about the world.

Cooperative Language Learning

As it was explained in chapter I, Cooperative Language Learning is an approach that attempts to make maximum use of cooperative activities involving pairs and small groups of learners in the classroom. This particular approach is aimed for all teachers. Although the number of students in a group is growing more and more and teachers' tasks are getting harder and harder, we think that cooperative language learning and teaching is still possible in some modules.

The proponents of the self-determination theory have focused on students' autonomy and competence. They warned against some destructive teaching styles and learning habits, such as the promotion of competition and the wide use of some external incentives to motivate their students (grades, and some constraints, etc.). Cooperative Language Learning is, in our opinion, one possible way to create healthy learning conditions that can enhance students' motivation. However, we are not recommending cooperative learning where students work in

small groups and where each student is responsible for the results and achievement of the group. Cooperative learning should not exert a pressure on learners; the learning atmosphere should be relaxed. The way how the proponents of this approach have conceived of the role of learners and teachers is really demanding. According to the proponents of the self-determination theory, cooperation is the opposite of competition. So, cooperation is where learners learn in an atmosphere devoid of competition, rivalry, adversity, and frustration.

Providing Good Conditions to Enhance Motivation

The following three motivational conditions are in our eyes indispensable:

1. Appropriate teacher behaviours and a good relationship with the students

2. A pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere

3. A cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms

Teacher Style

Among the qualities a teacher needs to have are enthusiasm, commitment to and expectations to students' learning, and relationship with students.

Enthusiasm

Csikszentmihalyi (1997) in a thought- provoking article asked questions about who had been our most influential teachers and who had made a difference in our life. His answer was the most enthusiastic ones. The ones who love their subject matter and who show by their dedication and their passion that there is nothing else on earth they would rather be doing.

Csikszentmihalyi (1997) adds:

> Young people are more intelligent than adults generally give them credit for. They can usually discern, for instance, whether an adult they know likes or dislikes what he or she is doing. If a teacher does not believe in his job, does not enjoy the learning he is trying to transmit, the student will sense this and derive the entirely rational conclusion that the particular subject matter is not worth mastering for its own sake (1997: 77).

Many scholars share Csikszentmihalyi's belief that enthusiasm for one's specialization area and the ability to make this enthusiasm public rather than hiding it is one of the most important ingredients of motivationally successful teaching.

Teacher's Endorsement of Students Learning

Broadly speaking, showing commitment towards the students' learning and progress means that there is good chance that students will do the same. There are many ways of expressing that the students' learning matters to the teacher. Dornyei proposes the following:

"Offering concrete assistance
Offering to meet students individually to explain things
Responding immediately when help is requested
Correcting tests and papers promptly
Sending learners' copies of relevant/particulaiy interesting articles Arranging extra curricular instructional programmes/opportunities Encouraging extra assignments and offering to assist with those Showing concern when things aren't going well
Allow students to call you at home when they have a problem Being available for overtime" (2002: 34).

Of course, not all these ways can be applied easily. The main obstacle may be cultural, certain attitudes and behaviours are not necessarily advantageous. This is no medical prescription and teachers can just take some insights from the list above. If students perceive that the teacher does not really care, their motivation is surely undermined.

In addition to this, teachers need to plant in students eagerness. For example, Brophy (1998) argues in connection with eagerness that teachers should take it for granted that their students are very eager. He writes:

"To the extent that you treat students as if they already are eager learners, they are more likely to become eager learners. Let them know that they are expected to be curious." (1998: 170)

Teacher Expectations

If teachers believe that their students can reach high levels of achievement, there is good chance that they will too. However, if teachers have low expectations about how much their students can cope with, these latter will probably 'live down' to these expectations. This is what is often called the 'Pygmalion effect'.

Teachers who share warm, personal interactions with their students, who respond to their concerns in an emphatic manner and who succeed in establishing relationships of mutual trust and respect with the learners, are more likely to inspire them in academic matters than those who have no personal ties with the learners. However, all this is highly culture-sensitive.

According to Raffini :

> Building trust in a classroom is a slow process and results from many small incidents in which the teacher has responded honestly and dependably. It is easy to trust "trustable" students, but it is the "untrustable" students who need systematic trust building experiences.... While some students may occasionally abuse their trust, they need repeated opportunities to learn and practice this character trait (1993: 145-146).

All this shows that if a teacher endorses this autonomy-supporting attitude, he/she will certainly need much patience and perseverance. Developing a personal relationship with the students and achieving their respect is easier said than done. It is a gradual process built on a foundation whose components include:

a.Acceptance of the students

b.Ability to listen and pay attention to them

c. Availability for personal contact

Advantages of the Motivational Strategies

Among the advantages that are linked with all the teaching styles and qualities stated above:

1. Enhancement of intrinsic motivation. When students come with intrinsic dispositions towards their studies, such motivational strategies will no doubt reinforce their intrinsic interest in their studies.

2. Restoration of intrinsic motivation. Students who are motivated intrinsically and who are nearly losing it (because of all the external factors referred to above), may see their intrinsic motivation revitalized and restored if they take advantage of, at least, some of the motivational strategies discussed above.

3. Enhancement of extrinsic motivation. Although intrinsic motivation is the type of motivation that leads to better conceptual learning, extrinsic motivation is also important to safeguard. An extrinsically motivated student, though supposedly less talented and less creative, is nevertheless perfectible. As a consequence, his extrinsic motivation, if it cannot be turned to intrinsic, needs to be maintained.

4. Amotivation can be overcome. This is a bit of a challenge. Nowadays, it is a hard task to face amotivation. However, we think that the motivational strategies and the positive teaching styles referred to above can overcome the state of "learned helplessness" as amotivation is often referred to by some psychologists. Such motivational strategies can cater for this established fact that students nowadays are less and less motivated towards their studies.

The results of the present investigations indicate that, at a macro level, the mismatch between learning and teaching styles exists, which causes learning frustration and failure. Moreover, at a micro-level, many problems exist in the vocabulary teaching strategies. Such situations cause the main block to the effective learning and teaching. Although inappropriate teaching methods by teachers contributing to the inefficiency in English teaching, the basic reason for the inefficiency lays in the traditional teaching style — teach-centered instruction.

Though today's teachers generally work with single classes with the same age, and these students have an array of needs as great as those among the students of the one-room school, the biggest mistake of this method in teaching is to treat all students as if they were variants of the same individual, and thus to feel justified in teaching them the same subjects in the same ways . This cannot reach out effectively to students who span the spectrum of learning diversity. A

different way of teaching is what the individual learners are calling forFelder and Henriques (1995:28) believe that effective matching between teaching style and learning style can be achieved when teachers are aware of their learners' needs, capacities, potentials and learning style preferences in meeting these needs. Reid (1996) adds that matching teaching style with learning style gives all learners an equal chance in the classroom, and builds student self-awareness. One method for overcoming the mismatch is that teachers should try to accommodate all learning styles. In this way , the problem of the mismatches between the prevailing teaching style in English courses and the learning styles of most of the students could be minimized . The quality of English teaching significantly enhanced if instructors modified their teaching styles to accommodate the learning styles of all the students in their classes. Granted, the prospect of trying to address the different learning styles simultaneously in a single class might seem forbidding to most instructors; the point, however, is not to determine each student's learning style and then teach to it exclusively but simply to address each side of each learning style dimension at least some of the time. If this balance could be achieved in classes, the students would all be taught in a manner that sometimes matches their learning styles, thereby promoting effective learning, and sometimes compels them to exercise and hence strengthen their less developed abilities.

Teachers can begin where students are, not at the beginning of the curriculum guide. They should accept and build upon the premise that learners differ in important ways . Thus, teachers must be ready to engage students in instruction through different learning modalities by using varied rates of instruction along with degrees of complexityTeachers should call upon a range of instructional strategies, and become partners with their students to see both what is learned and the learning environment are shaped to the learner . They do not reach for standardized , mass-produced instruction assumed to be a good fit for all students because students are individuals. Teachers should provide specific ways for each individual to learn. To improve the effectiveness

and efficiency of English teaching, the English teachers in the present study should try to convert their roles for the needs of the students. They should make the class to be learner-centered, more democratic and less teacher-dominant, stress on students' participation in classroom, show more concern for their needs for instruction. Only in this way can they help to improve the students' language competence.

Vocabulary teaching is an important part in English curriculum. When starting out teaching new vocabulary, different strategies can appeal to a variety of activities. Researchers have pointed out that strategies may help students learn to learn (Oxford 2002:3), contributing to a better development of linguistic, communicative and pedagogical skill, including autonomy and the management of the learning process. However, several strategies in vocabulary teaching that the surveyed Chinese teachers have tended to overlook are effective.

Instruction through word associations is an overlooked skill. Word association tasks where the learners are asked to select the appropriate paradigmatic or syntagmatic responses highlight the semantic and syntactic properties of the target words, strengthen the links between the items in L2 mental lexicon, and help build new concepts for L2 lemmas consequently resulting in a greater degree of automaticity and accuracy in production. A very effective way present semantically related words is to build word webs around some central concept. For example, after reading the selection Akiak, a story about dog sled racing in Alaska, it would be appropriate to build a word web of "cold weather words." At the same time, teaching vocabulary in context is often neglected by the teachers. The same word can have various meanings in different contexts. To convey the meaning of a new word exactly, it is better to present the word in the sentence or in the text. There are at least three advantages of teaching vocabulary in context: Firstly, assessing the meaning of a word in context obliges the learner to develop strategies, such as anticipating and inferencing. Secondly, systematically meeting new words in context underlines the fact that words are indeed used in discourse for purposes of communication.

