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Title

The role of Motivational strategies to Enhance Second Language Learning through Group Dynamics
Case Study: 3rd year English students

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated specially to my father soul, to my greatest mother who have shown me what nobody else would ever have, and have provided me with their encouragement, love and understanding.

This work is also dedicated to my wonderful brother “Saddek” and sisters “Zina” “Habiba” “Djamila” “Fatma” for their whole-hearted support;

To all my extended family,

To all my friends and teachers at the University of Ouargla,

To all those who have been supportive, caring and patient, sometimes beyond their strength, I dedicate this modest work.

LAZHAR
DEDICATION

This work is dedicated specially to my parents, who have shown me what nobody else would ever have, and have provided me with their encouragement, love and understanding.

This work is also dedicated to my brothers “Sami” & “Noureddine” and wonderful sister “Shahrazed” for their whole-hearted support;

To all my extended family,

To all my friends and teachers at the University of Ouargla,

To all those who have been supportive, caring and patient, sometimes beyond their strength, I dedicate this modest work.

Tarek
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List of Abbreviations

**CL**: Cooperative Learning

**CLT**: Communicative Language Teaching

**EFL**: English as a Foreign Language

**ELLs**: English Language Learners

**FL**: Foreign Language

**L2**: Second Language

**3rd**: Third

**%**: Percentage
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Introduction

1. Background of the Study

Teachers of English as a foreign language are in a constant search of what may help their learners increase their level of language proficiency because using the language in class frequently and speaking it the amount it should be through active group work techniques and procedures, mastering the language skills, and using appropriate methods focusing on the aspect of motivation from the part of the teacher could enhance the learners’ level of language learning and fluency. This research work investigates the effect of the group work in increasing the level of motivation and in enhancing learners’ level of English language.

Brown (2007) argues that motivation is at the heart of any learning process in general and, consequently, he sees the need to investigate “how to create, foster, and maintain motivation?” (p.168). In addition to that, Thornbury (1999) considers motivation one of the basic principles for learning English, and believes that learning English cannot take place under any conditions if there is a lack of motivation. For Thornbury (1999), it all depends on the teacher’s role since “it’s the teacher’s job to choose tasks and materials that engage learners.” (p.26)

One teaching strategy that is considered an important component for teaching a second or a foreign language (L2/FL), and that would simultaneously be implemented for all levels and in all subjects, is cooperative learning.

Most researchers have agreed on the fact that cooperative learning has positive effects on learners’ affect. According to Hill and Flynn (2006) “Educators have found that cooperative learning groups foster language acquisition in ways that whole-class instruction cannot.” (p.56)

Basing this research project on the aforementioned ideas, we are going to check the impact of using cooperative learning as a technique to motivate third year students to learn English at the University of Ouargla.

2. Aims of the Study

We aim in this study to help teachers and learners to establish and to increase the level of motivation when teaching/learning English through investigating the effect of the cooperative
learning strategy on the inner push and interest of the learners which is motivation and to help learners and teachers implement this strategy effectively in teaching and learning English.

3. Statement of the Problem and the Research Question

When students exhibit a lack of motivation which can be presented through their lack of homework's completion, poor attendance, low class participation and poor student-teacher relationship then learning a foreign language and its components (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and fluency) becomes extremely difficult. In this study, we are going to check whether cooperative learning, as a motivational technique, has any effect on the motivation of third year students of English (as a foreign language) at the Department of Letters and English Language at the University of Ouargla, and whether implementing well-structured cooperative group work helps the same students to learn English.

To achieve that, we ask the following question:

What effect does well-structured cooperative learning have on motivating third year students of English as a Foreign Language to enhance learning English?

4. Assumptions and Hypothesis

To answer our question, we assume that:

1. All third year English learners at the Department of Foreign Languages at the University of Ouargla are learning English at least four times a week.
2. Those learners have some opinions about group/pair work since they have already experienced working in groups at least twice even when learning another subject in the first and second year L M D.

Under these assumptions, we hypothesise that:

If teachers of third year English students at the University of Ouargla use cooperative learning effectively when learning English, they would motivate them to learn it.

This hypothesis can be divided into two sub-hypotheses:

1. If 3rd year English students at the University of Ouargla are taught through using cooperative learning they would be motivated enough to enhance their level in English.
2. If 3rd year English students at the University of Ouargla are taught through using well-structured cooperative learning when learning English, they would learn it effectively to enhance their level.
5. Definition of Variables

Cooperative learning is an “arrangement in which students work in mixed ability groups and are rewarded on the basis of the success of the group.” (Woolfolk, 2004, p.492)

Motivation is an “internal process that activates, guides, and maintains behaviour over time.” (Slavin, 2006, p.317)

Learning means to employ a set of strategies to make possible comprehension, acquisition, retention, retrieval, and application of information. (Hedge, 2000)

6. Methodology of Research

In this study, we are looking for a correlation between two variables: cooperative learning technique, and students’ motivation to learn English. The procedure that will be adopted is the descriptive study through using the questionnaire as a tool by which we collect and collate the adequate data for the study. For the needs of the present study, we form a questionnaire that will be delivered to third year English learners at the Department of Letters Foreign Languages at the University of Ouargla.

One main reason for not adopting the experimental design as a tool of research, though it would be more appropriate for such a study, is the constraints of time. The short time allocated for undertaking this research does not allow for designing the experiment and analysing the results before the deadline.

7. Organization of the Research

This dissertation is divided into three main chapters, the first two chapters concerned with the theoretical part which copes with literature review and the third chapter that concerned with practical part that deals in its turn with the investigation and the analysis of the results, their interpretation and discussion. All the three parts are presented after the introduction which contains the reasons behind choosing this study, the statement of the problem and the organization of the research.

In the first chapter, we start with the theoretical review of motivation composed of two sections, the first one deals with motivation in general, its nature and its theories, while the second section copes with types of motivation, its orientations and its importance. After that, we ended the chapter with a conclusion in which we summarize what we have said above.
The second chapter is devoted to the learning process; we introduced the expression of cooperative learning in general as a technique that can be used in classes in order to learn English, its nature, its essential characteristics and its benefits. We concluded this chapter with a conclusion in which we stated briefly what we have mentioned.

The third chapter is arranged to be about the main investigation, we start with the questionnaire, analysing and discussing the results gathered depending on the learners’ answers. At the end, we provide learners and teachers with pedagogical suggestions that can help them during the learning-teaching process.
SECTION ONE: Motivation in classroom

Introduction

Through history, motivation kept to be a word that many scholars dealt with and that has been at the core of all human learning. To explain this notion, we find it necessary to make a link with the concept of adaptation in Piaget’s theory of cognitive development and the process of learning a second language. In the first half of the 19 century, Piaget developed one of the most original theories of cognitive development. It is a notion that was introduced to clarify the process whereby individuals construct their knowledge during their early stages of mental development. Piaget believed that all living organisms have “organizations” and “structures”. For survival, the living organisms “adapt” their existing structures depending on the new structures found in the living environment (Nicholls, 2004). During “adaptation”, some of the organisms’ structures may be modified and some other structures may emerge. Piaget believed that the intellect’s “organization” is the development of habitual actions, and “structure” is, for him, built in terms of “schemas” and “operations”. He defined schemas as being: “the internal representation of some specific action” (Mc Gruck, 1984, p. 34), and operations as being: “an internal rule of knowing which has the distinctive characteristics of being reversible.” (Ibid, p34) The key concept to the Piagetian theory is “adaptation”. To clarify this notion, Piaget identified two aspects; assimilation and accommodation.

Assimilation is: “the process whereby the organism applies present structures without modification to new aspects of the environment.” (Mc Gruck, 1984, p. 35). In other words, the organism makes use of its existing structures without any modification to the new aspects of the environment. While accommodation is: “an outgoing process whereby the organism modifies existing structures to meet the demands of the environment.” (Ibid, p. 35). In different terms, accommodation is the process by which the organism changes the present structure to fit in the new environment. These two seemingly different canals “adaptation” and “learning” make, in fact, one since they both related “change in behaviour” to “experience”. Learners pass through the same canal, for them, the foreign language is the new environment; while learning it, they tend to compare it with their mother tongue and try to modify the existing structures (schemas and operations) they have about the latter and let other new ones (structures) emerge to fit in the former. This, in point of fact, makes the definition of learning: “a change in behavior or beliefs that result from experience.” (Slavin, 2003). Whitman states that assimilation and accommodation are not constant; that is, they
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occur every now and then “the new scheme is able to assimilate slightly more, and in so doing accommodates and prepares to expand again.” (1980, p. 45). For Haynes, accommodation in learning has to do with “modifications to spoken or written language to make it comprehensible for English language learners.” (2007, p.145) and adaptation has to do with “modifications in materials and instruction made for English language learners.” (Ibid, p.145)

The ability to accommodate with the new learning environment was noticed to be dissimilar from one learner to the other; some learners show a great deal of interest to learning the foreign language and are eager to reach the point to be able to communicate with this new tongue. Whereas, others show less interest and spend lots of time and effort to do so. Educators, the world over, related this issue to motivation and agreed upon its vital importance in the success or failure of individuals in achieving a specific task in general, and of learners in learning a language in particular. They were “motivated” themselves to elucidate the world with what motivation is. The complexity of this issue made educators see motivation from a rather different perspective than others do. As a result to this, much ink was spilled and many theories have seen the light. In this chapter, we touch upon motivation in general, the various range of theories that scholars put forward to explain the intricacy of this component and its vital importance in the human learning.

