People's Democratic Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

University of Djillali Liabes - Sidi Bel Abbes

Faculty of Letters, Languages and Arts

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Investigating the Relationship between Teachers' Conceptions of Teaching/Learning, Students' Learning Styles and Motivation in EFL Classroom

Thesis Submitted to the Department of English in Fulfilment of the Degree of Doctorate in Sciences: Applied Linguistics

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Academic Year: 2020/2021

Statement of Originality

I, Messaouda Bendahmane declare that my thesis entitled: Investigating the Relationship between Teachers' Conceptions of Teaching/Learning, Students' Learning Styles and Motivation in EFL Classroom: The Case of Second Year Secondary School Students in Biskra contains no materials that have been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma except where otherwise indicated. This thesis is my own work.

Mrs. Messaouda Bendahmane

Dedication

This humble work is dedicated to my dear parents who have always believed in me

and supported me

To my husband Omar for his encouragement, support, patience and understanding,

without whom this work would never be accomplished

To my little angels Maya and Amir

To my brothers and sisters

To my friends

Acknowledgement

Abstract

Motivation is regarded as an important aspect in the teaching and learning process. It influences how and why people learn. The present research aims to investigate the effect of matching teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles on students' motivation in the EFL classroom. Therefore, it is assumed to contribute to the professional success of EFL teaching/learning in the Algerian secondary school context as it attempts to find ways that would enhance motivation to learn English. To reach this aim, a mixed method approach frames the study methodologically: a classroom observation, teachers' and students' interviews besides three different surveys are conducted. Two surveys are administered to 252 second year students Foreign Languages stream in the city of Biskra and one survey to six EFL secondary school teachers. The findings indicate high frequency of mismatch between teachers' teaching styles and students' learning styles, which influences students' motivation negatively at the beginning of the study. After matching teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles in terms of instructional materials and variety of classroom methods, students' motivation is promoted. The attained results have stressed the importance of ameliorating class instruction in ways that would offer equivalent opportunities for all learners and respond to their needs and statistically highlight the positive impact of the teaching-learning styles match on students' motivation to learn. The study concludes with some recommendations and pedagogical implications that endeavour to help improve EFL teaching and learning, as well as, it provides suggestions for how instruction could be diversified and appealing to the majority of EFL learners.

Key words: teaching styles, learning styles, motivation, EFL instruction, teaching-learning styles match

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List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

ALM: The Audio-Lingual Method

BEC: The Basic Education Certificate

CBA: Competency Based Approach

CBLT: Competency-Based Language Teaching

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

DM: Direct Method

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

FL: Foreign Language

GRLSS: Grasha-Riechmann Learning Styles Scale

GRTSI: Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Styles Inventory

GTM: The Grammar Translation Method

L2: Second Language

MSA: Modern Standard Arabic

MSLQ: Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire

SDT: Self-Determination Theory

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

TL: Target Language

General Introduction

Teaching English as a foreign language in Algeria is given a vital concern in the field of education due to the major role English plays in the modern world. There are many factors that make foreign language teaching and learning a challenging task. To make the process of teaching/ learning English successful for teachers and students, the classroom must represent an interesting and a promising learning atmosphere where motivation is fostered among students. The term "student" is used to refer to secondary school learners instead of pupils because it has been used by the Ministry of National Education in the National Syllabus of English Language for secondary education. This term, then, can be used to refer to secondary school and university learners.

Motivating EFL students to proceed in their language learning is regarded as a complex task. Many factors seem to contribute either positively or negatively to learners' motivation which is considered as a significant dimension in language learning. Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals; and neither are appropriate curricula and good teaching enough on their own to ensure students' achievement (Dornyei, 1998).

When EFL teachers try to boost students' motivation in the classroom in order to improve learning, they should know that the quality of learning does not depend only on students' abilities but, to a great extent, on the way teachers teach too. Teachers' practices in class deeply reflect their conceptions about teaching and learning. What they think and believe about the teaching and learning process is believed to impact the way they teach. Thus, students' approaches to learning are influenced by the way teachers teach. Teachers who have traditional conceptions of teaching emphasize the role of the teacher and neglect that of the learner. In this respect, teachers work in teacher-centred classrooms where learners' learning differences, preferences, and styles are not accounted for.

Based on students' learning styles, teachers might be invited to diversify their instruction to meet their students' differences. Doing so, teachers may provide students with an opportunity to practise a wide range of activities that help them discover their abilities and adjust to various learning situations. In this respect, Brown (2003) claimed that if teaching styles meet all learning styles, then the information of learning styles will be used to expose learners to an array of activities that may or may not match with their

preferred styles, but that will help them develop adeptness necessary to handle a range of different learning requirement.

The effective exploitation of learning styles in the teaching/ learning process leads to the development of instructional activities that are responsive to students' needs. Teachers who have background knowledge about their students' learning styles tend to have confidence in using instructions that correspond to their learners' needs. This may help teachers develop a comprehensive view of students' abilities and learning capacities. Some researchers argue that matching teaching conceptions and styles with learning styles enables teachers and students to maximize achievement levels, develop areas of relative weakness, and increase learners' abilities to perform functionally in any environment (Karns, 2006; Loo, 2004; Kolb & Kolb, 2009; and Felder & Brent, 2005). In this perspective, teachers should know that when considering students' styles, it is not required to develop numerous activities to meet every particular learning need. It is, however, necessary to develop tasks in a manner that takes the dominant learning styles into account.

Teachers who have a greater understanding of learning styles can increase their effectiveness in both instruction and assessment. Matching students' learning styles preferences with educational interventions compatible with those preferences is still beneficial to their academic achievement and produces an environment wherein students learn best. One of the most successful learning/teaching environments is when teaching conceptions are linked/ matched to learning styles because the mismatch may cause decreased learning on the part of students.

A positive effect on both academic achievement and students' attitudes and motivation has been found when teaching styles and learning are compatible. Accordingly, among the educational practices that ensure success and effectiveness are those in which there is a match between teaching and learning. Considering students' learning preferences and responding to them by diversifying the teaching practices supports learners to understand their learning differences and relate to their peers as well. When teachers' teaching styles are linked to learners' learning styles, students are encouraged to use their preferred ways to learn. In doing so, teachers promote the personal relevance of educational experiences which involves a high level of mental and emotional engagement and helps in providing meaningful connections between what is learned in school and what goes on in real life. Responding to students' needs is, therefore, crucial in order to make a significant progress towards the goal of developing enduring learners (Williamson & Watson, 2007).

In fact, EFL students are rarely given opportunities to develop independent learning skills or creative replies. They are mostly passive participants in the process of learning and sometimes feel obliged to participate in activities that do not respond to their personal abilities. This may often result in their lack of motivation simply because these tasks do not reflect their cognitive capacities. Teachers are therefore invited to develop methods and practices to respond to their learners' preferences to make teaching/ learning English an active process. This is because designing tasks that take learning styles into consideration may increase students' motivation that will in turn enhance learning and students' satisfaction and retention of information.

Matching teachers' conceptions of teaching and learning translated into teaching styles with students' learning styles assists students to develop an innate desire to learn due to teachers' focus on their individual abilities; this will motivate students to learn. Those who are motivated and have an understanding of the process of learning are more likely to perform better on academic tasks and be more effective at learning in various circumstances than those who do not possess these characteristics (McClanaghan, 2000; Tomlinson, 2005; Kolb & Kolb, 2009).

In this thesis, we will examine the effects of matching teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles on motivation in the EFL classroom within the Algerian secondary school context. It aims at identifying how students of different learning styles and personalities learn and how their motivation is influenced by their teachers' practices. The present study, therefore, attempts to:

- ➢ Identify learners' learning styles.
- ➢ Determine teachers' teaching styles.
- ➢ Examine the effect of matching teaching styles with learning styles in the classroom.
- ➢ Boost students' motivation to learn
- ➢ Facilitate the teaching learning process and overcome different sorts of problems.

To achieve the purpose of the study, the following questions will be answered:

1) What are the dominant learning styles of 2nd year secondary school Foreign Languages stream students in the city of Biskra?

2) What are the dominant teaching styles of EFL secondary school teachers in the same city?

3) Does matching teachers' teaching styles with students' learning styles enhance students' motivation?

4) What are the attitudes of both the EFL secondary school teachers and 2nd year secondary school Foreign Languages stream students as well towards matching teaching styles with learning styles?

The researcher considers motivation as a dominant part in the success of the teaching/ learning process, in fact, motivating students to learn English is a salient factor in promoting students' achievement. As the aim of the current study is to examine the effect of matching teachers' teaching styles with students' learning styles on motivation in the EFL classroom, we hypothesise that:

1) 2nd year secondary school Foreign Languages stream students' dominant learning styles in the city of Biskra are assumed to be Dependent-Participant-Competitive.

2) EFL secondary school teachers' dominant teaching styles are supposed to be Facilitator-Personal Model-Expert.

3) Matching teachers' teaching styles with students' learning styles positively enhances students' motivation.

4) EFL secondary school teachers and 2nd year secondary school Foreign Languages stream students in Biskra city hold indifferent attitudes towards matching teaching styles with learning styles.

Henceforth, this study significance can be in terms of three major points. First, it is assumed to contribute to the professional success of teaching/learning English in the Algerian secondary schools as it identifies ways to increase students' motivation to learn English. Second, it determines teachers' conceptions of teaching that are represented in their practices and teaching methods. Third, it identifies learners' differences, learning styles and learning strategies employed particularly when learning English. This work is, then, an attempt to find solutions that make teaching / learning English successful and motivating.

As long as the present work seeks to highlight the significance of matching teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles to enhance motivation, it opts for a triangulation of qualitative and quantitative methods and procedures. First, a classroom observation is selected as a primary tool. It is conducted to obtain general information

about the classroom atmosphere, teachers' teaching styles, learners' learning styles, lesson presentation and learners' motivation. Second, the Grasha-Riechmann Learning Styles Scale (1996) and the Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Styles Inventory (1996) are used to determine second learners' and teachers' styles respectively. Third, the Motivated Strategies for learning Questionnaire (1991) is conducted in order to measure students' motivation before and after the match of teaching styles with learning styles in the classroom. Fourth, two interviews are set up to teachers and students aiming to generate in-depth information about teachers' and students perceptions and attitudes about the match of teaching styles with learning styles and its effect on motivation in the EFL classroom. They are also used as follow-up to the findings attained from the other used methods. The sample consists of 252 second year secondary school students of the foreign languages stream and six EFL teachers from six different secondary schools in Biskra city.

The thesis is organised into six further chapters, divided into two main parts; the theoretical one which includes the three first chapters and the practical part consisting of the fourth, fifth and sixth chapters. Chapter one reviews literature on motivation in the EFL classroom. It aims to stress the importance of motivation and the way to be improved. It sheds light some definitions to motivation and an overview of its contemporary approaches and theories. Moreover, it introduces the different types of motivation and provides a general overview about motivation and its relationship to language learning. Finally, the chapter highlights the main factors affecting students' motivation.

Chapter two attempts to shed light on the main concepts interwoven in the teaching learning process such as learning, teaching, learning styles and teaching styles. It also reviews the key models of learning and teaching styles and gives an account on the main teaching and learning styles models adopted in the present study, notably, Grasha-Riechmann (1996) integrated model of teaching and learning. The chapter also surveys the relationship between motivation and learning styles and the effect of the match on learners' motivation.

Chapter three sheds light on the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language in the Algerian educational system. It attempts to provide an overview on the EFL teaching and learning situation in the Algerian secondary school. This chapter provides a historical overview of the educational system and the main reforms that have profoundly influenced the policy of foreign languages teaching in the country. Also, it presents a brief discussion on the status of English in education and highlights the major approaches applied to teach English in the secondary school.

Chapter four discusses the research design and methodology of the study. This chapter attempts to highlight some of the methodological considerations about the present study and tries to present the different steps this research has undergone to investigate the effect of the match between teaching and learning styles on motivation in the EFL classroom. It also describes the study population and sample which include teachers and students from different secondary schools in the city of Biskra. Moreover, it tackles the various instruments used for data collection and highlights the data analysis procedures that have been used to analyse data using qualitative and quantitative approaches.

Chapter five and six summarise the findings and provide a general overview of the results by including discussions and interpretations. Moreover, some recommendations about the match of teaching styles with learning styles in the EFL classroom and some types of activities that teachers may use to diversify their teaching instruction and respond to different learners' styles are provided. At the end of this research work, a synthesising conclusion about the different phases of this research is provided. After the conclusion, the bibliography and seven appendices excerpts are added. For the referencing style, the American Psychological Association (APA) sixth edition (2010) is used in this thesis.

Chapter One

Chapter One: Motivation in the EFL Classroom

Chapter One: Motivation in the EFL Classroom

1.1 Introduction

Talking about language learning cannot be done without presenting a complete understanding of motivation and its relationship to the success of EFL teaching and learning. Motivation proved to be a complex issue that has been investigated thoroughly due to its interdisciplinarity *a*nd multifaceted nature. A plethora of different theories and approaches attempt to provide a comprehensive definition to motivation which would allow researchers to explain the various forces behind human's actions and behaviours. In the educational setting, motivation is believed to have a direct impact on the teaching leaning process that need to be promoted.

This chapter reviews literature on motivation in the foreign language classroom. It attempts to highlight the importance of motivation and how it can be improved. It starts by providing some definitions to motivation and an overview of its contemporary approaches and theories. It also introduces the readers to the different types of motivation and gives a general account about motivation and its relationship to language learning. Finally, it sheds light on the main factors affecting students' motivation.

1.2 Some Definitions of Motivation

Motivation has been deeply searched in numerous fields and from different perspectives. Psychology, educational psychology, social psychology, education, second and foreign language learning provide several definitions to motivation due to the complexity of the term. Researchers could not make consensus on one definition because motivation is an interdisciplinary construct. Dörnyei, (1998, p. 117) notes that "although 'motivation' is a term frequently used in both educational and research contexts, it is rather surprising how little agreement there is in the literature with regard to the exact meaning of the concept". That is, motivation is a complex notion to define due to the complexity of the human nature and its vast psychological aspects.

Definitions of motivation are various depending on the different schools of psychology. There is no one agreed upon definition but all psychologists admit that motivation for learning is the way by which students are made interested in the material. Dornyei (2001b, p. 7) states that motivation is "why people decide to do something, how hard they are going to pursue it and how long they are willing to sustain the activity". It does not appear only at the initial stage as the motive behind an action. It is also the process that makes a given action sustained and maintained to reach goals. In this regard, Williams and Burden (1997, p. 120) describe motivation as "a state of cognitive and emotional arousal, a state which leads to a conscious decision to act and gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort".

In relation to second language (hereafter L2) and to foreign language (hereafter FL) learning, motivation is "the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity" (Gardner 1985, p. 10). Learning a FL is encouraged when this language is important and valuable to the learner him/herself as well as when the learner holds positive attitudes towards this language. In this case, the learner will be motivated to learn the language regardless to the amount of efforts to exert.

We may notice that all the definitions exposed above share that motivation encourages an action to happen and sustain through time to achieve a particular goal. Motivation is very often related to drives, needs, desires besides the processes that control the individual's behaviour. Its complex nature leads to no consensus on its definition, its components and effects. Accordingly, motivation is a fundamental aspect in the teaching and learning process. Motivation and learning are so interdependent that it is impossible to understand learning without understanding motivation.

The more learners are motivated, the more their learning improves.. Research shows that many factors may contribute to learners' achievements among which age, gender, attitudes, aptitude, motivation, and learning styles (Dornyei, 1994; Dornyei & Csizer, 1998; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Kormos & Csizer, 2008; Oxford, 1994). Dornyei (2001a), Oxford (1994), and Oxford and Shearin (1994) regard motivation as one of the fundamental factors that influence leaning. Teachers need to increase their learners' motivation for language learning emphasising the fact that motivation facilitates EFL learning (Cheng & Dornyei, 2007; Williams & Burden, 1997). It is very important, therefore, to understand the different factors that affect motivation either positively or negatively because this influence might have a direct impact on the learning process. This

understanding will help educationalists explain learning and teaching difficulties and therefore find solutions for many problems.

1.3 An Overview of the Main Approaches and Theories of Motivation

Through time, theorists have made numerous studies that have different explanations in order to clarify the meaning of motivation. Many definitions have been presented depending on the adopted theory. All the theories have endeavoured to elucidate nothing less than why humans think and behave as they do, and it is very doubtful that the complexity of this issue can be accounted for by a single theory (Dorneyi and Ushioda, 2011).

1.3.1 Behavioural theories.

The field of motivation has witnessed the appearance of different theories and approaches especially from the beginning of the 20th century onwards. The behavioural approach has been dominant in the United States along the first half of the century. It focuses on the external factors that affect the human behaviour. "Behaviour theories view motivation as a change in the rate, frequency of occurrence, or form of behaviour (response) as a function of environmental events and stimuli" (Schunk, Pintrich & Meece, 2014, p. 21).

They also state that the response to the stimulus is more likely to occur in the future as a function of how it has been paired with the stimulus or what has happened following it. Behaviourists deem that people have basic psychological needs like hunger, thirst or shelter that trigger their motivation. Accordingly, they are motivated to behave to gain reinforcers. This perspective was influenced by three main standpoints, namely, Thorndike's (1898) connectionism, Pavlov's (1897) classical conditioning, and Skinner's (1938) operant conditioning of behaviour. That is, the behaviour is a mechanical reaction to a stimulus (external factors or environmental events). For the behaviourists, motivation is observable phenomena (behavioural) as opposite to thoughts or desires. Williams and Burden (1997) elucidate that:

A behaviourist would tend to consider motivation largely in terms of external forces, i.e. what specific conditions give rise to what kind of behaviour and how

the consequences of that behaviour affect whether it is more or less likely to happen again. (p.112)

According to the behaviourist approach, motivation is tightly linked to the observable behaviour. Pintrich and Schunk (1996, p. 32) refer to Thorndike's (1898) view of learning and behaviour which indicates that learning involves "the formation of associations (connections) between sensory experiences (perceptions of stimuli or events) and neural impulses that manifest themselves behaviourally". Motivation affects the form and the frequency of the behaviour as a response to external stimuli. In other words, the behaviour being the response to the stimulus is more or less likely to reoccur depending on the action following it.

Motivation from a behaviouristic perspective should only be explained in relation to external factors such as educational requirements, family, or teachers but not to the internal factors such as feelings, desires or drives. In relation to foreign language learning, the behaviourist theory believes that language is learned from other human role models through a process involving imitation, rewards, and practice. Human role models in an infant's environment provide the stimuli and rewards (Reutzel & Cooter, 2004). People usually act with reference to their previous experiences for which they have gained incentives and their need to get reinforcement and new encouraging rewards. Therefore, this theory is based on the fact that a stimulus can produce a response which provokes a consequence. Whenever the action is followed by a desired outcome, this action is more likely to happen.

However, this standpoint neglects the role of cognition in doing actions and in taking decisions. Behaviourists focus on the behaviour and neglect the internal mental processes that lead the learner to perform that behaviour. They also ignore the person's free will and his/her internal influences such as moods, thoughts, and feelings (Moore, 2013). Moreover, behaviourists do not account for the different types of learning that occur without the use of reinforcement and punishment because the person can adjust his/her behaviour when new information or situation is introduced even if that behaviour was established through reinforcement.

1.3.2 Cognitive theories.

Around the middle of the twentieth century, cognitive theories developed as psychological views of behaviour. According to the Social Cognitive Theory people do not merely respond to environmental influences, but rather they actively seek and interpret information (Nevid, 2009). In contrast to the behaviourist approach which considers motivation in terms of external factors, cognitive theory focuses on the internal factors that lead individuals to act in certain ways. Woolfolk (1987, p.315) argues that "the cognitive view emphasises intrinsic (internal) sources of motivation, such as curiosity, interest in the task for its own sake, the satisfaction of learning, and a sense of accomplishment".

From a cognitive point of view, however, it is people who "function as contributors to their own motivation, behaviour, and development within a network of reciprocally interacting influences" (Bandura, 1999, p. 169). That is, external factors are not the only contributor of motivation. Dörnyei (2001b) claims that this perspective focuses on how individual's conscious attitudes, thoughts, beliefs, and interpretation of events influence his/her behaviour, i.e., how mental processes are transformed into action. In other words, cognitive theories emphasise the role of mental processes as internal factors of the behaviour. The cognitive approach considers motivation as an internal force behind the observable behaviour. It "centres around individuals making decisions about their own actions as opposed to being at the mercy of external forces over which they have no control" (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 119). Cognitive theories share many aspects but they have various differences concerning the importance of particular processes.

They accentuate the significance of processes such as attribution, perceptions of competence, values, affects, goals, and social comparisons. Pintrich & Schunk (1996, p.63) affirm that these cognitive theories examine "the underlying mental processes involved in motivation and how these are affected by personal and environmental factors".

1.3.2.1 Attribution theory.

Attribution theory is a cognitive theory "concerning how we explain behaviour and outcomes, especially successes and failures" (Woolfolk, 1987, p. 316). Traditionally, it was developed by Heider (1958) as an area of social psychology. It is concerned with how people interpret behaviours and events and in what way these events are linked to their thinking and behaviour. It clarifies how different causes are attributed to events and behaviours and explains how this cognitive perception impacts motivation. In other words,

attribution refers to the inference made about the causes of particular behaviours or events. Weiner and his colleagues (Jones et al., 1972; Weiner, 1974, 1986) developed the theory of attribution trying to determine why people do what they do (or why they are motivated to do what they do), in attempt to attribute causes to behaviour. It is important to mention that behaviour can be attributed different causes..

Attribution endeavors to provide justifications for behaviours and events as part of the motivation theory which seeks to answer what makes people act or why people do (Alderman, 2004). This theory uses the same process in examining motivation for foreign language learning as a behaviour to which many causes may attributed. It is, generally, is a three stage process: (1) the behaviour is observed, (2) the behaviour is determined to be intentional and deliberate, and (3) the behaviour is attributed to internal or external causes. In this regards, McDonough (1986) explains the attribution theory and the causes individuals use to attribute success and failure "[attribution theory] attempts to describe motivated behaviour in terms of the cause to which the individuals attribute, or ascribe, their own and other people's performance: their own ability, effort, intention, or others' ability, effort, or intention, luck and so on" (p. 153). That is, people usually relate their success and failure to self or to factors or attributions like "ability, task difficulty, effort and luck." (Skehan, 1989, p. 51) as summarised in the table below:

Table 1.1

An Attributional Analysis of Causes (Weiner, 1980)

		Locus of Control	
		Internal	External
Stability Dimensions	Stable	Ability	Task difficulty
	Unstable	Effort	Luck

That is, when performing a task, individuals tend to attribute their success to factors such as ability and effort (internal causes) besides their control over these factors. However, they are more likely to attribute their failure to external factors such as task difficulty and luck; factors that are uncontrolled (Weiner, 1986). Learners will be motivated and persistent in their tasks when their success is attributed to internal, unstable controllable factors such as effort or internal, stable factors over which they have little control like ability and if their failure is attributed to internal, unstable controllable factors (as effort) because, in this case, they may overcome their failure by expending their efforts and working harder in the future to succeed.

Attribution theory is usually used to explain the difference in motivation between high and low achievers. According to attribution theory, because they believe that success is due to high ability and effort (things they are confident of), high achievers will approach tasks related to their success rather than avoiding them. In the contrary, failure is often related to factors such as bad luck, difficult exam but not to themselves. That is, they keep their high self-esteem and success increase their pride and confidence. On the other hand, low achievers believe that success is related to factors beyond their control such as luck. They tend to avoid success-related tasks because they doubt their ability to do it. Success does not increase their esteem, pride or confidence because they do not feel responsible of that accomplishment. However, attribution theory has been criticised because it focuses more on effecting motivation than on what causes it in addition to being mechanistic and reductionist for assuming that people are rational, logical, and systematic thinkers whereas many of the people's expected bahaviours may not become a reality. Also, attributions may be inaccurate inferences which can lead to erroneous assessments/decisions because many causes might be ignored.

1.3.2.2 Expectancy theory.

Expectancy theory claims motivation to be governed by the expectancy of success and the value of that success. It was first proposed by Vroom (1964) assuming that behaviours result from conscious choices among various alternatives. According to this theory, individuals have various goals and different expectations. They can be motivated to achieve these goals if they believe that 1) there is a positive correlation between efforts and performance; 2) preferred performance will result in a desired reward; 3) the reward will respond to a required need; 4) the desire to satisfy the required need is strong enough to make a valuable effort. Expectancy theory is based mainly on three concepts:

- ✓ Valence: means all possible affective orientations toward outcomes. It refers to the emotional orientations people have for particular outcomes. Valence can be interpreted as the importance, attractiveness, desirability, or anticipated satisfaction with outcomes/ rewards (Vroom, 1964).
- ✓ Instrumentality: is defined as an outcome-outcome association. In other words, to what extent the first level outcome leads to obtaining the second level outcome.

✓ Expectancy: individuals have different expectations and different beliefs about their abilities to perform a task. It refers to the possibility that a given behaviour will lead to the desired outcome. It is different from instrumentality in the sense that it links effort to the outcome whereas instrumentality relates first level outcome to second level outcome. Thus, expectancy is the probability that a particular action will lead to a particular first-level outcome.

Expectancy components are essential part of the motivation construct (Pintrich, 2003). These constituents according to Pintrich (2003, p. 8) are "beliefs about one's ability to control, perform, or accomplish a task". The task can of different nature, as in our case it is foreign language learning. According to this theory, everyone has a need for achievement, but the amount of need is different among individuals. Not all individuals are going to invest the same effort for performing a task (e.g. learning a foreign language). They will not also perceive the value of reward in the same way. In other words, this theory tries to answer what learners believe to be able to do or achieve; to what extent they (believe) are able to control their performance; and how well they believe to achieve. These main elements help in motivating learners to launch, control and maintain their active foreign language learning.

Expectancy theory describes internal processes of choice among different behaviours. People's choices are very important in this theory because they are made on the basis of preferences for outcomes of actions. If learners prefer to learn a particular language that choice will affect their performance in that language because individuals generally tend to achieve better when they could select what activity/task to do. In addition to that, if they hold strong beliefs about their abilities, control, engagement and determination, individuals are more likely to be motivated to engage and succeed in that activity (Pintrich, 2003).

Learners are motivated to select a particular activity due to what they expect the result will be. Therefore, the extent to which learners will make efforts on activities is a matter of (a) the expectation that they will be able to perform the task successfully and accordingly get the rewards associated with successful completion of that task and (b) the value they set on the rewards associated with successful completion of the task (Feather, 1969). That is, learners' expectations of success and the value of reward govern their motivation and the amount of effort exerted. In other words, if the expected rewards are not highly valuable by the learner, s/he will not devote expended effort on the completion of the task. Also, a task with highly valued rewards is less likely to be completed by the

learners who do not expect to succeed in doing it as long as they believe it is going to be beyond their abilities.

Although, the expectancy theory of motivation is commonly accepted theory for explaining an individual's decision-making process, it was a subject to a number of criticisms. The expectancy theory in fact does not take the emotional state of the individual into consideration. Also, many factors such as individual's personality, abilities, skills, knowledge, as well as past experiences may affect the outcome of the model but have been actually neglected. Individuals' motivation is related to the value of the reward and according to this value, they will select to perform an activity. Indeed, this is not enough to explain individuals' behaviour. Individuals' motivation may be generated by many factors other than the task value.

1.3.2.3 Goal theory.

This theory is mainly based on the idea that setting goals especially difficult goals and working hard to attain them may result in high performance. It is, in other words, the effect of setting goals on performance. In this respect, Locke and Latham (2002) assume that goals have a pervasive influence on performance ad behaviour. Brophy (2004, p.7) describes goals as "objectives or intended outcomes of planned sequences of behaviour". In an attempt to explain goal setting theory, Lunenburg (2011a) writes:

> For Locke and Latham, goals, therefore, direct attention and action. Furthermore, challenging goals mobilize energy, lead to higher effort, and increase persistent effort. Goals motivate people to develop strategies that will enable them to perform at the required goal levels. Finally, accomplishing the goal can lead to satisfaction and further motivation, or frustration and lower motivation if the goal is not accomplished. (p.2)

It is believed that people who are provided with specific, difficult but attainable goals perform better than those given easy, nonspecific, or no goals at all. Meanwhile, the individuals must have sufficient ability, accept the goals, and receive feedback related to performance (Latham, 2003). When learners advance towards their goals and believe they would satisfactorily fulfil these goals, they "will feel efficacious about continuing to

improve and motivated to complete the task" (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003, p.68). The same can hold true for foreign language learners. When those learners set goals for learning and believe they can achieve them, they will be more motivated about learning than without setting the goals.

According to goal setting theory, there are two types of goals: learning goals and performance goals. Learning goals are also labelled mastery goals or task-involvement goals means the goals set by the learners when they focus on what they are learning in a form of tasks for the sake of having mastery over their abilities and improving achievement (Alderman, 2004). Performance goals, however, are those goals set by the learners to maintain a positive self-image besides showing an image of capability to others (Brophy, 2004). These goals answer why individuals perform a given task (Pintrich, 2003). Furthermore, they generally link to learners' self-image and perception by accentuating ability rather than effort. They also relate to how learners compare their performance to others (Alderman, 2004).

There is a strong relationship between goal setting theory and motivation. Motivation is influenced by goal theory as this latter provides individuals with purpose and evaluation of performance. According to goal setting theory, learners will have an opportunity to set their learning goals and involve in fulfilling them which will in return influence their performance (Locke and Latham, 1994). However, the achievement of a goal cannot be the only reason (motivation) why a learner would want to a do a task. Also, this may not work for complex situations, where goals may not be clearly definable. In addition to that, sometimes learners' view about their ability to achieve a goal is erroneous, so an accurate assessment is needed to check this because even if the learner claims to be able to accomplish a task, the self-assessment may not be realistic.

1.3.2.4 Self-efficacy theory.

Self-efficacy is one of social cognitive theory's primary concerns. It is the beliefs regarding one's capabilities of successfully completing tasks or goals (Locke and Latham, 2002). Self-efficacy has been developed by Albert Bandura (1986) as part of the social learning theory which has evolved into social cognitive theory (Levin, Culkin, & Perrotto, 2001). It is defined by Bandura (1995, p. 2) as "the belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations".