Finally, context provides an indication of the way the words are used. Meanwhile, game is an often-overlooked strategy in vocabulary teaching. Games have been shown to have advantages and effectiveness in learning vocabulary in various ways. Firstly , games bring in relaxation and fun for students, thus help them learn and retain new words more easilySecondly, games usually involve friendly competition and they keep learners interested. These create the motivation for learners of English to get involved and participate actively in the learning activities. Thirdly, vocabulary games bring real world context into the classroom, and enhance students' use of English in a flexible, communicative way Therefore, the role of games in teaching vocabulary cannot be denied.

As discussed above, faced with the anxiety brought about by learning style differences and the present state of English vocabulary teaching, teachers must incorporate vocabulary teaching strategies that appeal to a variety of learning styles. Therefore, it is of great necessity to seek a solution, which can integrate the vocabulary strategies instruction with learning styles. As a result, it can not only provide effective techniques to teach vocabulary , but also meet the needs of different learners so as to reduce the conflict of teaching and learning styles . On the basis of the previous theories and research, some suggestions will be presented below.

Strategies for Vocabulary Teaching to Different Learning Styles

Traditionally emphasis has primarily been on the teaching side of EFL instruction, rather than on the learning side. When it comes to learning, everybody has their own style. An important point to make here is that whatever methodology or approach utilized — we recognize that learners learn in different ways: some are more visual, others are more auditory and so on. With this in mind it is a priority to ensure teachers are able to cater for different learner styles. Meanwhile, a language teaching methodology typically assumes that if the language teacher follows the steps outlined, the effort will result in effective learning by students in the class. Methodologies often assume that everyone learns the same way As a matter of fact, no single

method can meet the needs of all learners. The fact that individual learners use a variety of strategies and approach learning a language differently is not taken into careful consideration within the context of most of the methods for language teaching.

Within the context of methodologies, strategies play a central role in two approaches: learning style and strategies-based instruction. Learning style and strategy instruction involves the explicit instruction of learning styles and strategies so that learners know about their preferred style of learning and how, when, and why to use the strategy , which embeds learning style and strategies into all classroom activities so that learners have contextualized practice. This integration of learner style and strategy instruction approach is a learner-focused approach, which explicitly highlights within everyday classroom language instruction the role of the learners' styles and strategies in performing instructional activities. Learning style is the general approach one takes to learning; the ways that we prefer to organize and retain information. This instruction teaches learners to be aware of their learning style. For example, a student may learn best by listening (auditory), looking at printed material (visual), or by moving around (kinesthetic). Strategies are the specific things that one does to learn. Strategies are typically linked to a learning style. For example, an auditory learner may apply a strategy of reading aloud to hear a text. A visual learner may draw a graphic organizer to help visualize the organization of a reading passage. A kinesthetic learner may walk around while studying new vocabulary written on flash cards. Research data suggest that there is a link between the language learning strategies and learning styles. In this highly interactive course, the teacher should apply style and strategy theory to the specific classroom tasks and lessons and consider the benefits and limitations the currently available style and strategy measures when designing the teaching project (e.g. set of classroom activities).

With respect to vocabulary teaching, it is a key point that how teachers can do to promote different learner styles to learn new vocabulary quickly . Learning new words can be accelerated

if teacher uses effective strategies that cater to his or her students' learning styles. The tips below will provide fun and creative ways to help students learn vocabulary words faster . There are a variety of fun vocabulary activities that have game-like features which are motivating. Based on the integration of learning styles and vocabulary strategies instruction, the specific techniques of vocabulary teaching are as follows.

The visual learner requires graphic aids to really succeed at learning tasks. They learn everything through seeing. The visual student may think in pictures and will enjoy diagrams, illustrated books, videos, and seeing a demonstration. They will generally take detailed notes during class, illustrate stories that they write, and use pictures to help them memorize facts. The visual learner will enjoy phonics with pictures. Thus, the vocabulary teaching tips for visual learners include:

• 		Practicing visualizing (mental imagery) or picturing spelling words.

• 		Flash cards for vocabulary.

• 		Drawing a picture dictionary for vocabulary, and all the visual cues are present, such as syllabication, definitions, configurations, affixes, etc.

• 		Drawing lines around the configuration of printed words and structural word elements.

Auditory learners are frequently gifted musicians being able to "play by ear". They will learn more easily through verbal lessons and anything that allows them to talk out what they are learning. They learn best by reading text aloud. Quite often the auditory learner will enjoy debates and discussions in class. They do not mind making presentation and may use musical jingles to help them memorize facts. They enjoy dictating their ideas to others and may not enjoy writing . The vocabulary teaching tips for auditory learners are the following :

• 		Reading the words and definitions aloud.

• 		Recording themselves saying the words and definitions. They should then playback these recordings.

Kinesthetic learners often struggle with learning vocabulary because it is traditionally taught in an auditory or visual way. Kinesthetic learners learn vocabulary and reading comprehension using different methods and activities from those with other learning styles, such as auditory or visual learners. Kinesthetic learners have a right-brain preference, which means they learn differently from those with a left-brain preference, such as auditory and visual learners. Traditional methods involve using a vocabulary book which lists new words and their meanings or reading the words aloud. They may also include writing exercises in which one fills in the blank in sentences with the correct word. These techniques are visual, auditory, and predominantly left-brain in their strategies. This puts kinesthetic learners and right-brain learners at a disadvantage. Kinesthetic learners will learn effectively if given the opportunity to move and be active. They are not able to sit still for long periods of time, and will use body language and hand gestures when talking. They need to show you how to do something rather than explain it. They love to touch things and are often natural-born actors. Help kinesthetic learners by giving them a chance to move about. Physical action, even if it is limited, will stimulate these students and help them do their best. These activities can accelerate the speed at which kinesthetic learners can learn new words in a fun, engaging way. The vocabulary teaching tips for kinesthetic learners are as follows:

• Using games, and word associations.

• Making a list of words and their definitions. Taking turns with the kinesthetic students selecting a word and acting it out silently, so the other can guess which word is being dramatized.

• Making their own word puzzles and collaborating with visual learners.

The strategies mentioned above can be used to greater advantage if we can diagnose learning style preferences. The ideas are divided according to each learning style. However, there will always be a mix of learning styles amongst the students in a class. In order to accommodate

those learning styles, one way to achieve is to match teaching style with learning style . A better approach is to attempt a balanced teaching style that does not excessively favor any one learning style-or rather tries to accommodate multiple learning styles (Pedagogical changes, however, should be informed by teacher beliefs about good teaching practices). Teachers can present new information and materials in a variety of modes, and use a variety of activities. However, it is hardly possible for teachers to use all of the above-mentioned methods in any one lesson (though they can over several lessons). It is true that as the teacher accommodates one style, he or she blocks another, but there is a combined approach.

The multisensory lessons can meet the needs of different learner styles at the same time. This teaching techniques and strategies stimulate learning by engaging students on multiple levels. They encourage students to use some or all of their senses to gather information about a task and link information to ideas they already know and understand. Multisensory teaching approach is simultaneously visual, auditory, and kinesthetic to enhance memory and learning. Links are consistently made between the visual (what we see), auditory (what we hear), and kinesthetic-tactile (what wefeel) pathways in learning to read and spell (Birsch 1999:2). This methodology can make a good combination of learner styles and strategy instruction simultaneously. Therefore, in order to meet diverse needs from individual students, many multisensory activities need to be presented at the same time. This approach is to keep it simple, straightforward and at the same time appeal to the three senses of learners.This chapter has made some useful and significant suggestions and recommendations that are directly related to both classroom and individual use and has been divided to three parts. Part one has focused on learning and teaching with a focus on vocabulary teaching. Part two has emphasized motivational strategies that teachers of all modules can take some interesting insights from. This part mainly discusses some

autonomy supporting attitudes and behaviours that can restore motivation, in general, and

intrinsic motivation, in particular. Part three sheded light on learning styles and vocabulary enhancement.

4. Limitations of the Study

Although every possible effort was made to avoid research design flaws of previous research studies, this study cannot claim to be totally free from limitations. In this section some limitations are foregrouded.

Small Sample Size

Although group sample size of 26 participants in each group was adequate for the purpose of the statistical analysis of data, admitted the small sample size places limitations on the generalizability of data to other groups of comparable characteristics. The appropriate sample for this research would consists of '104 students' but because of the difficulty of treating every student as a whole and because of time constaints we opted for proficiency sample.

Context of the Experiment

First, The experiment was conducted in simple classroom at the university of Constantine1. To teach vocabulary to every individual student through matching our teaching style with his style the best place is the lab which was not our case.

Second, luck of multimedia rooms which decreases students' motivation and indermines the value of the genuine teaching materials.

Time constaints

Since we are limited by time, we relied in the present research on only two language skills which are reading (source of input) and writing (output). In better conditions we would test the effect of learning styles and motivation on vocabulary acquisition through the four skills.

Conclusion

Based on the research findings, this chapter has made some useful and significant suggestions and recommendations that are directly related to both classroom and individual use in three perspectives. The first perspective focuses on learning and teaching with a focus on vocabulary teaching. The second perspective emphasizes motivational strategies that teachers of all modules can take some interesting insights from. This part mainly discusses some autonomy supporting attitudes and behaviours that can restore motivation, in general, and intrinsic motivation, in particular. The third perspective sheds light on learning styles and vocabulary enhancement.

General Conclusion

The present research has been undertaken to establish the importance of learning styles and motivation as interrelated and inseparable factors that directly contribute to the process of learning and teaching and how they affect students' vocabulary acquisition as a key aspect of developing proficiency in a second language. The results of this investigation confirmed the hypothesis and showed that learners proved to have learned nearly all the new words and retrieve them successfully when we focused on their learning styles and attempted to enhance their motivation while accomplishing the tasks. We ultimately suggest some recommendations which will contribute to the improvement of the teaching/learning situation at the Department of Letters and English Language, University of Constantine1, and hopefully if our research will be confirmed by other investigations in the area of individual differences and vocabulary acquisition, to other departments of English as a Foreign Language in Algeria and abroad.