1. What is Motivation?

We asked a school boy whether he likes playing video games or practicing sports in his spare time; he answered: “I prefer to play foot ball, I am very good at it!!” and we asked a university student about her reading preferences: “Oh! I prefer cooking magazines, I enjoy reading them at any time!!” was her reply. The interpretation of these two examples, pragmatically, involves one major affective concept that is Motivation. Being “very good” at playing foot ball or reading cooking magazines “at any time” show how deeply these two persons are motivated for doing these tasks. As in playing or reading, motivation is very essential in learning languages. Motivation is: “what gets you going, keeps you going, and determines where you are going to go.” (Slavin, 2003, p. 329). In other words, motivation is the drive that helps one meet his/her desired goals or an internal state that arouses, directs, and maintains behaviour. It is a mental force that helps person to achieve a goal. Motivation, indeed, is fundamental in learning in the sense that it rules the students’ behaviour; it serves as an evidence for teachers to interpret how much students are willing to learn.
2. Nature of Motivation

The problem of motivation in the working process has known a growing interest lately, both from the part of the firms’ researchers and from the part of the managers. The individual can have very different motives in adopting certain behaviour. For example, a manager may prefer the firm’s club for the purpose of initiating social contacts, while another one chooses the same place for the interesting programs. At the same time, the same behaviour may be the result of different behaviours (an employee who wants to be promoted, may have the aim of obtaining excellent results in his/her work, while another employee, with the same aim, may choose the way of flattering his/her boss).

The term motivation comes from the Latin word “movere” and means movement (Mark. H. Anshel, 2005). Michel (1982), for example, defines motivation as “those psychological processes that cause the arousal, direction, and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal directed” (p. 81). Likewise, Phares and Chaplin (1997) define it as “the forces within us that activate our behavior and direct it toward one goal rather that another”. (p. 434)

Most of the motivation definitions insist upon three common elements which describe the phenomenon of motivation:

- The factor which determines and sustains the human behaviour.
- The things that give a direction to this behaviour.
- The way in which this behaviour is maintained or sustained. Each of these three elements represents an important factor for the understanding of the human behaviour in a working place. The first refers to the energizing forces from the inside of each individual which determines (directs) him/her to behave in certain ways and to the existent forces in the medium which block the first to develop. In the second, we speak about the focus upon the aims: the individual’s behaviour is directed towards a certain way. The third factor, takes into consideration the inner forces of the individual or specific to the environment which offer the feedback capable to rebuild the intensity and direction of the action. (Zoltan Dornyei, 2001)

3. Theories of Motivation

Since the past, theorists have been in a try to elucidate the meaning of motivation which is interpreted with different ways in different studies. The definitions suggested may be interpreted in so many ways, “depending on the theory of human behavior you adopt”. (Brown, 2001, p.73)
3. 1. The Behaviourism Theory

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

3. 2. The Cognitive Theory

Cognitive views focus on the role of our thought, expectations and understanding of the world (Feldman, 1997). That is to say, thoughts and ideas influence motivation through creating or reducing it. The cognitive view of motivation “centers around individuals making decisions about their own actions” (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 119) that is to say, individuals are in command of their acts; they make decisions on their own in order to achieve the goals they set. Therefore, cognitivists explain motivation by pointing to our need to understand, excel, succeed, advance, and continue to challenge ourselves. This view was influenced by many cognitivists who mapped out three main theories that are put, here, in plain words.

3. 2. 1. Attribution Theory

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

3.2.2. Expectancy Theory

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

Motivation (M) = Expectancy × Instrumentality × valence

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

3.2.3. Self-determination Theory

This is a theory that was proposed by Edward Deci and Richard Ryan. According to Salkind, (2008, p. 889) Self-determination theory is: “the experience of choice and endorsement of the actions in which one is engaged.” He noted that self-determination theory is founded on three factors: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. First, autonomy that indicates the compatibility that exists between one’s deeds and emotions, and willingness and volition. In other words, it is the degree of freedom by which students decide to perform a particular task. Second, Competence, briefly, means one’s belief for how well s/he can perform a task. Third, relatedness which signifies the need of belongingness to a particular group, and the need to uphold strong relationships within this group.
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3.2.4. Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is coped with in a socio-cognitive theory of motivation that was tackled by Albert Bandura. He defines it as “the belief in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required managing prospective situations” (1995, p. 2). In other words, self-efficacy is an individual’s belief in his or her ability to succeed in a particular situation. The theory gained the psychologists attention after Bandera’s seminal paper in 1977 because it was seen really influential in all human life. Bandura (1994) stated that self-efficacy takes a vital part in all the challenging tasks that individuals face. He believed that individuals with a strong sense of self-efficacy outlook challenging tasks as duties to be mastered. By so doing, they build up a profound interest and a “stronger sense of commitment” in the different tasks they perform. They also convalesce rapidly from frustration. However individuals with a weak sense of self-efficacy avoid challenging tasks because they consider themselves incapable of facing them. They put emphasis on personal weaknesses and negative results. These individuals, promptly, lose confidence in themselves. Self-efficacy starts in early childhood, when children are exposed to a various range of situations, and does not end; it keeps on progressing all through life since individuals experience new skills and knowledge (Bandura, 1992). Albert Bandura, the founder of this theory, believes that there are four main foundations of self-efficacy (1994).

3.2.4. a. Mastery Experience

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

3.2.4. b. Social Modeling

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

3.2.4. c. Social Persuasion

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

3.2.4. d. Psychological Responses

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

3. 2. 5. Achievement Motivation

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

3. 2. 6. Goal Theory

As it was mentioned above, decision is at the heart of cognitive theories of motivation. It is believed that when making decision about performing a given task requires setting goals on the part of the learners. These goals were seen by many theorists as “situation-specific aims that establish a framework for how individuals engage in and experience achievement tasks” (Salkind, 2008, p. 690).

An early view of goal theory hypothesised that goals diverge in relation to “a performance mastery dichotomy”. Performance goals (ego-involvement goals) emphasize on doing better than others when performing a given task, while mastery goals (learning goals) with emphasis on developing competence when carrying out a given task. Latest views integrated another item; “performance-avoidance goals”. It highlights the importance of avoiding failure while doing a particular activity. Other theorists added a fourth item “mastery-avoidance goals” with the focus on avoiding incompetence (Salkind, 2008). In different terms, goal setting has an effect on motivation since it provides students with opportunity to set their own “learning goals” that enhance their “ego-involvement” and help them “perform” well in a specific activity. Slavin (2005) stated that students’ motivation is either oriented towards “learning goals” or “performance goals”. For language learners with learning goals, studying is an opportunity to gain competence in the foreign language, where
learners oriented towards performance goals perceive studying as an opportunity to gain “positive judgments” from their teachers or parents for their competence in the language.

3.3. The Social Theory

This view focuses on what goes on inside the persons’ head (thoughts, beliefs in his or her ability, and plans.) and what goes on in the external environment (likelihood of reaching a goal, and the pay off if that goal is reached). Therefore, motivation is a result of both internal and external factors. Locus of control is a word that is scrutinized under the scope of social learning theory, the “Social Learning theory” of Rotter (1954). Slavin (2003, p. 334) defines locus of control as “a personality trait that determines whether people attribute responsibility for their own failure or success to internal or external factors.” Williams and Burden (1997) identified two types of individuals; “internalizers”, are persons who believe that they are responsible for all that happen to them in their lives; and “externalizers”, persons who believe that all that happen in their lives is influenced by external forces, while there are some persons who are caught in between. Many studies were put forward to examine locus of control in relation to academic achievement. The results demonstrated that learners with internal locus of control show great deal of interest towards learning and problem-solving tasks, and were really enthusiastic to gain the maximum of rewards, whereas learners with external locus of control were inactive, submissive and careless. Williams and Burden (1997, p.103) stated that teachers, on their behalf, should take these results into account to promote internal convictions in their learners about control above language learning by mainly: distinguishing their strengths and weaknesses “cognitively and socially”, building up their own “plans for learning” the foreign language, taking responsibility for achieving their “own plans”.

3.4. The Humanistic Theory

Humanistic views of motivation perceive the individual as a whole and examine the interrelationship of the diverse human needs. One of the most influential humanistic theories is the Abraham Maslow hierarchy of needs which was introduced to the world in the 1940’s and 1950’s. Maslow believed that people have several needs to satisfy during the course of their life. So that many terms introduced in this approach such as; self-actualization, actualizing-tendency, self- determination, self-esteem, self-efficacy. Salkind, (2008) stated that Humanistic theory emphasizes on the emotional and social aspects of human life in addition to the actual that are the focus of most instructions. Peoples’ self-concept became
increasingly deficieted as they explore their abilities and learn more skills. They may think highly of themselves in one of these deficieted but not in one another.