In addition to being influenced by their goals, interests, and attributions, students' motives are impacted by particular beliefs about their own personal capacities. Self-efficacy is the individual's own beliefs about his/her ability to succeed. Ability to initiate actions for achieving a particular goal is the major characteristic of intentional behaviour (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy is different from self-concept in the sense that it relates to one's abilities to accomplish a specific task as s/he perceives them whereas self-concept is an intricate look at oneself as a result of one's past experience and evaluation of others in their social environment (Bandura, 1997; Zimmerman, 2000).

In this theory, the belief is regarded as a primary explicit explanation for motivation (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997). These beliefs are essential aspects of motivation because it has a salient effect on the performance (Bandura, 1997; Dörnyei, 2001b). Self-efficacy is the belief that the individual is capable of carrying out a specific task or of attaining a specific goal. In this respect, Bandura (1997) defines self-efficacy as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organise and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (p. 3). It is clearly noticed that self-efficacy is closely linked to people's perceptions of their own abilities and thus it has a great impact on their accomplishment (Alderman, 2004).

Self-efficacy is what people believe they can accomplish using their skills under certain circumstances (Snyder & Lopez, 2007). These beliefs are thought to develop people's characteristics such as self-esteem. In this respect, self-efficacy has been thought to be a task-specific version of self-esteem (Lunenburg, 2011b). The views individuals hold about their personal efficacy influence their choices, decision-making, effort, determination, flexibility, thinking and feelings.

People tend to engage in activities for which they have high self-efficacy. This latter has a great impact over individuals' ability to learn, their motivation and their performance since they will often aim to learn and perform only the tasks in which they believe to succeed in (Lunenburg, 2011b). Bandura (1997) assumes that learners who feel self-efficacious are high achievers. They exhibit responsibility in managing and organising their learning process. Moreover, succeeding in a task based on personal abilities and effort will influence learners' self-efficacy in return. Accordingly, Schunk and Zimmerman (2003, p.73) highlight "succeeding on one's own leads to attributions of success to ability and effort and strengthens self-efficacy". One might say that there is a reciprocal relationship between self-efficacy, ability and effort in the sense that learners' ability to do

well in a task and the effort invested in completing this task are deeply impacted by learners' beliefs about their self-efficacy.

On the other hand, their self-efficacy is influenced by both their beliefs about their abilities (to succeed) and the amount of effort to be exerted to avoid failure (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003). This can be applied in foreign language learning where EFL learners would exert effort on the task of learning a foreign language because they believe to do well (abilities) in learning and succeeding in learning will affect learners' self-efficacy positively, thus they will be more motivated to learn.

However, high self-efficacy beliefs do not always guarantee positive outcome expectations. People with high self-efficacy and high skills may lack the resources and equipment that make them perform well. According to Bandura (1986, p. 396),"when performances are impeded by disincentives, inadequate resources, or external constraints, self-judged efficacy will exceed the actual performance". Basing one's self-efficacy for a new task on results of previous tasks may be misleading (Bandura, 1986). Expectations about one's success or failure on the basis of their previous task cannot always be true. High self-efficacy is not always guaranteed, learners might have low self-efficacy following failure or setbacks that causes them to lose faith in their capabilities and to develop increased stress and depression (Bandura, 1984).

1.3.2.5 Achievement theory.

The achievement motivation theory was mainly influenced by McClelland (1953) and Atkinson (1964). The core of this theory was represented in the concept of individual's need to achieve or to be successful. McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell (1953) used the concept of need for achievement (N-Ach) to refer to individuals' desire to achieve (Child, 1977). In other words, need for achievement can simply refers to one's needs and one's need to satisfy their needs. Achievement motivation is established on conflicting approach and avoidance tendencies. The positive influences represent the expectancy of success, the incentive value of successful task fulfillment and need for achievement. The negative influences, on the other hand, involve fear of failure, the incentive to avoid failure and the probability of failure.

The differences between learners' needs to achieve had significant inference for their learning experiences (Williams & Burden, 1997). Two major factors controlling achievement motivation have been distinguished. For Atkinson (1957), the need for

achievement has two aspects, "motivation toward success and motivation toward avoidance of failure" (McDonough, 1986, p. 152). Need for achievement is the desire or the drive that thrust learners to succeed whereas fear of failure is the desire to avoid approaching a task fearing to fail. Foreign language learners' need to achieve highly in their language learning plays a major role and making them motivated to carry on this task. However, the same learners' fear of failure motivates them to avoid doing the task in order not to fail. Therefore, individuals may behave differently, even if they have the same need for achievement depending on the different needs they would combine to achieve success or to keep away from failure (McDonough, 1986).

Individuals are motivated to achieve a need because they are affected by their past learning experiences (McClelland et al., 1953). High achievers consider new learning settings and difficulties beyond their present ability. However, they regard them as achievable when providing the necessary effort. They usually undertake tasks with acceptable challenge. In the contrary, low achievers have unsupportive experiences because they were unsuccessful. They usually take very easy tasks because they are unlikely to fail or highly challenging ones because failure might be acceptable in such cases (Skehan, 1989, pp. 50-51). Nevertheless, this cannot be always true as learners might be driven to do a task such as language learning aside from their previous achievement but motivated by other factor such as attitudes towards the language being learned, desire, free-will. Moreover, learners' high achievement in previous tasks is not always the motive behind their engagement new tasks. Sometime learners may have had a negative experience with a task but they persist to do another to prove to themselves and to the others that they can.

1.3.2.6 Self-determination theory.

Self-determination theory (hereafter SDT) is one of the major theories of motivation that is concerned with emphasising the role of individual's natural and intrinsic tendency in initiating the behaviour. It is credited to Deci and Ryan (1985) who have developed the theory in attempt to explain the motivation behind people's choices of behaviour with no regard to external factors. In other words, it shows to what extent an individual's behaviour is self-motivated and primarily self-determined. In Self-Determination, "the most basic distinction is between intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, and extrinsic motivation,

which refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome" (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 55).

Deci and Ryan (1991, 1995) devote great amount of research to clarify the difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and their relation to SDT. They define intrinsic motivation as "the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence" (Ryan and Deci, 2000a, p. 56). Intrinsic motivation focuses on behaviour that is performed for its own sake. The activity is usually done in order to experience pleasure and satisfaction of doing it. Simply put, an individual is intrinsically motivated to act when s/he likes what s/he is doing. That is, s/he performs an activity for the sake of the activity itself, for its fun, enjoyment, and its positive experience regardless to any potential external prods, rewards, or secondary gains. In contrast, extrinsic motivation is assumed to be "a construct that pertains whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome" (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 60). Extrinsic motivation involves performing behaviour to receive some extrinsic reward or to avoid punishment. According to this definition, while intrinsic motivation is one's involvement in an activity for its own sake, extrinsic motivation explains individual's engagement in a task for its instrumental value or seeking different and separate result. Human motives, therefore, can be placed on a continuum between self-determined (intrinsic) and controlled (extrinsic) forms of motivation.

Salkind (2008) regards self-determination theory is "the experience of choice and endorsement of the actions in which one is engaged" (p. 889). Deci and Ryan (2000) have asserted that self-determination is founded on three major needs. These three psychological needs are believed to motivate the individual to behave. They are "innate psychological needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness" (p. 227). They are universal, innate and psychological. The need for competence means the need to be effective individual who manage the outcome and attain goals and mastery. It indicates one's belief for how well s/he can perform a task. The need for autonomy presents individual's ability to control one's own life, behaviours and actions, yet this does not necessarily means to be independent of other people. It refers to the compatibility that exists between one's deeds, emotions, willingness and volition. It is also the degree of freedom by which individuals decide to perform a particular task. The need for relatedness is one's desire to be connected to, to interact with, to belong to and to uphold strong relationships within a particular group. In a foreign language context, self-determined learning requires classrooms which allow "satisfaction of these three basic human needs—that is that support the innate needs

to feel connected, effective, and agentic as one is exposed to new ideas and exercises new skills" (Ryan & Deci, 2000b, p. 65).

Competence, autonomy and relatedness are indeed positive features for understanding and influencing students' classroom motivation; however, many questions have been raised about the limitations of self-determination theory. For example, supporting autonomy is to give students *choices* wherever possible (Ryan & Lynch, 2003). These choices encourage the greatest feelings of self-control of their learning. Nevertheless, we are not sure whether providing choices actually improves students' learning and leads to positive achievement or simply improves their *satisfaction* with learning. It should be noted that, too many choices can actually make the person (not just the learner) frustrated and dissatisfied with a choice the person actually *does* make (Schwartz, 2004). Furthermore, differentiating activities to learners' competence levels may be impractical if they are functioning at extremely diverse levels within a single class, as sometimes happens. Differentiating may be inappropriate, too, if it holds a teacher back from covering key curriculum objectives. These are serious concerns, though *not* serious enough to give up offering choices to students or to stop differentiating instruction as long as the curriculum objectives are respected.

1.3.3 Humanistic approach.

The Humanistic Theory of Motivation is a significant approach of motivation. It considers motivation as a driving force that lead the individual to behave in order to satisfy certain needs. Dörnyei (2001b) asserts that the humanistic view developed as a counter-reaction to the mechanistic views of behaviorism. Humanistic psychologists like Rogers and Maslow (1987) in an attempt to explain motivation propose that the central motivation force in people's lives is the "self-actualizing tendency" that can be explained as the desire to achieve personal growth and to develop the capacities and talents that have been inherited. The humanistic theory seeks to explain how people are motivated or simply what motivate people. This theory is actually based on the notion of "need gratification" as a primary aspect in human motivation (Maslow, 1943).

Maslow's (1934) theory depicts that motivation comes from the inside of human, and that cognitive, affective and physical needs are all interrelated (Cohen, Manion & Marrison, 2004). According to Maslow (1943), when a single need is fulfilled humans seek to satisfy the next. He developed a visual representation of human needs in a form of a pyramid that encompasses five levels of needs. At the bottom, there are lower-level needs

for survival and safety which are the most essential. They consist of basic and instinctive needs such as hunger, thirst and sleep. These needs determine one's behaviour until they are met. The second level displays safety needs which concerns aspects like freedom danger, need for security and general protection from different types of threats such as mental, physical and even financial threats. The upper layer is for love and belonging needs which refer to the supply of love and belonging to a group with whom an individual may have interpersonal relationships. The next layer shows esteem needs which are related to need for recognition, status and confidence in one's capacities. At the fifth layer in Maslow' pyramid is self-actualisation needs which refer to one's desire to express him/ herself creatively and to develop one's potential fully (Brophy, 2004, p. 6).

Figure 1.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Maslow, 1943)

The completion of each level in the pyramid leads to the next. According to Maslow (1962), this hierarchy of needs must be fulfilled in an ascending order. For example, the first need that people are motivated to achieve is physical survival. Once this need is satisfied, the next level is appealing and people are motivated to get it. "[u]nless lower needs are satisfied, higher needs may not even be recognised, let alone motivate behaviour" (Brophy, 2004, p. 6).

However, Maslow's hierarchy was criticised because lacking the basic needs hinders people from going further and no other activities would be possible. "Maslow himself recognised that some high achievers would go without these basic needs for long periods of time in order to devote themselves to their work" (Gorman, 2003, p. 61).

Speaking about learning in general and foreign language in particular, Maslow's (1962) hierarchy of needs theory has made a major contribution to teaching and classroom management in schools. Rather than reducing behaviour to a response in the environment, Maslow (1970) adopts a holistic approach to education and learning where the individual's physical, emotional, social, and intellectual qualities and how they impact learning are all considered. In the classroom setting, the teacher needs to ensure that the learners' basic physical needs are fulfilled before the cognitive needs are met because a hungry or tired learner would find it difficult to focus on learning. Moreover, learners need to feel emotionally and physically safe and accepted within the classroom to progress and reach their full potential. Maslow (1970) suggests that learners must be shown that they are valued and respected in the classroom, and the teacher should create a supportive environment. Learners with a low self-esteem will not progress academically at an optimum rate until their self-esteem is strengthened. A humanistic educational approach would develop people who are:

> Stronger, healthier, and would take their own lives into their hands to a greater
>
> extent. With increased personal responsibility for one's personal life, and with
>
> a rational set of values to guide one's choosing, people would begin to actively
>
> change the society in which they lived. (Maslow, 1971, p. 195)

However, this theory is criticised for the fact that it cannot be verified empirically because there is no proper method to measure accurately how satisfied one level of need must be before the next higher need becomes operative. Moreover, the theory assumes that all people have the same needs and neglects the individual differences as well cultural differences and intrinsic drives by which individuals are driven.

1.4   Intrinsic Motivation

Ryan and Deci (2000a, p. 55) suggest two types of motivation under self-determination theory. As mentioned earlier, motivation may be divided into "intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable and extrinsic motivation, which refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome".

According to Pintrich and Schunk (2002), "intrinsic motivation refers to motivation to engage in an activity for its own sake" (p. 245). That is, to perform an activity regardless to any associated reward. Deci and Ryan (1985, p. 11) provide a quite explicit definition of intrinsic motivation "[it] is the energy source that is central to the active nature of the organism." That is, intrinsic motivation represents a source of energy derived from the organism which is active in nature and ready to engage in activities. Vallerand, et al., (1993) assume that intrinsic motivation signifies doing an activity for its pleasure and satisfaction. When an individual does an activity voluntarily for the sake of this activity alone, it is said that this person is intrinsically motivated.

According to Vallerand, Blais, Briére, and Pelletier (1989, pp. 324-325) intrinsic motivation concerns three key domains. The first is the intrinsic motivation for acquiring knowledge which can be defined as the feeling of satisfaction and enjoyment individuals get when they undertake an activity in order to acquire or explore new perspectives. The second domain, on the other hand, is intrinsic motivation is for achievement. It means that individuals undertake activities for the sake of the pleasure provided by its achievement to face new challenges. Moreover, intrinsic motivation concerns emotions as people engage in activities to obtain feelings of pleasure, excitement and entertainment.

Crookes and Schmidt (1991, p. 480) speculate that "it is probably fair to say that teachers world describe a student as motivated if s/he becomes productively engaged in learning tasks, and sustains that engagement, without the need for continual encouragement or direction". The importance of having an individual performing activities for their own sake is due to the fact that "it is through acting on one's inherent interests that one grows in knowledge and skills" (Ryan and Deci, 2000a, p. 56).

1.5   Extrinsic Motivation

The other type of motivation is extrinsic motivation. It is defined as "a construct that pertains whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome" Ryan and Deci (2000a, p. 60). Extrinsic motivation can be then explained in the sense that individuals tend to perform activities not for the sake of the activities themselves but to attain different external rewards or outcomes (Vallerand et al., 1989; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Deci & Ryan, 2008). The activities "are performed not out of interest but because they are believed to be instrumental to some separable consequence" (Deci, et al., 1991, p. 328). Doing the activity when extrinsically motivated entails engaging in tasks not out of interest

in the activity but for to get separable outcomes "such as receiving a reward, avoiding guilt, or gaining approval" (Deci, Ryan & Williams, 1996, p.167).

The SDT suggests that extrinsic motivation shows various degrees of autonomy and it opposes the view that extrinsically motivated behaviours are non-autonomous. They further explain that an individual who does an activity fearing punishment is extrinsically motivated because s/he is doing the task for a separable outcome which is avoiding sanctions. Similarly, an individual who does the activity, believing it to be valuable in his/her career, is also extrinsically motivated; yet in this case there is personal endorsement and feeling of choice. Both cases involve instrumentalities but they vary in their relative autonomy (Deci, Ryan & Williams, 1996).

Internalisation and integration are two key concepts in extrinsic motivation. Internalisation can be defined as "the process of taking in a value or regulation [that] describes how one's motivation for behaviour can range from amotivation or unwillingness, to passive compliance, to active personal commitment" (Deci, Ryan & Williams, 1996, p.167). It refers to accepting an external factor as being significant to oneself. Integration, on the other hand, has been defined as "the process by which individuals more fully transform the regulation into their own so that it will emanate from their sense of self" (Deci, Ryan & Williams, 1996, p.167). That is, transforming that same external factor into an internal –personal- one. "[T]he more fully a regulation has been internalized, the more it represents integration and thus provides the basis for volitional behaving" (Deci et al., 1996, p. 168).

1.6   Motivation and Foreign Language Learning

Motivation is one of the main factors that influence FL learning. Speaking about language learning, motivation can be described as the driving forces that impact the language learner. Gardner (1985, p. 10) regards motivation as "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes toward learning the language."

Motivation to learn a FL is always related to learners' attitudes towards the target language, their needs and desires. It is believed that when learners hold positive attitudes towards the target language, their learning will be more successful. Dorneyi (1996, p.71) argues that "the explicit goal of recent research has been to broaden the scope of language learning motivation and to increase the educational potential of the theory by focusing

more on motivation reflected in students' classrooms learning behaviours". Teachers' main task has always been to try ways to increase their learners' motivation. As noted by Dorneyi (2001c, p. 52), "from a practicing point of view , the most pressing question related to motivation is not what motivation is but rather how it ca be increased".

For Ellis (1994, p.715), motivation is "the effort that learners put into their learning an L2 as a result of their need or desire to learn it". Making learners motivated to learn a language is one of the most complex tasks teachers might face due to the diverse nature of learners and their various motives behind learning it. Many researchers have investigated teachers' impact on students' motivation.

> Motivation occupies a central place in the teaching-learning process. It is in fact, indispensable to learning. Every teacher, at one time or another is faced with the problem of motivating his students to learn. Therefore, it is essential to think of the ways and means for achieving motivation in the classroom situation. (Singh & Nath, 2005, p. 97)

Thinking about different ways to make students motivated in language classrooms and have them maintain motivation is indeed a complex issue in education and psychology Gardner (2001, p. 2) claims that "motivation is a central element along with language aptitude in determining success in learning another language in the classroom setting". Recent research in the field focus on the role teachers play in enhancing learners' motivation to learn. They try to find ways that foster their learning and facilitate their success and achievements. Though it is believed that motivated students do not really need teachers' interference to promote their engagement in class activities, findings show that teachers' participation in making the classroom a positive atmosphere helps to a considerable extent in creating a successful learning.

> Motivated people do get better implementation, but interestingly the reverse can be more powerful. Helping people accomplish something that they have never accomplished before causes motivation to increase deeply. Such newly found motivation is tantamount to passionate commitment that is further contagious to others. (Fullen, 2011, p. 52)

Research on language learning motivation has developed throughout different phases of time. One of the pioneering works was Gardner's (1985) socioeducational model which classified motivation into integrative and instrumental orientations. Based on this model, motivation is regarded as a central idea to prompt an individual to learn a language. It is mainly related to attitudes one holds toward the learning situation and integrativeness.

Motivation is, according to Gardner (1985), "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes towards learning the language" (p. 10). It is also the most used concept for explaining the failure or success of a language learner (Hojat, MahdaVi & Danaye, 2013). That is, individual's motivation to learn a target language (hereafter TL) has a direct effect on achievement and is itself (motivation) influenced by a number of other social psychological variables.

The socioeducational model was proposed by Gardner and Smythe (1975) and has undergone a number of changes since then (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Gardner, 2000; Gardner, 2005). These changes were mainly because scholars were confused about the integrative dimension and found that they may be used interchangeably (integrativeness, integrative motivation, integrative motive and integrative orientation) (Dörnyei , 1994). Moreover, Gardner's definition of integrativeness has changed slightly through time. For instance, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) define it as "an individual's willingness and interest in social interaction with members of other groups" (p. 159) whereas in another article, integrativeness refers to "a genuine interest in learning the second language in order to come closer to the other language community" (Gardner, 2001, p.5).

In fact, the confusion was not only on the level of definition but also meaning. Gardner (2001) explains that integrativeness involves two levels. At the first level, it refers to openness towards other cultural groups. At the second level, it involves "complete identification with the community (and possibly even withdrawal from one's original group). Indeed Gardner (2001) himself points out that the term has "slightly different meanings to many different individuals" (p.1). In 2005, in attempt to avoid the ambiguity associated with model, Gardner (2005) has clarified the confusion and presented an amended version of the socio-educational model (figure 1.2).
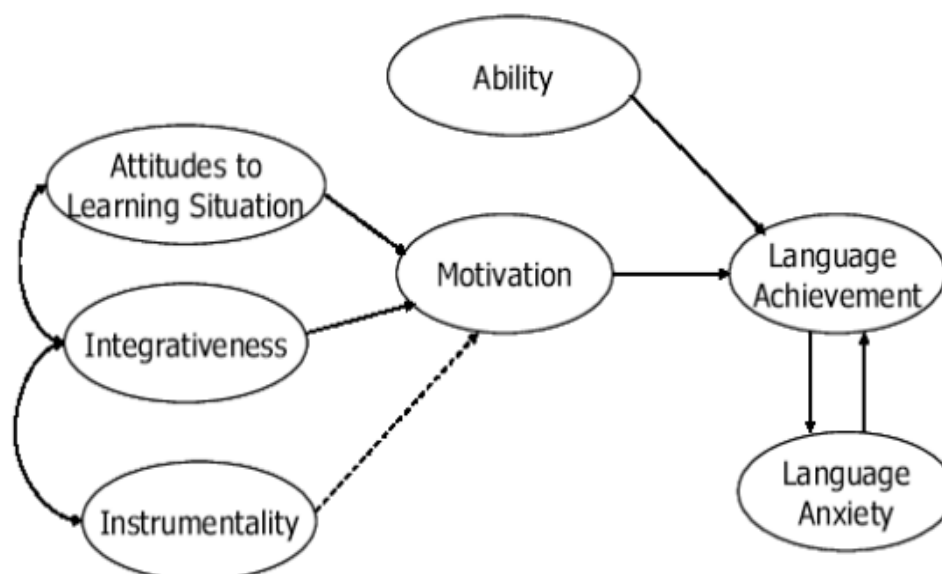
Figure 1.2 Gardner's Socioeducational Model (Gardner, 2005, p. 6)

Gardner's (2005) model proposes two variables, namely, motivation and ability (including intelligence and language aptitude) to be strongly linked to an individual's achievement in the language learning context. The individual's motivation to learn a TL is related to two other variables: integrativeness and attitudes to Learning Situation. Attitudes to learning situation consist of elements, such as teachers, instructions, curriculum, lesson plans, and evaluation processes. The variable integrativeness being an important element in influencing motivation, that was before a source of confusion is clearly defined in this model "as an individual's openness to taking on characteristics of another cultural/linguistic group" (Gardner, 2005, p. 7). He also argues that "we never meant integrativeness (or integrative orientation, or integrative motive) to mean one wanted to become a member of the other cultural community" (Gardner, 2005, p. 7).

Gardner (2005) proposes instrumentality as another variable that influences language achievement. Instrumentality mainly refers to learning a language for practical reasons. Instrumentality and integrativeness are both mediated by motivation. Gardner (2005) claims that the three constructs (Attitudes to Learning Situation, Integrativeness and Instrumentality) are positively correlated with one another. Put differently, learners with high integrativeness view the language learning situation positively and have high levels of instrumentality.

Though Gardner's socio-educational model has been a pioneering and influential model, it has been criticised by some scholars for the notion of "integrativeness" (McClelland, 2000; Norton, 2000; Lamb, 2004; Yashima, 2000, 2009; Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2006; Dörnyei, 2005, 2009; Dörnyei, Csizér, & Németh, 2006; Kachru & Nelson, 2006; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). The concept of integrativeness which underlies learning a language in order to get closer to another language community has been questioned especially that English is now enjoying an international status in the world. If integrativness is not re-examined, it means that all EFL learners in the world are learning English to get closer to the English speaking communities, something which is not true in fact in such EFL contexts as there is no specific target L2 community which undermines Gardner's idea of integrativeness. In Algeria, for example, English is taught and learnt as a foreign language. Most Algerian learners have little or no contact with the native speakers of English; however, studying English seems to have become a prerequisite among school pupils and university students. In recent years, a considerable amount of research on L2 motivation has been conducted in English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts, where learners study a language not typically spoken where they live (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) and realized the limitations of integrativeness.

1.7   Integrative and Instrumental Orientations to Motivation

Integrative and instrumental motivation represent two key concepts in language learning. They were first introduced in the field by Gardner and Lambert (1972). The term orientation has been used to cover a collection or group of reasons that a person has for studying a language (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994).

Integrative orientation refers to learning a language not out of necessity but for the sake of being part of its people, to integrate with its culture, and to get involved in social exchange with the target group. It also signifies one's desire to be integrated because s/he holds positive attitudes towards the target language culture, country, people, etc. Instrumental motivation, on the other hand, indicates learning a language as an instrument for attaining some goals such as obtaining a job, passing examination and so forth. It refers to learning a language out of necessity and considers it as a means to an end. A student who is not motivated either integratively or instrumentally is more likely to face difficulties in the process of language learning (Cook, 2000).

Though both instrumental and integrative motivations are important factors in determining the success and failure of language learning (Lightbown & Spada, 2001), it is essential to say that instrumental motivation is more efficient in EFL learning process as it influences language learning to different degrees. Aside from the desire of being part of the target language society or culture, students are generally more instrumentally motivated to learn a language to obtain given objectives which in return may increase their positive attitudes to exert more efforts. Gardner's (1985) model was a remarkable contribution that has paved the way for other research in the area of language learning that has started with L2 and moved to encompass FL. In this regard, Dorneyi (1994a) believes that "By combining motivation theory with social psychological theory, the model of motivation that Gardner and Lambert developed was much more elaborate and advanced than many contemporary mainstream psychological models of motivation, in that it was empirically testable and did indeed explain a considerable amount of variance in student motivation and achievement (p. 273).

Gardner's (1985) theory created significant impact on the development of motivation theories in the following decades. Gonzales (2010) "although Gardner and Lambert studies have been used as the anchor for other studies on motivation in FL and L2 learning and acquisition, the search to further define, redefine, and conceptualize motivation in FL and L2 continued up to the present and even revisited by many researchers" (p. 4). By the 1990's, different works have examined various issues in motivation but from a practical side. They sought to investigate the applicability of motivation theories in real classrooms. Despite the breakthrough that the model created in motivation research, many researchers criticised the current theory of TL motivation for not covering all the possible reasons for learning a language, and called for putting emphasis on more pragmatic approach to motivation research that would give room to practicing its results in classrooms (Dorneyi, 1990, 1994a, 1994b; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991, Oxford and Shearin, 1994, 1996; Oxford, 1996; Ushioda, 1994, 1996a, 1996b).

A substantial amount of criticism also was in regard to integrative motivation which according to Dorneyi (2003) has no parallel in motivational psychology. The term integrative motivation was ambiguous and sometimes understood in different ways by different researchers. This ambiguity may be seen in the way some reasons for language learning which are considered as instrumental have been classified as integrative and vice versa.

According to Clement and Kruidenier (1983) almost all the reasons for learning the language of the target community might fall within integrative motivation. A considerable shift of thinking from theoretical towards more applicable and practical work started to take place. "The 1990's brought about a change in scholars' thinking about L2 motivation" (Dorneyi, 2001b, p. 16). In the same vein, Ushioda (2006, p. 148) claims that "it is generally recognised that the study of language learning motivation underwent something of sea-change during the 1990's, when it emerged from a long history of domination by the social psychological research tradition".

FL motivation is a complex construct which requires the integration of different components. Clement, Dornyei and Noels (1994) identify three dimensions: integrative motivation, linguistic self-confidence, and appraisal of classroom environment. They focus on some learner traits, perception of classroom environment including group cohesion, evaluation of the English teacher (in terms of competence, rapport, teaching style/ personality) and evaluation of the English course (in terms of attractiveness, relevance, and difficulty) and group dynamics.

Not entirely distinct from this study, Dorneyi (1994a) identifies three levels of motivation: language level, learner level, learning situation level as shown in figure 1.3 below:

LANGUAGE LEVEL	Integrative Motivational Subsystem Instrumental Motivational Subsystem

LEARNER LEVEL	Need for Achievement
	Self-Confidence
	    * Language Use Anxiety
	    * Perceived L2 Competence
	    * Causal Attributions
	    * Self-Efficacy

LEARNING SITUATION LEVEL

Course-Specific Motivational Components	Interest Relevance Expectancy Satisfaction

Teacher-Specific Motivational Components	Affiliative Drive
	Authority Type
	Direct Socialization of Motivation
	    * Modelling
	    * Task Presentation
	    * Feedback

Group-Specific Motivational Components	Goal-orientedness Norm & Reward System Group Cohesion Classroom Goal Structure

Figure 1.3 Components of Foreign Language Learning Motivation (Dorneyi, 1994a, p. 280)

The relationship between Clement et al., (1994) and Dorneyi (1994a) works can be easily recognised by considering the information above. Besides the broader additional information Dorneyi (1994a) has provided a detailed characterisation of the different motivational levels. By considering learning situation level, three major motivational sources are distinguished. First, Course-Specific Motivational Component which might include besides what is mentioned the syllabus, the teaching materials, the different learning tasks and activities. Second, Teacher-Specific Motivational Components that link to teacher's personality, style, behaviour, and method. Third, Group-Specific Motivational Components that relate to group cohesion and dynamics.

1.8   Factors Affecting EFL Learners' Motivation

As have been seen earlier, motivation has always been a crucial issue in education. A considerable amount of research has been conducted to investigate the various definitions, theories, the implementation of numerous systems and approaches to help facilitate the teaching learning process and make the classroom a positive environment. Many researchers have studies motivation in relation to different field and in distinct areas to examine particular aspects.

In foreign language learning, motivation is considered one of the main factors to help FL learners succeed. Research on how to motivate learners come to a tremendous number of outcomes and posit significant considerations on the factors that may affect motivation. As long as motivation is concerned, making students motivated is important, yet, it is no less important to consider the different factors impacting their motivation.

Teachers as main part in the teaching /learning process find themselves responsible for making students motivated or at least help them be motivated in order to succeed. Acknowledging the factors that affect their learners' motivation would be of a great help. Wright, Horn and Sanders (1997, p. 57) note that "over the years, educational researchers have investigated many factors considered to affect to student learning. At the heart of this line of inquiry is the core belief that teachers make difference".

Several factors that impact learners' motivation have been identified such as teaching styles, school environment, classroom atmosphere, relevance of the subject matter. Teachers and educators may try to develop and employ motivational strategies in relation to their instruction. That is, educators should try to diversify the techniques they use in classroom and examine their effectiveness, so that they help learners develop a sense of comfort. In this respect, Bernaus (1995, p. 12) claims "factors such as pedagogical

techniques, teaching materials, and the teacher's personality might interact with the individual difference variables to promote proficiency".