In the process of language learning, students learn a subject at different rates and with strikingly different levels of motivation. Learning styles play a vital role in students' learning process and directly contribute to vocabulary knowledge. Students will gain more input, retain more words, and perform better when teaching styles match with their learning styles in a motivating environment with the provision of a variety of instructional activities. In our review of literature, we observed that an increasing interest on learners' styles', teachers' styles and motivation is focused on in teaching a foreign language.

Considering the vital importance of students' learning styles, motivation and vocabulary in foreign language learning, one expects that a detailed attention is given to it. An examination of the situation in the Department of letters and English Language, however, shows that it is not the

case.

Through the process of conducting the questionnaire, the results indicate that the highest majority of students are not motivated and fail to acquire vocabulary since their learning styles and the teaching styles of many teachers do not match. The majority of learners prefer reading(texts) as a source of acquiring vocabulary, while most teachers, on the other hand, adopt the auditory teaching style. This leads to frustration on the part of the teacher and a source of anxiety and a missed opportunity on the part of the student.Few teachers in the study are able to teach to a wide variety of students and at the same time satisfy all the various different learning styles found from the analysis of their answers in the interview. Further more, the present research shows that there are many problems in the present state of English vocabulary teaching. The teachers lack the initiative to explore new methods in vocabulary teaching : most teachers still keep a traditional English vocabulary teaching procedure ; their teaching pattern is unitary ; some teachers cannot help students develop vocabulary learning strategies ; other teachers cannot use various methods in vocabulary teaching in a flexible way. In a wor, there are few strategies involved in their vocabulary teaching. However, teaching strategies can take students to promote their own learning success, which include a vast number of teaching techniques so as to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more effective, and to boost performance. Developing teaching strategies can help students find a variety of tools to aid learning and understanding.

The test we carried had for ambition to shed light on students' capability of acquiring vocabulary that has been presented in contexts and taught through a variety of techniques and motivating activities that fit both field-dependent and field –independent learners and on their ability to recall them in their composition.

According to the published literature studied in our thesis, the instructional vocabulary strategies with respect to combining learner styles and motivation are given great importance and

are taken into account in every foreign language teaching situation. In addition, researchers have claimed that vocabulary learning and teaching are important factors in second language learning.

On the same vein, reading is given great importance too and is taken into account in every foreign language teaching situation. In addition, researchers have claimed that reading is one of the best ways to improve vocabulary. Not only will reading help students better understand words and introduce them to new items, reading also helps learners to become better writers by exposure to well written prose. Indeed, the mastery of lexical and grammatical patterns ; text organization and vocabulary will certainly result in the improvement of writing. If this is taken into account, i twill obviously contribute to the improvement of students' level, and the learning /teaching situation prevailing.

As far as vocabulary instruction is concerned, the traditional way of vocabulary teaching makes the students lazy and bored. The teacher needs something different to make students interested and motivated. They should combine their vocabulary teaching method with the different learning styles and use a variety of vocabulary games and activities. Furthermore, he should strive for ensuring the availability of appropriate materials and attitudes that have major influence on motivation, which in turn may influence the decision to read in SL.

Vocabulary is the door behind which lies a wealth of knowledge and teachers hold the key. It is imperative that teachers use the key to open the door not only to the wealth of knowledge but also to strategies that will serve learners throughout their life time.

 In all academic classrooms, there will be students with multiple learning styles. Everyday teachers make instructional decisions before, during, and after meeting the students, and these decisions lead to tailored instruction to individuals or groups in the classrooms. There are academically diverse learners and teachers need to make curriculum choices that complement our students' interest, strenghs and needs. The effective teacher is constantly making decisions about how to present information to achieve this, as well as monitoring and adjusting

presentations to accommodate individual differences and enhance the learning of all students. An effective means of accommodating these learning styles is for teachers to change their own styles and strategies and provide a variety of activities to meet the needs of different learning styles. Then all students will have at least some activities that appeal to them based on their learning styles, and they are more likely to be successful in these activities. When presenting content, effective teachers gain their students' attention, interact positively with the students, review previously covered material, and provide an organization for the material. Clear directions, adequate examples, and practice need to be provided in a relevant context for students. Through this research, we tried to contribute to the improvement of the Foreign Language teaching/learning situation. However, research remains open to any further development that would deal with other areas that we did not investigate.

Bibliography

Abé, D., Carton, F. Cembalo, M. and Régent, O. (1985), "Using Authentic Documents for Pedagogical Purposes" *in Discourse and Learning, Applied Linguistics and Language Learning, Longman Group Limited, New York, New York.*

Alderson, J.C.(1984). Reading in a Foreign Language: a reading problem or a language problem? In J.C. Alderson and A..H. Urquhart(Eds), *Reading in a Foreign Language*. London: Longman.

Alexander, P.A., & Jetton, T.L. (2000). Learning from text: a multidimentional and developmental perspective. In M.L. Kamil, P.B.Mosenthal, P.D. Pearson, & R. Barr(Eds*), Handbook of reading research*, Vol. 3, 285-310. Mahmah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Alexander, L.G. (1967), *New Concepts in English,* Longman, London.

Alexander, L.G.(1967).*Fluency in English : an integrated course for advanced students*.London : Longman.

Amabile, T.M. (1983), *The Social Psychology of Creativity,* New York,: Springer-Verlag.

Amabile, T.M., W. DEJong, and M.R. Lepper, (1976). Effects of Externally Imposed Deadlines on Subsequent Intrinsic Motivation, Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 34, 92-98.

Antony, E.M. (1963), "Approach, Method and Technique", *ELT,* 17, pp 63-67.

Arkes,H.R., and J.P. Garske (1977), *Psychological Theories of Motivation,* Monterrey, C.A: Brooks/Cole.

Asher, J. (1969), "The total physical response: Approach to second language learning", *Modern Language Journal,* 53, pp 3-17.

Brown, H.D.(2000).Principles of Language Learning and Teaching.4^{th}ed . New York: Longman.

Baddeley, A.D.(1986). *Worklng memory.* Oxford, UK: Clarendon books.

Badelley, *A.D.* (l990). *Human memory: theory and practice* (cited inWoolfolk, A. 2004).

Biggs, J.B. (1987). *Student Approaches to Learning and Studying,* Hawthorn, Victoria: Australian Council for Educational Research

Brophy, J. (1998), *Motivating Students to Learn,* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Brown, R. (1973), *a First Language,* Cambridge, Harvard University Press.

Bruner, J.S. (1962), *On Knowing. Essays for the left hand,* Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.

Claxton, C., H. and Patricia H. Murrell.(1987).*Learning Styles : Implication for improving educational practices.* ASHE-ERIC Report No.4.Washington, D.C: Association for the Study of Higher Education.

Chappelle, C. and Green, P. (1992).Field independence /dependence in Second Acquisition Research. Language Learning, 42 : 47-83.

Campbell,D.E.&J.C.Stanley. (1963)."experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research". InN.L.Cage(ed) *Hand book of Research on Teaching* 23:223-27. Chicago:Rand McNally.

Carter,R.& M.McCarthy(eds).(l988).*Vocabulary and language teaching.*London:Longman.

Celce-Murcia,M.E.& E.Olshtain . *Discourse and contexl in language teaching: A guide for language Teachers.* Cambridge:C.U.P.

Clarke,H.H.1980. *Inference in comprehension.* New York: Harcourt BraceJovanovitch.

Carroll, J.B. (1966). The Contributions of Psychological Theory and Educational Research to the Teaching of Foreign Languages, in A. Valdman (ed.), *Trends in Language Teaching,* New York, McGraw-Hill, 93-106.

Carver, D. (1984), "Plans, Learner Strategies and Self Direction in Language Learning", *System,* 12, 2, 123-131.

Chamot, A.U. (1987), "The Learning Strategies of ESL Students", IN Wenden and Rubin, eds., 71-83.

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1997), Intrinsic Motivation and Effective Teaching: A Flow Analysis, In J.L. Bess (Ed.) *Teaching Well and Liking it. Motivating Faculty to Teach Effectively,* Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 72-89

Daves,F.&T.J.(1983)."Text as a vehicle for information: the classroom use of written texts in teaching reading in a foreign language". *In reading in Foreign Language Voll* N 1 March: 1·19. Universityof Birmingham and Sheffield, UK.

Demet,B.(1990)."Incidental vocabulary acquisition". *Applied language learning Vol 4,*112:55-63.

Davies, P., J. Roberts, and R. Rossner. (1975), *Situational Lesson Plans,* Mexico City, Macmillan Deci, E.L. (1980), *The Psychology of Self-Dtermination,* Lexington, Mass: D.C. Health (Lexington Books).

Deci, E.L. , H. Eghrari, B.C. Patrick, and D.R. Leone (1995), Facilitating Internalization: The self-determination theory perspective, *Journal of Personality,* 62, 119-142.

Deci, E.L., and W.F. Cascio (1972), Changes in Intrinsic Motivation as a Function of Negative Feedback and Threats, *Paper Presented at the Meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association,* Boston.

Deci, E.L., and R.M. Ryan (1985), Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behaviour, New York: Plenum.

……(1991). A motivational approach to self: Integration in personality, In R. Dienstbier (Ed.), *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation: Perspectives on motivation* Vol. 38, 237-288. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.

…… (2002). *Handbook of self-determination,* Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.