SECTION TWO: Motivation types

1. Types of Motivation

   Motivation is paramount in all life fields. In learning, motivated learners tend to achieve more, they stay longer in school, learn more, and perform better in texts. Motivation exists in context. Incentives can motivate learners or demotivate them according to the context, incentives are objects or events that encourage or discourage behaviour such as praise, money, toys, and previliedges each child situation is unique teachers need to keep on mind gender and other group differences when they choose the best motivating element.

   Motivation is also influenced by teachers’ beliefs if they believe that they are not able to influence students’ behaviours during the learning process they will be less supportive, less friendly, and less faire to students.

   Expert teachers make out those motivating learners require using a mishmash of Intrinsic and Extrinsic motivation. (Salvin, 2005)

1.1 Intrinsic Motivation

   Intrinsic motives to train and perform include enjoyment and the inherent satisfaction associated with the activity means that enjoyment of language learning itself. (Longman dictionary, p. 343)

   Slavin (2006, p. 336) avows that “Classroom instruction should enhance intrinsic motivation as much as possible”. That is to say, gaining the students’ attraction and inquisitiveness when delivering the lecture depends on the way teachers systematize the lectures through using apposite methodology and make them apparent to students to be grasped clearly. Slavin (2006) alleged that “arousing interest” in the students is of imperative importance. He proposed that teachers have to emphasize the lecture’s important role in our daily life, or by giving them the opportunity to choose how to study it (in pairs, or in groups). Furthermore, teachers ought “to maintain the students’ curiosity”; language teachers should, from time to time, use idiomatic expressions or proverbs in particular situations to thrust students figure out why the teacher used this idiomatic expression or proverb in this context and not in another. In addition to that, teachers are asked to “use a variety of interesting
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presentation modes”. By this is meant, using songs, films, guest speakers, demonstrations, computers, language games, role plays, and so forth. Such activities would be well planned to meet with the course orientations. Moreover, teachers would “help students set their own goals” by egging on them to work firmer to arrive at the aims they set before (performing a play).

1.2 Extrinsic Motivation

Driven by external factors such as parental pressure, societal expectations, academic requirements, or other sources of rewards and punishments (Longman dictionary, p. 343).

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

2. Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Motivation

All the people around the world, from time to time, when performing tasks they look after having pleasure and leisure. And others, sometimes, when performing tasks they just look for something in return (reward). Psychologists, in view of that, recognized the divergence that exists between “intrinsic” and “extrinsic” motivation. They described the portion of people who carry out a given activity just for pleasure and enjoyment within the self as being “intrinsically motivated” and those who carry out a given task for the sake of obtaining
external rewards as being “extrinsically motivated”. In other words, extrinsic motivation is “fueled by the anticipation of reward from outside and beyond the self” (Brown, 2007, p. 172). While intrinsic motivation is doing “something because the act of doing it is enjoyable in itself” (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 136). In language learning, students who show a great deal of interest when learning a foreign language and a great deal of excitement when practicing it are “intrinsically motivated”. However, those who just learn the language to gain parents’ appreciation or teachers’ praise are “extrinsically motivated”. In fact, digging deeply in history, we find that the term “intrinsic motivation” was first coined by Harry Harlow and his associates in 1950’s after an experiment on the monkey solving the puzzle in return for reward. For the monkey, “solving the puzzle seemed to be its own reward.” (Salkind, 2008, p. 556) in other words, it was an internal pleasure to the monkey to solve the puzzle.

3. Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation in Self-Determination Theory

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

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

4. Instrumental and Integrative Orientations

Scholars debated about classifying the instrumental and integrative as orientations or as types of motivations but according to many studies which tackled such point showed that instrumental and integrative are orientations not types of motivation. Gardner and Lambert (1972) studies were influential in this sphere. Brown (2007), Dornyei (2001), Gardner and McIntyre (1991), and others affirmed that instrumental and integrative are not types of motivation, but are rather seen as “orientations”. Yule (2006) declared that several students have “an instrumental motivation”; i.e. they learn the second language just to accomplish some academic or career goals (the external needs). As opposed to those students with “integrative motivation” who want to learn the language in order to integrate themselves into the second language culture and to be accepted in that society (the desire to learn).

5. Importance of Motivation

The importance of motivation is obvious. We need motivation in order to reach our goals. In fact it is one of the most important and driving factor for reaching our needs. So when being said it is not hard to imagine how things would be if there was no such thing as motivation.

Motivation does not have to be positive emotions. Fear can be a very effective motivating factor. Stress is an example of negative motivating in effective feelings. Most people have a tendency to become narrow sighted when they are stressed, some even get paralysed or apathy.
Motivation is important in the learning process. First, we spend more time in learning than we do awake at home. And typically, learning environments are very goal oriented. Some people argue that getting goals motivate people. This is of course not true. It is the rewards for reaching the goals that motivate or the feeling of fulfillment when they reach their goals or the satisfaction of being important … etc. This is why many learners do better in learning, stay longer at schools, and pursue further studies. Accordingly, one way of helping student to sustain their motivation as far as is feasible, some agency (scientific words) which means the students should take some responsibility for themselves and that they should (like the agent of a passive sentences) be the “doers” in class. This means that they will have some decision making power, perhaps, over the choice of which activity to do next, or how they want to be corrected. If student feel they have some influence over what is happening, rather than always being told exactly what to do next, they are often more motivated to take part in the lesson. But however much we do to foster and sustain student motivation, we can only, in the end, encourage by ward and deed, offering our support and guidance. Real motivation comes from within each individual, from the student themselves. (Jeremy Harmer, 1998, p. 8)
CONCLUSION

In a few words, we hinted, in this chapter, at the different theories of motivation in relation to the various schools of thought; the behaviorists who viewed motivation in terms of reinforcement, the cognitivists who believed that motivation has to do with decisions that individuals make about their own deeds, socialists which seen motivation as a result of internal and external factors (The former, what goes on inside the persons’ head, while the latter what goes on the external environment), and the humanists who perceived motivation in terms of needs to be satisfied. Not surprisingly, all the theories are different from one another, yet they all agree that motivation is the heart of all human learning. We also explained that motivation can take two forms; intrinsic motivation (is the push students give themselves) and extrinsic motivation (is the push learners receive from pursuing external rewards or incentives). In addition to that, we shed some light on the distinction made between instrumental orientations (individuals' desire for achieving academic goals) and integrative orientations (the individuals’ desire to integrate into the second language culture). We ended this chapter with the importance of motivation, its role in helping learners to arrive at their aims, and how the world is different when this aspect is available. Teachers should enhance intrinsic motivation through arousing interest in learners, maintaining students’ curiosity using variety of interesting presentation modes, and helping students set their own goals. Teachers have to; also, maintain extrinsic motivation by expressing clear expectations, providing learners with clear, intermediate and frequent feedback (verbal praise).
CHAPTER TWO

SECTION ONE: The process of learning

Introduction

In the first section of this chapter, we will show the contours of the operation of learning in general, while in the second section we will demonstrate how the student learns and internalizes knowledge through using the cooperative method as an example, and which strategies does s/he adopt to achieve the operation of learning taking into account the other aspects of learning.

As opposed to traditional methods of learning a second or a foreign language (L2/FL), where lecturers transform knowledge to the students and where students were considered passive receivers of this knowledge (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 5), recent approaches of teaching L2/FL emphasize the construction of knowledge by both the teacher and the learner; hence, the student is considered as an active constructor, discoverer and transformer of his/her own knowledge. Practical examples of these approaches are CLT and Competency-Based approaches.

The main principle of these recent approaches is communicating in the classroom (Richard & Roger, 2001, p.192). One central component of communication, according to Brown (2001) is interaction between learners. The reason is that teacher and learners exchange ideas during interaction; they produce and receive knowledge about the content and the forms of the language at the same time. This will give them greater opportunity to learn L2/FL using the target language itself (Finkbeiner, 2004). Moreover, practice is considered one of the effective strategies of learning. Gilbert argues that “the best way of learning anything is to teach it to others” (2002, p.54). This principle can be applied in teaching and learning L2/FL using a method that gives a great chance for L2/FL learners to apply their teaching and learning strategies (Finkbeiner, 2004, p.112), in addition to putting in practice the target language in small groups; this method is cooperative learning.

We will also try in this chapter to approach cooperative learning as a general method that can be applied in many academic subjects through presenting its conceptual definition, comparing it with other methods and structures, criteria for using this method effectively.
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From the benefits, we are going to specify the motivational outcome of using cooperative learning through presenting and clarifying the relationship between cooperative learning method and motivation.

1. What is learning?

Philosophers see that acquiring skills, knowledge and information constitute learning. This learning comes from observation and experience, and this is true to a very great extent. Perception means observation and experience, (as two important modes of perception being background actions to the process of earning) that is to be aware of something by means of which is the awareness of something by means of seeing, hearing, and which represent our audio-visual tools.

As an operational definition, learning means using strategies defined as specific methods or techniques used by learners (as individuals at large) to first make possible comprehension, acquisition, retention, retrieval, and later, whenever needs arise, the application of information (Hedge, 2001). Using strategies also requires a certain degree of consciousness or cognition, which permits learner to reinforce his/her learning, as opposed to rote learning (Yamamori et al. 2003, p. 381).