As long as this research is concerned, a great emphasis was put on teachers as the most important factor that affect students' motivation. Researchers have thoroughly investigated the characteristics of influential teachers, their methods, styles, and behaviours in attempt to arrive at the required results. According to Dorneyi (2005), "the increased shift toward examining classroom-based motivation in the 1990's drew attention to a rather overlooked motivational area, the motivational characteristics of the language teacher" (p. 115). Effective teachers are believed to be a positive indicator to learners' success. Various characteristics of the teacher are perceived as important for motivating learners to learn. In this respect, Meek (1989, p. 47) claims "a teacher has to possess love and knowledge and then has to use this combined passion to be able to accomplish something".

1.8.1 Teacher-learner relationship.

Teacher-learner relationship has been considered as one of the essential determinant to the success of the teaching/learning process as it fosters students' motivation and helps in creating a positive effective atmosphere. This idea was supported by many researchers among whom Dorneyi (2001b) who identifies three motivational conditions as mandatory for the success of the motivational strategies: appropriate teacher behaviours and a good relationship with the students; a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere; and a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms. He asserts "I don't think it requires much justifications to claim that it is important for a motivating teacher to have a positive relationship with the students on a personal and not just on an academic level" (p. 36). Therefore,

> The relationship you have with your learners is fundamental to the success of teaching. A good relationship will increase the learning your clients get, as well as making it much more enjoyable for you as a teacher. Designing the alliance you have with your learner is part of making this successful. (Claridge & Lewis, 2005, p. 15).

Vasquez (1988, p. 248) compiles several studies and sources on teacher learner relationship and its effects on students' achievement along with the importance of caring in a teacher to promote students' motivation to learn and asserts that "student perceptions of whether the teacher cares for them have meaningful effects on their performance and behaviour". He emphasised the significance of this relationship in students' learning and highlights the magical impact that support, assistance and particularly care have on learners' achievement and motivation. Establishing deep relationships with students is believed to foster students' learning and promotes their motivation. According to Paterson (2005),

> Rapport is that wonderful bond that allows teacher and students to work and learn well together. The powerful teacher creates this relationship early in the year and works to maintain it. When good rapport has been established, students and teachers enjoy one another and the class, and students feel more motivated to do well. (p. 69).

Having a good teacher-learner relationship is of vital significance in developing a good learning atmosphere that is based on a positive social setting. "Student teacher relationships provide a unique entry point for educators and others working to improve the social and learning environments of schools and classrooms" (Hamre & Pianta, 2006, p. 46). Student teacher relationship helps build social bonds and maintain interpersonal relations that would in a way or another promote individuals' openness to the world, acceptance of the other and tolerance of differences.

1.8.2 Teachers' teaching styles.

Teaching styles refer to the methods, approaches and theories teachers use in class. It has been defined by Reid (1995, 1998) as the totality of instructional approaches, methods, and decisions a teacher prefers and feels comfortable using. According to Cook (2000), the diversity of teaching styles should be viewed not as confusing, but as reflecting the complexity of language learning processes. Teachers should carefully examine their individual situations and adjust their teaching styles accordingly.

Teachers' styles of teaching plays a vital role in creating a motivating classroom. To be effective, the teacher should promote his/her teaching styles to respond to his students' different needs. S/he is required to take into account the diversity of his/ her students' needs, levels of proficiency, backgrounds and learning styles in order to create a motivational classroom and make sure all the students are involved successfully in the teaching/learning process. Ensuring effectiveness, accordingly, may create a positive impact on students' language learning. In this sense, Brosh (1996, p. 133) finds that the desirable characteristics of the effective language teacher may include: 1. Knowledge and command of the target language; 2. Ability to organize, explain, and clarify, as well as to arouse and sustain interest and motivation among students; 3. Fairness to students by showing neither favouritism nor prejudice; and 4. Availability to students.

Improving the way teachers teach is also highly recommended due to the vital role it plays in the classroom. Dorneyi (2001) notes

> Sometimes the best motivational intervention is simply to improve the quality
>
> of our teaching. Similarly, no matter how competent a motivator a teacher is, if
>
> his/her teaching lacks instructional clarity and the learners simply cannot
>
> follow the intended program, motivation to learn the particular subject matter is
>
> unlikely to blossom. (pp. 25-26)

Increasing students' motivation will facilitate learning but having students motivated is not an easy task. A wide range of research has been dedicated to investigate the various factors affecting students' learning and motivation. When teachers diversify their teaching styles and have good relationship with learners, a room for considerable interaction will be available. Having the students leave the classroom with a feeling of accomplishment is important in maintaining a motivating environment. When a student feels that s/he is succeeding in a class, s/he will continue to build the intrinsic motivation to succeed (Vasquez, 1988).

A teacher who truly cares for the students will use many techniques to establish and maintain students' motivation. Among these techniques is the use of preventative strategies that shed light on the behaviours that students should attain rather than avoid. Palardy and Palardy (1987, pp. 87-89) discuss nine preventative strategies:

1. Teachers must feel comfortable with themselves, their pupils, and their subject matter.

2. Teachers must believe in their students' capacity and propensity for appropriate classroom conduct.

3. Teachers must ensure that their instructional activities are interesting and relevant.

4. Teachers must match their instructional activities with their pupils' capabilities.

5. Teachers must involve their pupils in setting up "the rules".

6. Teachers must make certain that their pupils know and understand "the routine".

7. Teachers must identify their problem times.

8. Teachers must remember that pupils are not "little adults".

9. Teachers must give evidence that they genuinely like and respect their pupils.

As seen above, most of these techniques represent caring actions taken by a caring teacher whose goal is more than a mere instructor.

1.8.3 Language learners' attitudes.

An increasing emphasis has been put on studying the different factors believed to affect EFL learners' motivation and accordingly their learning process. One of the most important factors that have a direct influence on motivation is learners' attitudes towards the target language. When in class, students' styles, attitudes, beliefs and personality feature are brought together and interact to determine the way they learn.

Research in the field of language learning indicates that the success of the learning process is essentially impacted by what learners thoughts and evaluation of the target language, its speakers, its culture, and of course, the learning setting. Social psychologists focus on learners' attitudes in attempt to investigate and explain human behaviour. Attitude is usually defined as a disposition or tendency to respond positively or negatively towards a certain thing such as an idea, object, person, or situation. It should be mentioned that attitudes, like all aspects of the development of cognition and affect in human beings, develop early in childhood and are the result of parents' and peers' attitudes, contact with people who are different in any number of ways (Brown, 2000).

Numerous definitions have been devoted to attitudes and beliefs. Ajzan (1988, p. 4) considers attitudes as "a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an object, person, institution, or event". According to Baker (1992, p. 10), attitude can be referred to as "a hypothetical construct used to explain the direction and persistence of human behaviour".

Baker (1988) describes attitudes as follows:

1. Attitudes are cognitive (i.e. are capable of being thought about) and affective (i.e. have feelings and emotions attached to them)

2. Attitudes are dimensional rather than bipolar – they vary in degree of favourability/un-favourability.

3. Attitudes predispose a person to act in a certain way, but the relationship between attitudes and actions is not a strong one.

4. Attitudes are learnt, not inherited or genetically endowed.

5. Attitudes tend to persist but they can be modified by experience.

Wenden (1991) argues that the term "attitude" includes three components namely, cognitive, affective and behavioural. Firstly, the cognitive component consists of beliefs and ideas or opinions about the object of the attitude. Secondly, the affective one encompasses feelings and emotions of people toward an object, 'likes' or 'dislikes', 'with' or 'against'. Finally, the behavioural component refers to the tendency of individuals to behave in particular way towards an object. Brown (2001) claims that attitude is described by emotional involvements such as feelings, and relationships in community. Attitude can be described in terms of states of emotions and thought about the target language, its learning, and its culture.

A large number of studies have been undertaken to investigate the relationships between attitude, motivation, and proficiency in the language (Bachman, 1990; Malallaha, 2000; Coleman, Strafield, & Hagan, 2003). Any task performance is, in a way or another, the result of the participants' involvement, devotion and motivation. Therefore, doing an activity can be linked to the goal that the students want to obtain and the extent to which they like to do that activity. In addition to that, students' attitude towards a given task can also be determined by the degree of the participants' motivation (Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

Holmes (1992) argues that in learning a foreign language, students can be motivated to learn a foreign language when they are motivated by the target language speakers or the context in which that language is spoken. Anxiety is a significant factor behind students'

low motivation. Johnson and Johnson (1998) find that the amount of foreign language learners' anxiety may explain the changes in motivation of the learners, and eventually changes the students' positive attitudes.

Positive attitudes may foster the development of an integrative motivation and subsequently facilitate foreign language progress. Holding positive attitudes generates fruitful effects on second language learners whilst negative attitudes may lead to decreased motivation (Brown, 2000).

Okada, Oxford and Abo (1996) explain, in a comparative study, that the motivation of American learners of Japanese is far greater than that of learners of Spanish. They ultimately conclude that motivation goes higher when the learner endeavours to learn a more difficult language because greater persistence and determination are needed to cope with the stress of a difficult situation.

Ample studies have been carried out to detect the effect of attitudes on language learning and the relationship between attitudes and language success. Truitt (1995) claims that students' beliefs and attitudes towards language learning may vary based on cultural background and previous experiences. Positive or negative attitudes, therefore, do not develop accidentally but have some reasons for their emergence.

The interrelationship between success and attitude has been explained with the emergence of Gardner's socio-educational model. This model assumes that L2 learning is "acquiring symbolic elements of a different ethnolinguistic community" (Gardner, 1979, p. 193). Gardner (1985) considers that learners' attitudes towards the TL and their integrativeness have the strongest impact on the level of motivation. Gardner (1985) also regards attitudes as components of motivation in language learning. It is argued that students' attitudes positively correlated with their proficiency and achievement in the target language. Put differently, students with positive attitudes towards learning a language were more at an advantage compared to those with negative attitudes (Spolsky, 1969; Littlewood, 1984; Holmes, 1992; Norlida, 1997).

Masgoret and Gardner (2003) believe that a learner's attitudes towards the learning situation can be elicited through their evaluation of the course, the teacher, the materials and/or teaching environment. According to Ellis (2008, p. 287), the social settings can influence L2 acquisition or TL learning as they have a direct impact on learners' attitudes. Learners take different attitudes towards "the target language, target-language speakers, the target language culture, the social value of learning the L2, particular uses of the target language, and themselves as members of their own culture". Ellis also asserts that "learner

attitudes have an impact on the level of L2 proficiency achieved by individual learners and are themselves influenced by this success" (Ellis, 2008, p. 287).

As seen earlier, attitudes have a significant influence on learners' motivation and play an important role in the success of the learning process. Learning a foreign language is found to be closely related to the learners' attitudes towards that language (Starks & Paltridge, 1996). Therefore, the importance of positive attitudes in enhancing motivation and language learning is undeniable. Teachers need to take into consideration their students' attitudes towards the language being taught and work to promote them if they are positive or change them if they are negative because it is assumed that holding positive or negative attitudes towards the target language and the way learners perceive that language may exert a significant influence on their performance on the language itself.

1.9   Conclusion

This chapter has discussed motivation to learn in general and to learn a foreign language in particular. Diverse explanations of motivation have been presented with reference to their respective theories and perspective. For that reason, defining this concept and answering how and why people get motivated in general and in relation to language learning have received considerable exploration.

The different issues and factors that influence motivation have been also discussed in this chapter. The review has clarified that establishing good relationships with students based on mutual respect and understanding, diversifying the teaching methods and assigning tasks of dissimilar nature to fit the majority of students' abilities along with promoting positive attitudes towards the FL proved to have a positive impact on EFL students' motivation to learn. In the following chapter, we will attempt to shed light on matching teaching styles with learning styles as one of main factors believed to enhance motivation in the EFL classroom.

Chapter Two

Chapter Two: Matching Teaching Styles with Learning Styles to Enhance Motivation

Chapter Two Matching Teaching Styles with Learning Styles to Enhance Motivation

2.1 Introduction

The EFL learning is one of the most challenging tasks. It is influenced by various factors mainly dictated by learners themselves, the context, the teachers, the materials, and so forth. The awareness of these aspects helps educators to recognise and consider learners' individual differences and their learning preferences. The individual differences are the personal characteristics that differentiate the person as a distinct human being. As students have different ways of learning, teachers also have various ways or methods of teaching. The potential relationship between teaching and learning styles and the effect of the match and mismatch on students' motivation, performance and achievement have been thoroughly debated. This chapter, correspondingly, attempts to shed light on the main concepts interwoven in the teaching learning process such as learning, teaching, learning styles and teaching styles. It also reviews the key models of learning / teaching styles and provides an account on the main teaching and learning styles models adopted in the present study, notably, Grasha-Riechmann (1996) integrated model of teaching and learning. The chapter also surveys the relationship between motivation and learning styles and the effect of the match on learners' motivation.

2.2 Definitions of Teaching and Learning

Various definitions and conceptions of teaching and learning have been developed for over 2000 years as a response to people's endless trial to understand this complex process. Teaching and learning represent the most central issues in the field of education. They have always been two related concepts that rarely one can do without the other.

Teaching is derived from the verb 'to teach' which is defined by Oxford English Dictionary as to "impart knowledge to or instruct (someone) as to how to do something" or "give information about or instruction in (a subject or skill)". According to Johnson (1995, p. 6), teaching is "[…] a process that is intrinsically and inseparably bound with

learning", for that, it "is intended to result in personal learning for students, and worthless if it does not so".

Teachers facilitate students' learning and help them improve their abilities. Teaching is also described as an artistic job as it necessitates the implementation of different methods and various styles. This helps in return in making the instruction clear and easy for learners with different abilities and learning styles. This diversity in teaching approaches promotes interaction between teachers and students and responds to the different learning needs. Teachers should cater for learners' styles and differences. They regard learners in terms of "Learning styles, aptitude-treatment interactions, learner autonomy, the affective domain, and learner beliefs about language learning, among many others" (Horwitz, 2000, p. 532).

Formally speaking, a language teacher is "Someone who has completed an initial, pre-service training program and is now working in a language teaching context" (Wajnryb, 1992, p. 4). According to the social constructivist model of the teaching/learning process, the teacher transmits knowledge to a learner within an identified context (Williams and Burden, 1997).

Recently, the role of the teacher has been largely questioned. Teacher's function position has changed from being at the centre of the classroom, the one who is supposed to instruct, give knowledge, correct learners' mistakes, maintain authority, etc to a more questioned role (Sato, 2002). Teachers' main task is to assist learners in their learning process and try to find solutions to the problems that might hinder it. Accordingly, (Waring, 2004, p. 105) teachers need to "Create and maintain an effective learning environment in their lessons, one of the biggest concerns that they have is related to class control, management and organisation". Bevevino, Dengel and Adams (1999, p. 275) find that "teachers can make learning meaningful when they employ activities that call on students to use their prior knowledge and experiences to construct their own frames of thought".

Wallace (1991) states that teaching implies:

> [Every] occupation aspiring to the title of 'profession' will claim at least some of these qualities: a basis of scientific knowledge; a period of rigorous study which is formally assessed; a sense of public service; high standards of

professional conduct; and ability to perform some specified demanding and socially useful tasks in a demonstrably competent manner. (p. 5)

Defining learning is not an easy task also due to the complexity of the process. Learning is usually related to teaching and searching for knowledge. Different philosophies have their own understanding of learning. With time, the learning process have developed and witnessed considerable changes. Due to the complexity of the human nature, it is somewhat difficult to provide an explicit definition to learning. Schoenfeld (1999, p. 6) notes that "...the very definition of learning is contested, and that assumptions that people make regarding its nature and where it takes place also vary widely". It is somehow hard to define learning in few words, as it is such a multifaceted process that requires time and patience to make a change.

Learning is the process by which change is made on the level of human behaviour or ability. Gagne (1985, p. 2) defines learning as "a change in human disposition or capability that persists over a period of time and is not simply ascribable to processes of growth". I the same vein, learning has been described as " a process that leads to change, which occurs as a result of experience and increases the potential of improved performance and future learning" (Ambrose, Bridges, DiPietro, Lovett & Norman, 2010, p. 3). Mayer (1982, p.1040) elaborates on this concept in his definition of learning:

"Learning" is the relatively permanent change in a person's knowledge or behaviour due to experience. This definition has three components: (1) the duration of the change is long-term rather than short-term; (2) the locus of the change is the content and structure of knowledge in memory or the behaviour of the learner; (3) the cause of the change is the learner's experience in the environment rather than fatigue, motivation, drugs, physical condition, or physiological intervention.

While the definitions provided above are not exhaustive, they all focus on the task of acquiring knowledge and skills through different ways such as instruction, experience, study and other various methods.

2.3   The Teacher's Role

As teaching is a multifaceted profession, teachers often carry the roles of a parent, counsellor, class disciplinarian, mentor role model, and many other related roles. Doing their job, teachers need to be successful managers of their classroom. Their methods and conceptions about the teaching learning process impact their students' learning so deeply.

> Teachers can exert a tremendous influence over the emotional atmosphere of the classroom in three different ways: by changing the social structure of the classroom to give students more responsibility, by providing increased amounts of naturalistic communication, and by changing learners to use affective strategies. (Oxford, 1990, p. 140-141)

Teachers are also asked to provide an encouraging learning environment because they are the first responsible of their students' social behaviour which is primarily the reflection of the teacher's actions. Scrivener (1994, p. 9) argues that "the teacher's most important job might be to create the conditions in which learning takes place". That is, teachers are called to observe, make decisions and finally performs actions to be able to create a positive learning environment that helps in maintaining classroom management.

Mentoring learners is one of the teacher's responsibilities where s/he encourages his/her learners to work hard in order to develop. Different tasks are performed by the teacher and all strive to improve learning and make teaching more effective. S/he "takes on the roles of resource person, coach, and co-participant, encouraging the students to be meaningful, comprehensive, and supportive in their work together" (Pica, 2005, p. 339). This helps learners build a strong relationship with the teacher based mainly on trust and self-confidence. Teachers use different ways to present the pertinent knowledge including lectures, group-work activities, hands-on learning tasks, peer work, field work, etc. However, besides their role of instructing and educating, they also do other tasks. They set the tone of their classrooms, build a warm environment, and offer care and interest. Littlewood (2003, pp. 92-93) claims that teachers are:

> ➢ General observer of his students' learning
> ➢ Classroom manager
> ➢ The familiar role of language instructor
> ➢ Advisor

➢ Communicator

It is worth mentioning that teachers' role has changed in modern education especially with the emergence of the communicative approach. Education now is learner-centred with teachers as facilitators. In this vein, Szucs (2009, p. 4) notes that "teachers in modern classrooms are no longer lecturers, they are facilitators, their main task is to set goals and organise the learning process accordingly".

2.4   A Brief Overview of the Main Language Teaching Approaches

A wide range of teaching methods and approaches have been developed in order to facilitate and improve foreign language teaching/ learning. This section is devoted to present an overview about the main traditional and contemporary approaches and tries to clarify their basic assumptions and principles. It is worth mentioning that an approach is a set of interrelated assumptions that underlies the way languages are learned whereas a method is somehow an orderly plan of coherent parts (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). That is, the approach is larger than the method in the sense that one approach can be implemented using more than one method. The technique on the other hand refers to the way the approach assumptions or the method content are implemented (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

One of the major old methods that was largely implemented in foreign language teaching and learning is the Grammar Translation Method (hereafter GTM).This method was originated in Prussia in the mid-19th century as the offspring of the German scholastic philosophy. It was basically used to teach literature such as Latin and Greek. This method dominated the field of foreign language learning for more than a century. The main purpose of foreign language learning is to be able to read its literature and benefit from the mental discipline and intellectual development that result from foreign language study. It is based on memorising rules and facts so that morphology and syntax of the target language can be understood with a great focus on grammar and translation. Reading and writing enjoy a considerable attention compared to speaking or listening as reading texts demonstrates the vocabulary to be taught. This method has been criticised for focusing on rote memory rather than cognitive progression. According to Brown (1994), this method does virtually nothing to enhance a student's communicative ability in the language because:

✓ Students do not participate actively in the classroom.

✓ Communication is not much focused.

✓ Very little attention is paid to content.

✓ The focus is made on translation which is sometimes misleading.

Another significant method in foreign language teaching and learning is the direct method (hereafter DM). It emerged in 1920's as a reform movement against the inherent shortcomings of the GTM. It emphasises language learning by direct contact with the foreign language in meaningful situations. It stood for a number of principles and procedure such as using the target language as an exclusive means of instruction; emphasising the oral communication; teaching grammar inductively with focus on vocabulary and pronunciation (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). However, this method has been criticised for many reasons among which as it the difficulty to be integrated in the public schools. In fact, "the direct method did not take well in public schools where the constraints of budget, classroom size, time, and teacher background (native speakers or native like fluency) made such a method difficult to use" (Brown, 1994, p. 56).

The audio-lingual method (ALM) was generated by the U.S. Defence Forces language programmes during and after World War II. Numerous factors influenced foreign languages teaching after the war, among which, the emergence of several international languages, the greater mobility of people, and the expansion of education programmes. In order to meet these new needs for languages, the "Army Method" was developed in the United States when Behaviourism was thought to be able to explain all human behaviour including language. The significant effect of behaviourism on the audio-lingual method can be explained in terms of reinforcement. The ALM is based on mimicry and memorisation of phrases, and repetitive drills. It attaches great importance to pronunciation using tapes and language labs, with little or no grammatical explanation. The audio-lingual method reached its peak around the 1960's, but it soon collapsed as it neglected the cognitive part of learning and failed to cope with real-life situations where a foreign language was actually used.

One of the main language teaching/ learning approaches is the Communicative Language Teaching (hereafter CLT) approach that goes back to the 1960s' ideas and thoughts of British applied linguists. It highlights both functional and structural aspects of language as noted by Littlewood (1981). The CLT's lessons usually focus on topics from real life situations to help improve learners' ability to communicate in the target language.

Grammar is taught inductively by analogy rather than by deductive explanation. This approach emphasises interactional activities of group and pair work such as conversations, discussions, sessions, dialogues, role play, debates and interviews.

It attempts to make the communicative competence as the goal of teaching as well as to develop the teaching processes of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication. Meaning is emphasised over anything else and learners are required to develop both accuracy and fluency. The teacher also plays the role of needs analyst, counsellor, and group process manager (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). Needs Analysts indicate that the CLT teacher should determine and respond to learners' needs either informally or formally. Many of the CLT claims have been criticised such as whether the CLT approach can be used with different language programmes; whether it implies the use of grammar-based instructions or their abandonment, the way how this approach can be evaluated.

The Competency-Based Language Teaching (CBLT) is a modern language learning approach. It emphasises the importance of outcomes/outputs to language learning in the development of language programmes rather than inputs like other approaches and methods. It is based on a functional and interactional perspective on the nature of language. Unlike the traditional educational methods which are teacher-centred, the Competency Based Approach (hereafter CBA) is a learner–centred. According to the CBA, the unit of progression is the mastery of specific knowledge and skills. The CBA is based on the following premises:

> ➢ It requires consensus around what is a successful teaching performance through the combination of attributes (such as knowledge, abilities, skills and attitudes).
> ➢ Competence is inferred from good performance.
> ➢ A competence-based system identifies elements of competence, performance criteria and the range of indicators.
> ➢ It allows diversity of competent performance.
> ➢ A teacher must develop the competence standards of the learners.

However, the CBA has received considerable criticism. Though it enjoyed wide popularity in the field of foreign language teaching, it was regarded as a return to a disguised prescription in language teaching. It was also criticised for focusing on behaviour and performance and neglecting thinking which is considered an important cognitive activity. A CBA course is effective when used to identify the competencies but

when insufficient attention is given to the identification of the essential job skills; then the training course is likely to be ineffective.

2.5 Definitions of Learning Styles

Providing a quite clear definition to the term learning style seems very difficult if not impossible. Until the present time, there have been numerous attempts to define the term learning style. Based on the reviewed literature, a number of learning style theories have been classified so far. Different perspectives have been identified and various classifications of learning styles are presented according to their distinct authors' views.

Among the very first definitions is Claxton and Ralston's (1978, p. 1) who claim that every person has "a consistent way of responding to and using stimuli in the context of learning" which is shaped by the individual's psychological makeup and socio-cultural background. Cornett (1983) asserts that styles are the overall patterns that give general direction to learning behaviour. It has been proved that students learn in a variety of ways. These ways are interpreted as styles or preferences of learning. Grasha (1996) perceives learning styles as social interaction, describing the different roles students play in the classroom in interaction with their peers, teachers and course content.

Generally speaking, the theory of learning styles states that people have different approaches to learning and studying (Dunn & Dunn, 1987; Felder & Brent, 2005; Felder & Henriques, 1995; Hall, 2005; Heiman, 2006; Manochehri & Jon, 2006; Mupinga, Nora, & Yaw, 2006; Price, 2005; Sheridan & Steele-Dadzie, 2005; Silverman, 2006; Ware, & O'Donoughue, 2005). Many psychologists believe that learning styles are multidimensional as they encompass cognitive, personal and contextual sides. They have based their premises on the idea that learners' choices of particular learning strategies are made at the intersection of the context and individual differences.

2.6 Models of Learning Styles

Learning styles have been widely researched in the area of educational psychology (Claxton & Murrell, 1987; Schmeck, 1988) and specifically in the sphere of language learning (Coffield et al., 2004;Oxford , 1990; Reid, 1987; Reynold & Vince, 2007; Welsh Dehler, & Murray, 2007; Hornyak, Green & Heppard, 2007; Herbert & Stenfors, 2007; Sievers, 2007; Hyde, 2007; Kayes A.B., 2007; Kayes D. C., 2007; Garcia, Amandi, Schiaffino & Campo, 2007; Demirbas & Demirkan, 2007; Armstrong &

Mahmud, 2008; Li et al., 2008). Many models have been put forward to describe learning styles and so they do with teaching styles. According to Felder (1995), these models were conceptualised by using external conditions and internal traits. Mostly used models are those based on instructional and environmental preferences that aim at improving social interaction. In this section, seven learning styles models are reviewed. They are chosen randomly among the most influential models proposed by researchers and organised chronologically from 1979 to 1996.

2.6.1 Dunn and Dunn model (1979).

This learning style model has been developed by Dunn and Dunn in 1979. They proposed an extensive research programme designed to improve the instruments that derive from their model of learning style preferences. The Dunn and Dunn learning style model (1979) indicates a range of variables believed to impact individual's learning and achievement. As learners are not the same, each has his/her own way of learning and approaching things. Each learner has unique combination of preferences. Some preferences may be strong which indicate that they must be addressed to make the learner benefit. Other preferences may be moderate, that is they worth being addressed if learning is not progressing smoothly and so on.

This model is based on the premise that individuals learn through their sensory receivers mainly: visual, auditory and kinaesthetic. According to the VAK model, also known as VAKT -Visual, Auditory, Kinaesthetic and Tactile (Coffield et al., 2004), the use of these receivers determines individual's dominant learning style. For this model, individual's preference of one or two styles over the others decides on the best way s/he learns. Individuals may use different styles for different tasks and sometimes a combination of more than one style is possible. The recent overview of the model (Coffield et al., 2004) contains the claim that the learning styles of students changed substantially as they matured from adolescence into adulthood.
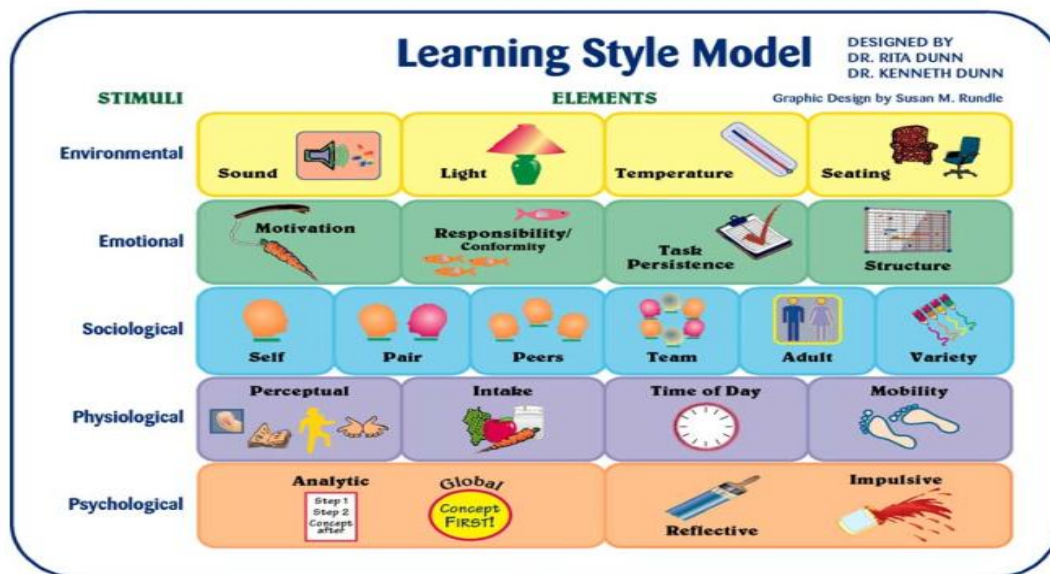
Figure 2.1 The Dunn and Dunn Learning Style Model (Dunn & Bruke, 2005, p. 1)

According to this model, learners have different fixed characteristics and dissimilar learning preferences that may affect their achievement. A set of proposed elements have been also incorporated in the model believing that they contribute to the learning environment, and impact individuals' learning. In addition to that, five dimensions on which students learning styles differ are identified in the table below:

Table 2.1

Dunn and Dunn's (1979) Learning Style Dimensions

Dimension	Elements	Key questions
Environment	Sound Light Temperature Seating Design	-Do students prefer a noisy, busy, well lit, warm environment or a quiet, subdued, cooler environment? -Should the learning environment be formal (e.g. desks and chairs) or informal (e.g. pillows)?
Emotional	Motivational support Persistence Individual Responsibility Structure	-Do students need a lot of emotional support? -Will they persist on learning tasks? -Can they assume individual responsibility? -Do they need lots of structure?

Sociological	Individual Pairs or Teams Adult Varied	-Do students learn best alone or working with someone? -How much guidance from adults do they want or need?
Physiological	Perceptual Intake Time Mobility	-Is the student an auditory, visual, tactual, or kinaesthetic learner? -Does the student like to snack while learning? -When is the optimal time for learning? -Does the student require freedom to move during learning?
Psychological	Global Analytical Impulsive Reflective	-How does the learner attack problem, globally or analytically? -Does the student jump into problems or pause to reflect before starting?