Deci, E.L., R.J. Vallerand, L.G. Pelletier, and R.M. Ryan (1991), Motivation in Education: The Self-Determination Perspective, *The Educational Psychologist,* 26, 325-346.

Dornyei, Z. (2001), Teaching and Researching Motivation, Harlow, Mongman.

……..(2002). *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom.* Cambridge University Press.

Dornyei, Zoltan. (2005). *The Psychology of Language Learner* Lawrence *Individual differences in Second Language Acquisition.* Erlbaum Associates, Inc : New Jersey.

Ellis. R. (1995)."Modified oral input and the acquisition of word meaning".In *Applied linguistics.l6l4:* 409-41.

Ellis. *R.* (2000). *Second language acquisition* .Oxford: Oxford university press.

Edge, J. (1999). *Essentials of English Language Teaching,* Longman Keys to Language Teaching, Longman Group Uk Limited, Burntmill, Harlow.

Fenouillet, F. (2003). *Motivation, Mémoire et Pédagogie,* Paris, l'Harmatton.

French, F.G. (1950). *The Teaching of English Abroad,* Oxford, OUP.

Frisby, A.W. (1957). Teaching English. *Notes and comments on Teaching English Overseas,* London, Longman.

Felder, R. M., &Henriques, E. R.(1995). *Learning and teaching styles in foreign and second language education.* Foreign Language Annuals, 28.

Flores, E. M.(2008). *Writing Instruction for English Learner :* a focus on genre :9-10. Cambridge : C.U.P.

Gardner, R. C.(2007). « Motivation and SLA ». *Porta Linguaram* 8, June.

Gardner, R. C, Lalonde, R.N , and R. Moorcroft.(1985). ' The role of attitudes and motivation in SLL : correlation and experimental consideration' .*Language Learning*, 35, 2.

Grains,S. & S.Redman. (1986*). Working with words: A guide to Teaching and Learning Vccabulary*. Cambridge: C.V.P.

Holec, H. (1985). "On Autonomy: Some Elementary Concepts", In Riley, ed., 173-190.

Halliday, M.A.K.& R Hasan. (1989). *L.anguage,context, and text: Aspects of language in a socio-semiotic perspective.*Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Howatt, A.P.R. (1984), *A History of English Language Teaching,* Oxford, OUP.

Harris,Z.E. (1951). Methods *in Structural Linguistics* . Chicago:ChicagoUniversity Press.

Hedge,T. (2000). "Vocabulary".*Teaching and learning ln the language Classroom:* 110.42.Oxford: Oxford university press.

IJES. (2007). Vol7N I:169-179. University ofMurcia .

Jackson, H . & E, Zé. A.mvé1a. (2000). *Words, meaning and vocabulary: An introduction to modern English lexicolagy: 1-55.* London: Continuum International Group .

Keefe, J.W. (1979). "Learning Style: An Overview", In Keefe, ed., 1-17.

Krahnke, K. (1987). *Approaches to Syllabus Design for Foreign Language Teaching,* New

 Keefe, J. W.(1991). Assessing Sudent learning styles : An over view . *In Student Learning Styles and Brain Behaviour.* Reston, VA : National Association of Secondary School Principles.

Kim, Y.(2008). The role of task-induced involvement and learner proficiency in L2 vocabulary acquisition . *Language Learning 58*, 2.

Kay,H . L.(1991). 'Topic-types Revised: the Hurnanitics". In *Reading in a foreign language* vo17.N2:553-564.

Krashen,S D.(1985).The *Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implicalions.London:Longman*

Krashen, S.D. (1987) . *Principles and Practice in Second language Acquisition.*Prentice Halllnternatiollll (U.K) Ltd.

Krasben, S.D. (1989)."We acquire vocabulary and spelling by reading: additiolllll evidence for the input hypothesis". *In Modern Language Journal73:44().64.*

Laufer, B. and J. Hulstjin. (2001) . « Incidental vocabulary acquisition in a second language : the construct of task induced involvement » . *Applied Linguistics* 22.

Lauflamme, I.(2008). *Teaching reading and writing.*New York : Taylor and Fanci. 373

Lee, W. Y-C. (1995). Authenticity Revisited: Text Authenticity and Learner Authenticity, *ELT Journal,* 49, 4, 323-8

Lepper, M.R., D. Green, Green, and R.E. Nisbett. (1973). Undermining children's intrinsic interest with extrinsic rewards: A test of the "over-justification" hypothesis, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 28, 129-137.

Lewis, M. (2000), Learning in the Lexical Approach, In M. Lewis (ed.), *Teaching Collocation. Further Developments in the Lexical Approach,* London, Language Teaching Publications, 10-2

Little, D. (1991). *Learner Autonomy 1. Definitions, Issues, and Problems,* Dublin: Authentik.

Littlewood, W. (1981). *Communicative Language Teaching,* Cambridge, Cambridge

Lund, R. (1990). "A Taxonomy for Teaching Second Language Listening", *Foreign Language Annals,* 23, 105-115.

Ma, Qing .(2002). *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*. Great Britain : Die Deutsche Bibliotthek.

Mayer;R.E & Wittrock,M.C.(l996). "Problem solving transfer" (cited inWoolfolk, A.2004).

M Cartby, M. (1991). *Discourse analysisfor language teachers.*CambridgeUniversity Press.

Maslow, A. (1954), *Motivation and Personality,* New York: Harper.

Manderlink, G., and J.M. Harackiewicz (1984), Proximal and distal goal setting and intrinsic motivation, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 47, 918-928.

…….(1965). *Spontaneous activity in education,* New York: Schoken.

Miller, S.(1975). *Experimental design and statistics.* Methuen.

Moser, C.A., and G. Kalton (1971). *Survey Methods in Social Investigation,* Heineman Educational Books Limited, London.

Naiman,N.et al. (1978). "the good language learning".(cited in Ellis,R.198*5,Understanding second language acquisition.* oxford university press.

Nagy,W.E.(1988). *Teaching vocabulary to improve reading comprehension.*Intematiooal Reading Association.

Nagy,W.E.& Herman,P.A.J987.L"earning word meanings from context during normal reading" .*ln American Educational Journa/24:237-70*.

Nation l.S.P.(1990). *Teaching and /earning vocabulary.* New York:New Bur House.

Nation, I.S.P.(2001). *Vocabulary in reading* in R. carter & McCarthy (eds):97-8.*Oxford advanced learners.*1998. 5th Ed. Oxford University press.

Nunan, D. (1989). *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom,* New York, Cambridge University Press.

O'Malley, J.M. (1987). "The Effects of Training in the Use of Learning Strategies on Acquiring English as a Second Language", In Wenden and Rubin, eds., 133-144.

O'Neil, R. (1973), *Kernel Lessons Plus,* Longman, London.

Oxford, R.L. (1990), *Langu age Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know* ,

Pintrich, P.R., and D.H. Schunk (2002). Motivation in Education: Theory, research, and applications (2nd ed.), Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Pitman, G. (1963). *Teaching Structural English,* Brisbane, Jacaranda.

Pittman, S., and A.K. Boggiano (1992). Psychological perspective on motivation and achievement in A.K. Boggiano and T. Pittman, *Achievement and Motivation. A Social Developmental Perspective,* C.U.P.

Pittman, T.S., J. Emery, and A. Boggiano (1982). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations: Reward-induced changes in preference for complexity, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 789-797.

Plant, R., and R.M. Ryan(1985). Self-consciousness, self-awareness, ego-involvement, and intrinsic motivation: A investigation of internally controlling styles, *Journal of personality,* 53, 435-449.

Reeve, J. (1998). Autonomy support as interpersonal motivating style: Is it teachable? *Contemporary Educational Psychology,* 23, 312-330.

…….(2002). Self-determination theory applied to educational settings. In E.L Deci and R.M. Ryan's (Eds.), *Handbook of self-determination theory,* 183-203, Rochester, NY: University of Rochester.

Reid, J. (1987), "The Learning Style Preferences of ESL Students", *TESOL Quarterly,* 21, 87- 112.

Richards, J.C., and T.S. Rodgers (2001), *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching,* Second Edition, Cambridge Language Teaching Library.

Rigg, P. (1991). Whole Language, *Tesol Quarterly* 25(3), 521 -542.

Rivers, W.M. (1964). *The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher,* Chicago, University of Chicago Press.

Rivers, W.M. (1968). *Teaching foreign language skills.* University of Chicago Press.

Rives, W.M. (1983). *Communicating Naturally in a Second Language.* Cambridge: C.U.P.

Robins, D.C. (1987). Memory *in oral traditions: the cognitive p5ychology.* New York : Oxford University Press. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle.

Salomon, G. & D.N. Perkin. (1989). "Rocky roads to transfer" (cited in Wootfolk, A. 2004).

Sanz. C. (2005). Mind *and Con1ex1 in Adult Second Language Acquisition: Melhods. lheory, and practice.* Cambridge: C.U.P

Sapir, E. (1915). *Language* (cited in Palmer, F.R, 1976).

Schmidt, R. (2001). "Attention". In Robinson, Peter (ed) *Cognition and Second Language Instruc/ion* :3-32. Cambridge: C.U.P.

Scbouten-van Parreren, (1989). "Vocabulary leaming through reading: wbich conditions should be met when presenting words in text?" *AlLA Review* 6:75-85.

Sinclair, J. (2004). "Lexis and Grammar". In Ronald Carter (ed) *lmsr the* tcxt *language , corpus and discourse* : 130-176. Rautledge.

Singleton, D. (2001). "Atomistic and incidental approaches to vocabulary leaming". *Paper presented at the X!Vih lnlemalional Conference on foreign1second language acquisilion* .Poland

Slavin, R.E. (2003). "Ioformation processing and cognitive theories ofleaming".ln *Educational Psychology-Theory and Praclice* 9th Ed:171-215. Pearson Education.