At any instance of learning, there is an important interplay between the individual’s and the student’s brain, his/her nervous system, and the external environment in which he evolves, which surrounds him/her, and in which s/he may find him/herself alien at times, and to which she responds and acclimatizes, in other times.

To Sternberg (1995), learning is any ‘permanent change in the behavior, thoughts or feelings of an organism (…) that results from experience’ (p. 236). Such an experience could be linguistic and non-linguistic resulting from the external environment (cf. Steinberg et al. 2001). Learning affects the learner’s behaviour, and his/her behaviour becomes programmed. When put in a total different environment as the university environment, for instance, the learner learns new chunks of language in the form of responses or even questions which are generally prompted by the (sudden) change or demand in the environment in which s/he evolves.

2. Who is Learner?

Teachers must know their learners and treat them in the way they like because there are three different phases all learners around the world go through; each phase has its
characteristics: young learners, adolescents, and adults. These classifications can be categorized according to the age:

1. Young learners start from 2 years to 12 years.
2. Adolescents begin from 12 years to 20 years.
3. Adult learners initiate from 20 years upwards.

2.1 Young Learners

This kind of learners learn easily at early age especially language, they appreciate concrete words and abstract ideas are difficult for them to be learnt. Such learners prefer simple language and concrete grammar rules with a hodgepodge of using games and songs from the teacher that will be as a motivational factor for them to learn happily. They have also short concentration span which is an aspect that shifts from one stage to another.

2.2 Adolescents

This phase is very crucial and problematic in life because the human changes from one stage to another. Such sort of learners start understanding abstract ideas and thoughts, some features are going to be apparent and salient in this stage like creativity and self-esteem. Learners need to be respected and accepted in society, thus, if the teacher does not noticed that and put them in the appropriate place s/he may destroy them forever.

2.3 Adult Learners

Learners in this period have more responsibility for learning, they are mature and discipline and they are also motivated enough to learn and get knowledge. They need to know what the teacher has about the topic should be discussed, what the learners’ needs, and what background they have. Teachers also would know what equipments they should have in order to deal with the different categories in different ways. (Jeremy Harmer, 1998, p. 10)

3. Types of Learners

Participation usually means student speaking in class, ask questions, make comments, and join in discussion. Students, who do not participate in those ways, are due to personality as an effective factor of success and failure in mastering language fluency as Brown (2000) claims. According to that, Galton et al (1980) mentioned four types of students: the attention seekers, the intermittent workers, the solitary workers, and the quiet collaborator learners.
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3.1-The Attention Seekers

This kind is busy with their work and spends the time seeking attention of the teacher in order to discuss various issues or just for feedback. This type is described as having more interaction with the teacher other than with his/her colleagues. To deal with the attention seekers, the teacher should use specific strategies in order to control carefully this type of learners and encourage them to spend more time on communication and learning with others rather than just following the teacher.

3.2-The Intermittent Workers

The Intermittent Learners try to avoid teacher's attention. When the teacher gets nearer to them, they show the best of them, but as soon as s/he leaves, they start talking about other topics. It is noticed that this type of learners spend most of the time working, and their achievement level is not much low than others. Teachers should focus their attention on whether these learners can increase the amount of participation in the classroom.

3.3-The Solitary Workers

They are characterized by their limited interaction with other learners and the teacher; they spend their time on the learning task. This type of learners is hardly seen interacting with others. Most of the time they are busy with their work, they even hope that the teacher will leave them alone doing the work, they get the feedback from listening more than talking or discussing matters with other colleagues.

3.4-The Quiet Collaborators

Another type of learners who share common characteristics with the solitary workers, interact limitedly with their colleagues and the teacher. In other words, they "hope that they will not be called upon to participate openly". (Littlewood, 1999, p. 93)

As soon as the teacher gets away, immediately they follow the solitary workers’ style. They want to be left alone and spent time in concentrating on the work between hands. They also cooperate with others through just doing not discussing or talking.
4. Strategies of Learning

The concern for language learning is interested in trying to identify the strategies that language learners employ while learning a language. Such strategies have been classified into two major groupings and subgroups (cf. O’Malley.1990). Such effects on learning have made it important to train learners for employing strategies for improving their performance.

The language learning repertoire includes cognitive strategies, for memorizing and using the different language structures, metacognitive strategies or the strategy about how to use these strategies, and social strategies whose aim is to enhance learning as to learn in cooperation with other learners, and to possibly interact with native speakers for enhancing learning the target language. (Oxford.1990, 2003, Cohen, 2003, Yamamori et al.2003).

4. 1. Memory strategies

Long before the invention of writing, men used to rely so much on their memory to learn long speech, epics, and thousands of verses from different poets. The oral tradition and the oral heritage survived because men used then their memory strategies. Plato was known for his famous ‘walking school or academy’ where he used to lecture taking a walk in shady groves with his disciples following him and attentively listening and retaining what their master was saying: they used memory strategies (they did not have too much choice, anyway!). Our brain has titanic capacities of storing (trillion of bits of information and more!), which ‘forces’ the learner to regularly renew and update his/her schemata who relies on his/her memory strategies.

With our memory strategies we make an organization within our schemata, and all the incoming data is at once grouped according to sameness creating a semantic web or network for future as well as immediate applications, as the learner does for his/her vocabulary building elaborating his/her vocabulary stock to two different and distinct vocabulary sets: the recognition vocabulary, or the words with which s/he is familiar and which s/he recognizes, and the active vocabulary that is the vocabulary which s/he knows and which s/he utilizes in his/her everyday writings. (cf. McCrimmon, 1963)

For the images and sounds, the learner utilizes his/her iconic (or visuosketchpad) as well as his/her echoic memory to retain, classify and map semantically all the images (and sounds) according to audio-visual receptive skills. Sensations and feeling, as well, are also stored and the manifestation of these by remembrance brings to the learner the same feeling and reaction.
as the fear of an exam and so on. Primary or important or top priority, whatever label we put on them, memory strategies play an unequal and never-to-the-full exploited role in the entire process of learning. For imagery involving visual properties sees that verbal images linkages as the ‘keyword method (...) is used by developing an English language homophone for the second language vocabulary word’. (O’Malley, 1990, p. 49)

**4. 2. Cognitive strategies**

Cognitive strategies, which can also be represented as a skill, are tactics that operate directly on the incoming information and help manipulating and restructuring information. For enhancing learning, the learner’s mind does not store information in the form it comes in but proceeds according to his/her own goal and according to what s/he wants to do with it later while retrieving it. This is done in three different ways: rehearsal, organization, and elaboration. An example of such cognitive strategies is listed by O’Malley and Chamot (1990, p. 45), and which we can summarize in the following way:

1. **Rehearsal** or repeating the names of items or objects that have been heard.
2. **Summarizing** then organizing, or grouping and classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to their semantic or syntactic attributes after having understood or inferred the meaning of the new incoming items.
3. **Retention** by using images and sounds (visuospatial) sketchpad (cf. chapter on Memory) to understand further and remember new verbal information.
4. **Deduction** and transfer, or match in the incoming data with the formal schemata (i.e. the knowledge we have)
5. **Elaboration** – linking ideas contained in new information or integrating new ideas with known information (elaboration may be general category for other strategies, such as imagery, summarization, transfer, and deduction)

Cognitive strategies aim at allowing the learner to practise the target language, to manipulate and transform it so that the learner responds to his/her immediate needs as to survive or adapt in a particular context of language use (meaningful contextualized language), or long-term needs as to plan for future requirements of language use as to travel to prepare (be mentally ready) to move to the community where to utilize the target language.

In the entire pedagogic sphere, the most ubiquitous word is practice that determines the efficiency of learning strategies. For repeating, for example, teacher repeats the explanation of a point which s/he sees still unclear to his/her students. By doing so, s/he is teaching them a
very important strategy which is repeating that enables the memorization of what is being learnt. (Roger, 1983)

According to all these different practices, and for each purpose, Oxford sees that there is one particular strategy that goes into action at a time. She classified four major strategies which she identified as Practicing, Receiving and Sending Messages, Analyzing and Reasoning, Creating Structure for Input and Output.

4. 3. Metacognitive strategies

Metacognitive strategies are considered as higher order executive skills (O’Malley and Chamot, 1990), they are also tactics but which operate indirectly (indirect because the learner does not actively use but rather undergoes them) as indirect strategies on the incoming information and help further and more elaborate restructuring of information. Metacognitive means beyond the cognitive. They are actions which the learner takes beyond his/her cognitive devices, which help the learner be more capable while learning. Metacognitive strategies (cf. O’Malley and Chamot, 1990, Oxford, 1990, Cohen, 2003) include three main processes arranged in three sets, which we can summarize as follows:

1. Focus on particular aspects of a learning task as to set a goal that in writing, for example, focus is to be put on unity and coherence and the choice of words, one at a time. In other words, it is centering learning.
2. Organizing by putting plan personally set priorities and goals according to language tasks as to put a timetable for revising the different module contents, especially as out of class activity. This aids the learner for more balanced and effective learning.
3. Evaluating and checking whether comprehensible input has been effective. Students can check their weak and strong points or underrate and overrate their proficiency, and learn consequently positive thinking as to learn to learn (learning to learn) from their mistakes.