Dunn and Dunn (1979) learning styles can be assessed by two measurement tools, namely Learning Style Inventory (LSI) (Dunn, Dunn, & Price, 1985) and Productivity Environmental Preference Survey (PEPS) (Dunn, Dunn, & Price 1982). The first is a 104-item self-report questionnaire that identifies twenty two (22) elements relating to the environmental, emotional, sociological, physical, and psychological preferences of the individual. The second is an instrument particularly designed for adults aiming at identifying their preferences in relation to working and learning environment by one hundred (100)-item self-report questionnaire.

Despite the fact that this model has been widely accepted, it has also been strongly criticised. Its complexity is believed to make the interpretation difficult to a certain extent. The concept of learning style is unclear even between its own advocates. In addition to that, the focus on learning style in determining teaching action is inappropriate theoretically and realistically (Hayman & Rosoff, 1984, p. 39).

2.6.2 Kolb's model (1984).

Kolb (1984) published his learning styles model from which he developed his learning style inventory. His Experiential Learning Theory (ELT) presents a holistic model of the learning process and is a multi-linear model of adult development. It works on two levels: a four-stage cycle of learning and four separate learning styles. Essentially, his theory has been called "Experiential" to accentuate the central role that experience plays in the learning process. According to Kolb (1984), learning involves the acquisition of abstract concepts that can be applied flexibly in a range of situations. In Kolb's (1984) theory, therefore, the impetus for the development of new concepts is provided by new experiences.

Kolb (1985) has extended his original work to explore the different ways in which people learn. Based on the four-stage learning cycle, four distinct learning styles have been identified and associated with different approaches to learning — Diverging, Assimilating, Converging, and Accommodating.

Kolb's two (1984) continuums are: the east-west axis called the Processing Continuum (how people approach a task), and the north-south axis labelled the Perception Continuum (their emotional response, or how they think or feel about it). People cannot perform both variables on a single axis at the same time (e.g., think and feel).
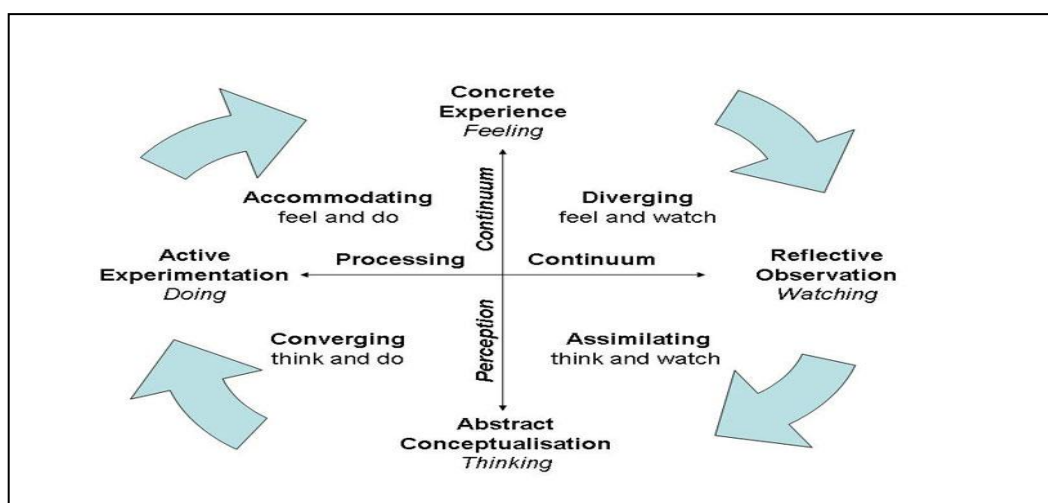
Figure 2.2 Kolb's (1984) Learning Styles

The construction of Kolb's learning styles can be also viewed in terms of a two-by-two matrix where each learning style represents a combination of two preferred styles.

Table 2.2

Kolb's Learning Styles in Matrix View

	Active Experimentation (AE) *'Doing'*	**Reflective Observation (RO) *'Watching'***
Concrete Experience (CE) *'Feeling'*	Accommodator (CE/AE)	Diverger (CE/RO)
Abstract Conceptualisation (AC) *'Thinking'*	Converger (AC/AE)	Assimilator (AC/RO)

Knowing one's own learning style enables the learner and the instructor to orient learning towards that preferred method and therefore facilitate learning and enhance students' achievement and motivation. In the table below, there are brief descriptions of the four Kolb's learning styles.

Table 2.3

Kolb's (1984) Learning Styles' Characteristics

Learning Style	Learning Characteristic	Description
Converger	Abstract conceptualizations + active experimentation (AC/AE)	Strong in practical application of ideas Can focus on hypo-deductive reasoning on specific problems Unemotional Has narrow interests
Diverger	Concrete experience + reflective observation (CE/RO)	Strong in imaginative ability Good at generating ideas and seeing things from different perspectives Interested in people Broad cultural interests

	Abstract conceptualizations + reflective observation (AC/RO)	Strong ability to create theoretical models
Assimilator		Excels in inductive reasoning
		Concerned with abstract concepts rather than people
Accommodator	Concrete experience + active experimentation (CE/AE)	Greatest strength is doing things
		More of a risk taker
		Performs well when required to react to immediate Circumstances
		Solves problems intuitively

2.6.3 Honey and Mumford's model (1986).

This model was developed by Peter Honey and Alan Mumford in 1986. Their work is inspired from and built upon Kolb's (1984) learning styles model (Leaver, 2005). They produced their own Learning Styles Questionnaire (LSQ) to probe general behavioural tendencies. Instead of asking people directly how they learn as Kolb's (1984) Learning Style Inventory LSI does, Honey and Mumford (1986a) have produced a questionnaire that can help them identify their preferred learning styles because most people may have never consciously considered how they really learn.

It is believed that knowing about learning style helps individuals to make smarter decisions in adjusting the learning opportunities and preference of best learning, increases the range and variety of experiences which are potential learning opportunities, improves learning skills and awareness (Zwanenberg, 2016). Honey and Mumford (1986b) identify four distinct styles or preferences that people use while learning: activist, reflector, theorist, and pragmatist.

Figure 2.3 Honey and Mumford's Learning Styles (Honey & Mumford, 2006)

To be a successful learner, individuals must know about their learning styles or preferences and find ways to promote their learning. The characteristics of the four learning styles are summarised in the following table:

Table 2.4

Honey and Mumford Learning Styles Characteristics (Honey & Mumford, 2006)

Learning Style	Attributes	Activities
Activist	Activists are those people who learn by doing. Activists need to get their hands dirty, to dive in with both feet first. Have an open-minded approach to learning, involving themselves fully and without bias in new experiences.	-Brainstorming -Problem Solving -Group Discussion -Puzzles -Competitions -Role-play
Theorist	These learners like to understand the theory behind the actions. They need models, concepts and facts in order to engage in the learning process. Prefer to analyse and synthesise,	-Models -Statistics -Stories -Quotes -Background Information

	drawing new information into a systematic and logical 'theory'.	-Applying theories
Pragmatist	These people need to be able to see how to put the learning into practice in the real world. Abstract concepts and games are of limited use unless they can see a way to put the ideas into action in their lives. Experimenters, trying out new ideas, theories and techniques to see if they work.	-Time to think about how to apply learning in reality -Case studies -Problem solving -Discussion
Reflector	These people learn by observing and thinking about what happened. They may avoid leaping in and prefer to watch from the sidelines. Prefer to stand back and view experiences from a number of different perspectives, collecting data and taking the time to work towards an appropriate conclusion.	-Paired discussions -Self analysis questionnaires -Personality questionnaires -Time out -Observing activities -Feedback from others -Coaching -Interviews

2.6.4 McCarthy's model (1987).

McCarthy (1987) based his learning style model on Kolb's learning (1984) style descriptions to construct the 4-matting system of developing lesson plans for grades K-12. McCarthy's (1987) Learning Type Measure integrates Kolb's learning research on right/left brain hemispheric processing. Learning style refers to the way that people prefer to perceive (take in) and process (make meaning of) new information.
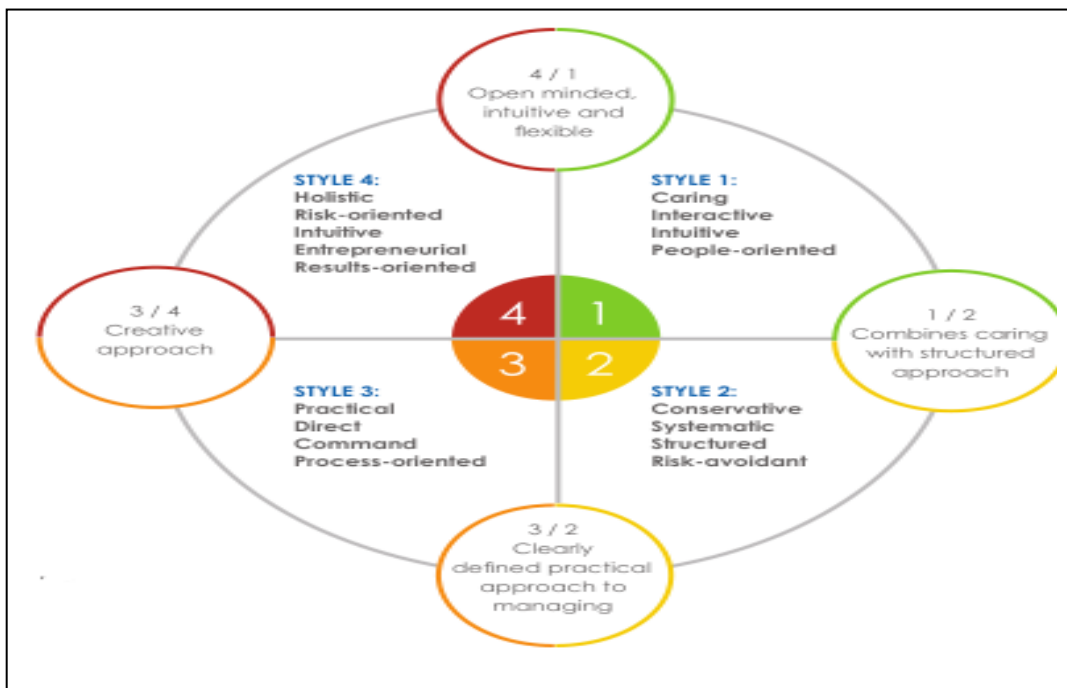
Figure 2.4 McCarthy's Learning Style Types (O'Neill-Blackwell, 2011, p. 1)

When the strengths of one's learning styles are recognised, his/her ability to learn and obtain good achievements will be positively influenced. Learning style preferences affect how people communicate, learn, interact, plan, coach, lead and manage. McCarthy (1987) describes his four major styles as follow:

Table 2.5

McCarthy's Learning Styles Characteristics

Learning Style Type	Attributes
Innovative Learners	-seek personal meaning
	-judge things in relationship to values
	-function through social interaction
	-want to make the world a better place
	-are cooperative and sociable
	-respect authority, when it is earned.
Analytic Learners	-seek intellectual competence
	-judge things by factual verification
	-function by adapting to experts
	-need to know "the important things" and want to add to

	the world's knowledge -are patient and reflective -prefer chain of command authority.
Common Sense Learners	-seek solutions to problems -judge things by their usefulness -function through kinaesthetic awareness -want to make things happen -are practical and straightforward -see authority as necessary, but will work around it if forced.
Dynamic Learners	-seek hidden possibilities -judge things by gut reactions -function by synthesizing various parts -enjoy challenging complacency -are enthusiastic and adventuresome -tend to disregard authority

McCarthy (1987) proposes that the two halves of the brain process information differently. That is, both hemispheres, though of equal importance, carry out differing functions. For example, speech resides primarily in the left hemisphere while spatial capability resides in the right. In addition to that, they also differ in terms of the way they process information. For instance, linear, sequential processing takes place in the left whereas more global processing takes place in the right hemisphere.

Both hemispheres are essentially important due to the vital role their different processes play in learning. Using both left and right mode techniques enhance students' learning. It is worth mentioning that these techniques are incorporated into each quadrant of the 4MAT-based lesson plan. Taking into account right and left hemispheres' characteristics and based on Kolb's (1984) model, the 4MAT system model helps in developing lessons which will lead students from concrete experience to reflective observation to abstract conceptualisation and finally to active experimentation.

2.6.5 The Felder -Silverman's model (1988).

This model was developed by Felder and Silverman in 1988 to depict the different learning styles and preferences among engineering students. It initially attempts at providing engineering instructors with necessary information to design an approach that would respond to students' learning needs. This model classifies learners according to where they fit on a number of scales pertaining to the ways they receive and process information (Felder & Silverman, 1988, p. 674).

The model measures learners' preferences in five dimensions: Sensing/Intuitive focuses on the way the students perceive new information. Visual/Auditory defines the modality through which sensory information is most effectively perceived. Inductive/Deductive is concerned with the best organization of the information from a students' point of view. Active/Reflective refers to the way learners process new knowledge. Sequential/Global explores the means by which the students progress towards understanding. The two categories (Sensing/Intuitive) and (Active/Reflective) were actually based on both Myers-Briggs (1987) and Kolb (1984) models. The inductive/ deductive dimension has been dropped and only four dimensions are incorporated in the model.

SENSORY		INTUITIVE
Sensory learners prefer concrete, practical, and procedural information. They look for the facts.	← →	Intuitive learners prefer conceptual and theoretical information. They look for the meaning.
VISUAL		**VERBAL**
Visual learners prefer graphs, pictures, and diagrams. They look for visual representations of information.	← →	Verbal learners prefer to hear or read information. They look for explanations with words.
ACTIVE		**REFLECTIVE**
Active learners enjoy working in groups to figure out problems. They like to try things out see how it works and enjoy physical experiments.	← →	Reflective enjoy individual learning. They like to think things through first before they do something with them.
SEQUENTIAL		**GLOBAL**
Sequential learners prefer to have information presented in an orderly manner. They put together the details in order to understand the big picture emerges.	← →	Global learners prefer a systematic approach. They see the big picture first and then fill in the details.

Figure 2.5 Felder-Silverman's (1988) Learning Style Dimensions

To implement the Felder-Silverman Learning Styles Model a collection of rules where each rule proposes a set of teaching instructions for one learning style is used (Savic & Konjovic, 2009). For the rules to be applied, every lesson of a course needs to be converted into 8 different lessons according to the teaching instructions. This effort is justified if there are many potential students classified in each of the learning styles so that they can benefit of the personalised learning objects. The learning style of a person is assessed once at the beginning of the course (Hernández & Rodríguez, (n.d, p. 2).

Table 2.6

Rules of Teaching Instructions for each Learning Style in the Felder-Silverman Model (1988)

Learning Style	Teaching Instructions
Active	-Show exercises at the beginning of the chapter because they like challenges and problem solving. -Show less examples. They are not interested in the way others have done something, because they want to solve a problem by themselves.
Reflective	-Show exercises at the end of a chapter. -Show examples after explanation content, but before exercises. -Show less exercises, because they learn better by thinking about a topic instead of solving problems actively.
Sensing	-Show examples at the beginning of a chapter (before explanation content) because they like concrete content. -Show exercises after explanation content, because they solve problems by already learned approaches.
Intuitive	-Show less examples, because they like to discover topic application by themselves. -Show examples after explanation content, because they like abstract content more than concrete. -Show exercises before explanation content, because they like challenges. -Show less exercises with a similar teaching goal because they don't like repetition.
Visual	-If possible, show resources as a picture or a video.
Verbal	-Show resources as a text or an audio.

Sequential	-Show learning content in a standard sequence – explanation content, examples, exercises and summary, because they like linear approach.
Global	-They are less interested in details, because they need to create a global picture of the topic. -Show summary before examples and exercises, because summary helps you to create a global picture

2.6.6 Grasha-Reichmann model (1996).

The Grasha-Reichmann (1996) model emphasises the increased ability to problem-solve, communicate with others, and organise materials. This model focuses on students' interactions amongst their peers, the instructors, and learning in general. This model is also backed with a teaching styles inventory that enables teachers to identify their teaching styles and determine to what extent their instruction matches or mismatches with their learners. This also helps teachers to adapt and diversify their instruction to meet more learners' needs.

The learning styles scale consists of six primary learning styles, namely: Independent, Avoidant, Collaborative, Dependent, Competitive and Participant. The teaching styles, on the other hand, include five teaching styles: Formal Authority, Expert, Personal Model, Facilitator, and Delegator. A detailed explanation of the model will be provided in this chapter.

Through researching and reviewing the literature, We have found that most theories share the idea that humans can be classified according to their 'style' of learning, but differ in how the proposed styles should be defined, categorized and assessed (Coffield,et al., 2004). All of the learning style models attempt to provide a way to improve learning through examining various factors that influence the learning process. As students have different ways of learning, teachers also have various ways or methods of teaching. However, few research studies have proposed teaching styles models. All the learning style models claim that some individuals have a predominant learning style but still can function within other styles. Their learning, however, would be more effective if orientated in accordance to their preference. Some researchers (Coffield et al., 2004; Grasha, 1996) argue that learners' learning styles may change over time especially after successful developmental experiences which prove that learning styles as a model is but a guideline than a strict set of rules. However, all the learning styles models assume that learning

styles as individual learning differences are believed to play a significant role in determining the success or failure of the teaching learning process (Sarasin, 1999).

2.7   Some Definitions of Teaching Styles

A teaching style may be described as a pervasive quality that plays an important role in several aspects of our teaching (Grasha, 1996, p.1). That is, it is not simply an accumulation of techniques or interesting mannerisms, but also the teacher's personality and the way how it influences the selection of instructional processes.

The teacher's behaviours reflect his/her beliefs and values about learners' role in the classroom (Brown, 2003, p.1). It is believed that most teachers teach in the way they were taught.   Teachers who have experienced learning in a teacher-centred classroom, which relied heavily on lectures, would repeat that which worked for them in their own teaching style.

2.8   Models of Teaching Styles

Unlike learning styles, teaching styles have not been discussed thoroughly. Though this area has received a considerable interest but only a few number of researchers has suggested comprehensive teaching styles models that are designed in a practical way to be applied in the classroom. They are largely descriptive without any specification about how these styles could be adopted or modified (Grasha, 1996). Among few other models, we have randomly selected Felder-Silverman (1988), Benzie (1998), Pratt (1998) and Grasha-Riechmann (1994).

2.8.1 Felder – Silverman's teaching styles (1988).

According to Felder-Silverman (Felder, 1988, p. 675), answers to a number of questions may serve to provide a definition to teaching styles. These questions are mainly related to general classroom instruction and management:

- What type of information is emphasised by the instructor?
- What mode of presentation is stressed?
- How is the presentation organised?
- What mode of student participation is facilitated by the presentation?
- What type of perspective is provided on the information presented?

Answers to these questions enable teachers to emphasise concrete, factual, abstract, conceptual and theoretical information. Presentations emphasise on either visual

modalities (through pictures, diagrams, demonstration); or verbal (through lectures, reading and discussion) where lesson organisation could be inductive or deductive. Teachers may prefer among active or passive modes of students' participation. Their presentation of material can be done either on sequential or global manner. The sequential processing means to present the course material in step by step whereas the global means to present the general picture and then break it down to its constituents (Felder, 1988).

Felder (1988, p. 680) outlines several techniques that teachers could employ in addressing all learners in a classroom. These are summarised below:

> ➢ Motivate learning by relating it as much as possible to what was done previously and what will be coming.
> ➢ Provide a balance of concrete information and abstract concepts.
> ➢ Balance material that emphasises practical problem solving methods with material that emphasises fundamental understanding.
> ➢ Use pictures, schematics, graphs, and simple sketches liberally before, during and after verbal presentations.
> ➢ Do not fill every minute of the class period. Provide time for learners to reflection what they have learnt.
> ➢ Ensure that there are ample opportunities for learners to do something active besides note-taking.
> ➢ Assign some drill exercises to provide practice in some basic methods being taught, but these should not be overdone.
> ➢ Applaud creative solutions, even incorrect ones.
> ➢ Talk to learners about learning styles so that they may be better informed of some of the factors that influence their learning.

2.8.2 Benzie's teaching styles (1998).

Benzie's (1998) teaching styles display primarily the styles used by professors tutoring medical students. Yet, they can be implemented to cover the teaching styles within different contexts. They represent four basic styles that operate on a continuum. The characteristics of each style range from being teacher -centred (on the left) to student-centred (on the right) (Benzie, 1998, p. 1).

Teacher's experience   Learner's experience

⟵――――――――――――――――――――――――――――――――⟶

Assertive   Suggestive   Collaborative   Facilitative

- ➢ **The Assertive Approach**: is driven by a lecture mode where the active teacher and passive learners. The teacher transmits information, asks all the questions and controls the classroom. It is therefore on the far left of the teaching styles spectrum proposed by Benzie.

- ➢ **The Suggestive Approach**: the teacher, here, provides alternative perspectives on treatment or diagnosis in order to allow for learners' reflection.

- ➢ **The Collaborative Approach**: learners' involvement is emphasised in this approach. Questions are asked to raise learners' sense of participation and discussion.

- ➢ **The Facilitative Approach**: the teacher focuses on reflection by asking questions. Learners control much of their learning with the teacher playing a facilitative or guiding role

2.8.3 Pratt's teaching styles (1998).

Pratt and associates (1998) have studied 253 teachers across five different countries, and identified five qualitatively different perspectives on teaching. These perspectives range from a teacher-centred to a learner-centred focus. According to Pratt (1998), teachers can use the following techniques:

- ➢ **Transmission** – the teacher focuses on content and determines what and how learners should learn.

- ➢ **Developmental** – the learner's prior knowledge is valued. The teacher seeks to develop increasingly complex problem solving and reasoning skills in the learner.

- ➢ **Apprenticeship** – authentic tasks in real work settings are presented.

- ➢ **Nurturing** – the teacher focuses on the interpersonal elements of student learning. That is getting to know the learner better and to respond to his emotional and intellectual needs.

- ➢ **Social Reform** – within this perspective, the teacher relates ideas explicitly to the lives of students.

Teachers should consider these perspectives and use a variety of styles in an integrated manner so that all learners' preferences are catered for.

2.8.4 Grasha's teaching styles (1996).

Grasha (1994, p. 1) defines a teaching style as a particular pattern of needs, beliefs and behaviours that faculty display in a classroom. His research shows that there are five patterns that describe the stylistic qualities of teachers. :

➢ **Expert**: the transmitter of information

➢ **Formal Authority:** sets the standard and defines acceptable ways of doing things.

➢ **Personal Model**: teaches by illustration and direct example.

➢ **Facilitator**: guides and directs by asking questions, exploring options and suggesting alternatives.

Interestingly, Grasha (1994, p. 2) compares each style to a colour on an artist's palette where the teacher is not placed into one of these five categories; rather s/he possesses each of these styles in varying degrees. A detailed description of Grasha's teaching styles will be presented afterwards.

It becomes very clear that teaching styles have been perceived differently by researchers. However, some similarities can be extracted from the model presented earlier. Grasha (1994) and Benzie (1998) have considered the 'facilitator' as one of the teaching styles in their models. Both Benzie (1998) and Pratt (1998) consider teaching styles across a spectrum ranging from teacher-centred to learner-centred approaches.

In addition to that, these researchers have thought that learning styles are important because they help the teacher to determine their learners' learning preferences and adjust their teaching style accordingly. Teachers should engage in a process of self-reflection to decide on what works best for learners and make constant revisions.

2.9 The Relationship between Teaching Styles and Learning Styles

Teachers' and learners' behaviours in the classroom clearly reflect their own beliefs and value about learning. Learners' behaviours provide insights into the ways they perceive, interact with, and respond to the environment in which learning takes place (Lage, et. al., 2000). Accordingly, teaching and learning styles are the behaviours or actions that teachers and learners exhibit in the learning exchange (Norland, 2002).

A considerable body of empirical research proposes that learners' learning style preferences have significant impact on their academic achievements to varying extents. They tend to learn better when they are taught in ways that match their way of learning

(Lovelace, 2005, p. 176). Students with learning preferences that match to the instructor's teaching style tend to have higher grades (Lenehan, Dunn, Ingham, Murray & Singer, 1994, p.39). It is claimed that students whose learning styles are allied with the teacher's teaching styles tend to retain information longer (Felder, 1996). They also able to apply knowledge effectively, and have more positive post-course attitudes toward the subject compare to their counterparts who experience mismatch between the learning and teaching styles (Felder & Henriques, 1995, Felder & Soloman, 1991).

In fact, students can be more motivated to learn and achieve higher when their learning preferences are taken into consideration when designing their lessons. In the same respect, Miller, et al., (2001, as cited in Brown, 2001, p.25) note that students' learning achievement improves when the learning and teaching styles match. Some other researchers, however, disagree and report no salient effect on learners' achievement when their learning preferences or styles have been matched to the instructor's teaching style (Garton et at. 1999, Huxland & Land, 2000; Keri, 2002).

The debate discussing the effect of the match seems to be never ending. Some studies point out that the match has no effect of on learners' performance. Researchers like Andrews (1990), Klavas (1994) and Dunn et al., (1995) claim that the mismatch between students' favoured learning styles and their learning environment might decrease their academic achievements.

Sabeh et al., (2011) claim that teachers should respond to different learning styles by accommodating some strategies that could promote learning. An alliance between students' learning styles and teachers' instructing styles produce a positive effect on students' academic achievement (Felder, 1988; Ester, 1994; Goodwin, 1995; Mcdonald, 1996; Felder,et al., 2002). Moreover, Stitt-Gohdes (2003) proposes that matching learning styles with teaching styles would also enhance learners' motivation significantly.

Most studies (such as Andrews,1990; Lenehan et al., 1994; Klavas,1994; Grasha-riechmann, 1994, 1996; Dunn et al.,1995; Garton et at. 1999, Huxland & Land, 2000; Keri, 2002; Felder et al., 2002) curried out on learning styles, teaching styles, and the match or mismatch between them emphasise the match of learning styles and teaching styles as significant parts of the teaching/learning process. They agree that the mismatch may negatively affect learning, motivation, attitude and achievement. When teaching style and learning styles mismatch, serious negative effects take place (Dunn et al., 1995). Learners whose learning preferences are not understood by the teacher or not matched with the style of the instructor tend to be demotivated, inattentive, depressed regarding their

studies and low achievers (Felder & Spurlin, 2005). In the same vein, Reid (1995) proposes two major hypotheses about learning styles in EFL/ESL classrooms. The first hypothesis suggests that all learners have their own learning styles, weaknesses and strengths. The second hypothesis proposes that a mismatch between the learning style of learners and the teaching style of teachers leads to failure, frustration or demotivation in the learning/teaching process.

Many researchers believe that mismatches between teaching styles and learning styles occur frequently and influence learning, motivation and attitudes (Oxford, Hollaway & Horton-Murillo, 1992; Ehrman, 1996; Peacock, 2001). When learners are taught in a way that complements their learning characteristics, they become motivated to learn and achieve higher than others (Dunn and Dunn, 1979).

As learners have individual learning preferences known as styles, teachers also have preferred teaching style too. Teacher and learners should be aware of their individual preferences and the effect of these styles on the learning process. For that reason, it is highly important that teachers identify their teaching styles as well their learners' learning style and try to match between them.

Effective teaching, according to Acero (2000), is the one built on the psychology of learning wherein the student is the centre of the learning process. The nature of the students, the nature of the learning process and the laws that govern its operation determine the teacher's type of instruction. Effective teaching also strives to meet individual differences as learners hold different learning potentials.

It has been also indicated that no significant relationship exist between pupils achievements and the match of teaching and learning styles. Students' learning styles have no effect on their academic performance (Tucker, 1998; Stahl, 1999; Desmedt & Valcke, 2003; Aragon et al., 2001). After reviewing the literature, we found that some researchers believe in the relationship between the match of teaching and learning style and learners' motivation and academic achievement while others deny any relationship to exist between motivation and achievement with the match of teaching and learning styles.

2.10 A Brief Account on Grasha's Integrated Model of Teaching and Learning Styles (1996)

Earlier research works highlighted the importance of matching teaching and learning styles after determining them. However, numerous aspects were not covered and remained unaddressed. As long as EFL context is concerned, most of the studies have been conducted using Reid's (1987) inventory. The latter attempts to determine group and individual learning styles by identifying students as auditory, visual, kinaesthetic, and tactile. The teaching style of the teacher has been determined using the same inventory (Reid, 1987).

The present study draws from the Grasha-Riechmann Learning Styles Scale (Grasha-Riechmann, 1996) and Teaching Styles Inventory (Grasha-Riechmann, 1994). The Learning Styles Scale is based on students' perceptions concerning actual classroom activities and interactions between students and teachers rather than an assessment of personality or cognitive traits. The match between teaching and learning styles may be achieved when teachers balance their instructional methods and accommodate their learners' learning styles (Felder & Henriques, 1995; Peacock, 2001).

The integrated model of teaching and learning styles was developed due to some dissatisfaction with certain aspects of current conceptions of teaching and learning style. According to Grasha (1996, pp. 151-152), the areas of dissatisfaction include the following points:

- ✓ Most contemporary approaches tended to emphasize either the styles of teachers or those of learners. While useful in their own right, it became clear to me that they only offered a one-sided point of view. The relationship between the styles of teachers and students needed to be explored.

- ✓ The models that accounted for the styles of both teachers and students were largely descriptive and mildly prescriptive. They did not specify how various styles of teaching could be adopted or modified or the conditions under which it was appropriate to employ a given style. And in some cases, people were not seen as having a great deal of flexibility in varying their styles. Because the dominant preference was pervasive, those subordinate to it could be tinkered with and enhanced, but they always remained in the background. Teachers had to rely on their dominate preferences and seek ways to accommodate differences between their styles and those of their students

✓ Grasha (1996) wanted a model that is also provided for stretching the styles of students and teachers. Matching student and teacher styles up to a point provides a certain amount of satisfaction for both parties. Unfortunately, when carried to extreme, matching styles can lead to boredom and satisfaction with the status quo.

✓ He wanted an approach that was clearly grounded in the classroom. Some approaches use a general assessment of personality that is then related to the classroom. I wanted to assess style using a more direct link. That is, both the formal measures of teacher and student styles, and the characteristics that emerged from them, needed to be grounded in classroom experiences.