Scheidecker, D., and W. Freeman. (1999). *Bringing out the Best in Students: How Legendary Teachers Motivate Kids,* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Skehan, P. (1996). Second Language Acquisition and Task-Based Instruction, In J. Willis and D. Willis (eds.), *Challenge and Change in Language Teaching,* Oxford, Heineman, 17-30.

Stephen, I., and W .B. M ichael. (1981). *Handbook in Research and Evaluation,* 2nd ed., Edits Publishers, San Diego, Ca.

Stern, H.H. (1983). *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching,* Oxford: Oxford Univeristy Press.

Schmitt, N. (2000). 'Vocabulary Acquisition'.In N.Schmitt(ed).*Vocabulary in Language Teaching.*Cambridge:Cambridge Language Education.

Staehr, L.S.(2008). "Vocabulary Size and the skills of listening, reading and writing*".* *Language Learning Journal*36:140-143.

Takala, S. (1985)."Estimating Students' vocabulary size in foreign language teaching". In kohonen, V.H VAN Essen and C.Klein Bratey, C.(eds*). Practice and Problems in Language testing.* Tampere, Finland: Finish.Association for Applied Linguistics.163.

Troike, M.S.(2006). *Introduction to Second Language Acquisition.* New York: Cambridge University Press.87

Thorndike, E.L. (1913). Educational Psychology: Vol 2. The Psychology of Learning, New York: Teachers College Press.

Takala,V.P.(2008). *Vocabulary learning strategies and foreign language acquisition* Voi27.Multilingual Matters

Tbornburg,S. (2002). How *to teach vocabulary.* Ed. Jermy Hanner. U.K: Longman.

Todd, L. (1987). *An introduction to linguistics.*London:Longman.

Vallerand, R.J. (1997). Toward a hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology,* 29, 271-360.

Vallerand, R.J., and R. Bissonette (1992). Intrinsic, extrinsic and amotivational styles as predictors of behavior: A prospective study, *Journal of Personality,* 60, 599-620.

Vallerand, R.J., and Ratelle (2002). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation: *A Hierarchical Model, Handbook of Self-Determination Research,* the University of Rochester Press.

Weiner, B. (1992). Human Motivation: Metaphors, Theories and Research, Newbury Park, CA: Sage

White, R.W. (1959). Motivation reconsidered, *Psychological Review,* 66, 297-333.

Whitney, N.F. (1994). "Second Language Pedagogy" in the Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics: Listening, Vol. 7, Edited by R.E. Asher, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 3757-61.

Widdowson, H.G. (1980). 'The authenticity of language data' in H.G. Widdowson *Explorations in Applied Linguistics,* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

…..(1983). Learning Purpose and Learning Use, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Witkin, H., C. Moore, D. Goodenough, and P. Cox (1977). Field-dependent and field-independent cognitive styles and their educational implications. *Review of Educational Research,* 47, 1-64.

Willing, K. (1987). Learning Strategies as Information Management", *Prospect* 2,3

……(1988a). *Learning Styles in Adult Migrant Education,* Australia: National Curriculum Resource Centre: Adult Migrant Education Program.

……(1988b), Learning Strategies as Information Management: Some Definitions for a Theory

of Learning Strategies." *Prospect* 3, 2, 139-156.

Wiltkin, H.A, et al. (1954). *Personality through Perception.* New York: Harper and Brothers.

Young, D.J. (1999). Affect in foreign language and second Language Learning, Boston, MA:

McGraw-Hill.

APPENDIXES

Appendix I : The Teachers' Questionnaire

Appendix II : The Learners' Qustionnaire

Appendix III : The Pre-test

Appendix IV : The Interview

Appendix V : Interview with every Student

Appendix VI : The film

Appendix VII : The texts

Appendix VIII : Motivating Vocabulary Activities and Tests

Appendix IX : The Post Test

Appendix X : Some Teachers' and Students' Answers to Some Significant Open-ended Questions

Teachers' Questionnaire

Section One: Teaching Qualification and Experience

1. What degree do you have

B.A

M/Magister

Doctorate

2. How many years have you been teaching written expression? .... years

3. What level(s) have you been teaching?

1st

2nd

3rd

4. Which teaching methods are you acquainted with? Which do you prefer to use in your teaching?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………

Section Two: Learning strategies/Styles and Teaching Strategies

5. When you choose a teaching material do you take into consideration your students':

a. Needs

b. Styles

c. Both

II

> d. None of them

6. Do you think that your students have different learning styles?

> Yes   No

If no, does it mean that they share the same learning style?..

..........If yes, should teachers get documented on the subject, or can they on impulse notice them and adapt their teaching accordingly?...

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

…….

7. Do you think that matching your teaching styles with your learners' styles enhance their achievement?

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………

8. Which learning strategies do you favour?

> a. Push students to look for some significant details in the written material?

> b. Just ask them to concentrate on the gist?

9. On the basis of the tasks you assign your students, what strategies do you want them to use? Why?

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

> II

………………………………………………………

Section Three: Motivation

10. Do you think motivation is important in learning?

………

………

…………………………………………………………………

11.   What are in your opinion the factors that undermine motivation?

………

………

…………………………………………………………………

12.   What are in your opinion the factors that enhance motivation?

………

………

…………………………………………………………………

13. How would you rate your students' motivation? Are they:

        a. Motivated intrinsically

        b. Motivated extrinsically

        c. Unmotivated

        d. Further comments

 14. Is the learning environment:

        a. Motivating

        b. Demotivating

Please explain briefly why?... …..
………

……..

………

……..

15.　　To what extent do you think that students' motivation and achievement are dependent on their teachers' teaching styles?..……………

………………………………………………………………………………………………..

16.　　Controlling and severe teachers are said to be more competent and more serious than autonomy-supportive ones. Do you agree with this view?..

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………...

17.　　When you give students an assignment, do you:

　　　　a.　Give students time to work in their own way

　　　　b.　Let them work and interfere

　　　　c.　Give them a limited time

　　　　d.　Control what they are doing so as to interfere

18.　　When some student shows that he/she is doing well, do you:

　　　　a. Praise the quality of his/her performance

　　　　b. Encourage others to do the same

　　　　c. Reprimand others for not doing the same

　　　　d. Other, please specify ……………………………………………

19.　　How do you see competition in the classroom? Is it:

　　　　a. Constructive

b. Destructive

c. Other, please specify……………………………

20.   In your teaching, do you:

a. Have freedom to teach according to what you think is right for students

b. Strictly respect the programme

c. Other, please specify…………………………………………

Section Five: Teaching Vocabulary

21.   Do you present new words in every lesson?

Yes   No

22.Do you use texts to teach vocabulary?

Yes   No

If yes, do you motivate your students while reading to acquire vocabulary?

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………….

23.Do you explain all the unknown words in a text?

Yes   No

If yes, do you do it:

a. Before reading

b. During reading

c. After reading

24. Which technique do you use to explain the meaning of new words?

        a. Translation

        b. Definition

        c. Word in context

        d. Synonyms/opposites

25. Do you match your techniques with your students' preferred strategies while explaining the meaning of the unknown words?

    Yes   No

26. Do you make a kind of needs analysis to know about your students' needs and learning styles in teaching vocabulary? Say why?

    Yes   No

Justify………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………...

27. Do you check students' vocabulary learning?

    Yes   No

II

If yes, how often do you check it?

        a. Always

b. Often

c. Sometimes

d. Rarely

28.	Which activity(es) you use to consolidate lexical items?

    a. Word association

    b. MCQ activities

    c. Vocabulary games

    d. Fill in the gaps

    e. Matching items with definition/synonyms

29.	Which techniques/activities do you rely on to check students' recall of the learned vocabulary?

    a. Composition

    b. Guided writing

    c. Rewriting full sentences

    d. Matching items with definition/synonyms

     e. Fill in the gaps

Learner's Questionnaire

This questionnaire will help in the preparation of research work. Please, read every question carefully then put a tick in the right box or Complete sentences where necessary. Do not hesitate to ask for help whenever You do not understand a given question.

There are no good answers and bad ones. The best answers are those that correspond to your personal opinion.

Section One : About the Student

1. Age

2. Gender :   Male   Female

3. Did you choose personally to study English at the university?

        Yes   No

If your answer is no, say briefly who else participated in the choice

…………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………

4. Why did you choose to study English at the university?

        a. Future career

        b. You like English very much

        c.Other ; please specify…………………...

……………………………………………………………………………………………...
……………………………………………………………………………………………...

5. Results obtained in English exams. Tick the box that corresponds to your answer

        Below average

        Average

Good   ☐

Excellent   ☐

Section Two : Learning , Teaching and Motivation

6. How do you describe your motivation to study English?

Low   ☐

High   ☐

Other,specify……………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………….

Whatever may be your answer,say why ?...

………………………………………………………………………………………..

7.Is this motivation expressed through :

a.Raising hands to participate ?   ☐

b.Asking and answering questions ?   ☐

c.Participating in class conversation ?   ☐

d.Other,please specify…………………………………………………..

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

8.Are you satisfied with your studies at the university ?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Why…………………………………………………………………………………....

……………………………………………………………………………………………...

……………………………………………………………………………………………...

9. Are you satisfied with the programs of the modules that you're taught ?

Yes   ☐   No   ☐

||

10. How do you find your teachers?

a.Authoritative (not allowing free communication and co-operative learning) ?   ☐

b.Non authoritative (allowing co-operative learning and freedom of expression about programme,content,etc) ?   ☐

Explain why

………

………

………………………………………………………………………………..