As we are dealing with human minds and not dead matter, we can, accordingly, say that the learner uses the metacognitive strategies rather sporadically and without necessarily thinking that what s/he is doing is truly important but s/he does it still. In planning or in organizing his/her learning activities, s/he may do a self-evaluation of such an organization and learn to re-organize or re-think his/her planning, and thus s/he re-centers his/her attention without necessarily following a certain set of organizations.
4. 4. Social strategies

Since language is a social phenomenon and behaviour where language is shaped, transformed and individualized, free from any lockstep learning ‘where everyone as in the class, in principle, is expected to do the same thing at the same time in the same way’ (Ur. 2001, p. 233). For that learning a language involves meeting and interacting with different people with whom we exchange communication by asking questions.

For such social considerations, there exists a social strategy which is very important in learning meaning negotiation which is expected among other things to ‘provide for the development of greater strategic competence and fluency’ (Hedge, 2000, p. 60). The social strategies are basically threefold: Asking questions, cooperating, and empathizing with others.

The most popular form of communication is may be through asking questions. For more beneficial purposes, people ask questions as to get a particular piece of information. In the classroom setting, asking question is for a repeat, for clarification, or for providing more comprehensible input, as to consolidate a concept (a mental representation) or an idea (a mental event) already known or formed. (cf. Gardner, 1993)

Social strategies mean also to cooperate with the others and with peers, to build up implicatures whenever the connotative aspects of language surface (Sperber and Wilson, 1986). Communicating likewise allows the learner avoid ambiguity or competition. For the latter, some ambitious foreign language learners confuse vocabulary richness with the learning and the utilization of big words, phrases and structures rarely met and seldom used, either by them or by anyone else (cf. McCrimmon, 1963) maybe for the sake of competing with less proficient or even proficient learners or for boasting, believing that this is the way to do.

Last but not least, understanding and developing awareness about the others culture beliefs and ways of looking at life is part of having a communication competence. Such competence serves to empathize, that is the capacity to understand and enter into the other people’s perspectives and feelings for different people differ in many fields of life, one of which is societal behaviour which is, according to Troike (1982), one of the functions of language to unify speakers as members of a single speech community and exclude others from intergroup communication. Precisely, it is the social strategies that help learners how to empathize with the others and become aware of their thoughts and feelings for not being excluded.
SECTION TWO: Cooperative Learning Method

1. The Nature of Cooperative Learning

1.1. Conceptual Definition

Slavin (1995) has identified Cooperative Learning (CL) as the “variety of teaching methods in which students work in small groups to help one another learn academic content” (p. 2). In other words, cooperative learning includes different instructional techniques in which students work in small groups and focus on achieving their shared academic goals. For Johnson and Johnson (2005), Cooperative learning is “the instructional use of small groups such that students work together to maximize their own and each other’s learning” (p. 117). That is to say, all members have to contribute in enhancing their learning and each others’ understanding when using CL. Hill and Flynn (2006) think that it is by using cooperative learning that students use interaction to understand and master new knowledge.

There are two major characteristics of the cooperative learning method suggested by Brown (2001). The first is the responsibility and contributions all learners have in their groups; the second is the interaction whereby students help each other. For Stevens (2008), the major characteristic of cooperative learning is the way students take responsibility from their teachers over their learning and the learning of their group mates, and how they gradually lead the instructions given by their teacher.

1.2. The differences between Cooperative, Competitive and Individualistic Methods

Williams and Burden (1997) refer to the way teachers can organize their language lessons as classroom structure. Classroom structures include many instructional processes among which cooperative, individualistic and competitive structures. Johnson and Johnson (2005) explain them as follows:

Cooperative learning is usually constructed with competitive (student working to achieve goals that only a few can attain; students can success if and only if other students in the class fail to obtain their goals) and individualistic learning (students working alone on goal independent from the goals of others). (p. 117)

This definition implies that competitive learning is a structure of comparing one's achievement to the others’ achievement so that certain rewards can be obtained by who
achieved the goals better than the others. Individualistic learning is to plan learning in a way students seem to work isolated when learning; and their achievements or the reward gained are not related to those of the others.

From another point of view, Smith (1996) claims that the differences between cooperative, competitive and individualistic learning is based on “the norm of interaction” through which learners perceive each other (p.71). Smith’s (1996) opinion means that the way students exchange ideas with each other determines the structure most used in the classroom. If the student-student conversation is competitive, the main classroom structure tends then to be competitive, too. If there is no interaction between students, then the dominant structure of the classroom is the individualistic one.

In a competitive process, students work against one another; they look for achieving their goals. This determines the achievement of others whom they are competing with (Johnson et al., 1984). William & Burden, (1997) argue that in competitive situations, grades and "rewards are given only for right answers", which would increase the students’ fears of making mistakes (p.193). Thus, students would not engage in the activities presented. For Slavin (1995) this fear has negative effects for less able students, who would keep the lowest marks when using this method, if their classmates make greater efforts. Subsequently, less able students would quit participating and would relate their success only to their abilities (Slavin, 1995).

In individualistic learning, which Williams and Burden (1997) refer to as “master-based instruction”, grades and rewards are given on the basis of the differences between the students’ last performance and their actual one; that is to say, differences within the same person. When students learn individualistically, attaining their goals is separated from others (Johnson et al., 1984).

Attle and Baker (2007) have suggested a structure that combines cooperation with competition which they think would be more beneficial especially for students in programs that aim at professional training. For Attle and Baker (2007), mixing the two strategies, by using cooperative learning in competitive environment where teams compete against each other for certain rewards, would have many advantages on many aspects of the curricular content.
2. Cooperative Learning versus Collaborative Learning

Cooperative learning is often regarded as a synonym of collaborative learning and sometimes is used in the same sense (China & China, 2009). However, according to some other researches there are major differences between the two of them (Pantiz, 1996, McWhaw et al., 2003). This disagreement about the differences between the two concepts results from the apparent similarities and overlapping of the meaning of two methods.

Pantiz (1996) defines collaboration as “personal” way of life of exchange and cooperative learning as ways of structuring an exchange (p.1). Pantiz (1996) states that the purpose of collaborative learning is building students’ responsibility for actions including learning and respecting the abilities and contributions of the peers, as opposed to the purpose of cooperative learning which is the achievement of specific goals through jointly working together. In other words, collaboration is defined as a system of beliefs people have about how they can help others and be helped when needed, and to what extent they value these beliefs; and cooperation refers to structuring strategies used with others to reach common goals. Hence, cooperative learning for Pantiz (1996) is considered more structured than collaborative learning in terms of its purpose and its instructional processes.

Smith and MacGregor (1992) think that collaborative learning is the supper ordinate concept of mutual help in the educational field either between students and students or students and teachers and cooperative learning is one among the approaches of structuring and organizing this approach. At the same time, McWhaw et al., (2003) think that collaborative learning and cooperative learning differ in two main aspects which are the level of students with whom each one is more effectively implemented and the type of knowledge that is focused on when using this method. Therefore, cooperative learning is, according to them, best used with elementary and secondary schools, whereas collaborative learning fits more adults and adolescent students like those in college and faculty.

From another perspective, on the one hand, cooperative leaning is effective in explaining “foundational” knowledge, which is information related to facts and formulas and has finite answers; on the other hand, collaborative learning is more appropriate to explain “non-foundational” knowledge, which is information that needs critical thinking, discussion, and has no finite answers. (McWhaw et al., 2003, p.71)
3. Cooperative Learning and Self-determination Theory

Brophy (2004) claims that: “in classroom that future interpersonal climate and norms of collaboration, students are likely to experience enhanced intrinsic motivation when they participate in learning activities that allow them to interact with their classmates” (p.202). In other words, students are interested in the activity itself when they are working cooperatively because most learners enjoy and feel at ease when they explaining their views to others and when they discuss others' points of view. Johnson and Johnson (2003) believe also that cooperative learning is proved to make learners want to be high achievers and make them believe that learning new ideas is important and enjoyable. As a result, learners would build a high intrinsic motivation when working together.

Johnson, Johnson and Smith (1998) also explain that cooperative learning is extrinsically motivating because of the importance of rewards that will be gained. Individual grades and group rewards serve as reinforcement for individuals to work cooperatively and effectively.

4. Criteria that Make Cooperative Learning Effective

Johnson, Johnson and Smith (1998) maintain that there are forms of group work like “pseudo-groups”, which causes competition at close distance, and “Traditional Learning Group”, which consists of individualistic learning with talk; both of them do not result in any cooperation (p.28). It is then only under some circumstances that group works will be cooperative.

In cooperative learning, students have to sit near each other, explain, discuss, and teach what they know to their teammates. They have to help each other to be productive. This is what Johnson and Johnson (2005) consider one of the elements of effective cooperative leaning, and named “face-to-face promotive interaction” (p.118). This interaction cannot fulfill its purpose without practising certain social skills which is another element of cooperative learning presented by Johnson et al. (1984). Examples of these skills are conflict management, decision making, communication, and trust building skills. When working together in cooperative groups, students should have the feeling that they need each other to accomplish their goals. Johnson et al. (1984) insist on this feeling of interdependence on one another positively to achieve the goals.