Because of the above mentioned reasons, Grasha (1996) has developed the integrated model of teaching and learning style. He claims:

> My goals were to describe the stylistic qualities of teachers and students, to show how they related to each other, and to offer suggestions for how this information could be used to enhance the nature and quality of classroom experiences. (p. 152)

In addition to what have been stated by Grasha (1996), the researcher has opted for Grasha's Integrated Model of Teaching and Learning (1996) as the basis for this study because it represents a comprehensive model that represents both teaching and learning styles in consistent parts that could be measured and analysed thoroughly. Moreover, the surveys (GRLSS/GRTSI) are in fact user friendly and the results can simply be interpreted, besides its feasibility to be implemented easily in the classroom setting by teachers who are not specialised researchers.

We have selected Grasha's model (1996) for our study also because of the validity and reliability of the scales that have been successfully implemented in previous studies and proved to be valid and reliable across a variety of educational settings(Baykul et al., 2010; Vaughn & Baker, 2001; Yazici, 2005; Novac, Shah, Wilson, Lawson & Salzman, 2006; Charkins, O'Toole & Wetzel 2014). More importantly, the motive behind our selection of this model is that it has been classified by Coffield et al., (2004), who have studied and analysed comprehensively thirteen (13) among seventy one (71) learning styles models to examine their efficiency, as an approach that focuses on how personal attributes (such as motivation) influence learning, one of our main interests in this research work.

Furthermore, when reviewing the literature on learning styles, we have found that Grasha (1996) does not limit himself to cognitive or psychological aspects of learning styles. However, he considers learning styles as social interactions and defines them as different roles students have in interaction with classmates, teachers and course content (Grasha, 1996). Also, learning styles are not bipolar or dichotomies suggested on the basis that one trait governs the way learners behave or learn. In contrast, Grasha-Riechmann (1996) learning styles are presented in a form of clusters wherein more than one characteristic is taking part which seems to be more logical than holding only one definite learning style. Learning styles and teaching styles are not defined as eternal definite traits, rather, they are a set of characteristics that evolve and change over time and over situations. This can clearly explain learners' social interaction and behaviour patterns in the classroom.

In addition to that, we have opted for Grasha integrated model of teaching and learning (1996) because it has not been tackled in Algeria before. Almost all the studies undertaken in the field of learning styles have used models that are sensory-based (visual, auditory, kinaesthetic) but not social-based model as Grasha's (1996). Therefore, we intended to study this area from a different angle.

2.11 The Elements of Grasha's Integrated Model of Teaching and Learning Styles (1996)

The model is suggested on the basis of students' responses to classroom activities. Accordingly, learning styles can be identified by social and emotional dimensions like attitudes toward learning, interaction with teachers and classmates. In this definition of learning styles, communicative and interactive aspects of styles in the classroom are emphasized (Grasha, 1996).

2.11.1 Learning styles.

Grasha (1996) categorises learning styles into six types: Independent, Avoidant, Collaborative, Dependent, Competitive and Participant.

➢ **Independent**

Independent learners are those students who like to think for themselves and are confident in their learning abilities. They prefer to learn the content that they feel is

important and would prefer to work alone on course projects than with other students. Learners develop skills as self-initiated, self-directed learners, yet, they may become somewhat deficient in collaborative skills. They also might fail to consult with others or to ask for help when it is needed

➢ Avoidant

Avoidant learners are not enthusiastic about learning content and attending class. They do not participate with students and teachers in the classroom. They are uninterested and overwhelmed by what goes on in class. Avoidant learners are able to avoid the tension and anxiety of taking serious steps to change their lives. Learners with style have a decreased performance rate compared to other styles and this probably keeps them from setting productive goals.

➢ Collaborative

Collaborative learners are typically the students who feel they can learn by sharing ideas and talents. They cooperate with teachers and like to work with others. These learners can develop skills for working in groups and teams. Nevertheless, learners may depend too much on others and sometimes they are not able to work alone.

➢ Dependent

Dependent learners show little intellectual curiosity and learn only what is required. They view the teacher and peers as sources of structure and support and look to authority figures for specific guidelines on what to do. Learners with this style can manage their anxiety and obtain clear directions. However, it is difficult to for them develop autonomy and self-direction skills.

➢ Competitive

Competitive learners are those who learn materials in order to perform better than others in the class. These students prefer to compete with other students in a course for the rewards that are offered. They like to be the centre of attention and to receive recognition for their accomplishments in class. Competitive style motivates students to keep up and to set goals for learning. However, less competitive students may be turned off, in addition to the fact that, it may hinder learners to appreciate and to learn collaborative skills.

> ➢ **Participant**

These learners enjoy going to class and take part in as much of the course activities as possible. They are eager to do as much of the required and optional course requirements as they can. Participant learners get the most out of every classroom experience. They may do too much or put others' needs ahead of their own.

2.11.1.1 The characteristics of Grasha-Riechmann learning styles (1996).

Grash-Riechmann (1996) learning styles are considered to be a mixture or a blend of more than one learning style within every learner. It is very important to know that all six styles, ideally, would be in harmonic balance, however, some qualities may be more prominent than others.

When teachers have adequate knowledge about their learners' learning styles, they can easily diversify their instructional process and enrich their teaching style to respond to learners' needs. Grasha (1996, pp. 170-1-2) indicated some characteristics to his learning styles:

- Opposite to the original formulation that suggested the six dimensions to be bipolar or dichotomies (i.e., Competitive-Collaborative; Avoidant-Participant; Dependent-Independent), it quickly became apparent that the Competitive-Collaborative and Dependent-Independent dimensions were not the opposites of each other.

- Learners' preferred learning style can be affected by the way the teacher structures the class. For example, in a lecture, students tend to be more dependent and competitive whereas they are collaborative and participant in courses that emphasise group processes and learner-centred orientation.

- Grasha-Riechmann learning styles are found to be susceptible to situational influence. For that reason, teachers have three options for dealing with them:

➢ Instructional processes can be designed to accommodate particular styles.

➢ Instructional processes can be designed to provide creative mismatches in the styles students possess.

➢ A variety of instructional processes can be used so that students are exposed to methods that accommodate as well as provide "creative mismatches" with their preferred learning styles.

2.11.2 Teaching styles.

Teaching styles are divided into five categories, which describe teachers as authority, expert, facilitator, personal model and delegator. Grasha (1996, p. 153) claims:

> While it might appear tempting to place teachers into one of five boxes, my initial observations suggested that such attempts at parsimony were premature. Instead, it quickly became apparent that everyone who teaches possesses each of the five teaching styles to varying degrees. In effect, each individual style was like a different colour on an artist's palette.

He further points out that he did not discover the five styles but he has catalogued what was already included in research. Teaching styles can be blended together just like colours on the palette. Teachers may use more than one style. Out of the five teaching styles, four combinations or clusters have been put forward by Grasha. The order of the styles reflects the perceived importance of that style in the blend.
Grasha (1996, p. 153) describes these styles as follow:

➢ **Expert**

The Expert teachers possess knowledge and expertise that students need. They strive to maintain status as an expert among students by displaying detailed knowledge and by challenging students to enhance their competence. Experts are also concerned with transmitting information and insuring that students are well prepared. Individuals with this teaching style show and possess information, knowledge, and skills, yet, their overuse of displaying knowledge can be intimidating to less experienced students.

➢ **Formal Authority**

Teachers with formal authority teaching style possess high status among learners due to their knowledge and their role as a faculty member. They are concerned with providing positive and negative feedback, establishing learning goals, expectations, and

rules of conduct for students. Formal authority teachers are also concerned with the correct, acceptable, and standard ways to do things and with providing students with the structure they need to learn. They focus on clear expectations and acceptable ways of doing things, however, a strong investment in this style can lead to rigid, standardized, and less flexible ways of managing students and their concerns.

> **Personal Model**

Personal model teachers believe in "teaching by personal example" and establish a prototype for how to think and behave. They Oversee, guide, and direct by showing how to do things. They encourage students to observe and then to imitate the instructor's approach. Personal model teachers emphasise direct observation and following a role model. Nevertheless, the problem lies in the fact that some teachers may believe their approach is the best way which may lead some students to feel inadequate if they cannot live up to such expectations and standards.

> **Facilitator**

Teachers as facilitators emphasise the personal nature of teacher-student interactions. They guide and direct students by asking questions, exploring options, suggesting alternatives, and encouraging them to develop criteria to make informed choices. Their overall goal is to develop in students the capacity for independent action, initiative, and responsibility. Facilitators work with students on projects in a consultative way and try to provide as much support and encouragement as possible. Facilitators are generally flexible. They focus on students' needs and goals, and the willingness to explore options and alternative courses of action, but this style is often time consuming and is sometimes employed when a more direct approach is needed.

> **Delegator**

This style is concerned with developing students' capacity to function in an autonomous fashion. Students work independently on projects or as part of autonomous teams. The teachers are available at the request of students as a resource person. Teachers who are delegators help students to perceive themselves as independent learners but sometimes, they may misread student's readiness for independent work which makes some students feel anxious when given autonomy.

2.12 The Association between Teaching Styles and Learning Styles

Grasha (1996) notes that individuals do not have exclusively one learning style, but rather a combination of learning styles. He develops four learning style clusters using the six categories of his learning style scale. They are: cluster1: Dependent-Avoidant-Participant-Competitive; cluster 2: Participant-Dependent-Collaborative; cluster 3: Collaborative-Participant-Independent; cluster 4: Independent-Collaborative-Participant. Grasha (1996) also develops four teaching styles cluster, namely: cluster 1: Expert/Formal Authority; cluster 2: Personal Model/Expert/Formal Authority; cluster 3: Facilitator/Personal Model/Expert; cluster 4: Delegator/Facilitator/Expert.

The clusters of learning styles are associated with the clusters of teaching styles. Teaching styles that are compatible with particular learning styles are matched to help reinforce the learning styles of students within that cluster. Moreover, the "teaching and learning styles are listed in the order of their importance for a particular combination of styles" (Grasha, 1996, p. 177).

Corresponding to the teaching styles clusters, it may be noted that **clusters 1** and **2** (cluster 1: Expert/Formal Authority; cluster 2: Personal Model/Expert/Formal Authority) are teacher-centred whereas **clusters 3** and **4** (cluster 3: Facilitator/Personal Model/Expert; cluster 4: Delegator/Facilitator/Expert) are learner-centred. Numerous factors determine the appropriate cluster for a classroom environment. They include the teacher's response to students' learning styles, the students' capability to handling the material in the course, their need for the teacher to directly control classroom tasks and their willingness to build and maintain relationships with their students (Grasha, 1996).

Many teachers would consider it difficult to modify or change their teaching styles to respond to learners' needs. At the beginning of the any teaching/learning process, teachers are invited to make a clear understanding of their learners' learning styles. A teacher would not use the teaching styles of **clusters 3** or **4** in course where the students were largely dependent and competitive. In the same vein, using teaching styles of cluster it would not be appropriate for students with independent or collaborative learning styles. Therefore, learners' learning styles impact greatly teachers' teaching styles. Learning styles would suggest to teachers which instructional methods are successful and which ones are to be adjusted or modified (Grasha, 1996).

In explaining his integrated model of teaching and learning styles, Grasha (1996) also claims that for effective classrooms, teachers need to take into consideration four main factors that would enable them to implement the four clusters of teaching styles. First, teacher's sensitivity to learning styles of students; this includes teacher's willingness to integrate information about learners' learning styles into instruction. Second, the capability of students to handle course demands; this factor covers learners' knowledge of the course, their ability to assume responsibility, and motivation. Third, the need for teacher to, directly control classroom tasks; control indicates teacher's ability to organise the course and its objectives; maintain control over classroom process, and monitor learners' development. Fourth, the willingness of the teacher to build/maintain relationships which include encouragement of interaction and communication, assistance, positive feedback, building rapport, and cooperation.

Cluster 1

Primary Teaching Styles: Expert/Formal Authority

Primary Learning Styles: Dependent/Participant/Competitive

Teachers in **cluster 1** who show the Expert and Formal Authority teaching style or blend work best with learners who lack sufficient knowledge of the content and those possess more dependent, participant, and competitive learning styles. Expert and formal authority teachers' instruction is more effective when teachers are willing to control classroom tasks. These teachers do neither focus on building relationships with learners nor need them to strengthen their relationships with each other. This cluster of teaching styles is played out mostly in large classes and particularly in lectures.

Cluster 2

Primary Teaching Styles: Personal Model/Expert/Formal Authority

Primary Learning Styles: Participant/Dependent/Collaborative

In **cluster 2**, the prevailing blend of teaching styles includes the Personal Model, Expert, and Formal Authority. This cluster is suitable more in classes where learners possess more knowledge than they would in a lecture class because they will frequently have to show what they know. Learners who possess Participant, Dependent, and Collaborative learning styles would benefit more from this teaching style. This blend is appropriate in learning environments where coaching and following the examples of role models are prominent. Teachers must develop relationships and focus on influencing how learners use the acquired knowledge and skills that are taught.

Cluster 3

Primary Teaching Styles: Facilitator/Personal Model/Expert

Primary Learning Styles: Collaborative/Participant/Independent

The third cluster includes Facilitator, Personal Model, and Expert teaching styles. Collaborative, Participant, and Independent learning styles are appropriately matched to this teaching styles cluster. Learners are required to be responsible to take initiatives as well as to be willing to acquire appropriate content. The focus should be put on developing and practicing skills like critical and creative thinking and the ability to work with others. Teachers work to facilitate learning and develop a professional and friendly relationship with students.

Cluster 4

Primary Teaching Styles: Delegator/Facilitator/Expert

Primary Learning Styles: Independent/Collaborative/Participant

Delegator, Facilitator, and Expert blend is the fourth cluster of teaching styles that work best with Independent, Collaborative, and Participant learning styles. Learners possessing these learning styles are willing to take initiatives and show responsibility for their own learning. This cluster use highly student-centred teaching methods where teachers believes in the independent learning and give up direct control over how learners engage in various tasks and their outcomes. Teachers should empower their learners and build rapport with them. S/he should be approachable to facilitate obstacles and act as a resource person. Learners' relationship is encouraged in independent study or collaborative project.

2.13 Teaching Methods Associated with Each Cluster of Teaching and Learning Styles

It should be mentioned that the teaching methods below are associated specific blend of teaching styles presented in the four clusters. The teaching method, the teaching styles and the learning styles are related in a way that makes the selection of any one has an implication for the appearance of the other. For instance, if a teacher wants to deliver a lecture in a traditional way, the use of the Expert/ Formal authority blend is evoked alongside with the development of Dependent, Participant and Competitive Learning Styles and so forth. Before selecting or modifying the instructional methods, teachers should identify their instructional goals and the learning styles of students they wish to

encourage. Then, the main course objectives could be obtained by teaching in ways that either match to the learners' preferred learning styles or provide creative mismatch. The table below displays the main teaching (instructional) methods associated with each cluster of teaching and learning styles.

Table 2.7

Teaching Methods Associated with Each Cluster of Teaching and Learning Styles (Grasha, 1996, p. 234)

Cluster 1	Cluster 2
Primary Teaching Styles Expert/Formal Authority **Primary Learning Styles** Dependent/Participant/Competitive	**Primary Teaching Styles** Personal Model/Expert/Formal Authority **Primary Learning Styles** Participant/Dependent/Competitive

• Exams/Grades Emphasized
• Guest Speakers/Interviews
• Lectures
• Mini-Lectures + Triggers
• Teacher-Centred Questioning
• Teacher-Centred Discussions
• Term Papers
• Tutorials
• Technology-Based Presentations
	• Role Modelling by Illustration
	  - Discussing Alternate Approaches
	  - Sharing Thought Processes
	  Involved in Obtaining Answers
	  - Sharing Personal Experiences
	• Role Modelling by Direct Example
	  -Demonstrating Ways of Thinking/Doing Things
	  - Having Students Emulate Teacher
	• Coaching/Guiding Students

Cluster 3	**Cluster 4**
Primary Teaching Styles Facilitator/Personal Model/Expert **Primary Learning Styles** Collaborative/Participant/Independent	**Primary Teaching Styles** Delegator/Facilitator/Expert **Primary Learning Styles** Independent/Collaborative/Participant
• Case Studies • Cognitive Map Discussion • Critical Thinking Discussion • Fishbowl Discussion • Guided Readings • Key Statement Discussions • Kineposium • Laboratory Projects • Problem Based Learning - Group Inquiry - Guided Design - Problem Based Tutorials • Role Plays/Simulations • Roundtable Discussion • Student Teacher of the Day	• Contract Teaching • Class Symposium • Debate Formats • Helping Trios • Independent Study/Research • Jigsaw Groups • Laundry List Discussions • Learning Pairs • Modular Instruction • Panel Discussion • Position Papers • Practicum • Round Robin Interviews • Self Discovery Activities • Small Group Work Teams • Student Journals

In accordance with the table above, Grasha (1995) claims that teaching style, learning style, and classroom processes (methods) are interdependent. For example, the use of the first cluster Expert/Formal Authority is best successful in teacher-centred contexts. The Dependent/Participant/Competitive blend of learning styles is reinforced with the traditional lecture-discussion method of teaching is encouraged in the classroom. Some other teaching methods may include lectures, mini-lectures and triggers, teacher-centred questioning/ discussions, term papers, tutorials and technology-based presentations.

Not entirely different than the first cluster, cluster 2 incorporates the use of Personal Model/Expert/Formal Authority teaching style. This one delineates the use of methods that are more based on Role Modelling such as sharing thought processes involved in obtaining answers, sharing personal experiences, demonstrating ways of thinking/doing things, having students emulate teacher and coaching/guiding students. Classroom with this style entails learners who are mainly Participant/Dependent/Competitive.

Cluster 3 is more learner-centred. It highlighted by the use of Facilitator/Personal Model/Expert teaching styles and Collaborative/Participant/Independent learning styles. Among the many teaching methods associated with this cluster critical thinking discussion, guided readings, laboratory projects, problem based learning, role plays/simulations, and roundtable discussion. As noticed, these methods encourage learners' involvement in the learning process as active participants who construct their knowledge autonomously and not just as passive receivers of knowledge.

Cluster 4 integrates the Delegator/Facilitator/Expert teaching styles that are best suitable for learners who are Independent/Collaborative/Participant. Just like Cluster 3, this cluster also is more seen in learner-centred classrooms. The teaching methods associated to this cluster include class symposium, debate formats, independent study/research, learning pairs, panel discussion, self discovery activities, small group work teams, student journals. Accordingly, this cluster is based on learners' as autonomous and independent leaders of their own learning. They search, inquire, investigate, discover and discuss to find answers. Teachers are there to guide and provide help and assistance to learners if they need but they are not the source of knowledge.

Grasha (1996, p. 229) also mentions that teachers must be concerned in helping learners acquire and retain information, concentrate and attend to course material, think critically, become motivated learners, and become self-directed learners who take initiative

and responsibility for their learning. These instructional concerns can be managed in various ways by using the integrated model.

The integrated model concentrates on active learning processes. Active learning can be seen in the teaching methods that encourage Independent and Collaborative Learning Styles. These styles play a critical role in making students work independently or with others (if necessary) to obtain needed information.

Using the different teaching styles in the model, help learners acquire knowledge in various ways. The variety and novelty inherent in doing this encourages students to pay attention and it motivates them. Teaching with a variety of styles do not only enhances learners' motivation but also helps them to see content in different contexts which improves the chances that the knowledge will later transfer to new situations. Students become more critical thinkers about the issues they face when they are exposed to different teaching styles and more self-directed learners when those learners encounter the Facilitator and Delegator styles of teaching in particular. Teachers may conduct some actions that help them improve learners' attention, critical thinking, retention, motivation, and self-direction (Grasha, 1996).

This has been a short descriptive account of Grasha (1996) integrated model of teaching and learning styles. He has developed his model to help teachers manage their instructional methods and rethink their teaching style with high consideration to the learners learning style. Different from other learning and teaching styles models, the integrated model is a practical guide that would benefit teachers and learners within the classroom context. It gives detailed description to numerous class tasks, activities and instructional materials that can be done in the classroom. More than a mere description of personal traits or behaviours, the integrated model represents context-related solution to most style difficulties encountered by teachers and learners.

2.14 The Relationship between Motivation and Learning Styles

Teachers usually focus on the teaching materials in any learning situation. Providing different inputs and practices can make instructions interesting to students. Along with providing suitable tools, one of the most important initial tasks is the task of knowing students. When teachers know their students' needs, they can decide to do some activities and avoid others. They need to consider their student's individual learning styles and

preferences, their past experiences in learning language, their linguistic attitudes and their personalities.

According to Kirby (1979), the term "learning style" came into use when researchers began looking for ways to combine course presentation or teaching methods and materials to match the needs of each learner. A considerable amount of research (Clement et al., 1994, Olshatin, Shohamy, Kemp & Chatow, 1990; Pintrich, Roeser, & De Groot, 1994) have found that teaching styles, teacher attitudes, means of assessment, materials, individual and group work alongside with other factors have a direct influence on students' achievement and motivation.

The relationship between learning styles and motivation received some attention in the past (Baker, 2004; Garcia-Ros & Perez-Gonzalez, 2011). For example, a relationship between deep level learning (Ames & Archer, 1988) and intrinsic motivation has been found. To the best of our knowledge, the impact of learning styles on extrinsic motivation has not been studied yet. According to Corder (1981), if there is motivation, the success of learning a second language is guaranteed. Knowing students' learning styles helps teachers to understand the variety of learners' preferences to be aware of when design materials or developing activities so that to match most of the styles in the classroom. Teachers need also to help their learners discover their predominant learning style because this will help them to facilitate their own learning process. To sum up, when students are conscious of their learning styles, they will use strategies that help them reduce stress and anxiety meanwhile develop feelings of comfort, interest and motivation.

2.15 Improving Motivation by Matching Teaching Styles with Learning Styles

The match and mismatch appear to be a rather controversial topic in research circles as there are research findings which support the idea of matching, and those that do not. Although the area of learning styles has received much attention and research, the potential relationship between teaching and learning styles still lacks experimental and empirical evidence. Reviewing the literature, however, we have found that students learn best when they are taught in methods compatible with their learning (Andrews,1990; Lenehan et al., 1994; Klavas,1994; Grasha-Riechmann, 1994, 1996; Dunn et al.,1995; Garton et at. 1999, Huxland & Land, 2000; Keri, 2002; Felder et al., 2002) styles. Matching teaching and learning styles provide an ideal situation for effective learning

(McMahon, 1999, p. 123). When teachers try to accommodate all the learning styles by changing or modifying their own style and instructional strategies, they provide various tasks and activities to meet the demands of different learning styles. Thus, all learners will have tasks that appeal to their learning styles.

In the same vein, matching teaching and learning styles would provide a learning environment that is comfortable and suitable for effective learning. Nevertheless, the match may not necessarily be the key to effective learning as developing student's learning through exposure to different and opposing strategies is believed to result in a more competent student.

Many researchers find that the alliance of learning and teaching styles plays an important role in empowering students to maximize their educational experience, to improve achievement and to increase motivation. Reid (1995) assumes that any incompatibility between learning styles and teaching styles leads to failure, discouragement and demotivation. Harmonizing teaching styles with learning styles provides all students with the same opportunity in the classroom and develops learner self-consciousness. Matching teaching and learning styles is considered as an element of the learner-centred classroom and needs-based instruction (Landrum & McDuffie, 2010).

Supporting learner-centred classrooms and adopting learning style approach in the classroom improves student interest and motivation to learn, primarily because it allows for alternative teaching strategies designed to accommodate a diverse population of learners (Larkin-Hein, 2000, p.12).

Incompatibility between teaching and learning styles is likely to result in student boredom, discouragement, poor test performance, low motivation, shattered self-esteem, and decisions to quit the course or program (Oxford et al., 1991, p. 117). On the other hand, matching teaching and learning styles can help learners to positively react to instructional methods, encourage better collaboration between students, and reduces classroom management issues.

Matching teaching styles to learning styles appear to have been supported by many studies that involve different types of instruction but all appeal to learners' learning styles. Through teacher and student co-operation in identifying the student's learning style and matching to these styles, learners can learn more effectively (Garland & Martin, 2005, p. 77).

In EFL teaching, mismatches often occur and result in severe effects on the quality of students' learning and their attitude toward the subject. (Felder & Henriques, 1995, p. 21). Examining the effects of using individualised, learning style based homework prescriptions on the achievement and attitudes, Minotti (2005, pp. 67 – 89) reports increased levels of achievement and higher attitude test scores after treatment.

Dornyei (2005, p. 156) suggests some ways for matching teaching and learning styles:

➢ Teachers can modify the learning tasks used in the class.

➢ Identifying students' learning style and recognising the power of understanding their language learning styles for making learning more effective.

➢ Identifying teachers' teaching style.

➢ Encouraging students to stretch their styles and incorporate the previously resisted approaches to learning.

➢ Empowering students learning by teaching them the learning strategies that would suit their styles.

Sharp mismatch often happens between the teacher's and learners' styles leading to serious problems such as: demotivation and low academic achievement. Types of mismatch are presented in the following list (Dornyei, 2005, p.152):

➢ Mismatch between the students' learning styles and strategies and methods, a conflict that has been dramatically termed as a style war.

➢ Mismatch between the students' learning styles and the syllabus. Such as when the later does not cover grammar systematically although analytic learners would not do that.

➢ Mismatch between the students' learning styles and the language task, such as when visual learners participate in a task that involves receiving auditory input.

➢ Mismatch between the students' learning styles and their beliefs about learning. For instance, when an analysis oriented learners believes that their way of learning is the most effective learning method.

➢ Mismatch between the students' learning styles and strategies and their abilities.

It is highly important to know that the most serious undesirable side effect from the use of learning style concepts is that styles are often considered to be fixed by the teacher,

and this would limit the students' ability to learn in ways that do not fit their style (McKeachie, 1996). It may also be worthwhile to expand learners' thinking by deliberately setting them to work outside their preferred styles because individual differences may change over time. To facilitate instruction, teachers can prepare different teaching methods and activities to alter to them from time to time. As Grasha (1996) assumes, some mismatches between students' learning styles and teachers' teaching styles can turn, if managed appropriately by the teacher, into creative mismatch that would also provide learners with various situations.

2.16 Conclusion

Virtually, it becomes evident that the issue of matching teaching styles with learning styles is still a controversial topic that needs more thorough research. Teachers are required to be aware that learners might not have a fixed learning style. In a nutshell, we can say that matching teaching styles with learning styles is believed to have positive impact on motivation and academic achievement. In this chapter, some theoretical concepts in the EFL classroom have been presented. Definitions of teaching and learning have been provided alongside with their main approaches. We have also reviewed the literature on learning styles and teaching styles and their major models with much focus on Grasha's Integrated Model of Teaching and Learning Styles (1996) being the core of the present research work. In addition to that, it was necessary to speak about the match between teaching/ learning styles and its effect on learners' motivation from different researchers' points of view to make clear the area under investigation. After reviewing one of the basic concepts in this study, namely, the match between teaching and learning styles, we need to shed light on the context in which this study is carried out, Algerian secondary school. Thus, the following chapter will be about English teaching/learning in the Algerian secondary school.

Chapter Three

Chapter Three: The EFL Teaching and Learning Situation in the Algerian Secondary School

Chapter Three: The EFL Teaching and Learning Situation in the Algerian Secondary School

3.1 Introduction

This chapter sheds light on the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language (EFL) within the Algerian educational system. It attempts to provide an overview on the EFL teaching and learning situation in the Algerian secondary school. Due to the escalating importance of the English language in the world, fundamental measures have been undertaken by the Algerian authorities to foster EFL status in the educational system and curriculum reconsiderations have become a prerequisite for success and advancement in many fields. This chapter starts with a historical overview in which an account of the educational system's reforms has been given to clarify the main factors that have profoundly influenced the policy of foreign languages teaching in the country. Then, it provides a brief discussion on the status of English in education and highlights the major approaches applied to teach English in the secondary school.

3.2 A Historical Overview

The widespread of the English language in the different fields worldwide made it a necessity for Algeria to rethink the principles of its educational system in a way that corresponds to the new international requirements. English enjoying a higher status than other languages in the world has imposed itself as a worldwide means of communication, knowledge, and science as well as a key to access to the global affairs including economy and politics. In addition to that, language is a means that facilitates people's interaction and understanding that, in return, promotes tolerance and respect for the other who has different culture and values (Lyons, 1981).

At the beginning of this chapter, it is highly important to give a historical overview of English language teaching. In general, the teaching of foreign languages in Algeria cannot be taken out of its historical context. The Algerian linguistic background is complex and rich due to many factors. Besides Arabic, the first language of Algerians, French had

enjoyed a superior status as a result to colonisation. The use of French had substituted Arabic for many years. In addition to Arabic and French, Tamazigth (Berber) and its various versions were also used. In this regard, Tabory and Tabory (1987, p. 64) claim:

> [t]he Algerian situation is complex, as it is at a crossroad of tensions between French, the colonial language, and Arabic, the new national language; Classical Arabic versus colloquial Algerian Arabic; and the various Berber dialects versus Arabic. The lessons from the Algerian situation may be usefully applied to analogous situations by states planning their linguistic, educational and cultural policies.

The use of French language had resulted from the French colonisation that imposed the use of French and attempted to substitute Arabic with French. It had tried to diminish the Algerian identity and culture mainly for political reasons. The French policy therefore aimed at controlling and subduing the country by what is called by linguists as subtractive bilingualism. The latter has been referred to as the situation "when the second language and culture are acquired with pressure to replace or demote the first language, a subtractive form of bilingualism" (Baker, 2006, p.74).

However, soon after the independence, the French dominance has decreased dramatically with the claims for the use of Arabic in what is called Arabisation. The Algerian educational system started to use Modern Standard Arabic (hereafter MSA) instead of French. It was by 1973 that the curriculum has been arabicised wherein the teaching of French was restricted. The government started to train Algerian teachers to use newly suggested teaching methods, and many teachers from Middle East countries had been recruited to teach (Benrabah, 2005). In late 1980's, almost 3.8 million pupils attended primary school with about 2.1 million students were enrolled in secondary schools (Mami, 2013).

The post-colonial period was a very difficult stage in all the domains and particularly the educational field. In this regard, Mostari (2004) claims that the educational profile of Algerian society changed dramatically with independence, when most French and other Europeans left. As the majority of technicians and administrators were Europeans, Algeria was left with a shortage of highly-skilled and educated people. In addition to that the existence of linguistic variety in Algeria created a language crisis, either political or

educational Lakhal-Ayat (2008). This had also given rise to outcries wherein everyone claimed monopoly on the language issue: Arabisation, French-Arabic bilingualism, the English language status, never reaching consensus.

As a matter of fact, the educational system in Algeria has been primarily dictated by political power. We could say that as far as education is concerned, the Algerian educational system witnessed three major phases.