11. How do you like your teachers to be?

    a. Friendly and understanding   ☐

    b. Just to guide and explain the lessons   ☐

12 . How often your teachers invite you to participate?

    a.Always

    b.Often

    c.Sometimes

    d.Rarely

    e.Never

13. When you do not participate in class, is it because you :

    a. Are not motivated ?

    b. Are afraid of mistakes ?

    c. Have not built a communicative competence in English ?

    d. Others…………………………………………………………………………..

14. How do you feel when your teacher corrects your errors ?

    a. Very motivated

    b. Motivated

    c. Less Motivated

    d- Embarrassed

e-Frustrated

15.In a learning environment, how often do your teachers initiate interaction with you

        a-Always

        b-Srequently

        c.Sometimes

        d.Rarely

        e-Never

16. Do you think that success can not take place in the absence of :

    a. Motivation

    b. Self efficacy

    c. Both of them

17. When in class, what do you think ideal teacher should focus on

    a. Learner's affective and attitudinal factor?

    b. The appropriate and effective teaching?

    c. The necessary material?

    d. The suitable learning material?

    e. All of them

18. Do you feel that your teachers use incentives as :

    a. Motivating factors for effort and attempt

    b. Effective stimulus to enhance learners' performance

Section Three : Learning Vocabulary

19. Which of the following language skills do you prefer while acquiring vocabulary ?

    Listening

Reading

Say why…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………..

20. When retrieving word that you have learned from spoken or written context which language

production skill you prefer ?

Writing

Speaking

Say why……………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………...…

…..

21. When you encounter an unknown word while reading do you :

f. Read again to guess the meaning from the context ☐

g. Ask the teacher about its meaning ☐

h. Ask a peer ☐

i. Look it up in the dictionay ☐

j. Ignore it ☐

22. Do your teachers use strategies/activities that fit your prefereable manner(s) to acquire

vocabulary ?

Yes ☐   No ☐

II

23. When reading do you think that a motivating environment is required for acquiring new vocabulary items?

Yes ☐   No ☐

24. Do your teachers motivate you to enlarge your scope of vocabulary from reading ?

Yes ☐   No ☐

If yes, how do you find it :

a.Very helpful   b. Helpful   c. Not helpful

25. How often do you re-use the learned words in writing ?

d. Always ☐

e. Sometimes ☐

f. Never ☐

Whatever is your answer say why…………………………………………………………….

26. Do the assignements in class activities addressed to you satisfy your needs

Yes ☐

No ☐

Pre-test

The fact that we are not sure what « intelligence » is, nor what is passed on, does not prevent us from finding it a very useful working concept, and placing a certain amount of reliance on tests which measure it.

In an intelligence test we take a sample of an individual's ability to solve puzzles and problems of various kinds, and if we have taken a representative sample it will allow us to predict successfully the level of performance he will reach in a wide variety of occupations.

This became of particular importance when, as a result of the 1944 Education Act, secondary schooling for all became law, and grammar schools, became available to the whole population. Since the number of independent foundation schools, became available could accommodate at most approximately 25 percent of the total child population of eleven-plus, some kind of selection had to be made. Narrowly academic examinations and tests were felt, quite rightly, to be heavily weighted in favour of children who had the advantage of highly-academic primary schools and academically biased homes. Intelligence tests were devised to counteract this narrow specialization, by introducing problems which were not based on specifically scholastically-acquired knowledge.The intelligence test is an attempt to assess the general ability of any child to think, reason, judge, analyse and synthesize by presenting him with situations, both verbal and practical, which are within his range of competence and understanding.

Beatrix Tudor-Hart *Learning to live*

(Cited in Alexander 1967 :55)

1.Vocabulary

Explain the meaning of the following words as they are used in the passage :

Prevent, reliance, puzzles, particular, counteract, reason, judge.

2.Composition

Using the words you learned in the previous activity, write a composition(not more than two paragraphs) explaining how do you behave/think when you face a problem in life.Do you solve it by yourself or seek help/advice from someone else ?

Interview

I would like to talk to you about your own personal ways of acquiring English as a second language.How and in what sequence,etc.

Your name will be kept confidential, and there is no testing involved.

If you do not mind ;however, I would like to tape our conversation.

May I now ask you a few general questions for our research !

Part I :

Name :

Age :

Over all Proficiency in English Language

1.Are you satisfied with yourr achievement in English, or would you like to know more ?

Satisfied ☐   More ☐
Others…………………………………………………………………………………

2.Some students say they have a gift for English Language,others say they have not.Would you regard yourself as strong or weak in English ?

Strong ☐   Weak ☐   Medium ☐

3.Considering your level in (success/failure in learning English),would you say this was due to :

The teacher

Or the university or the environment

Or you developed some special study habits

Or some particular personal characteristics that helped/hindered you in learning English

Part II :

I would now like to ask you a few more specific questions concerning your own manner(s) of learning English.

4.Do you have a preferred manner(s)of thinking,processing information and demonstrate learning ?

Yes ☐   No ☐

If yes, what are
they ?..

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………..

5.Do you feel confident in your ability to succeed in learning this language ?

Very confident ☐   confident ☐   uncertain ☐

inhibited ☐

6.Do you prefer working alone or in groups ?

I really enjoy/I would much rather…………………………………………………………

7.Do you prefer learning English in a structural way or a communicative way ?

8.In the process of learning English are you :

Holistic ☐   Analytic ☐   Both ☐

9.Being holistic or analytic ,how do you deal with the language material(input) ?(novels, stories, poems, diaries,conversations, etc,   )

  Do you like to analyse the many details of language and understand exactly what is said or written   ☐

Or You like to « absorb » language and get the general « gist » of what is said or written ?   ☐

10.Do you control yourself consciously when you speak and write ?

Yes ☐   No ☐

If yes,is it   More consciously ☐   consciously ☐

Not overly conscious ☐

11.While reading or listening in a second language,do you :

  Have to stop and stuck at every difficulty ?   ☐

Or   perceive the situation as a whole ?   ☐

12.While speaking and writing, do you like to try out new words and structures that you're not completely sure of or you like to use only language that you're certain is correct ?

13.When faced with a learning activity that might steer you towards one of your « weaker or at least one of your less favoured manner of learning », how do you perceive?

Do you begin with a prediction or rule and applies it to interpret particular instance of input ? ☐

Do you begin with examining input to discover some pattern and formulate generalization ? ☐

Do you ask your teacher for a help ? ☐

Do you seek explanation from one of your peers ? ☐

Do you ignore it ? ☐

Others…………………………………………………………………………….................

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

14.How do you concentrate during your learning ?

        Focus on the whole input ☐

        Focus on details ☐

        Both ☐

15.While talking and writing to people, do you use the language you have memorized and learnt ?

    Yes ☐   No ☐

If yes, do you remember it :

  Very easy ☐   easy ☐   difficult ☐

If no,say why…………………………………………………………………………………….

16.Do you revise your druft and attempt to correct yourself ?

    Yes ☐   No ☐

If yes, how do you perceive………………………………………………………………..

……………………………………………………………………………………………..

17.In a learning environment, how often do you initiate interaction with the teacher or another student ?

    Always ☐   frequently ☐   Sometimes ☐

    Rarely ☐   Never ☐

18.Do you feel that the teaching styles used by your teachers fit your own learning styles and affect your success in SLA positively or negatively ?

Yes [ ]   No   [ ]

19.Do you rely on the teacher and the classroom activities for everything you need to be successful ?

Or do you find ways to continue learning language by yourself outside of the classroom ?

Interview

Starting time :09 :30

Place : lab 114 (department of letters and English)

: teacher / participant names are replace by the first letter of their first rams .

Interview1: with walid

T: when reading the text how did you proceed ?

W: well , I traveled quickly on the text

T: did you focus on every words or the text as a whole ?

W: y was interested by understanding the text without paying attention to every word .

T:how did you explain the nearing of the 8 words ?

W:well , at the beginning I read the text quickly but .when I saw the question give the explanation of the following words as they appear in the text I read the text 3 time till I got the general idea then I tried to explain the words from what I understood from the text .

Now I proficiency in English language would like to ask you some questions about your

T: are you satisfied with your achievement in English ?

W: frankly ? I am not satisfied I would like to know more especially concerning vocabulary .

T:why vocabulary ?

W: i have a poor vocabulary , that make me very shy to express myself

T : explain more !

W : i do not participate in class because I feel anxious since I do not know much words in English

T: what about writing ?

W: i like writing because i feel at ease but I face the same problem , i do not know much vocabulary

T : how do you describe your motivation to study English ?

W : I'm not really motivated to study English   ‖

T: why ?

W : the difficulty of some modules and the behavior of some teachers decrease my motivation

T: considering your level of success failure in learning English , would you say this was due to what ?

W: well , my success is due to efforts , IF I can say very little and the help of some teachers

i would now like to ask you a few more specific questions concerning your own manner(s) of learning English more precisely vocabulary.

T : do you have a preferred manner(s) of thinking , processing information and demonstrate learning?

W: sure I have , I take the lecture as it is and memorize sometimes I totally rely on my friends notes .

T: OK

T: do you feel confident in your ability to succeed in learning this language ?

W: to be honest , I feel uncertain .

t : do you prefer working alone or in groups ?

w: I really to work in groups because I feel at ease .

t: do you prefer learning English in a structural way or a communication way ?

w: I prefer learning English in a communicative way .

t: in the process of learning English are you ?

holistic ☐   analytic ☐   both ☐

w: well .a am holistic .

t: how do you deal with the language material (input) ? (novels , stories ? poems ? diaries , conversation , etc) . do you like to analyses the many details of language and understand exactly is said or written ? . or you like the general meaning of what is said or written ?

w: in fact I like just to get the general meaning .