Johnson and Johnson (2005) suggest common goals, shared rewards, and assigned roles for each member, using different resources, and identifying the team as techniques to build
positive interdependence. Though in group goals students’ work with each other, be evaluated separately from others. Johnson et al. (1984) labeled this characteristic “individual accountability” (p.4). Many researchers emphasise the importance of these two last elements, namely positive interdependence and individual accountability. Slavin (1995), for example, states that these two characteristics are the only two, among many others, that are shared between almost all the activities and models of cooperative learning.

5. Benefits of Cooperative Learning

5.1. Learning Strategies

When using cooperative learning, learners practise many strategies either directly or indirectly. Explaining, arguing, negotiating meaning, repeating key words several times, and using words in actual contexts are important to be used in cooperative learning (Hill & Flynn, 2006). Simultaneously, Oxford (1990) considered these techniques as examples of memory and cognitive strategies.

Autonomy and responsibility are two metacognitive strategies (Oxford, 1990) that are inevitably resulted from well-structured cooperative group (Brown, 2001). That is to say, when cooperative groups are well-planned, each student becomes responsible for his /her individual learning and the group’s learning, and for the groups’ benefits as a whole, which makes all learners autonomous and responsible.

When learners use cooperative learning, they have to agree on certain goals and specific ways to achieve those goals. This obliges them to understand each others’ points of view and to try to be aware of how others think and feel. Finkbeiner (2004) assumes that this is one of the crucial outcomes of using foreign language learning. Oxford (1990) labels this “empathy with others” and classifies it under the social strategies category (p.21).

5.2. Achievement Outcomes

Many studies argue that learners who participate in cooperative learning have usually gained larger achievement than learners who use traditional groups learning (Gambrell, 2007). Hoynes (2007) indicates that for English Language Learners (ELLs), using cooperative group activities would help them achieve their academic goals because they are actively involved in “comprehensible output” and, at the same time, receiving “comprehensible input”; both have almost the same importance in learning a language (p.6). Through
negotiating meaning and explaining points of view, learners adjust their speech and ideas to their peers’ needs and levels. By doing so, they can produce comprehensible input and understand comprehensible output from other peers. For this reason, Hill and Flynn (2006) think that interaction is the most important component of cooperative group work that helps to build new knowledge.

5.3. Social Outcomes

There are many positive results of using cooperative learning on the social relationships. First, it provides respect for others and cooperation between students (Hohn, 2005). When learners help their peers and feel helped by others, they start to strengthen their relationship with them and maximize their respect for them. Slavin (2006) thinks that these effects would most importantly last even outside the school if it is used inside the classrooms in an appropriate way. Stevens (2008) indicates that these social effects may go beyond time and place of using cooperative group work. In other words, the positive relationships that were built in the classrooms are proved to remain even outside the classroom and after ending the cooperative work.

5.4. Affective Outcomes

According to Brown (2001), the use of cooperative learning makes learners feel secure from criticism; this feeling has great effect on the effectiveness of cooperative learning. This security is derived from dividing the embarrassment that one would feel when correcting his/her mistakes among the group members. Through this way, all learners, even the shy ones, would become active participants in the learning process.

Johnson and Johnson (2005) note that the feeling of commitment learners have when they are involved in the cooperative work will decrease their “disruptive” and “off-task behaviour” (p.118). It is the students’ feeling of participation in something meaningful and having active role in it that lead to commitment and feeling engaged in the activity.
Conclusion

In this chapter we tried to show some aspects of the learning strategies and their impact on the learning process as a whole. We did not deal with all the pinpointed aspects of learning strategies as well as with all the learning strategies. We have selected those which seemed to us the most salient dealing with the type of learners we have, and with their efficacy and efficiency if we want, effectively, to inculcate them to our learners during the learning process.

We approach also cooperative learning as a motivational factor that can be used according to Slavin, Hurley and Chamberlain (2003) with all students' levels and almost in all the subjects. Cooperative learning is related to collaborative learning, which is, according to some authors, more general concept, more theoretical and less structured than cooperative learning. Cooperative learning is also different from other classroom structures such as competitive learning where students' achievements and rewards are negatively interrelated and individualistic learning where students' achievement and rewards are not interrelated at all.

Cooperative learning can be compared with the plant. Its seed, which is group work, is supported by appropriate soil, which refers to strategies supporting cooperative learning, naming: memory, cognitive, metacognitive and social strategies. In the right conditions, we talked about the criteria that makes cooperative learning works, this plant grow and flourish. The fruits of our plant vary from acquiring learning strategies, acquiring social skills, achieving academic objectives, and supporting the affective side of the learner positively. This last point is mainly centered in establishing and increasing motivation.
CHAPTER THREE

Chapter Three: Practical Study

Introduction

This chapter deals with the practical study as it explains the method and process used for the research. It starts by describing the population of the study, then explaining the design, implementation and results of the students’ questionnaire. After that we cope with the results that will be discussed after presenting how the research will be implemented. Pedagogical suggestions will be the outcome of this analysis.

1. The Population

The entire population of the study encompasses of third year students of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at Department of English at the University of Ouargla during the academic year 2013-2014. The total number of the subject population is 20 students. The students are from different cultural background and from different geographical regions in Algeria and different genders, males and females.

This population has been chosen for three reasons. The first reason is that 3rd year students have already studied at least two years at university, thus, they would have experienced working in groups at least twice, and hence, they would have an opinion and an attitude toward it. The second reason is that 3rd year students perform such tasks in the first two years at University which is not the case of first or second year master students where every person is self-dependent. The third one is that we as researchers yearn for conducting a study that its sample has experienced the cooperative learning method at a certain epoch (first and second year L M D) during the teaching/learning process, and subsequently did not practice it in the coming year which is the case of third year English Language students, this motive would lend a hand for us to dig down for genuine data.

2. The Means of Research

This study aims at making correlation between two variables: using well-structured cooperative learning and motivating students to enhance learning foreign language. Thus, we have chosen the descriptive method to confirm our hypotheses. The tool used that can fairly represent this method to undertake this research is the questionnaire. The questionnaire is composed of a series of written questions that particular persons would answer for the sake of gathering information. According to Moore, (1983), the questionnaire is used to gather information on almost any topic from a large or small number of people. This qualitative way
of researching is used in this study in the form of closed questions which require particular answers.

3. The students’ questionnaire

3.1 The Study Design

This study is presented in the form of a questionnaire that consists of seventeen (17) questions. In each question, students are supposed to choose a correspondent answer. In 13 questions, only one answer is possible from the list of choices. In the four remaining, more than one answer is permitted. There are two items where students are asked to give their explanations and four items where students are given an opportunity to give their suggestions if it is not found in the list.

The questionnaire is divided into three (03) major categories. The first section, which is composed of four (04) questions, concerns the students' perceptions about learning English. The second section, which is composed of seven (07) questions, concerns the students’ perceptions about the teachers' supervision of group/pair work. The last section is about the students' attitudes and opinions concerning cooperative group work which consists of six (06) questions.

The purpose of using this design is to check if all words used are understood by the students, to know if there is a question or item which would be interpreted in a wrong way and if there is an item (s) which is (are)irrelevant.

3.2 The study Implementation

The questionnaire was done on a sample that consists of a group of twenty (20) students, which is defined by Moore (1983) as the representative group of people selected randomly from the population. The sample was taken from the third year L M D students who study English as Foreign Language at the Department of English University of Ouargla; thus, most of the characteristic of the whole population would be represented in it. Students finished answering the questionnaire's items in fifteen (15) minutes before or after their TD session with the presence of their teacher. The participants are required to answer the questions using English language. They were supervised by their teacher. The way of answering and key terms were explained as well as written. The researchers asked for help from their supervisor to help them delivering the questionnaire into his students.
3.3 Results and Interpretation of the questionnaire

The number of the students who participated in the subject study is 20 students, that is to say (100%) of the whole sample is represented.

In the first item of the first section, 13 students believe they have a good level in English (65%), however, five students of them prefer to work individually in order to concentrate and learn more, arguing that groups take activities without seriousness and wasting time doing silly games. 05 students think they have an average level (25%), but three of them prefer to work individually avowing that working in groups or pairs deserves a good level to interact with them and only 02 inform they have a poor level in English (10%), according to them learning in groups help them to be intrinsically motivated which is a very good factor that thrusts them to learn more and improve their level in English. Concerning the reason of learning English in the second item, 11 students learn English because it is Interesting (55%); 09 of students out of 11 explained their choice by stating that English is an international language, so whenever we go we communicate with it, therefore, it is the world’s fashion and knowing such language means new culture, new style of life and new experience that’s why it is interesting while 08 students think it is an obligatory activity of learning English (40%); only 05 students from the students who consider learning English is an obligatory task argue their opinions by maintaining that the world is ruled by English language that’s why we are obliged to learn and master it, and one (5%) notifies that it is both interesting and obligatory task of learning because s/he defends both answers. In the third item, 12 students (60%) from 20 students think achieving fluency is very much important and 08 think it is important (40%). In the last question of the first section, 19 students (95%) report that they need more speaking in English classes to practise the aspect of fluency and one (5%) student maintains that such aspect cannot be achieved by doing more speaking hours in English classes.