At the very beginning, education was mainly influenced by the French legacy with French being the language of instruction amid a gradual use of Arabic language. In 1962, the newly independent country Algeria started a policy of reinforcing the use of MSA and eradicating French in most of the fields. After bringing many Arabic-speaking teachers to reinforce the teaching and learning of Arabic at the expanse of French. The Algerian government came to know that Arabisation could not be secured since thousands of French and Algerian French teachers were working according to the way they had been taught which corresponded to the French standards. In the same respect, higher-level education including newly created universities and high standard schools (Grandes écoles) were still dominated by the French model and mostly using the French language (Mami, 2013). This had given rise to a serious need for the introduction and reinforcement of MSA use and paved the way to the second phase, namely, Arabisation.

This phase represented the nationalist transition from the 1960's to the late 1990's during which MSA had been imposed in education. This period was known as Arabisation as mentioned earlier which referred to what is known in Arabic as Ta'rib. It is according to Benrabeh (2005):

> Ta'rib means the replacement of French by Arabic in all walks of life (education, administration, milieu, media, etc.) as well as the use of the latter language as an instrument for national unity and the affirmation of an identity that is exclusively Arab. (p.410)

The main aim of Arabisation is to have an educational system based on MSA as the medium of instruction and to eradicate the use of French. It also attempted to restore and reinforce the use of MSA as the national official language of Algeria not only in education but also in many fields including administration, government, media, justice, and physical environment. In fact, Arabisation policy was an affirmation that Algeria is an Arabo-

Islamic entity that needed to return to its original national Arabo-Islamic identity. It aimed also at substituting French in all the spheres where French was the sole medium of communication.

A hostile reaction towards all languages took place including French and other languages at this period. "The French language was not the only excluded language, but even Berber. The Arabic language was the official language not only in the education sector, all government papers; administration as well as media were obliged to conduct in Arabic" (Ennaji, 1991, pp. 17-18). Though the official declaration of using Arabic in education and in all other fields, French was still used in public places which reflects the government's ignorance to the linguistic diversity of the Algerians at time. Benrabah (2004, as cited in Rezig, 2011, p. 1329) states:

> Starting from 1962 the Algerian government that inherited the remnants of an education system focused on European content and conducted in a foreign language by foreign teachers, sought to gradually increase Arabic sessions in all levels and all subjects were taught in Arabic and there was a decrease in the amount of time for teaching French. This policy, of course favoured the national integrity and unity and religion.

However, it has been affirmed by the first president of Algeria Ahmed Benbella that Arabisation campaigns were not to eliminate the French language (Grandguillaume, 1983) and that at early schooling (1963), the official language (MSA) would be taught in parallel with French in primary school. In 1964, French was stated a second language. In 1965, the Algerian education leader claim for Pan-Arabist practices that were already started in the Middle East. Accordingly, "the teaching of history in the Sixth Grade was the first to be arabised both in form and content" (Benrabah, 2005, p. 422).

From 1966, History was taught in MSA and even the content has been subject to radical change. In this respect, Haouati (1995, as cited in Benrabah, 2005, p. 422) notes "for that particular year [1966], school children tackled history starting not from Antiquity but from the beginnings of Islam. These measures were symbolic of the new direction taken by the educational policy". Following this, MSA reached a significant status being the language of education for the first grades in the primary level at the beginning of the school year 1964-1965. Arabisation proceeded to increase till 1971 which was labelled the

'year of Arabisation' (Benrabah, 2005, p. 443) wherein the third and fourth grades were totally arabised at the primary level, and 20 Islamic high schools were created by the new Ministry of Islamic Education (Benrabah, 2005).

By 1975, the primary school was also completely arabised with French as a foreign language subject taught in at the fourth grade. From 1976 to 1979, MSA was the medium of instruction with French as a foreign language. This concerned all the subject matters being taught in schools in universities except for science and medicines (Vermeren, 2009). The process of Arabising the schools undergone different sages that are summarized in the tables below:

Table 3.1

The Status of Arabisation in Primary School (1973-1974) (adapted from Grandguillaume, 1983, p. 100).

Grade	Status of Arabisation
1st grade	Totally arabised
2nd grade	Totally arabised
3rd grade	Totally arabised with French as a foreign language
4th grade	Totally arabised with French as a foreign language
5th grade	1/3 of the subjects totally arabised with French as a foreign language
6th grade	1/3 of the subjects totally arabised with French as a foreign language

Table 3.2

Status of Arabisation in Intermediate School (1973-1974) (adapted from Grandguillaume, 1983, p. 100).

Grade	Status of Arabisation
1st grade 2nd grade 3rd grade	1/3 of the subjects were totally Arabised. The remaining 2/3 were bilingual. Scientific subjects were taught in French.
4th grade	All subjects were taught in Arabic, except mathematics, natural sciences and geography.

Table 3. 3

Status of Arabisation in Secondary School (1973/1974) (adapted from Grandguillaume, 1983, p. 100).

Grades	Humabities Stream	Mathematics and Science Stream
Premiére	Totally arabised	1/3 of the classes Arabised, 2/3 bilingual. Scientific subjects were taught in French
Seconde	Totally arabised	1/3 of the classes Arabised, 2/3 bilingual
Terminales	All subjects were totally arabised, except geography and mathematics	1/3 of the classes Arabised, 2/3 bilingual. Philosophy, geography and science subjects were taught in French.

From 1971, MSA was used instead of French as the medium of instruction in primary school (Benmoussat, 2003). Yet, French prevailed in many functional sectors, particularly industry, economy, and written mass-media. Nevertheless, the use of Arabic instead of French had been subject to a great debate because "the selection of Arabic in language planning in Algeria has always been considered as an anti-colonial act against French, which was solely taught at primary, middle, secondary and university levels from 1830 to 1962" (Derni, 2009, p. 285). For that, the application of Arabisation was believed to be a hasty hostile decision that lacked logical scientific planning. Arabisation, then represented a sort of dilemma to Algerians. Many people preferred French as a means of education while others regarded Arabic as the symbol of identity and called for the abolition of French and the reinforcement of Arabic and Islamic culture with much emphasis on Islam and on Arabic as the language of the Holly Quran (Benrabeh, 2007).

Serious problems appeared and many weaknesses led people to outrage. The educational system witnessed massive troubles that led to many flaws in education mainly in foreign languages. Algerian educationalists came to believe that they cannot do without including foreign language teaching in the educational system and they needed to improve and rethink their system in general.

The weaknesses in students' general learning and more specifically in foreign languages are attributed to the educational system flaws. Many students were emerging from secondary schools without an appropriate command of literary Arabic and functional French (Entellis, 1987). Not only that, but it seems to have been called into question based on criteria such as examination and results and educational wastage (Rezig, 2011).

Therefore, Arabisation policy had been criticised for creating a chaos in education and led the Algerian government to take serious measures towards bilingualism. Many educationalists claimed that the Arabic monolingual system that was implemented in the post-colonial period led education to a salient failure. The government held a whole schooling reformation.

As a matter of fact, foreign language teaching in Algeria had been radically dictated by political root. Since the French language was imposed to replace and subdue the native language for political reasons, it was clearly conceived that the use of French is detrimental. Unlike the undesirable French language inclusion in the educational system, English has apparently acquired a better position. English language in fact was not allied to colonialism or linguicism because the British did not seek to suppress the indigenous identity, language or culture. Nevertheless, English enjoys a favourable kind of additive bilingualism. The latter refers to the state where the addition of a second language and culture in unlikely to replace or displace the native language and culture (Lambert, 1980, as cited in Baker, 1993, p.57).

It has been proved that incorporating English in education was not only a mere reaction to the French colonial supremacy, but also a need to gain membership integration in the international community. English was the medium of modernisation, the key to doors of development in various domains as well as the world-wide language of communication.

The Algerian political decision to include English in the educational system was inspired by the powerful position English language possessed in the world international affairs and the necessity to adhere to the current changes. English language started to be taught as a compulsory subject in the Algerian middle and secondary school curriculum. By 1976, English had been taught at 3rd year middle school. The schooling system at that time consisted of a fusion of primary and middle school (Nine years: five years for the primary school and four years for the middle school) and secondary school (three years).

In the 1990's, MSA was part of the Algerian educational system and later at universities for social sciences as well as human sciences. In 1993, an emphasis on foreign languages teaching at an early age took place in order to improve foreign language learning. According to Benrabah (2013), primary school pupils who accessed grade four were given the opportunity to choose between French and English as the compulsory foreign language to be studied. A survey made by the Ministry of National Education followed this decision and its results showed that over 73% of parents and teachers agreed

with the maintenance of French as the first foreign language in school. Moreover, 71% preferred French to be taught at primary school while only 29% favoured English. These results were extremely unexpected. This experience lasted from 1993 to 1997. During this period, out of two million schoolchildren enrolled in the fourth grade, the total number of those who chose to study English was between 0.33% and 1.28% which was relatively insignificant (Benrabah, 2013).

The third phase started in early 2000's and knew many schooling reforms. Radical reforms started to take place after the Algerian policy makers have felt the urgent need to reform the educational sector which was doomed as described by President Abdelaziz Bouteflika (1999). It was the time for the government to re-evaluate the system of education and its languages policies. As a result, a massive educational reform took place in the three educational levels by the Ministry of National Education.

In 1999, the Algerian government started a series of reconsiderations to the educational policy especially regarding foreign languages. In this vain, President Bouteflika declared "Algeria does not belong to francophonia but there is no reason for us to have a frozen attitude towards the French language which taught us so many things and which at any rate opened (for us) the windows of the French culture" (Benrabah, 2007, p. 28).   In 2000, the government went through an entire evaluation of the curriculum with a great emphasis on foreign languages inclusion.

A national educational reform took place in 2002 attempting to reintroduce French as a foreign language into the second grade of primary education. One of the principal modifications in this reform was that English would be taught in the sixth grade (intermediate school), two grades earlier than in the past. Some subjects, as Sciences and Mathematics would be partly taught in French (Lakhal-Ayat, 2008). Soon after the previous reform, another one has been introduced in 2003. This latter aimed at reorganising the educational structures, revising school programmes and reworking teaching methods around a structure to provide quality of learning. Higher education also was subject to a major reform in 2004-2005, and new experience, the LMD system has started. This system made a radical change in the length of studies to hold degrees in three years for the License, two years for the Master, and three years for the Doctorate degree.

Most of the Algerian educational reforms involve three main measures including pedagogical reform, teacher training and the general reorganization of the educational sector. It should be mentioned that these reforms have been significant in one way or another. The pedagogical reform was important because accordingly key measures took

place such as the introduction of new course-books and the new syllabuses in all school subjects. Concerning teacher training, as well, a number of measures were conducted, for example, the implementation of the educational policy which enables teachers to familiarize with the contemporary methods. In addition to that, the reforms in the general reorganization of the education sector resulted also in some principal measures, for instance, teaching has been reconstructed through the generalization of the pre-school, the minimization of the primary school level duration into five years instead of six and the extension of the duration of the middle cycle into four years instead of three.

3.3   The Status of English in the Algerian School

Considering the role English plays in the world's different domains, it became mandatory for Algerians to learn English. In this respect, Kachru (1986) considers that "knowing English is like possessing the fabled Aladdin's lamp, which permits one to open, as it were, the linguistic gates to international business, technology, science and travel. In short, English provides linguistic power" (p. 1). For these reasons and others, English teaching has become a necessity. English gained it powerful status due to the scientific, technological, economic, industrial, and political monopoly the English speaking countries maintain over the globe. This power can be traced back to the 19th century when Britain dominated the world industry and trade (Miliani, 2000).

Algeria has realised that the crucial necessity for people to be able to speak and write in English in order to catch up with the advance which is taking place in all fields in the world. This will help them know about the world around them. Accordingly, the Algerian educational system has witnessed many reforms that all strive to modernise and promote education in general and foreign languages in particular. As a response to current giant status English language acquired in the world, the Ministry of National Education has announced a reform that entailed reconsideration of the English language teaching status in the curriculum in 2001. Consequently, English teaching has received much attention though still considered the second foreign in language the country besides French.

In fact, being the language of science, technology and development, English status in Algeria has evolved from being a second foreign language in the beginning of 90's to be defined as a first foreign language after the reform of 2000. Algeria came to recognise the salient role English plays in globalisation compared to French.

In a situation where the French language has lost much of its ground in the sociocultural and educational environments of the country; the introduction of English is being heralded as the magic solution to all possible ills-including economic, technological and education ones. (Miliani, 2000, p. 13).

In the recent educational reform in 2001, English has been introduced in the first year middle school and has lasted for seven years, four years in middle school and three years in secondary school. English language teaching in Algeria has always been in competition with French. However, English is used for professional communication, prestige status and modernisation. Teaching English has moved from second year middle school to first year beside the inclusion of English in all university specialities throughout the three years of License and in some universities to the second year Master. This is a clear indication that the Algerian government now is aware of the importance of English in scientific, technological, and cultural exchange.

In the reform of 2001, many aspects have been taken into consideration. To bring this reform to achieve its goals, a long process of syllabus design, textbooks evaluation, and new textbooks development along with the required accompanying documents took place. As a result to the implementation of this reform, a new teaching method has been brought to work. The CBA was adopted. Many teachers have received training workshops with inspectors to be informed about the aims of the reform and the objectives of approach. The CBA implementation in the Algerian schools had been a crucial interest in the new educational system in all the subject matters. All teachers were firmly called to work within the framework of this approach.

It should be mentioned that despite the interest English language receives in education, it still does not, unlike French, enjoy wide communicative consideration in the Algerian society. For that, one can say that English language use is still restricted to educational or professional purposes.

3.4   The Main Objectives of Teaching /Learning English in Algeria

As far as English language is concerned, most of Algerian learners lack the opportunity of using the language outside the classroom. Indeed, the Algerian educational policy tends to foster the teaching of English to impose it as first foreign language instead of the French language. As mentioned earlier, English is being taught starting from the 6th

grade that is 1st year middle and secondary schools as well as a foreign language subject in almost all of the Algerian universities. The major objectives of teaching EFL teaching and learning may be described as linguistic and cultural.

3.4.1 The linguistic objectives.

As the aim behind learning any language is primarily to acquire the linguistics competence to be able to communicate with the speakers of that language, teaching English to Algerian learners for linguistic purposes is one of the most important objectives. Learners are trained to consolidate and widen their basic knowledge which is believed to equip them with the necessary means to improve their linguistic abilities and skills in English.

In fact, teaching English in Algeria attempts to generate competent learners who are able to read, write, and communicate in English. English language syllabus is designed to provide learners with necessary knowledge, practice and application of the key elements and concepts. It also seeks to improve learners' proficiency by enhancing their knowledge through graded levels, and tends to familiarise them with language functions, grammatical structures, language components, as well as skills and strategies.

Developing a linguistic competence means that learners are proficient enough to access to worldwide knowledge for further studies in this language. Proficient learners master in grammar and wide range of vocabulary that helps understand and produce well-formed English. Linguistic competence also includes learners' proficiency in mastering the four skills of language, listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

3.4.2 The cultural objectives.

As long as language teaching/learning is concerned, one cannot master learn a language without its culture. In other words, the linguistic competence is not sufficient in making proficient users of the language. Hence, EFL teaching/ learning in Algeria put much emphasis on providing learners with the necessary information that would develop their cultural background. In this regard, Brown (1994, p. 165) claims "a language is part of culture, and culture is part of language; the two are intricately interwoven so that one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language or culture".

Culture may be introduced to learners by presenting the native speakers' traditions, beliefs, customs, history, literature, behaviour, practices and so forth. Learners would look

at the language and its speakers from a new angle. This allows them to get a clear view of the foreign culture and helps them understand the language aspects associated to those of culture.

The objective behind developing learners' cultural competence is to ameliorate their capacity to comprehend language accruing in a culturally relevant situation and learn to accept and tolerate others' differences. This can be achieved by broadening learners' minds by providing a frequent exposure to various contexts of English culture and civilization. "To learn a language is to be nurtured or apprenticed into the life-world of individual host people and groups" (Thomson, 2012, p. 1).

Cultural objectives aim at binding language teaching to its culture so as to link language meanings to their cultural contexts. Thus, learners would develop positive attitudes towards the English language. Having a clear understanding of different foreign cultures helps them raise awareness of the diverse ways of life and makes them develop positive views towards these cultures. Moreover, language use is unavoidably social and cultural, besides being linguistics, therefore, learners should be provided with the basic language forms and the cultural norms to be able to make successful communication.

3.5   The Structure of the Algerian Educational System

The Algerian school system is made up of three levels: primary, middle, and secondary education. Children generally go to pre-schools at the age of five for one year before being enrolled in primary school at the age of six. The Algerian school is free and compulsory for all children who aged six to seven years. Pupils who pass their fifth-grade primary school examination will carry on their studies in the middle school for four years.

In the middle school, pupils should pass a national examination known as the Basic Education Certificate examination (BEM), in order to exceed to secondary school. In the secondary school, students study for three years in which a one year foundation course called "*tronc commun*" which incorporates a mixture of specialist streams that students will pursue in their successive years of education. A number of streams are available for students to pursue their studies in:

- Literary streams, which fundamentally encompass studies in Humanities and the Social Sciences,

- Scientific streams, which encompass studies in Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry, and Biology,

- Technological streams, where students study Applied Technology.

In their 3rd year, students need to pass a national examination called the Baccalaureate examination (BAC) to be able to access to university. Thus, it can be argued that examinations in Algeria exhibit important objectives for students who desire to follow their studies. Arabic is the language of conduct and instruction in all subjects except foreign languages.

3.6   The Approaches of Teaching English in Algeria

Developing the educational system has been the concern of the Algerian authorities since independence. Many changes have been made by policy makers in attempt to provide high quality education for the Algerian citizens. Speaking about EFL teaching in particular, some approaches have been adopted as the most efficient approaches (as believed at that time) in the world.

The GTM was in fact inherited from the French colonisation syllabi. Then, the ALM was adopted and soon rejected as it was unable to train learners who are communicatively competence. Its behaviouristic stimulus-response basis formed learners who only respond to the teacher stimuli. This paved the way to the introduction of the CLT approach in 1980's based on teaching with objectives. However, this approach declined as the Algerian classrooms were not prepared to adopt the new principle of the approach especially classroom density and teaching tools (Benadila, 2013; Bouhadiba, 2006).

The CLT relied on teaching units that should be accomplished in a definite time marginalising learners' achievement. Its failure led to the adoption of the CBA in the Algerian schooling system. It is worth mentioning that despite the great efforts exerted to improve the educational system, the educational level witnessed a dilemma in 1980's onwards. Many problems such the spoon-feed nature of the teaching methods that were bent on time rather than learners' needs or achievements, EFL teaching arrived at an alarming situation that deprived it from its communicative nature. This led learners to treat English as a mere subject matter restricted to the classroom use for which they need to achieve good marks to pass to the next level (Bouhadiba, 2006). That urgent situation, lead authorities to take radical changes in education and the CBA principles were adopted to all schooling levels and to all the subject matters.

3.6.1 The communicative language teaching (CLT).

Since its introduction in the early 1970's, CLT had emerged and gained popularity due to its great influence on language teaching around the world. The CLT presents a set of principles grounded in the notion of communicative competence being the goal of language teaching. It continued to evolve and gave rise to other methodologies and approaches that all aim to develop learners' communicative competence. Richard (2006) considers the CBA as an extension of the CLT.

The Algerian educationalists agreed upon the effectiveness of the CLT believing that teaching should generate communicatively competent learners. CLT is an approach which emphasises interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of learning a language. CLT is usually defined as a broad approach to teaching, rather than a method, with a clearly defined set of principles:

1. Learners learn a language through using it to communicate

2. Authenticity and meaningful communication should be the Goal of classroom activities

3. Fluency is an important dimension of communication

4. Communication involves the integration of different skill

5. Learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error (Nunan, 1999, p. 98).

At the its early stage, the Communicative language teaching was interested in developing teaching to be suitable to the new conception of communicative competence. Many implications were proposed especially concerning the organization of syllabuses in terms of functions and notions rather than grammatical structures (Richard, 2006, p.11). After that, CLT advocators realized that English learners have specific needs in their occupational or educational settings which need to be taken into consideration. Needs analysis had emerged as an essential component of communicative methodology.

The CLT essential objective is to enhance learners' communicative competence by emphasising the real use of English in class. Aiming at enhancing the communicative process, learning language forms, meanings, and functions proved to be insufficient because learners need to be taught how to use this knowledge in for communication purposes.

According to CLT principles, learners are provided with a variety of linguistic forms in order to make them communicatively competent. Therefore, their errors are tolerated and regarded as a natural outcome of the development of the communicative skills. Teachers should not be authoritative and dominating the class. They are required to act as advisors and co-communicators as they manage the classroom instruction and activities, and monitor the learners' performance. Learners should be welcomed to express and discuss their ideas so that they take part in their learning progress.

Nevertheless, this approach was not applied in its appropriate way. Learners felt the risk of holding the responsibility of their own learning due to their lack of the linguistic and the communicative competence. It was very difficult for them to communicate in a language that they consider very hard to learn. Classroom density did not allow teachers to consider the learners' needs or difficulties or help to find solution to these obstacles.

In addition, the new teaching method which has been acquainted with the necessary tools did not actually fit the Algerian classroom. The CLT was based on the inductive way of learning which required learners to find out and discover the language rules by themselves. This indeed was one of the major difficulties faced by learners as they were not accustomed to such a way of learning. The CLT failed to offer learning solutions to learners, and could help them to move from the deductive to the inductive learning.

The emphasis on making learners active communicators in class was a sort of tedious challenge for teachers. In order to realise this, teachers were required teachers to equip learners with various linguistic strategies and sufficient knowledge for a successful communicative learning. This was not easy to afford in the Algerian context due to social and cultural reasons.

3.6.2 The competency-based approach (CBA).

With the beginning of the 21st century, Algeria stated to apply the CBA as a modern approach .The CBA is a recent approach which focuses on outcomes of learning. This approach is inspired by the cognitive and the constructive theories. It has been first developed and applied in the United States of America with the focus on life-coping skills acquisition while developing the language skills. It underlies that effective learning will achieved if learners know that what they are studying is intended to improve not only their learning but also their lives.

In fact, the CBA intends to link the classroom learning to the outside world. Rodgers et.al (1995) argue that "the broader general outcomes associated with education can be described in competency terms, measured and effected through learning experiences". It consists of teachers basing their instructions on concepts expecting to foster deeper and broader understanding. The CBA aims to teach students the basic skills they needed in their everyday life. The CBA is defined by Richards and Rodgers (2002, p. 141) as:

> An educational movement that focuses on the outcomes or outputs of learning in the development of language programs. CBA address what the learners are expected to do with the language; however they learned to do it. The focus on outputs rather than on inputs to learning is central to the competencies perspective.

It could be said that CBA is an outcome-based instruction which is adaptive to the changing needs of students, teachers and the community. As far as the teaching-learning process is concerned, competences may refer to a system of conceptual procedures that help identify a problem and its possible solutions. Put differently, competencies describe the ability to apply basic and other skills in situations that are commonly encountered in everyday life.

That is, the focus of teaching under the CBA principles is put on the results or the outcomes of learning that are derived from an analysis of tasks typically conducted by students in life situations. It is, in other words, a know-how to act process which involves a set of knowledge and skills that can be applied in order to solve a particular problem in a particular situation.

CBA helps the learners acquire a communicative competence by centralising on the learner as the target of the learning process. The emphasis in this approach was in fact on the meaning conveyed by the context rather than the grammatical forms used in it. This approach has been an answer to the requirements of the 21st century which dictated certain measures to the teacher better considered in the United States as facilitators.

It also emphasises the development of the skills needed by learners. In the same respect, Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 94) argue that the CBA is "an approach to teaching that focuses on teaching the skills and behaviours needed to perform competences. Competences refer to the students' ability to apply different kinds of basic skills in situations that are commonly encountered in everyday life". Hence, the CBA is

grounded on the attainment of a set of goals or outcomes through an analysis of tasks that learners are required to perform in real-life situations.

Due to its massive success in the world, the CBA was introduced in Algeria in 2005 as the Algerian authorities introduced reforms to the whole educational system. Series of changes took place at the level of curriculum, syllabus, course content and textbooks to fit the new approach requirement. This approach has been applied not only to the teaching of the English language but also in the entire field of education in order to develop the learners' intellectual competencies. Accordingly, inspectors of education and teachers have been mobilised to prepare an adequate implementation of this approach. They worked to encourage learners to rely on their pre-acquired experiences, thinking strategies, and cognitive skills help them to achieve higher performance and support them to be competent and skilful to deal successfully with a variety of leaning situations.

In the CBA, learners study English in different and relevant situations and contexts. The language is used in various situations that are similar to real life situations. This aims at helping learners develop language and problem-solving skills to be used in new situations in or out of class. This would enable learners to use English in various situations. Moreover, the CBA emphasises the skill development and knowledge transmission though involving teachers who are field practitioners as well as learners who are regarded as active partners in the teaching/learning process. In a CBA classroom, these objectives are put forward:

> ➤ The competencies set to be achieved are generally, carefully, identified and then verified before made public.
>
> ➤ The assessment criteria are explicitly communicated and stated.
>
> ➤ Instructions are made and material are designed in away to improve learners' different competences.
>
> ➤ Learners' progress is measured individually wherein each student is evaluated on his/her own rate of development and goal (competency) attainment.

In this approach, language is regarded as a medium of interaction and communication between people and used to achieve specific goals and purposes. As long as the CBA aims to teach language in relation to the social contexts in which it is used, syllabus designers focus on the vocabulary and structures likely to be encountered in those situations.

3.6.2.1 The characteristics of the Competency- based Approach.

The changing nature of society and individuals leads to the emergence of new world views, values and norms that in return entails the appearance of new ways of education. Educationalists proposed many ways and methods that would promote learning and adhere to the new world' requirements. Among these methods and approaches, the CBA is established as on the basis of having learners responsible for managing their learning and acting autonomously.

In fact, the CBA is an approach which stimulates and adjusts learning to the know-how skills. It functions in a way that enables learners to be autonomous and self-orienting individuals. According to Ameziane, Hami, and Louadji (2005, pp. 12-13), the CBA is regarded as the panacea of educational issues due to its distinctive feature (characteristics) which enable learners to interact effectively in the modern life:

- The CBA is action-oriented in that it gears learning to the acquisition of know how embedded in functions and skills. These will allow the learner to become an effective competent user in real- life situations outside the classroom.

- It is a problem-solving approach in that it places learners in situations that test/ check their capacity to overcome obstacles and problems, make learners think and they learn by doing.

- It is social constructivist in that it regards learning as occurring through social interaction with other people. In other words, learning is not concerned with the transmission of pre-determined knowledge and know-how to be reproduced in vitro, but as a creative use of a newly constructive knowledge through the process of social interaction with other people.

- Finally and most importantly, the CBA is a cognitive approach. It is indebted to Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom et al., 1964). They have claimed that all the educational objectives can be classified as cognitive (to do with information) and affective (to do with attitudes, values and emotions) or psychomotor (to do with bodily movements …).

According to them, cognitive objectives form a hierarchy where the learner must achieve lower order objectives before moving to achieve higher ones. Bloom's taxonomy can be useful to teachers when devising lessons. They need to take into consideration the different stages learners can pass through to reach construction of knowledge that leads them to acquire an ability to solve problems in new situations and to creativity.

Six levels are identified within the cognitive sphere, from the lowest level to the highest level as proposed by Bloom and Crathwohl (1956, p.186-193).

1-**Knowledge** represents the lowest level of learning and is the fact of remembering the previously learned material.

2- **Comprehension** is defined as the ability to grasp the meaning of material by organizing, comparing, translating, interpreting, giving descriptions, and stating main ideas.

3-**Application** refers to the ability of using new knowledge in new and concrete situations; or in other words, to solve problems by applying acquired knowledge.

4-**Analysis** refers to the ability to examine and break down material into parts so that its organizational structure may be understood.

5-**Synthesis** refers to put parts together to form a new whole. It may be explained as the phase of production.

6-**Evaluation** refers to the ability to make judgments about information

A typical characteristic of the CBA is the integration of project work as a visible attainment and as a learning strategy. The project work can be defined as a set of tasks that involves learners working on cooperatively with their classmates and sometimes with the help of their teacher. The project represents a leaner-centred work accomplished by learners under the continual guidance of the teacher whose role is a facilitator; one who checks, controls, and encourages the learners by providing the necessary corrections for an effective learning.

The rationale behind this is to enable the learners to enquire, search, ask questions and find answers throughout all the steps of the project. Usually the project work is accomplished at the end of a particular learning unit where learners contribute together in building new knowledge based on what they have been learning. Thus, the realisation of project makes cooperative learning a concrete reality as it offer new opportunities for learners' action, interaction and the construction of new knowledge. The CBA provides new avenues for learners to develop a kind of autonomy, creativity and responsibility.

3.6.2.2 The guiding principles for teaching English in Algeria.

The guiding principles for teaching English in Algeria represent the foundation of the curriculum and they adhere to the Algerian social and educational context. In order not to face the same problems encountered with the implementation of the CLT,

educationalists prepared a set of guidelines on solid educational theory to be appropriate for Algerian teachers and learners for the application of the CBA. These principles are organised around a view of language, a view of learners and learning, a view of teachers and teaching.

English is regarded a tool of communication and connection to the outer world. People need to master English to part of the world around them and to successfully represent (through communication) themselves, their country and their community. Therefore, the main aim behind language teaching is the development of the communicative competence. This latter is built (as mentioned earlier) through mastery of the four language skills (productive skills writing and speaking; receptive skill reading and listening), mastery of grammar and vocabulary, ability to use learners' mental capacities in move from lower to higher thinking abilities that would help learners construct new knowledge through certain steps. Hence, language learning is supported by constructing new knowledge on the previously acquired one via learners' involvement in cooperation, collaboration and interaction.

The type of tasks and activities is also another crucial aspect in the CBA curriculum. These tasks should be representative to situations in real life to be able to generate interest in constructing meaningful learning that could be used in and out of the classroom. Learning tasks must provide opportunities for learners to communicate in the language.

Learning and assessment are mutually compatible parts in the CBA principles. Assessment is ongoing task for learning. Taking different forms, assessment should always address the acquired competences to provide information on learners' progress. Learners' problems can be reviewed and solved thoroughly.