T:when you speak or write do you control yourself consciously ?

W: yes ? more consciously .

(I would like now to ask you more specific question about your style while reading and writing)

T: while reading do you:

Have to stop and stuck at every word or your read the text as a whole

W: well , I read the text as a whole .

T: while writing , do you like to try out new words and structures that you're not completely sure of or you like to use only words that you're certain are correct .

W : ah , i do not take risk , if Am not completely sure of the words I don't use them.

T : When understanding is not possible, what you do ?

W : I ask a friend or my teacher.

T : while writing do you use words that you have memorized easily ?

W : mm … in most of time i remember them in a difficult way so I don't use them.

T : why ?

W : some times I memorize words without been motivated I just do what for the sake of following the teacher or just for learning so when i try to remember them in writing i find a difficulty and avoid using them.

Sometimes teachers present new words using techniques that i hate so i find a big difficulty

T : what do you mean by « techniques you hate »

W : I mean they do not go with my preferred meaner of learning.

T : OK, when you write do you reuse your draft and attempt to correct yourself ?

W : Yes, i do.

T : How do you perceive ?

W : What do you mean by perceive ?

T : I mean how you attempt to correct yourself ?

W : Ah ok, i read my draft once and that's all.

T : Do you feel that the teaching styles used by your teacher fit your own learning styles.

W : Most of the time they do not my learning styles.

T : Does it affect your success in acquiring vocabulary ?

W : Yes, I remember when teacher sometimes teach us vocabulary in a way that fit my preferred style i feel so happy and i learn many words.

T : what do you mean by « happy »

W : I feel an inner with to learn those words. ‖

T : Do you rely on the teacher and the classroom activities for everything you need to be yourself ? or Do you find ways to continue learning language by yourself outside of the classroom.

W : Frankly, I rely only on the teacher and the classroom activities and i never tried to look fort her sources of extra information outside the classroom… But when I am obliged by the teacher to look for sources or to work outside the classroom I do it only because am afraid of no succeeding .

When faced with a learning activities that might steer your tow words one of your « weaker or at teats one of your less flowered manner of learning » how do you perceive ?

Do you begin with a predictions or rule and applies it to interpret particular instance of inpu☐.

Do you begin with examining input to discover some pattered and formulate generalization ☐

Do you ask your teacher for help ?....☐

Do you seek expiation from one of your peers ? ☐

Do you ignore it ?...☐

Others ………..

Interview with oussama

T: when reading the text how did you proceed ?

O: I stopped at every word right from the beginning

T: did you focus on words or the whole text ?

O: I focused on every individual word .

T: how did you explain the meaning of the 8 words ?

O: I tried to rely on every detail , grammatical dues , and some words I linked them with other words

T: are you satisfied with your achievement on English ?

O:mm..you ..am satisfied but I need to know more , I would like to be more fluent and I would like to write better .

T: how do you describe your motivation to study English ?

O: I am motivated since I like this language too much .

T: considering your level of success failure in learning english would you say this was due to what the teacher .

Or the university (environment)

Or your study habits *or some particular personal characteristics that helped / hind deed you in learning English.

O: my success is due to my study habits and personal characteristics . I do not rely too much on the teacher .

T: how?

O: well , I have an inner will that pushes me .

To learn plus or focus on every detail in the classroom and develop it by my own ..the teacher from is just a source of information

T: I would now like to ask you a few more specific questions concerning your own manner(s) of learning English more precisely vocabulary

T:do you have a preferred manner(s) of thinking , processing information and demonstrate learning ?

O:well ; I class I am pay attention to every detail and I take notes when I return back home I try to link all my notes and make my awn lesson ..well 70% of the work and 30% are the notes .i take from the lecture.

T: and do you feel confident in your ability to succeed in learning this language ?

O: ahh , I am very confident .

T: do you prefer working alone or in groups ?

O: I would much rather work alone.. some times when some

Teachers obliged me to works in groups I feel lost, I can not concentrate and I feel anxious .

T:do you prefer learning English in a structure way a communicative way ?

O: I prefer learning in a structural way .

T:in the process of learning English are you ?

Holistic , analytic , or both .

O:mm.. sure am analytic .

T: how do you deal with the language material (input) (novels ,stories, poems ,diaries ,conversation ,etc).

Do you like to analyses the many details of language and understand exactly what is said or written.

Or you like to get the general meaning of what is said or written ?

O: i always analyses the language material and concentrate on the details till i understand exactly what is i read or what i listen to.

T: when you speak or write do you control yourself consciously ?

O: well, i do not control myself at all ,but generally

      For example in exams i consciously do

T: while reading do you :

      Have to stop and struck at every word

       Or perceive the situation as a whole

O: i stop and struck at every word , i can't carry or reading if i don't understand this word.

T: while writing do you like tray out new words and structures that you are not completely sure of or you like to use only words that you re certain are correct .

O:hhhh , i take risks and while writing that am not sure about .

T: when faced with a learning activity that might steer you to words one of your (least one of your less favored manner of learning activity)how do you perceive .?

.do you begin with a perdition or rule and applies it to interpret particular instance of in put ?

.do you begin with a examining in put to discover some pattern and formulate generalizations ?

Do you ask teacher for a help ??

Do you seek explanation from one of your peers ?

Do you ignore it ?

Other .

O: in fact, I examine the input to discover some patter and formulate generalization .

T:when you encounter an unknown word while reading , do you :

       . read again to guess the meaning from the context

O: try to find grammatical clues and connection between the words .

T: when understanding is not possible , what you do ?

O : look for a synonym or try to use a dictionary , I check and try to focus on details that associate the meaning with the words in the txt.

I: while writing do you use words that you have memorized easel.

O: yes, I re use t hem easily because I know the form and the connection with other words.

T: when you write do you revise your draft and attempt to correct yourself?

O: yes, I do

T: how do you perceive

O: I read my composition and focus on every word .

T: do you feel that the teaching styles use by your teachers fit your own learning styles.

O: well, teachers styles generally do not match with my learning style.

T: does it affect your success in acquiring vocabulary?

O: yes I try my best to acquire vocabulary by my own but when teachers match their teaching styles with mine I feel more motivated and I acquire vocabulary in a better way.

T: do you rely on the teacher and the classroom activities for everything you need to be successful

Or

Do you find ways to continue learning language by yourself out side of the classroom?

O: I always try to continue learning outside the classroom ,I do not rely on what the teacher explains only

Interview: 03

With: nassima

Room: lab 114

Time: 10:30

T: when reading the text how did you proceed?

N: I read the texts 3 times will I got on over view; sorry I can a general idea.

T: did you focus on words the whole text?

N: I focus on the whole text, because if I do not understand what the text is about I will not answer the questions.

T: how did you explain the meaning from the text .for 2 words I asked my friends?

I would like now to ask you some questions about you're over all proficiency in English language.

T: are you satisfied with your achievement in English?

N: am not satisfied at all, I would like to know more and have better level in speaking and writing.   ‖

T: how do you describe you motivation to study English?

N: when I started my 1st year I was motivated but now I don't feel at all motivated.

T: why

N:sorry ,but the behaviors of some teachers and the way they teach us makes me more anxious… also the difficulty of some models .

T: considering your level of success/failure in learning English, would you say this was due to what?

The teacher

Or the university (motivating environment)

Or your study habits

Or some particular personal characteristics that help /hindered you in learning English .

N: I failed in my 1st year because oh my study habits and some teachers.

T: could you explain more.

N: I used to rely only on what the teachers gave us and try to learn it by heart …but I cannot answer in the exams…

T: why?

N: I find difficulty in remembering the content and linking it with the questions.

T: what about the teachers?

N: ah, … some teachers<teach to themselves>I get borred in their sections and I cannot follow…and they Hinder our interest by their behavior.

T: what do you by <they teach to themselves>?

N: Well, they do not take into consideration our capacities..Our interest or even our presence .., they present their lectures in a boring way.

Sometimes I feel as if I am in the army.

T:I would like now to ask you a few more specific questions concerning your own manner(s) of learning English and I will focus on vocabulary acquisition.

T: de you have a preferred manner(s) of thinking, processing information and demonstrate learning?

Lecture and even the new words.

T: do you feel confident in your ability o succeed in learning this language?

N: I feel inhibited

T: do you prefer working alone or groups?

N:I like to works in groups I feel at ease .

T: do you prefer learning English in a structural way or a communication way?

N: in a communicative way.

T: in the process of learning English are you: holistic, analyze ,or both.

N: I am holistic.

T: how de you deal with the language materiel (input)(novels, stories, poems, diaries ,conversation ,etc…)

Do you like to analyze the many details of language and understand exactly what is said or written.

Or you like to get the general meaning of what is said or written.

N: I like to get the general meaning of what is said or written.

T: when you speak or you write do you control yourself consciously?

N: oh yes I over control myself…even when communicate with my friends.

T: while reading: do you:

Have to stop and stuck at every word.

Or perceive the situation as a whole.

N: personally I consider the whole text ,I mean I focus on allay the text .

T: while writing , do you like to try out new words and structures that youre not completely sur of or you like to use only words that you're certain are correct .

N: if I am not sure of the word i will never use it .

T:when faced with à learning activity that might steer you to words one of your (weaker or at least one of your lees favored manner .of learning) how do you perceive ?

Alter natives

N: i begin with à prediction or rule and applies it to interpret particular instance of input or ask thé teacher for help

T: when you encounter or unknown word while reading ,do you

    . read again to guess the meaning from the context
                  ǁ
    . Try to find grammatical clues and connections between the words to get the meaning .

N: i read again to guess the meaning from the context

T: when understanding is not possible .what do you do?

N: i ask my friends or try to translate into Arabic .