In the second section, the majority of students, 12 students (60%) like to work either in groups or in pairs; 06 of them precisied their answers avowing that learning in groups or pairs helps us to learn more, obtain new information and getting much more opportunities to express ourselves clearly in front of my colleagues and only 08 students (40%) like to work individually; 04 of them explained more their answers in the additional empty places claiming that working individually thrusts us to waste time and to avoid being corrected by our group mates. In the first question, 16 students (80%) state that they rarely use group work and 04 students say they often use group/pair work. This question is formed in order to know the
frequency of using group/pair work when learning English. In the second item, 13 students (65%) state that they are chosen on the basis of setting together; solely 03 students from 13 specified their answers suggesting that we grouped also according to alphabets and range, the rest of the participants did not specify their answers. 05 students (25%) think they choose their partners and likewise one student (05%) thinks they are grouped on the basis of the same level and the last one answered both sitting with each other and with the same level. 

According to this question the greater part of students prefer choosing their partners. For the third item of this section, 13 students (65%) suggested that their teacher does not check if they are doing the given task and 07 students (35%) inform that their teacher does check if they are doing the activities or no.11 students (55%) report that their teacher does not insist on them to use English when interacting with the same group, while 09 students (45%) report that their teacher insists on using English when interacting with each other. Concerning the aspects that are insisted on, 11 students (55%) inform that their teacher insists on building good relationships among students, 13 students (65%) report that their teacher focuses on respecting each other and 16 students (80%) account that their teacher focuses on arguing their ideas to convince the others. Listening to others' arguments score the highest number of students who report that their teacher insists on among the other aspects. Concerning the question of the aspects that teacher focuses on when working in group/pair work in the second section, only 03 students from the whole sample specified their answer through mentioning that teacher needs to provide us with a questionable issue discussed by two groups males and females. When students are asked about the problems that they face when using group or pair work, 10 (50%) from 20 students inform they have problems and an equal number of students propose that they have not problems when using group or pair work. 04 (20%) from 10 students report that they face the problem of do not having enough opportunities to speak with their teacher in the presence of their group mates;03 (15%) from 10 students notify both they have the problem of expressing their ideas to their group mates in front of their teacher and lack of opportunities to speak with their teacher in the attendance of their group mates, 02 (10%) from 10 students give notice that they have the problem of expressing their ideas to their group mates in front of their teacher and only one (05%) student warns that s/he faces the three problems: when expressing her/his ideas to her/his group mates in front of her/his teacher, when her/his teacher corrects her/his mistakes in the presence of her/his group mates and the last problem which is the lack of opportunities to speak with her/his teacher in the existence of her/his group mates. In the last item of the second section we as researchers
asked learners to specify their answers if there are other problems, solely 02 (10%) from 10 students alert that there are two additional problems: one of them declares that s/he has the problem of organization within the group mates and the other one claims that s/he has breakdowns in communication when dealing with the group mates because of the lack of vocabulary.

In the third category which is about the students attitudes towards group work, the first question is about the degree of motivation of students when they work in groups. 02 students (10%) say that they are strongly motivated, 11 students (55%) report they are motivated and 06 students (30%) say that they feel less motivated and 01(05%) student feels s/he is not motivated at all. For the benefits of using group/pair work, 05 students (25%) say that they learn to express themselves appropriately. 04 students (20%) learn to respect each other, 03 students (15%) learn how to speak English correctly and 03 students (15%) learn how to respect others and express themselves correctly. 03 students (15%) learn how to speak English correctly, fluently and to express themselves suitably and only 02 students (10%) learn how to speak English fluently; only three students from the entire participants suggested further benefits like acquiring new vocabulary, rules of grammar and comparing your own level with your group or pair mates. The students’ answers about how they feel when working in groups vary from 10 (50%) students who feel satisfied, confident and are not shy if they make mistakes with their group mates, 05 (25%) students more confident when working in groups or pairs, 04 students (20%) feel not good at all and are not shy if they make mistakes and only one (05%) does not feel with any improvement at all when working in groups or pairs. In the 16th question, two students (10%) tell they learned very much from the group/pair work, 10 (50%) students inform they learned much from group/pair work and 08 (40%) students learn little doing group/pair work activities. In the last question, 10 students (50%) say that group/ pair work is good if compared to individual work, 07 (35%) students report that they think group/pair work is very good if compared with individual learning and 03(15%) students think group/pair work is excellent in comparison to individual during the learning process. The following diagram represents the above results of questions number 12 and 13 of the third section of the students’ questionnaire.
CHAPTER THREE

Figure one: The importance of motivation in group/pair work and different degrees of group/pair/individual work

3.4 Students’ Questionnaire Discussion:

The answers to question 01 and question 03 mean that most students value the importance of achieving fluency in learning a foreign language.

The answers to question 04 and question 07 represent the need of students to practise English in order to achieve the feature of fluency through doing speaking activities like role play which entails a number of learners to do the task given and the answers to question 08 would connote that insisting on using English to interact with one another when doing group and pair work would be a good chance to practise English orally with your mates during the process of learning. The following diagram shows the results of questions number 04, 07 and 09 that we have dealt with them above.
Figure two: The need for using English to speak with group mates and checking the given activities.

From the diagram, we inform that teachers would give their learners more opportunities to use English with each other and to check their given activities when working in groups or pairs for better learning environment.

Since in question 06 the majority of students report that their teachers prefer to group them on the basis of sitting with each other together, teachers would motivate their learners when forming the group, through giving them the opportunity to choose their mates according to the criteria they have in minds like choosing their partners or students with the same level.

Concerning the answers to questions 12 and 17 which would seem they are not in harmony since in question 12, a large number of students prefer individual work but in question 17, all of them indicate in their answers that group or pair work is good if compared to individual work, would be better explained by the fact that learners have positive attitudes toward group/ pair work but because of the problems presented in question 11 they like better to avoid them totally. The following diagram signifies the answers of question number 17.
CHAPTER THREE

Figure three: The degree of comparison between group/pair work and individual work.

The above diagram, denotes that learners who prefer individual work find the cooperative learning method good means for learning, therefore, if teachers overused such method does not effect in the process of learning depending on the learners’ answers.

In addition, the answers to questions 13, 14, 15 and 16 confirm that using group/pair work has positive effects on the attitudes of learners toward learning a second language. All these authenticate our first sub-hypothesis which is using well-structured group/pair work has a motivational effect and positive attitudes on learners.

The answers to question number 01, question number 10 and question number 11 denote that all levels of students do face problems working in groups and solving them does not require from teachers to check just the activities but to be aware of all these problems.

The answers to question 05 signify that group/pair work is rarely or never used in English classes; however, the answers to question 14 and question 16 imply that learners benefit from group/pair work and among those benefits a significant number learn how to speak English correctly. The next to diagrams denote the results of questions number 05 and 16 respectively.
Figure four: The frequency of using group/pair work by teachers.

From the third diagram, we deduce that the majority of students learn more when they are working in groups or pairs; however, teachers rarely use this method, we as researchers advice teachers to give their learners the chance to use cooperative learning with the given tasks.

All these statistics confirm our second sub-hypothesis which tells that using group/pair work in classes helps learners to enhance their levels when learning English language.

To sum up, the results of the students’ questionnaire and the answers of the students concerning their attitudes about group/pair work show that cooperative group/pair work is a
good motivator for our students, and using it in English would help students to learn mainly if the teacher tries to solve the problems of students through managing and structuring the group tasks. These results, therefore, confirm our two hypotheses.

4. Pedagogical Suggestions

As it is said before, not all group/pair works are cooperative. Group/ pair work is an initial step, which in the presence of some other conditions, becomes cooperative learning. After analyzing the students’ answers and the literature review, we are going to give some suggestions for using cooperative group effectively.

First of all, many students would have some negative beliefs about group/ pair work in general. To make them want to work cooperatively, teachers would state some periods of time motivating them to see the value of cooperative group/ pair work and maintaining the social aspects and learning skills necessary for making cooperative learning different from other ways of grouping.

Second, it is advisable for the teachers to use pairs or small groups, especially at the beginning, in order to be able to manage them and to help their students master working in a cooperative way with small number of students first, then move to larger number of groups. Moreover, students can be given the opportunity to choose their partners instead of imposing on them the same groups' forms which are usually the students sitting together. In doing so, learners would manipulate how to work with different people and experience working in different groups and, at the same time, teachers would be aware about the type of forming groups that their students prefer.

Two main problems that students report in their answers are imposing ideas and unequal participation. These two problems can be solved if teachers use the two following strategies together: grading students individually and establishing a shared group goals and relating the two together. The first one enhances the students' participation in the group work and the second one states help between the members to achieve the group goal or get the group reward.

To end with, teachers can evaluate the effectiveness of group/pair work by controlling the students improvement at all levels: affective, academic, and social. They can, at the time, ask their students for self-evaluation of success and shortcoming of their group/pair work and their suggestion to solve them.
5. Limitation of the study

The results and discussion of students’ questionnaire have indicated that our hypotheses are proved; that is to say, using cooperative group/pair work in learning English would motivate students to learn it effectively which concerns our own sample, because if we repeat such study on another sample we may obtain different results. Nevertheless, this study has some limitations.