One of the important guiding principles of the CBA in the Algerian curriculum is teacher role. Teachers are facilitators of learning. They are not authoritative; rather, they support knowledge construction by devising learning tasks based on learners' experiences and interest. They monitor learning and provide support to the learners in order to foster their progress in an effective learning atmosphere. Teachers are also are responsible in creating a positive learner-centred environment based on mutual respect, cooperation and creativity. Creating a learners-centred classroom is the fundamental aim of the CBA, where teachers and learners are required to play significant roles.

3.6.2.2.1 Teacher's role.

Teachers are considered as a salient part in the teaching learning process. They are the ones who are supposed to apply the principles of the CBA to create and effective classroom. Trying to ensure the learner-centred principle, teachers are assigned new roles to play whereby they are required to be more autonomous by getting rid of their traditional methods.

Their role goes beyond communicating knowledge or instructing to helping and encouraging learners to take part in their own learning as active participant in the learning. They are also required to improve the value of co-operation and group work, and help their learners to process information and use learning strategies that assist them in building their own knowledge. According to the CBA, teachers should be open-minded and receptive to their learners' wants and worries because they are agents of change who show high qualities of self-esteem, autonomy, and self confidence. Overall, teachers are the field practitioners, educators, instructors, organisers, managers, and facilitators of the learning process who should acquire considerable knowledge, apply that knowledge, and decide and assess the appropriate teaching strategies.

3.6.2.2.2 Learner's role.

According to the CBA principles, learners are required to develop abilities to perceive knowledge by getting in cognitive activities which can improve their creative and critical thinking. They are asked to construct knowledge through meeting new challenges that occur when they come to interpret, analyse, or manipulate information. In other words, their role is no longer passive recipient of knowledge but active participants in the learning process, they are required to use previously learned knowledge to discover new one.

Learners are put in situations similar to those in real life and asked to find solutions to the problems they encounter in learning any of the language skills to ensure they would be able to use the language in problem solving tasks in and out of class if necessary. Most of the tasks are managed by co-operating, collaborating, sharing and exchanging information with their peers and with their teachers in the classroom. Learners are also introduced to different situations and tasks that enable them to acquire a know how to do skills and help them build knowledge at the end. This might be achieved by the acquisition of learning strategies and by the consistent guidance and support of their teachers.

3.7   Teaching English to Second Year Secondary School Students under the CBA Principles

The Algerian educationalists are aware of the importance of teaching English that would enable learners to cope with 21st century requirements. Teaching English under the CBA principles makes it clear that the earlier narrow conception of language learning that consists of merely acquisition of linguistic items is extended to include methodological and cultural objectives.

3.7.1   Aims of teaching English at the secondary school.

The Ministry of National Education (2006) has put forward a number of general aims that the English language syllabus needs to achieve. Clearly stated aims have been presented to readers who can easily recognise the wide scope of the official educational goals. The reform has shifted the interest of English language learning from a mere acquisition of the linguistics features of the language to broad cultural and methodological aims. This was indicated by the official syllabus of the 2nd year secondary school (2006, p.4):

> The aim of teaching English is to help our society to get harmoniously integrated in modernity through a fully complete participation within a community of people who use English in all types of interactions - this participation should be based on sharing and exchanging ideas as well as experiences being scientific, cultural, or civilisational – this participation will help for better understanding for oneself and the other.

The teaching of English implies not only acquiring the linguistic and communicative competences but also attempts to:

- ✓ Help learners promote self-regulated learning and critical thinking.
- ✓ Improve learners' intellectual capacities of analyzing, evaluating, and synthesizing.
- ✓ Enable learners to exploit English documents, in new situation at work.
- ✓ Support of learners' respect of other culture and encourage tolerance and open-mindedness.

In addition to that, the syllabus of English aims at providing the Algerian learners with the language they need to successfully communicate (in speaking or in writing) in different situations. It also aims at improve learners' proficiency in the language they would use for further studies, academic purposes, or job market. These learners would use English to read latest updates about topics of interest to them.

3.7.2 General objectives of teaching English at the secondary school.

The National Syllabus (2006) has stated three major objectives to teaching English in the second year secondary school. These general objectives represent a part of the main goals that have been set in accordance with the principles put by the Educational Reform (2001). The National Syllabus also mentions that second year syllabus is intended to consolidate, and develop the learners' acquired competences, and ensure a continuation to the first year objectives communication as an ultimate goal of teaching English.

➢ **Linguistic objectives**

-To provide the learner with the basic linguistic material (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and the four skills) that are necessary to pursue further education or employment.

➢ **Methodological objectives**

-To consolidate and develop learning strategies aiming at autonomy, critical thinking, and self assessment.
-To enable students to use and exploit various documents and feel interested in subjects that are not treated in class.

➢ **Socio-cultural objectives**

-To ensure interdisciplinary coherence as an attempt to integrate the overall information acquired by the learner.
-To stimulate the learners curiosity and to encourage the students broad mindedness to gain access to cultural values brought by English.

Teaching English as a foreign language at the Algerian secondary school is also concerned with emphasising and promoting universal, human and national values are promoted. Learners are required to use the English language in expressing themselves.

They are expected to learn how to speak about their national and cultural values as well as to be tolerant and open to universal values which are essential elements of modernity and globalization.

3.7.3 Fundamental competences.

As presented in the National Syllabus (2006: 8), three fundamental competences had to be applied by teachers as specific learning of English:

➢ **Interaction:** where learners will be able to:

-Produce an oral message using well pronunciation and intonation

-Interact, negotiate, and persuade, express opinion

➢ **Interpretation:** where learners will be able to:

-Interpret and understand the meaning of an oral or written message

-Answer questions and justify answers in a communicative situation

➢ **Production:** where learners will be able to:

-Produce a written message using an appropriate discourse (narrative, descriptive, argumentative...) in a given communicative situation.

3.8   Description of the Second Year Textbook '*Getting Through*'

'Getting Through' is the second year students' current textbook in secondary education. It is regarded as the primary source of the class courses. The authors call teachers to feel free in making any changes (if needed) or adapting materials other than those in the textbook. However, they should not go beyond the curriculum regulations. The major aim of the book is make teacher and learner come to a fruitful interaction.

> *Getting Through* implements the National Curriculum for English issued by the Ministry of Education in December (2005).It follows the guiding principles which frame the curriculum, and which take into account the social and educational background of our learners, as well as the cultural values of Algeria. (Rich, et al., 2005, p. 3)

The textbook has been published in (2006-2007) by the national authority for school publication. The textbook reflects the curriculum designed and issued by the Ministry of

National Education in December (2005). As previously stated, the textbook is a reflection to the principles of on the CBA which is chiefly concerned with leaner-centred education and project oriented outcomes. In the *Teachers' Book*: *Getting Through*, Rich, et al., (2005, pp. 5-6) explained that the course book contains eight units comprising of five main rubrics that are devised as follow:

- ➢ **Discovering the Language**: is the first rubric in every unit. It aims at engaging learners to do various reading tasks, all revolving around the main expository text. It is divided into four sections that help the learner to discover grammar, vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation as vital components of the language to be dealt with in each unit.

- ➢ **Developing Skills**: is the second rubric. It includes two main sections: listening and speaking and reading and writing besides two subsections namely a tip box and write out. The students will be able to develop basic language skills as well as intellectual skills such as guessing, predicting, anticipating, analysing, and synthesising. These and other skills are required for accomplishing the units' objectives leading to the completion of the projects and class presentations and eventually, the integration of the three competences will be achieved.

- ➢ **Putting Things Together:** represents the third rubric which deals with the final task to be accomplished namely the project. The students encounter the main features and elements of language that have been dealt with in each unit. The students will be guided on how to finalise the project and work together in collaborative manner. Doing so, the authors of the textbook hope they could develop learners' social skills that make them courteous, responsible and good citizens.

- ➢ **Where Do We Go From Here?** is the fourth rubric in each unit in the textbook. This part is devoted to provide the students with an opportunity to practice self-assessment. The students will be able to check and evaluate their own learning progress in different ways such as filling grids and keeping portfolios.

- ➢ **Exploring Matters further**: is the fifth rubric in the unit. In this section, the students will get more reading opportunities to broaden their knowledge and skill as the reading texts are related to the topic of the unit. It should be mentioned that no tasks are devised for these texts but teachers could use them to consolidate students' learning.

Getting Through is a communicative product that encourages learners' interaction and supports them to practice the English language. The textbook encourages learner to cooperate with each other in a social constructive learning. Other manifestation of the CBA lies in the types of tasks students are asked to do. The tasks and activities presented in the textbook range from lower-order skills (acquiring new knowledge, understanding new facts and ideas and applying them to solve problems) to "higher order" skills (analysing information by breaking it into small parts to understand it better, synthesizing knowledge by combining it into new patterns and evaluating new information by forming an opinion and judging the quality of that new information).

The units of the textbook are presented in the table below:

Table 3.4

Getting Through Unit Distribution

The Unit	The Topic	The Project
1. Signs of the Time	Life style	-Writing a life style profile
2. Make Peace	Peace and conflict resolutions	-Writing a statement of achievements
3.waste not, Want not	World resources and sustainable development	-Making a conservation plan
4.Budding Scientists	Science and experiments	-Writing report on scientific experiment -An ABC of dreams
5. News and Tales	Literature and media	Writing a collection of stories
6. No Man is an Island	Disasters and solidarity	Making a survey
7. Science or Fiction	Technology and the art	-Writing miscellanies -Writing a repertory
8. Business is Business	Management and efficiency	-Writing a business portfolio

3.9 Problems and Obstacles in the EFL classroom

As English enjoys a primordial role in science, technology, business and commerce, learning English become mandatory to be part of the globalised world. The Algerian education is now giving much value to foreign languages and to English in particular. This latter is improved using a special acquisition planning that starts from first year middle school (6th grade of schooling), attempting to form competent users of English. However, EFL real classroom practices show that there are a number of complications and obstacles that need to be reconsidered for better results. Moreover, students' level of proficiency does not, in fact, seem to meet the standards expected by the teachers and the state's educational aspirations. Generally speaking, EFL teaching/ learning suffers from various and essential issues which constitute an obstacle in front of any step towards progress. This section attempts to explore some of the EFL classroom challenges though the situation may vary from one region to another and from one school to another.

3.9.1 Class size.

Almost all the Algerian schools are characterized by a large number of learners per class resulting in what is known as overcrowded classes in which the single class often consists of more than forty pupils. As the number of learners inside the classroom exceeds the teacher ability to respond to the class' needs, the desired educational goals are not ultimately reached. One of the crucial roles of teachers is to transmit knowledge to learners. Teacher-learner interaction is threatened in such classes because the overwhelming number of learners might hinder the teacher from making adequate interaction with all the learners. In addition to that, it is very difficult for the teachers to check and assess assignments and provide feedback, to promote and monitor learners' linguistic competence and even to maintain discipline. In addition to that, overcrowded classes are categorized by certain prevailing dilemmas including the physical environment of the classroom, the issue of management, students' engagement in the learning process, difficulties of assessing students' knowledge and feedback, as well as the problem of teaching resources (Bamba, 2012).

Moreover, as the class size increases, the teacher's ability to incorporate adequate assignments diminishes and learners' available opportunities are limited. For that, we very often find that reading and writing are not practised sufficiently. In most cases, it is the teacher who reads the texts and learners only answer the questions. Writing also has been

avoided by many teachers as they consider it to be time and energy consuming because they need to read and provide feedback to all the learners' written productions. Eventually, this led to a salient deficiency in learners' ability to write as well as to their overall proficiency. Crowded classes are considered as a handicap in achieving the educational aims set by the state.

3.9.2 Motivation.

Many EFL learners' become able to make short oral communications but fail to produce a well written piece of writing. Besides, the lack of practice that has been introduced earlier, the writing skill seems the most difficult for learners to acquire. Their low grades in written exams sometimes make them frustrated as for them these grades do not reflect their actual level in English. The fact that the speaking skill is not part of the exams in secondary school as the writing skill results mostly in learners' demotivation. These low grades, therefore, may lead to negative attitudes towards the language which in return generate a lack or even a loss of motivation to learn this language (Dornyei, 2009). In this case, the students are more likely to adopt an instrumental rather than integrative motivation to learn EFL wherein they aim to get high grades instead of learning the language per se. This is particularly true as most learners, are noticed, to focus on subjects with a higher coefficient such science, maths and physics for scientific streams and Arabic language, philosophy, history and geography for literary streams. Though the foreign languages stream shows more interest in learning EFL than the literary and the scientific streams still their motivation is instrumental as long as they are more interested to get high grades. In this case, teachers need to incorporate some updated material or make changes in their teaching methods to enhance learners' intrinsic motivation in which they seek to improve their English proficiency not for the grades.

In the same respect, EFL learners, based on what has been said earlier, express a kind of ignorance to ameliorate their level of proficiency. As a result autonomy, one of the tenets of CBA, is not realised in the classroom. They do not like to work by themselves on assignments that would improve their competence in the language. Rather, working on projects in group work is very welcomed activity which in most of the time is a task of copy and paste from the internet, and given to the teacher without even reading it.

In addition to that, the physical conditions where learning and teaching tales place can have a great impact on learners' motivation either positively or negatively. Overcrowded and badly managed can never help achieve a successful learning;

unfortunately, this is the case of many Algerian secondary schools. Motivation is negatively affected by classes that have discipline problems which mostly occur in large classes where even the teachers' aspirations are damaged resulting in a bad learning quality. Many learners and teachers suffer from demotivation due to the lack of the suitable conditions.

3.9.3 The curriculum flaws.

Among the various problem encountered in the EFL classroom the curriculum has a significant role. The teacher is not the one who decides about the content to be taught though s/he is the first person in contact with the learners. As mentioned in the previous chapters of the present work, the teacher's method /style decides on the cay the instruction is presented which has a direct impact of the success and failure of the teaching learning process. The problem, however, is that the teacher can monitor only the type of activities or the way the lesson is presented but not what to be included in the programme or not. The syllabus of level is dictated solely by the Ministry of National Education. It is very important to consider what the National Syllabus of English language teaching attempts to achieve by the end of the middle school education and the two first years of secondary school and then compare it with the time allotted for the English subject and the content of the textbook.

➢ **Learners' knowledge by the end of middle school education**

Middle school pupils are supposed to attend about 250 hours of English classes (4 hours per week in the 3rd year and 5 hours per week in 4th year). According to the syllabus, the pupils are supposed to acquire basic English structures and vocabulary necessary to express the four main functions of the language, notably, description, instruction, narration, and socializing in the four linguistic skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). Hence, they are expected to master the basic characteristics of English language which are:

-Listening to and understanding oral messages;

-Guided production of simple oral messages;

-Reading of simple passages and showing their understanding of them (without the interference of the oral) through performing various activities of linguistic checking;

-Writing simple personal letters;

-Filling simple forms and writing elementary application letters;

-Taking notes and writing simple summaries of medium-length texts. (Algerian Syllabus, 1999).

> **Learners' knowledge by the end of their first two years in secondary schools**

296 hours of English, (156 for the literary streams and 140 for the scientific streams) are supposed to be attended by the end of first and second year secondary school. Learners are assumed to have acquired more knowledge in the four linguistic skills: (Algerian Syllabus, 1999).

a- Listening Comprehension: learners should be able to understand a simple oral message said in everyday English in interpersonal exchanges. They should understand the broad lines of a short talk that is delivered in Standard English.

b- Oral Expression: learners should be able to communicate in a limited number of topics in correct simple English.

c- Reading Comprehension: learners should be able to read simple authentic texts and documents (maps, charts, forms, notices…).

d- Written Expression: learners should undertake simple writing tasks in relation to samples studied in class.

These skills are believed to be achieved through the following functions:

a- Describing people (physical appearance, personality characteristics, clothes, tastes)

b- Describing places (in the past and in the present + geographical location, inhabitants and their activities…);

c- Describing objects (what they are made of, their use..);

d- Narrating an event, a fact…;

e- Relating personal experiences;

f- Asking for and giving directions;

g- Making simple comparisons between people;

h- Formulating intentions and prospects;

i- Instructing.

The functions above are intensely studied with literary streams whereas the scientific streams focus more on functions related to describing processes and instructing.

Taking these notes into account, we assume that the supposedly acquired knowledge seems to be significant. However, examination results show that most learners experience varied difficulties when it comes to using English correctly and appropriately during their first years in secondary schools. This led secondary school teachers to allocate

a large part of the teaching sessions to the brushing up of the previously studied linguistic stock but the problem gets worse because the time allotted to the English course is insufficient. The researcher herself experienced this as a previous secondary school teacher. Having only 2 hours per week for the scientific stream classes and 3 hours for literary classes during their first year in the secondary school seems to be inadequate time to revise previously acquired language and work to achieve newly stated objectives.

Speaking about the content of the syllabus, it consists of a few more functions and structures (for the literary streams) while for the scientific stream, some selected functions have been added in relation to English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and their related structures. Moreover, for some administrators English is a secondary language. They very often schedule it in inconvenient time (usually in the afternoons) wherein the learners are less energetic and less motivated. In most cases, all these factors have severely hindered the learners' performances.

3.9.4 CBA weaknesses.

Many teachers have witnessed the transition from previous teaching methods to CBA. Many of those teachers too have complained about the complexity of the content of the reform and the difficulty of implementing CBA. Unfortunately, many teachers still lack adequate mastery in applying CBA principles in concrete situations although many seminars, study days and training sessions have been organised by inspectors to overcome this problem. Many teachers focus on linguistics points rather than functions which are the core of CBA.

In addition to that, teachers are given more responsibilities under the CBA. They are required to prepare instructions based on the CBA principles, prepare at least two tests per trimester, a mark for what is called continuous evaluation that includes learners' work in and out the classroom. All of these marks should be filled in their notebooks, the administration's notebook and the learners' marks books, which are rarely consulted by the learners' parents. Furthermore, teachers need to fill the grades in a matrix of each learner's grades and provide statistics of their subject and of the class they are responsible for. These tasks are time and energy consuming due to the crowded classes. This hinders the teachers from making efficient instruction as they keep focusing on being updated with administrative documents.

For many teachers the main concern is to finish the syllabus instead of learners' assimilation of the content to avoid the inspector's complain of not finishing the syllabus.

This entails teachers' conceptions of teaching which are mainly their former teaching methods that are deeply rooted in teachers' practices and still can seen in their way of teaching..

3.9.5 Learners' attitudes.

Learners' attitudes towards the English language also represent a serious problem that impact EFL teaching/learning. Some Algerian learners are not fully aware of the significant role English language play in the world especially in small cities and villages. These learners, in fact, consider English as a foreign language that does not influence their educational carrier. English for them is a mere subject to which they need to attain good marks to pass the exam. Therefore, its use is restricted to the classroom. The dislike of English is considered a major feeling among some learners mainly to due to the difficulty of the language as they believe. Therefore, these attitudes should be taken into consideration in order to increase their motivation for learning. Teachers are required to change learners' attitudes towards English by encouraging teacher-learner interaction, alleviating learners' anxiety, breaking the psychological barriers, ameliorating feelings of care, interest, and respect, providing help and support, managing assessment in way that foster learning than mere evaluation, and using simple and clear instruction. These might be helpful strategies to stimulate learners in a positive way and facilitate their learning.

3.9.6 Learners' needs.

Learners' needs represent a salient factor that influence learners' learning. Though English is taught under the principles of the CBA, many Algerian learners still attend courses, and receive knowledge for memorisation holding a passive role in knowledge construction. They are not ignorant of the aims of their learning or the broad objectives of the English language curriculum. They do not know how to benefit from their learning in their real lives do not know. As a result; learners' needs are not easy to meet as far as the syllabus is concerned. EFL teachers need to investigate their learners' needs in order to bridge the gap between what learners need to know and what is actually been taught. Teachers should be skilful enough to discover learners' needs and respond to them by implementing effective techniques to reach better results.

Needs analysis aims at identifying the appropriate techniques that can be applied in setting the goals and objectives of both teaching and learning. In fact, it should include the

criteria and the rational for selecting the course content, methodology, and course duration. Various factors need to be taken into consideration when identifying the learners' needs such as; level of proficiency, teachers and learners' goals and expectations, and the learning previous knowledge, learners' skills, learners' learning styles and so forth. These aspects help inform the methods and techniques to be used in class in order to devise particular tasks to remedy specific weaknesses or to respond to particular learning styles. Algerian teachers should promote learners' language skills, competences, and mental abilities in order to make them able to communicate (in speaking and in writing) and interact in English. Therefore, teachers' methods, strategies, and teaching styles should conform to these needs.

3.10 Conclusion

Education plays a vital role in the development and civilisation of nations. No progress would be attained by people or nations without education. In this chapter, we have tried to give an overall picture of English teaching within the educational system in Algeria. The chapter began with a historical overview of foreign language education in Algeria, then, moved to discuss English inclusion in education along with its status within the educational system and its main objectives. Moreover, the structure of the Algerian educational system has been provided discussing the school system and the levels of study followed by an overview on the main approaches adopted to teach English in Algeria. The researcher, then, shifted the discussion into the context of the present study speaking about the teaching of English to second year secondary school students on the basis of the CBA. The chapter concluded with a portrait to the major problems and obstacle that face EFL teaching and learning under the CBA in Algeria and paved the way to the field work of our study that will present one of the problems encountered in the EFL classroom and our suggested solutions.   The next chapter highlights the methodology used in our study. It includes an account of the research design, the research questions and the instruments employed to answer the questions.

Chapter Four

Chapter Four: Research Design and Methodology

Chapter Four: Research Design and Methodology

4.1 Introduction

In the literature review, theoritical concepts about motivation, teaching styles, learning styles and EFL teaching/learning situation in the Algerian secondary school were presented. The theoritical background paved the way for engaging in the practical part. Put differently, the reserach methodology chapter aims at providing researchers with sufficient information to replicate a research work as it provides a complete description of the methods adopted, helps in explaining the nature of the data, and sheds light on the methods employed that will lead to the generation of appropriate conclusions through applicable data processing.

This chapter will present the methodology and provide information about the participant of the study, the research setting, data gathering tools, and analysis procedure. The chapter starts by providing theoritical background to the research approach and reserach design. Thus, it attempts to highlight some of the methodological considerations about the present study and tries to consider the different steps this research has undergone to investigate the effect of the match between teaching and learning styles on motivation in the EFL classroom.

4.2 Research Design

A research work may defined as an ongoing activity which is never completed as each piece of research raises additional questions for more research (Seliger, 2000).This reflects the cyclic nature of any research work. According to Seliger and Shohamy (2000, p. 25), as shown in Figure 4.1 below, the research can be represented in the form of a circle that includes different events essential for the completion of the study.

Determining the research
problem, question, hypothesis

.

Summarizing and   .   .   Determining the
interpreting the results   type of   research

Analyzing the data and
obtaining the results .   .   Contextualizing
                                                                  the problem

Collecting the research   .   .   Designing the
data   research according
                                                             to its purpose
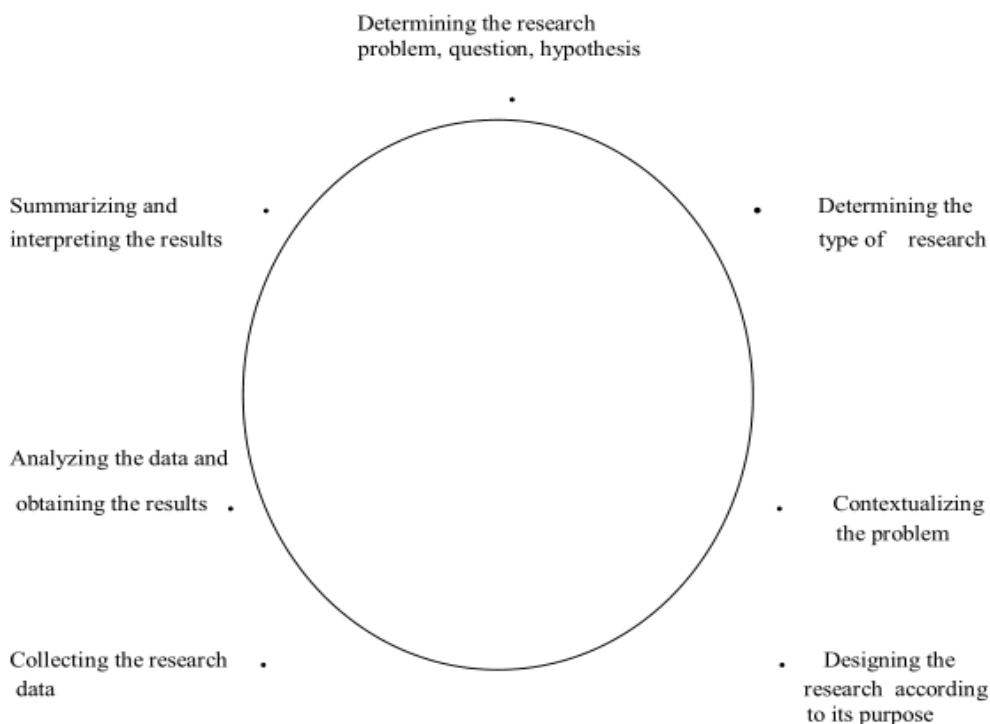
Figure 4.1 The Research Cycle (Seliger & Shohamy, 2000, p. 25)

Research design refers to the general outline (the overall plan) of the study. It presents a clear statement of the research problem, data collection, the study subjects, and the data analysis methods.

> Writing or speaking about scientific research is no more difficult than other things you do. It is rather like building a house. If you have the materials you need and the know-how to put them together, it is just a matter of hard work. The materials come from your own study and research. (Davis, 2005, p. 2)

Accordingly, the research design is both qualitative and quantitative due to the nature of the study itself. As long as the present work seeks to highlight the significance of matching teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles to enhance motivation, it was of vital importance to opt for a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods and procedures. According to Crotty (1998), the research method can be either qualitative, quantitative, or both, regardless of the type of research that is engaged in. The author further emphasises that "as researchers, we have to devise for ourselves a research process that serves our purpose best, one that helps us more than any other to answer our research

question" (p. 216). Particularly, the details of the research design adopted in the present study are demonstrated in the figure 4.2 below:
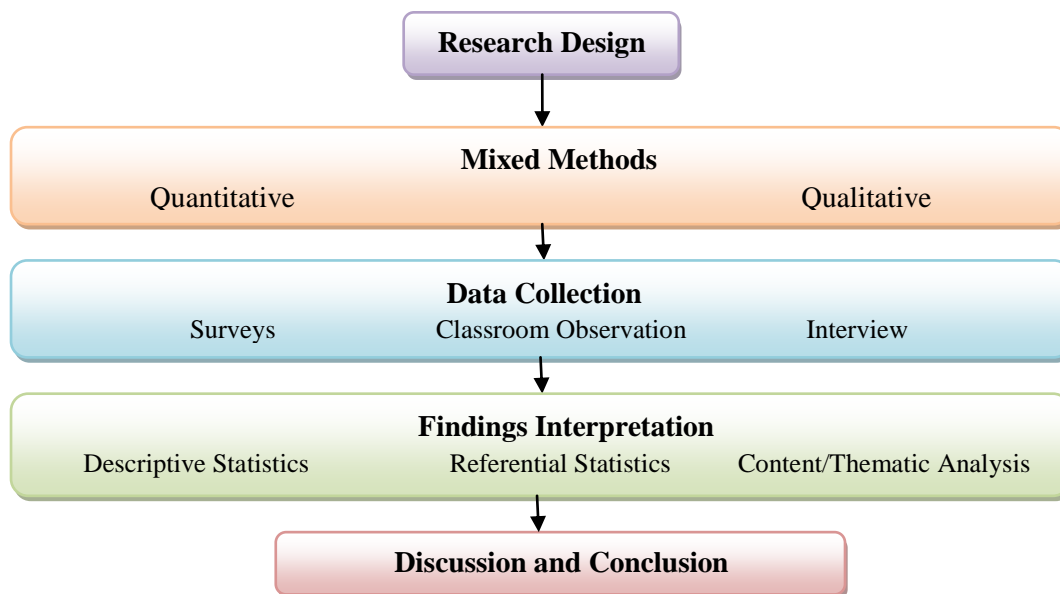
Figure 4.2 The Research Design of the Present Study

The figure 4.2 shows the research design of this study. The mixed method was employed by conducting classroom observations, surveys, and interviews as research instruments to obtain quantitative and qualitative data. As long as the research format used in any study should be regarded as a tool to answer the research question, the present research framework is adopted to address the following questions:

1) What are the dominant learning styles of 2nd year secondary school Foreign Language Stream students in the city of Biskra?

2) What are the dominant teaching styles of EFL secondary school teachers in the same city?

3) Does matching teachers' teaching styles with students' learning styles enhance students' motivation?

4) What are the attitudes of both the EFL secondary school teachers and 2nd year secondary school FL stream students as well towards matching teaching styles with learning styles?

To answer these questions, both quantitative and qualitative methods have been used in this study.

4.2.1 Qualitative vs. quantitative approach.

The present study aims to describe secondary school teachers' teaching styles and learners' learning styles in order to understand the potential relationship between them. It also endeavoured to discover the effect this relationship (match/mismatch) may have on students' motivation. Therefore, we have opted for both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Generally, a qualitative research is used to explore and understand situations, perspectives, behaviours, experiences, and process in context-specific settings. Researchers use qualitative approach adopting a humanistic and naturalistic perspective and focus on the qualitative aspects of the human nature in order to describe, explain, predict and control a given behaviour. They pursue a deeper understanding of the human experience, especially when observations and theories cannot easily be reduced to numbers such as meetings, interviews, open-ended questionnaire items and observations, case study, focus groups (Rubin & Babbie, 2001).

Quantitative research collects numerical data that maybe put into categories, rank order or measured in units of measurement. It makes use of raw data that can be constructed into graphs, charts and tables. The aim of the quantitative research is to establish general laws of behaviour and phenomenon across different settings situations and contexts. It uses Statistics to turn quantitative data into meaningful information in order to make decisions.

In a nutshell, the difference between qualitative and quantitative research lies in the fact that qualitative research generates "textual data" (non-numerical). On the other hand, quantitative research produces "numerical data" or information that can be converted into numbers. Thus, these two methods are used together as an effort to provide a comprehensive view of students' motivation to learn EFL in the Algerian secondary school. The present research adopts a qualitative approach as it aims to make a general exploration of students' and teachers' learning and teaching styles and behaviours in real classroom setting and get deeper understanding of their attitudes through the use of observation and interviews respectively. In addition, it opts for a quantitative approach as it is a quasi-experimental study in that it involves the use of one control group whose level of motivation has been tested before and after the match of teaching styles with learning styles.