T: while reading writing do you use words that you have memorized easily ?

N: mmm ,.. i always think that i have many words in my mind ,but when i tray to use them i find a difficulty and in most of the time .i feel that i have no word in my mind

T : when you write do you revise your draft and attempt to correct yourself ?

N: not always .

T : how do you perceive when you do so ?

N / I read quickly the whole work and that's all .

T: do you feel that the teaching styles used by your teachers fit your own learning styles .

N: I don't think so .

T: could you explain more ?

N: I feel all the time bored because they teach in a way that makes loose concentration in class .

T: does it affect your success in acquiring vocabulary ?

N: I want to have big amount of vocabulary , when teachers use new words I cannot memorize it for long time .. I think that if they to take our learning styles and strategies in to consideration I will learn more words easily.

T: do you rely on the teacher and the classroom activities for every thing you need to be successful.

Or. Do you find ways to continue learning language by yourself outside of the classroom.?

N:frankly , I have never tried to continue learning outside the classroom ..even when a teacher give us a home works I copyist from my friends..

.

APPENDIXVII

Text

When anyone opens a current account at a bank, he is lending the bank money, repayement of which he may demand at any time, either in cash or by drawing a cheque in favour of another person. Primarily, the banker-customer relationship is that of debtor and creditor-who is which depending on whether the customer's account is in credit or is overdrawn. But, in addition to that basically simple concept, the bank and its customer owe a large number of obligations to one another. Many of these obligations can give rise to problems and complications but a bank-customer, unlike, say a buyer og goods, can not complain that the law is loaded against him.

The bank must obey its customer's instructions, and not those of anyone else. When, for example, a customer first opens an account, he instructs the bank to debit his account only in respect of cheques drawn by himself. He gives the bank specimens of his signature, and there is a very firm rule that the bank has no right or authority to pay out a customer's money on a cheque on which its customer's signature has been forged. It makes no difference that the forgery may have been a very skilfull one : the bank must recognize its customer's signature. For this reason there is no risk to the customer in the modern practice, adopted by some banks, of printing the customer's name on his cheques. If this facilitates forgery it is the bank which will lose ; not the customer.

Gordon Barrie and Aubrey L.Diamond .

The Customer Society and the Law

Mcq Test

Chose the word which *best suits* the context of each item below

1.To be an American and unable to play baseball is comparable to being a Polynesian unable to………

a.swin   **b**.debate   **c**.drive

2.Moonbeams ……….and spill wildly in the rain.

a.splash   **b**.twinkle   **c**.glow

3.Every evening at the rush hour the subway……….its millions.

a.releases   **b**.disgorges   **c**.gives out

4.The scarecrow gave them an ………feeling when they saw it from the bedroom window at twilight.

a.unusual   **b**.eerie   **c**.elated

5.Mr.X was a somewhat…………person.

a.pastel   **b**.ordinary   **c**.insipid

6.There was a roaring in my ears like the rushing of

a.music   **b**.rivers   **c**.breezes

7.Superstitions like………….best in twilight ;and the twilight of confused liberalism seems particularly favorable to them.

a.birds   **b**.moths   **c**.bats

8.There is no ………to book tickets in advance.There are always plenty of seats.

a.problem   **b**.matter   **c**.need

9.We have told the children they can come to the party with us if they are well……….

a.behaved   **b**.behaving   **c**.deserved

10.He got up so quickly that he almost………his chair over.

a.hit   **b**.carried   **c**.knocked

11. Be sure to………yourself up well if you're going for a walk by the sea.

a.wrap   **b.**pack   **c.**clothe

12.My knowledge of Spanish is rather………….Iam afraid

a.short   **b.**limited   **c.**scarce

13. If you wear that red hat,i'll be able to ………you in the crowd.

a.pick   **b**.spot   **c**.discover

13.She didn't feel she could……….him to keep a secret.

a.trust   **b**.depend   **c**.ensure

14.The table roks a bit because the floor isn't quite…………..you'll need to put a wedge

a.smooth   **b**.steady   **c**.level

15.He works more……….than anyone else i know.

a.hard   **b**.steady   **c**.steadily

16.I will try to get in touch with him but he's………….ever at home when i phone.

a.rarely   **b**.hardly   **c**.occasionally

17.After climbing the stairs to the sixth floor,i was completely out of………

a.air   **b**.gasp   **c.**breath

18.Experts recommend a various diet with plenty of……..vegetables and fibre.

a.new   **b**.fresh   **c**.healthy

Association Test

Please write three words that immediately comes to your mind for the following words :

1.swim…….   ……..   ……   10.clothe……..   ……..   …….

2.splash…...   ………   ……   11.limit(ed)……   …….   ……..

3. release…….   ……..   …….   12.spot ………..   …….   ……..

4.unusual……..   ……   ……..   13.trust………..   …….   ……..

5.ordinary………   ……..   ……..   14.smooth……..   …….   ……

6.breezes………..   ………   ………   15.steady………..   …….   ………

7.bat…………   ………   ………   16.occasionally …….   ……..   ……..

8.behave……….   …….   ……….   17.breath…………   …….   …………

9.carry……….   …….   ………   18.fresh……………   ……..   ……..

Cloze Test

Fill in each blank with a suitable word

For a long time, it was believed that inorder for children to learn, they must be seated quietly in a classroom, listening(1)……..to a teacher.However, this(2)…….when Anna Mackenzie observed her two daughters playing with their dolls.She(3)……….the older girl telling the younger one new words that she had learnt in school.The younger girl was listening while playing and did not seem to(4)………her sister teaching her the new words.In fact,she even proudly(5)………off her new knowledge to her mother later that evening.Anna realised at that (6)……….that she had found an effective way to(7)…….knowledge to her daughter.

Anna started setting(8)…….half an hour every day to spend time with her daughters.She(9)……..make-believe with them ;she let them decide who they wanted to be and then she would go about(10)………them more about the characters.She(11)……..specific vocabulary relevant to the characters, a little history and general knowledge in her (12)……….Her children learnt about animals,fairies, princesses and doctors.The best part was they did not even realise that they were being given a(13)……..The amount of information which they remembered far(14)……….those they learnt in school.

Since then, the Macenzie method has been used in many kindergartens with resounding(15)………More people are realising the benefits of incorporating play into the learning system. "

(From N Level English,Ed 2008)

APPENDIX IX

Post test

Every one of us has some scary memories in his/her life. Write a composition of not more than three developmental paragraphs in which you talk about a turning point in your life.

ملخص

يهدف هذا البحث إلى إظهار أهمية أساليب التعلم والرغبة والذاكرة في اكتساب لغة ثانية وكيف تؤثر هذه العناصر في اكتساب المفردات وفي تطوير تعلم لغة ثانية. السياق الأكاديمي الذي يجرى فيه هذا البحث هو قسم الآداب واللغة الإنجليزية، كلية الآداب واللغات، جامعة قسنطينة 1. الفرضية الموضوعة في هذا البحث هي أنه لو ركز الأساتذة على أساليب تعلم طلبتهم وقاموا بتحسين حوافزهم لكان تعلمهم للمفردات أحسن بكثير.... ومن أجل تحقيق غرض هذا البحث والإجابة عن الأسئلة المطروحة فيه وكذا محاولة إثبات الفرضية اعتمدنا على اختبار أولي واختبار ثان وبينهما بعض النشاطات. واختير الطلبة الذين امتحنوا (52 طالبا) كعينة بطريقة عشوائية من طلبة السنة الثانية إنجليزية. وتثبت النتائج المتحصل عليها الفرضية الموضوعة في بداية البحث حيث أن المتعلمين يتعلمون تقريبا كل الكلمات الجديدة عندما يركز الأساتذة على أساليب تعلمهم ويقومون بتوعيتهم حول كيفية الاستعمال ويحاولون تحسين رغبتهم عند القيام بالنشاطات المطلوبة. وفي النهاية هناك بعض الاقتراحات من أجل طريقة أنجع في تعلم المفردات ومساعدة الأساتذة في تدريسهم من خلال خلق جو محفز على التحصيل ومن خلال خلق انسجام بين منهجيتهم في التدريس وأساليب التعلم لدى الطلبة

Résumé

Ce travail de recherche a pour objectif de mettre en évidence l'importance des styles d'apprentissage des étudiants, leur motivation et leur mémoire dans l'acquisition d'une deuxième langue et ses effets sur l'acquisition du vocabulaire comme un des aspects les plus importants dans la maitrise d'une deuxième langue. Le contexte académique de cette recherche est le département de lettres et langue anglaise, faculté de lettres et langues, Université de Constantine 1. L'hypothèse émise est que si les enseignants focalisent sur les styles d'apprentissage de leurs étudiants et tentent d'accroitre leur motivation, ces derniers apprendront le vocabulaire de meilleure façon. Afin d'atteindre l'objectif de cette recherche, répondre aux questions posées et confirmer l'hypothèse, un test préliminaire, un deuxième test ainsi que des activités entre les deux tests sont administrés à un échantillon d'étudiants de deuxième année (LMD). L'échantillon est sélectionné de manière arbitraire (52 étudiants). Les résultats confirment l'hypothèse et montrent que les apprenant apprennent tous les mots nouveaux quand les enseignant focalisent sur leurs styles d'apprentissage, les sensibilisent quant à la manière avec la quelle ils doivent les utiliser et en tentent d'accroitre leur motivation durant les tâches qu'ils accomplissent. Enfin, quelques solutions sont proposées pour un meilleur apprentissage du vocabulaire afin d'aider les enseignants dans leur enseignement en créant une atmosphère plus motivante et en accordant leurs méthodes d'enseignement aux styles d'apprentissage de leurs étudiants.