The first limitation is time constraints. Longer time would help us to use different tools and a larger sample of students and a population or a sample of teachers who teach third year English students at the Department of English at the University of Ouargla during the academic year 2013-2014. This would give our results different dimensions. Extended time would also permit us to extend our research through specifying the learning subjects that are taught during 3rd year and that can be taught through cooperative group appropriately because this method would give better results when used in learning one aspect of foreign languages and than in learning other aspects.

The second limitation is the nature of the tool used. In investigating a correlation study, the experimental method of research would be more helpful and useful for the quantitative results that provides and would yield also more reliable, valid and authentic outcomes which are not always the case of the questionnaire where the answers would not reflect the students' real opinion or answer.

The third limitation is the number of sample. Different teachers teach different groups of the population, hence different methods and techniques would be used. Therefore, the number of sample (10%) would not represent the whole population, thus it is difficult to generalize these conclusions.

Conclusion

This chapter is concerned with getting real data about students' attitudes, opinions and perceptions concerning learning and teaching English, as well as, about implementing cooperative group/pair work in teaching and learning English as a foreign language and the outcomes of this method.

The information was gathered through forming closed questions that require one correspondent answer delivered to a random population taken from third year LMD students at the Department of foreign languages at University of Ouargla during the academic year 2013/2014, this case of study involves twenty participants.
CHAPTER THREE

The questionnaire splits up into three main categories; the first section is about the students’ perceptions about learning English, the second section is about the students’ perceptions about the teachers’ supervision of group/pair work and the third one which is about the students’ attitudes and views about using cooperative group/pair work. The method that we used to analyse and discuss the results of the students’ questionnaire is the qualitative or descriptive technique that helped us to comfort our sub-hypotheses.

Though this study has some limitations, its consequences are presented in terms of some pedagogical suggestions about using cooperative group/pair work effectively when learning foreign languages.

**General Conclusion**

This study aims at analyzing the correlation between well-structured cooperative group/pair work in English classes and motivation of students to enhance learning English in third year English students at the Department of Foreign Languages at University of Ouargla. To test this hypothesis, we divide it into two hypotheses: the first one is if we use cooperative group work, students will be more motivated, and the second one is if we use cooperative learning to learn English, students will learn it more effectively.

Basing our research on investigating these two hypotheses, we begin by a chapter of theoretical review composed of two sections concerning motivation: the first one deals with motivation in general, its nature and its theories, while the second section copes with types of motivation, its orientations and its importance. After that, we ended the chapter with a conclusion in which we summarized what we have said above in the first chapter.

In the second chapter, we presented theoretical literature about the process of learning; we talked about learning in general dealing with its definitions and some characteristics about learners, then we specified our speaking to present the expression of cooperative learning as a technique that can be used in classes in order to learn and improve students’ level of English, dealing also with its nature, its essential characteristics and its benefits. We concluded as well this second chapter with a conclusion in which we stated briefly what we have mentioned before.

The third chapter of this dissertation is devoted to the practical study which is in turn designed to treat the students’ questionnaire depending on the answers of students to interpret and analyze its results. At the end, we provide learners and teachers with pedagogical suggestions that may help them during the learning-teaching process. We fulfilled this chapter by confirming both hypotheses in the third chapter of the practical study.
These results cannot be fairly generalized on the whole population because of two main reasons, the first one which is the simple is just 10% of the population which done not certificate the representation of all the characteristics of the entire population. The second reason is the nature of the research because it is concerned with the affective domain of the learners and the attitudes towards using such a method are linked to many other uncontrollable variables like personality factors and past experiences.
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William M. Reynolds, Gloria E. Miller, Handbook of Psychology: Educational


Appendix

The students’ Questionnaire

Dear Students,

We would be so grateful if you could answer the following questions about your opinions concerning learning English and your attitudes concerning the use of cooperative group work when learning English.

Your answer will be very helpful for the research project we are undertaking.

We hope that you will answer with full attention, honesty and interest. To answer the questions, you are required to put a tick ( ) in the box correspondent to your answer. You may seek clarification from us whenever you feel the need for that.

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

Thank you.

Section one: students’ perceptions about learning English

1. When leaning the English language, do you think that achieving fluency is?
   a. Very much important? □ b. Not important? □
   c. Important? □ d. Little? □

2. Do you think your level in English is?

3. Do you think you need to do more speaking in your English classes?
   a. Yes □ b. No □

4. Do you think learning English can be
   a. An interesting activity? □ b. An obligatory activity? □
   c. A boring activity? □
- Can you be more precise about your answer, please?

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Section Two: Students’ Perceptions about the Teacher’s Supervision of Group/Pair work

5. How often does your teacher ask you to work in small groups/pairs?


6. When you work in small group/pairs, on what basis students are usually grouped?

a. Students with the same level together □

b. Students sitting with each other together □

c. Students choose their partners □

- If there are others, can you specify, please

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

- Which way of grouping from the list above do you prefer?

a. □  b. □  c. □

7. When working in groups/pairs, does your teacher check if all students are doing the activities given?

a. Yes □  b. No □
8. Does your teacher insist on using English to speak with each other when working in small groups/ pairs?

   a. Yes       b. No

9. Which skills does your teacher focus on when working in small groups/ pairs?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Building good relationships among students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respecting each other’s ideas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening to others arguments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arguing your ideas to convince others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If there are others, please specify
........................................................................................................

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10. Do you face problems working in pairs or small groups?

   a. Yes       b. No

11. If yes, which of the following problems do you usually face when working in groups/ pairs?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROBLEMS</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I find it difficult to express my ideas to the members of my group.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not like when students in my group correct my mistakes.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not have enough opportunities to speak with students of my group.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- If there are other problems, can you specify please?
........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................
Section Three: Students’ attitudes about Using Cooperative Group/Pair Work

12. When learning English in class, do you prefer?

a. To work individually  □  b. To work in pair  □
c. To work in small group  □
- Can you add more information about your answer?
………………………………………………………………………………………………………

13. When you work in small groups/pairs, do you feel that you are?

a. Strongly motivated  □  b. Motivated  □
c. Less motivated  □  d. Not motivated  □

14. Do you think that this way of learning helps you?

a. To learn to respect others  □
b. To learn to express yourself  □
c. To learn how to speak English correctly  □
d. To learn how to speak English fluently  □
- If there are other benefits from working in group/pair, please specify.
………………………………………………………………………………………………………

15. When working in a group/pair do you feel?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You are satisfied with yourself</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are not shy if you make mistakes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are more confident</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are not good at all</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
16. How much did you learn from group/ pair work?

17. According to you, group/ pair work, if compared to individual work, is

   Thank you for your participation in this questionnaire

1Motivation: Willingness and desire of doing something
If you are motivated to do something it means you want to do that thing
ABSTRACT

The present study aims at investigating the motivational effect of using well-structured cooperative group work in learning English to third year students of English as a Foreign Language at the department of English, University of Ouargla. In order to check this correlation, we have hypothesised that well-structured cooperative learning would result in motivating students and that if it were used in English classes, it would help students to learn English better. To verify the validity of these hypotheses, we have conducted a study, through which we have tested the students’ understanding of the questions by using a form of questionnaire and the relevance of their answers to our study. Such questionnaire is composed of seventeen questions and administered to a sample composed of twenty students of 3rd year English students at the department of English at University of Ouargla during the academic year 2013-2014. This questionnaire consists of three sections: students’ perceptions about learning English, Students’ perceptions about the teacher’s supervision of Group/Pair work, and Students’ attitudes about Using Cooperative Group/Pair Work. The discussion of the results has shown that using cooperative learning motivates third year English students and when used in an appropriate environment between learners, well-structured cooperative group/pair work helps third year English students to learn more and to enhance better their level at English.

Keywords: cooperative learning, motivation, group/pair work.

الملخص:

يهدف هذا البحث لدراسة أثر تطبيق العمل التعاوني لتحفيز الطلبة واستعماله في مجال تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية لطلبة السنة الثالثة للغة الأجنبية بجامعة قاصدي مرباح بورقلة، ولاستكشاف ذلك، بنينا بحثنا على فرضيتين الأولى أن للعمل الجماعي التعاوني أثر تحفيزي على الطلبة والثانية أن العمل الجماعي التعاوني يساعد الطلبة على التحصيل المعرفي في اكتساب اللغة الإنجليزية إذا ما طبق مع احترام كل شروطه. للتحقق من هاتين الفرضيتين وزعنا استبيانا على فئة مختارة بطريقة عشوائية. يتكون الاستبيان من سبعة عشر سؤالا، تم توزيعه على عشرين طالباً وطالبة للسنة الثالثة إنجليزية بجامعة ورقلة خلال السنة الجامعية 2013/2014. بعد مناقشة تحليل النتائج أثبتت صحة الفرضيتين.

الكلمات المفتاحية: العمل الجماعي التعاوني، التحفيز، العمل الثنائي.