4.2.2 Mixed method.

Mixed methods research refers to the methodology which integrates both qualitative and quantitative approaches in a single study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Wisdom, Cavaleri, Onwuegbuzie, & Green, 2012). However, it goes beyond the mere inclusion of open-ended questions or the collection of demographic data in a survey and involves the explicit integration of qualitative and quantitative elements in a single study. Nevertheless, it should be noted that in the mixed method research, qualitative and quantitative approaches are not just juxtaposed, but rather used to create combined results. For that, the mixed methods research often follows a pragmatic doctrine that puts the research question above epistemological or methodological considerations. Wisdom and Creswell (2013, p. 1) propose a number of characteristics of well-designed mixed methods study:

> 1. Collecting and analyzing both quantitative (closed-ended) and qualitative (open-ended) data.
>
> 2. Using rigorous procedures in collecting and analyzing data appropriate to each method's tradition, such as ensuring the appropriate sample size for quantitative and qualitative analysis.
>
> 3. Integrating the data during data collection, analysis, or discussion.
>
> 4. Using procedures that implement qualitative and quantitative components either concurrently or sequentially, with the same sample or with different samples.
>
> 5. Framing the procedures within philosophical/theoretical models of research, such as within a social constructionist model that seeks to understand multiple perspectives on a single issue.

The present research aims to accomplish triangulation through the use of surveys, classroom observation and interviews. Therefore, the integration of both quantitative and qualitative data in the form of a mixed method research has great potential to strengthen the rigour and enrich the analysis and findings of our research work. This also allows us to answer the research questions through using a variety of research tools that help in gathering data of different nature from different sources resulting in triangulation which, in return, increases the validity of the findings.

4.2.3 Triangulation.

Sometimes, triangulation is important because using one source of information is not sufficient to cover all the aspects under study and get adequate answers about the research problem. This makes it necessary to multiply the sources of information and use different data collection methods in order to get full answers to the research questions and increase the validity of the study findings. Yet, triangulation generally aims not only to check the validity of the findings, but also to study the phenomenon from multiple angles and see different opinions/views about the phenomena.   Triangulation refers to the use of multiple methods or data sources in qualitative research to develop a comprehensive understanding of phenomena (Patton, 1999). It also has been viewed as a qualitative research strategy to test validity through the convergence of information from different sources. Seliger and Shohamy (1989, pp. 122 – 123) claim that "often, several different methods are used in the same study in order to compile a more complete picture of the activity covered".

The researchers can overcome potential limitations of qualitative research methods by the use of triangulation as the strengths of each individual method can compensate for the weaknesses of others.

In this research work, triangulation involves crosschecking multiple data sources of information and collection procedures to ensure that the data we rely on are valid and free from bias and to evaluate the extent to which all evidence converge. Put differently, it offers multiple sources of evidence to identify uncertainties, consistencies, and potential biases. Hence, the following figure represents the triangulation of methods employed in the present study:
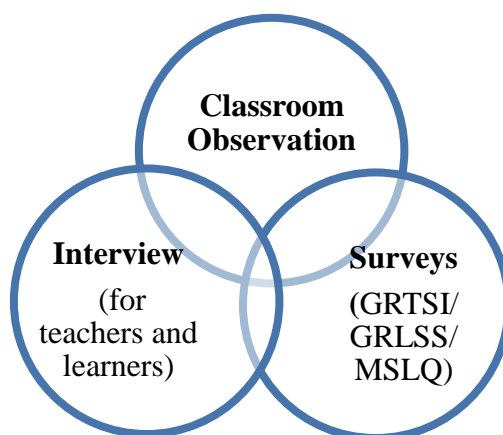
Figure 4.3 Methodological Triangulation of the Present Study

4.3 Population, Sampling and Setting of the Study

A population presents all the subjects that constitute a known whole. It is a term used in statistics to refer to all subjects of a particular type (Miller, 1975). Correspondingly, researchers choose the characteristics of their population in terms of age, gender, occupation, location, field of study and so forth. According to the criteria set by the researcher, the population is then fully defined so that those to be included and excluded are clearly spelt out.

The target population in our study are Second year secondary school students enrolled in Foreign Languages (hereafter FL) Stream and their corresponding EFL secondary school teachers who are concerned with teaching second year secondary school FL stream classes in the city of Biskra.

4.3.1 Teachers.

The sample of the study deals with six EFL teachers (four males and two females) of different age. The teachers' selection was random because "random sampling is the basis of all good sampling techniques and disallows any method of selection based on volunteering or the choice of groups of people known to be cooperative"(Indrayan, 2008, p. 116).

In order to select a simple random sample from a population, it is first necessary to identify all individuals from whom the selection will be made. Babbie (2008) claims that "in random selection, each element has an equal chance of selection independent of any other event in the selection process" (p. 212). Accordingly, the researcher has first listed the secondary schools in which foreign languages stream is available as a speciality for learners. Then, she wrote the names of the second year secondary school teachers in a piece of paper which was folded and put in a basket. After a thorough reshuffling, the researcher has selected an element and recorded it until the required number has been obtained. The selection of the sample was random regardless of the teachers' age, gender, or even experience. Teachers' names have not been communicated throughout the thesis for privacy and confidentiality issues; alphabets were used instead to label each teacher.

4.3.2 Students.

In our study, the sample which is relatively a group representative of the target population comprises of 252 second year secondary school students from six different secondary schools in the city of Biskra. It should be mentioned that the randomly selected schools govern the number of classes to be studied because we have chosen to work with second year FL stream. Only one school has enrolled two classes in this level whereas in the five other schools only one class was provided.

Students' age and gender are not variables of interest in the study; they were not taken into consideration. Thus, the analysis of the results was not age and gender-biased. The rationale behind the choice of second year FL stream has no connotation except for the availability and the amount of time advocated to the English language session. Five hours a week allowed teachers to apply different instructional materials and various types of activities that respond to the students' learning styles attempting to match their teaching styles with the students' learning styles as suggested by the researcher. On the contrary, third year secondary school teachers and students in FL stream classes, like other streams, are limited by time to finish the syllabus before the Baccalaureate exam, for that the researcher decided to work with second year secondary school students.

4.3.3 Setting.

The study is conducted in six secondary schools from different parts in the city of Biskra (Tolga, Biskra, Lioua, Ourelal, and Sidi Okba). In the academic year 2018/2019 from October to May, seven classes took part in the study from Mohamed El-Arbi Baarir secondary school in Tolga, Hakim Saadan secondary school in Biskra, El Arbi Ben Mhidi secondary school in Biskra, Ben Nacer Mohamed secondary school in Lioua, Zaghez Djelloul secondary in Ouralel , and Saib Boularbah secondary school in Sidi Okba. Out of six schools, seven classes made part of the study, two classes (1 and 2) from the first mentioned school (Mohamed El-Arbi Baarir, Tolga), and one class from each of the other schools. The number of students per class ranges from 30 to 40. A clearer picture of the research setting is shown in the table 4.1 below where the name of the secondary school, the teachers' label, and the total number of the participating students are illustrated:

Table 4.1

The Schools, Classes and Teachers Participating in the Study

The Secondary School	Number of Students in Class	Pseudo Name of the Teacher
1. **Mohamed El-Arbi Baarir secondary school in Tolga.**	Class 1=> 30 Class 2=> 30	Teacher A
2. **Hakim Saadan secondary school in Biskra**	37	Teacher B
3. **Ben Nacer Mohamed secondary school in Lioua.**	37	Teacher C
4. **Zaghez Djelloul secondary in Ouralel**	38	Teacher D
5. **El Arbi Ben Mhidi secondary school in Biskra**	40	Teacher E
6. **Saib Boularbah secondary school in Sidi Okba**	40	Teacher F

4.4   Data Collection Instruments

To achieve the research aim and in attempt to confirm or reject the hypotheses, the researcher has undertaken an experiment using five data collection instruments. A research instrument can be defined as "a tool used to collect data. An instrument is a tool designed to measure knowledge, attitude and skills" (Parahoo, 1997, p. 172). The present research work employed different data collection tools in a mixed method to obtain information that would help in answering the research questions.

One type of the study instruments used in this study is the survey. The latter is simply a data collection instrument used to self-report data from a group of respondents (sample) to obtain information about the larger population from which the sample has been drawn. Surveys may be conducted using different tools such as questionnaires, interviews, inventories, and scales. Three surveys, one designed to teachers and two surveys to students are used in this research to obtain insightful information directly from our respondents.

The surveys include: the Grasha-Riechmann Student Learning Styles Scale (hereafter GRLSS) which was used to determine students' learning styles; the Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Style Inventory (hereafter GRTSI) which was used to identify teachers' teaching styles; and the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire

(hereafter MSLQ) that was employed to measure students' motivation at the beginning and at the end of the study. Although the use of the surveys (inventories) helped us to largely answer questions one, two and three respectively, it was not enough to attain sufficient information that would allow us to generate conclusions. Classroom observation and interviews (for both teachers and learners) were also conducted to better consolidate the findings. The objective of using classroom observation is to collect data about classroom atmosphere, teachers' dominant teaching methods and styles, and the students' dominant learning styles. It is also used to see whether students were motivated and participated in class activities or not. The classroom observation was held at the very beginning of this study before the administration of the surveys during the student's ordinary sessions of English language subject matter. Neither teacher nor students have been informed about the aim of the study to avoid bias.

Interestingly enough, interviews for teachers and students have been used to obtain data to supplement and cross validate both the teachers and the students' responses to the surveys and check their attitudes and opinions. They were conducted at the end of the study to strengthen the findings of the research and help us draw conclusions. The interviewees were asked to pinpoint their opinions about matching teaching styles with learning styles in class and the effect of this match on motivation and overall achievement.

Thus, a triangulation of methods is used in the study wherein three different types of research instrument are utilised, surveys (GRLSS, GRTSI, and MSLQ), classroom observation and interviews. The five data gathering tools are employed to have data from diverse sources and of different nature in attempt to find answers to our research questions. By the diversifying the study instruments, we believe we would address qualitative and quantitative data from a range of resources to be able to address reliability and validity issues.

4.4.1 The Grasha-Riechmann learning styles scale.

To measure 2nd year secondary school students' dominant learning style, Grasha-Riechmann Student Learning Styles Scale (GRLSS) is used. The style dimensions seek to identify what kind of an interaction the students are in with the teachers and their friends.

This instrument consists of 60 items with a five point Likert scale that range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) (see appendix A).

Likert scale is a rating system, used in questionnaires and surveys that are mainly designed to measure people's attitudes, opinions, or perceptions. In this study respondents (teachers and learners) choose from a range of possible responses to a specific statement (item) in the surveys. Responses to items typically include "strongly disagree (1)," "disagree (2)," "neutral (3)," "agree (4)," and "strongly agree (5)". The categories of response are coded numerically and the numerical values are defined for specific measures. The Likert scale is named after the American social scientist Rensis Likert, who devised the approach in 1932.

There are six different types of learning styles in the GRLSS, namely, "competitive, collaborative, avoidant, participant, dependent and independent". Each learning style has ten items that describe the characteristics of that style. Students are required to respond to each item in a Likert scale. The ten items for each learning style are distributed systematically in the scale and that distribution is presented in the table below.

Table 4.2

Learning Styles Test Items

	Learning Styles					
	Independent	**Avoidant**	**Collaborative**	**Dependent**	**Competitive**	**Participant**
Item Number	1	2	3	4	5	6
	7	8	9	10	11	12
	13	14	15	16	17	18
	19	20	21	22	23	24
	25	26	27	28	29	30
	31	32	33	34	35	36
	37	38	39	40	41	42
	43	44	45	46	47	48
	49	50	51	52	53	54
	55	56	57	58	59	60

The students' scores on the survey (in five degree of Likert scale) are added together and then divided by ten to obtain the score of each style. The obtained scores are afterwards compared to the norms for each learning style (Grasha, 1996, p. 203) to check whether they represent relatively low, moderate or high scores. The learning styles of all the students participating in this study were determined based on this scale.

Table 4.3

The Norms for Each Learning Style Scale

	Low	Moderate	High
Independent	1.0–2.7	2.8–3.8	3.9–5.0
Avoidant	1.0–1.8	1.9–3.1	3.2–5.0
Collaborative	1.0–2.7	2.8–3.4	3.5–5.0
Dependent	1.0–2.9	3.0–4.0	4.1–5.0
Competitive	1.0–1.7	1.8–2.8	2.9–5.0
Participant	1.0–3.0	3.1–4.1	4.2–5.0

4.4.2 The Grasha-Riechmann teaching styles inventory.

To measure the teaching styles of the English class teachers, Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Style Inventory (GRTSI) is used in this study. Grasha (1994) presents the 40-item inventory on which teachers are asked to respond to in a seven-point Likert scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). The teaching style inventory measures the teaching styles on five subcategories of teaching styles "expert, formal authority, personal model, facilitator and delegator" (see appendix B).

The scale has 40 items. Each teaching style involves 8 items that describe various characteristics. The items distribution is presented in the table below:

Table 4.4

Teaching Style Test Items

	Teaching Styles				
	Expert	**Formal Authority**	**Personal Model**	**Facilitator**	**Delegator**
	1	2	3	4	5
	6	7	8	9	10
	11	12	13	14	15
Item Number	16	17	18	19	20
	21	22	23	24	25
	26	27	28	29	30
	31	32	33	34	35
	36	37	38	39	40

The teachers' scores in each column (in a seven points Likert scale) are added and divided by eight to obtain average ratings of each teaching style. After that, the attained score is compared to the norms for each learning style (Grasha, 1996, p. 164) to check whether they represent relatively low, moderate or high scores. The teaching styles of the teachers participating in this study were eventually determined on the basis of the table below:

Table 4.5

The Norms for Each Teaching Style Scale

	Low	Moderate	High
Expert	1.0-3.2	3.3-4.7	4.8-7.0
Formal Authority	1.0-4.0	4.1-5.4	5.5-7.0
Personal Model	1.0-4.3	4.4-5.7	5.8-7.0
Facilitator	1.0-3.7	3.8-5.3	5.4-7.0
Delegator	1.0-2.6	2.7-4.2	4.3-7.0

4.4.3 The Motivated strategies for learning questionnaire.

Students' motivation was measured by means of the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ). The MSLQ was developed by Paul Pintrich and his colleagues in the University of Michigan (1991). It aims to assess self-regulation, motivation and university students' use of learning strategies. In addition to many other instruments that have been used to assess motivation and self-regulation, the MSLQ showed more practicality. Dornyei (2010, p. 178) claims that the MSLQ is "the best known instrument in this area in educational psychology."

Being able to depict signs of self-regulation and motivation, the MSLQ is widely used by researchers. Motivation and self-regulation are very difficult and complex to be measured. A person is motivated and self-regulated when s/he accumulates and shows high levels of self-efficacy, critical thinking, and time-management skills, among others. The MSLQ permits the researchers to study such accumulation of sub-constructs because it is a summative scale of several subscales. It is quite practical because it is provided by a manual that gives a detailed description of the scales and interpretation of scores (Pintrich,

1991). Also, the items of the MSLQ are constructed in a way that is adaptable to any teaching/learning situation.

The MSLQ used in the present study is the short version of 44-item scale. The short version of MSLQ is according to Pintrich and DeGroot (1990) more suitable for secondary school students unlike the 67-scale used with university students. The MSLQ used in the study is divided into two main sections: motivational beliefs and self-regulated learning strategies (see appendix C).

The first section Motivational Beliefs is made up of three subscales namely: self-efficacy, intrinsic value, and test anxiety. The second section Self-Regulated Learning Strategies consists of two subscales: cognitive strategy use and self-regulation. The distribution of items in each subscale is illustrated in the table below:

Table 4.6

The MSLQ Item Distribution

	Motivational Beliefs			Self-Regulated Learning Strategies	
	a. Self-Efficacy	**b. Intrinsic Value**	**c. Test Anxiety**	**d. Cognitive Strategy Use**	**e. Self-Regulation**
Item Number	2	1	3	30	32
	7	5	14	31	34
	10	6	24	33	40
	11	9	27	35	41
	13	12		36	43
	15	17		38	45
	20	18		39	46
	22	21		42	52
	23	25		44	55
				47	
				53	
				54	
				56	

Students respond to each item in five point Likert scale. To obtain the mean score of each scale students' scores for each item in the subscale are added together and then divided by the number of items in that subscale. For example, students' score in "self-efficacy" is divided by nine whereas their score in test anxiety is divided by four and so forth for the rest of the subscales. After calculating the mean of each subscale, the overall mean is calculated by adding the means (of every subscale) and dividing them by five (the number of the subscales). Thanks to the summative nature of the MSLQ, we are able to

study all the motivational and cognitive constructs of the scale simply by studying the general scale mean score. The scores are classified into **low, medium**, or **high** according to the norms illustrated in the table below:

Table 4.7

The MSLQ Scoring Norms

Low	Medium	High
2.4 or less	2.5-3.4	3.5 or higher

4.4.4 The classroom observation.

In addition to the use of surveys, classroom observation was also employed. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) claim "if…the outcomes of a questionnaire survey correspond to those of an observational study of the same phenomena, the more the researcher will be confident about the findings". Essential information had to be mentioned in the classroom observation form/checklist such as date, place, instructors, observer, number of students and duration of the session. The purpose of this type of research is to gather more reliable insights. In other words, the researcher can capture data on what participants do as opposed to what they say they do.

The researcher randomly joined the seven classes for observation purpose. In fact, teachers' lesson presentation and instruction methods were observed alongside with students' behaviours and attitudes while they were conducting their routine classroom activities.

Conducting a classroom observation enabled the researcher to examine the classroom atmosphere before carrying out the study. It helped in discovering the way teachers were teaching, the methods they used and their students' behaviours in class as well as their learning styles in a real context. Hence, it was of a vital importance for the researcher to observe the current situation of students and teachers who were taking part in the study.

The observation was carried out during the beginning of the academic year 2018/2019 with second year secondary school students in FL Stream. This observation involves seven classes in six secondary schools, namely, Mohamed El-Arbi Baarir secondary school (Tolga), Hakim Saadan secondary school (Biskra), El Arbi Ben Mhidi

secondary school (Biskra), Ben Nacer Mohamed secondary school (Lioua), Zaghez Djelloul secondary (Ouralel) , and Saib Boularbah secondary school (Sidi Okba). Each class was observed for two sessions resulting in fourteen (14) sessions of classroom observation which helped us strengthen the research validity and reliability. The observed teachers were informed before about the date and time of the observation sessions but not about the study aim to avoid bias or any change in the teachers' behaviours. After the observation sessions, the teachers have been introduced to the aim behind observation.

During the observation sessions, the researcher has played the role of the observer without interfering in the context. She has taken notes and filled in an observation checklist which contains 16 statements divided thematically into four main sections that are:

Section One: General Observation of Classroom Management

This section contains four statements about the physical setting, the teachers' movements, learners' behaviours, and interaction.

Section Two: General Observation of the Teacher-Learner Relationship and Interaction

This section consists of four statements about the teacher's movement in class, teacher's care and understanding, teacher's response to students' questions and enquiries, and teacher-student and student-student interaction.

Section Three: General Observation of the Learners' Learning Styles

This section includes five statements which tackle learners' learning preferences. Statements have been put forward to correspond to different learning styles. The researcher observes the learners and makes comments on the prevailing learning styles in each class.

Section Four: General Observation of Teachers' Teaching Styles

This section consists of six statements concerning the teachers' teaching styles. This second section also indicates the teacher's teaching styles and the different methods of instruction. The researcher takes notes about the dominant teaching methods.

Section Five: General Observation of Students' Motivation

This part contains 1 statement about students' motivation and engagement in class activities. The researcher observes learners' behaviours and reactions toward the teachers' instruction and towards themselves. Interaction in the classroom is taken into account.

Table 4.8

The Observation Checklist

<div style="text-align: center;">

OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

</div>

The Observer:.................................... The Presenter:................................

Level:... The School:..................................

Class Time:.......... Number of Students:..................................

Date:.. Duration:...............................

RATING SYSTEM: a. Yes b. Somehow c. No

Statements	Yes	Somehow	No
Section One: General Observation of the Classroom			
1. The physical setting is clean, organized, and comfortable so that learners feel relaxed and enjoy class activities.			
2. The classrooms consist of an adequate number of students. They are not overcrowded			
3. Students' sitting system is managed appropriately			
4. There are discipline problems			
Section Two General Observation of the Teacher-Learner Relationship and Interaction			
5. The teacher is active. S/he moves among learners to explain, clarify and check for comprehension.			
6. The teacher shows interest in all of the students' questions and tries to answer them thoroughly.			
7. The teacher notices the students who were absent in the previous session and asks about them.			
8. There is interaction between the teacher and the students and also between the students themselves			
Section Three: General Observation of the Learners' Learning Styles			
9. Students rely on the teacher to explain everything (Dependent)			
10.Students prefer to work alone and do tasks (Independent)			
11. Students like to compete with others (Competitive)			
12. Students enjoy working with others. (Collaborative)			
13. Students like participating in the class. (Participant)			
Section Four: General Observation of the Teachers' Teaching Styles			
15. Teachers vary the lesson type (warm up, presentation, practice, small group discussion, pair work, and individual work).			
16. Teachers attract students' attention by using a range of presentation techniques (e.g., pictures, data show, stories, quiz, etc) to accommodate all learning styles.			
17. Teachers instruct and write on the board.			
18. Teachers strive to maintain discipline in the classroom.			
19. Teachers behave as authority.			
20. Teachers show more facilitator and delegator's qualities.			
Section Five: General Observation of Students' Motivation			
21. Students are active. They show interest and engagement in class activities.			

4.4.5 Description and Design of the interviews.

Since our research is a mixed method, different research tools are used. The use of interviews was very important to unveil some realities about the findings we obtained from our study. The qualitative research interview seeks to describe and understand the meanings of central themes in the life world of the subjects. The main task in interviewing is to understand the meaning of what the interviewees say (Kvale, 1996).

There are different types of interviews including structured/standardised, semi-structured, and unstructured/ informal (Merriam, 1998):

> ➢ Structured interviews consist of a series of pre-determined questions that all interviewees answer in the same order. Data analysis usually tends to be more straightforward because researcher can compare and contrast different answers given to the same questions.

> ➢ Unstructured interviews are usually the least reliable from research viewpoint, because no questions are prepared prior to the interview and data collection is conducted in an informal manner.

> ➢ Semi-structured interviews contain the components of both, structured and unstructured interviews. In semi-structured interviews, interviewer prepares a set of same questions to be answered by all interviewees. At the same time, additional questions might be asked during interviews to clarify and/or further expand certain issues.

Two structured interviews were assigned to the six teachers participating in the study and to twenty 20 students from the seven classes. This type of interview is nearly similar to a "verbal questionnaire" where a list of questions is prepared beforehand by the researcher and the interviewee will answer (Newell & Burnard, 2006, p. 60). Questions in the interview range from open-ended and closed-ended.

Interviews were carried out at the end of the study in May 2019. At the beginning of the interview, the interviewees have been introduced again to the researcher and then information on the research were presented.. Both interviews are devised to investigate the effect of matching teaching and learning styles on students' motivation and achievement.

4.4.5.1 The teachers' interview.

The interview was handed out to six secondary school teachers of English in six secondary schools in the city of Biskra. The interview consisted of 13 questions ranging from open-ended and closed-ended questions in order to get a deep understanding of the phenomenon under study. The closed-ended questions were mainly based on yes/no questions, multiple choices, and the Likert scale where teachers are required to make decisions indicating different levels of agreement about a particular statement. Their decisions are made on five point scale (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree).

The number of each response indicates the value of that response. The total score is obtained by adding the scores to each other. Speaking about reliability and validity issues, Likert scale measure are primarily at ordinal level of measurement because responses indicate a ranking only. The attitude scales do not need to be factually accurate. They only need to reflect one's perception of the truth. Respondents will be indicating the feelings that the statements trigger in them and not measuring the factual accuracy of each item (Dyer, 1995).

Likert scale measures are easier and simpler to use by researchers than other scales. They are widely used scales in social sciences (Tittle & Hill, 1967) for their ability to measure attitudes and perceptions. In the present study, we opted for this type of questions because they enabled us to use quantified data about teachers' perceptions and attitudes regarding the use of an integrated model of teaching and learning in which teachers match their teaching styles to their learners' learning styles in order to enhance motivation and achievement. The Likert scale was used with closed-ended questions.

In addition to the closed-ended questions, participants were invited to express their in-depth responses about teaching and learning methods, classroom practices and activities in addition to the effect of using the integrated model in class using open-ended questions. Using open-ended questions gave respondents room to freely express their ideas.

The interview is divided into three sections:

Section One: Teachers' Personal Information

This section includes questions about teachers' personal profile such as age, gender, qualifications, and years of experience. It aims to give an account about teachers' personal profile such as gender, experience and qualification. It consists of three questions:

Q1: Gender: male   /   female

Q2: For how long have you been teaching English?

  ➢ Less than 5 years

  ➢ More than 5 years

  ➢ More than 10 years

  ➢ More than 15 years

Q3: What are your qualifications?

Section Two: Teachers' Perceptions about Teaching and Learning Styles

In this section, teachers were interviewed to determine their point of view about students' learning preferences, learners' differences, and the importance of considering teaching and learning styles. This section includes four questions ranging from question four to seven. It attempted to discover teachers' perceptions about teaching and learning styles.

Q4: Do you think all students learn in the same way?

  ➢ Yes/ No

Q5: Do you think that learning styles represent an important factor that needs to be taken into consideration in the teaching /learning process? Do you take learners' learning styles into account when preparing your lesson?

  ➢   Strongly Agree   Agree   Neutral   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

Q6: Are your instructions mainly taken from: the textbook, adapted material, both of these.

Q7: Do you teach in the same way you have been taught?

  ➢ Yes / No

This part of the interview helped to identify the participating teachers' views towards teaching styles and practices, the differences that exist among their learners, the effect of these differences on learners' motivation and achievement, their considerations about lesson design and instructional materials.

Section Three: Motivation

This section is composed of six questions. It surveyed teachers' views about motivation, the ways teachers use to enhance students' motivation, and the effect of matching teaching with learning styles on students' motivation and achievement. This part includes question from eight to 13:

Q8: Do you believe that appealing to your learners' needs and diversifying the learning tasks involve all the students in class activities?

  ➢ Strongly Agree   Agree   Neutral   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

Q9: To what extent do you think that students' motivation is related to their teachers' teaching styles?

Q10: In your opinion, what are the factors that undermine students' motivation?

Q11: As long as this study is concerned, have you found that matching teaching styles and learning styles beneficial in terms of empowering students' motivation?

  ➢ Strongly Agree   Agree   Neutral   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

Q12: Do you think that matching teaching and learning styles helped in creating a sense of immediacy between you and your students?

  ➢ Strongly Agree   Agree   Neutral   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

Q13: Do you think you can do the same thing with the other classes?

4.4.5.2 The students' interview.

The interview was conducted with 20 second year students FL stream at six different secondary schools in the city of Biskra who have participated in the study. It consists of six questions including five closed-ended questions and one open-ended question. They are divided into two sections. The first section discusses students' preferred way of learning and teachers' teaching styles. It contains two questions. The second part of the interview is composed of four questions that seek to check students' motivation and achievement after matching their learning styles with their teachers' teaching styles.

Section One: Learning Styles

This section highlights the respondents' dominant learning styles, and sought to investigate learners' opinion about their teacher's teaching style. It includes two questions:

Q1: Which of the following statements describes your preferred way of learning?

  -You rely on the teacher to explain everything to you. (Dependent)

  -You participate and take part in various learning activities (Participant)

  -You cooperate with others, you like group working, peer-working (Collaborative)

  - You do not enjoy participating in activities (Avoidant)

  - You prefer to work alone and do tasks by your own (Independent)

  - You prefer to compete with others (Competitive)

Q2: Do you see that your teacher's teaching method suits your learning styles?

Section Two: Motivation and Achievement

This part is sheds light on students' the effect of matching teaching styles with learning styles on motivation and achievement and attempts to determine students' attitudes towards the match of teaching styles with learning styles and its effect on motivation. This section consists of four questions:

> **Q3:** Did you enjoy class activities before (before the experiment of the match)?
>
> **Q4:** Do you feel more motivated to study English now?
>
> **Q5:** Have your achievement in English increased?
>
> **Q6**: Do you like to be taught in a way that caters for your learning styles? Why?

4.5 Data Collection and Data Analysis Procedures

As long as this research is both qualitative and quantitative, different data analysis procedures have been utilised based on descriptive and statistical measures. The study starts with two observation sessions to seven second year secondary school classes of FL stream. During the observation sessions, the researcher kept neutral attitude and did not interfere in what had been done in class. Neither the teachers nor the students have been informed about the real cause behind the presence of the researcher in order not to bias the findings of the observation sessions. Actually, teachers were informed generally about the field of study but not the exact issue. It was only after the observation phase that teachers were informed about the investigation's aims.

After the observation phase, the researcher started her exploratory study. GRTSI and GRLSS and MSLQ were administered to teachers and learners respectively in October 2018. The researcher read the survey for the students to avoid any ambiguity and explains the difficult words, though both GRLSS and MSLQ language was appropriate for the learners' level. Responding to both surveys took around one hour because they are somehow long and also because, at beginning of the session, the teacher introduced the researcher to the students and explained to them the aim behind these surveys and asked them to be cooperative with the researcher.

After determining teachers' teaching styles and students' learning styles, the frequency of match and mismatch has been measured. Then, learners' motivation was measured using the MSLQ. This latter enabled the researcher to depict students' motivation level before their learning styles have been matched with their teacher's teaching styles.

The match was enhanced through the application the integrated model of teaching and learning styles where a compilation of various activities in lesson plans designed fundamentally in a way that responds to learners' major learning styles. An integrated model of teaching and learning has been introduced to teachers. Two workshops have been organized to participating teachers wherein they have been introduced to Grasha-Riechmann's (1996) teaching and learning styles. Teachers' dominant teaching styles were explained to the participating teachers besides the characteristics and the teaching methods associated with these teaching styles. In addition to that, students' prevailing learning styles were explained and each teacher was presented by his/her students' learning styles besides the MSLQ results of his/her class.

Moreover, the types of instructional materials that the students prefer and the activities that match to their learning styles have been also discussed.   Every teacher has a copy of Grasha's (1996) book *"Teaching with Style: a Practical Guide to Enhancing Learning by Understanding Teaching and Learning Styles"*. The researcher explained to the six teachers the main ideas of the integrated model of teaching and learning styles as suggested by Grasha (1996) and its major elements which will be adopted in the study.

At the last phase of the study, the students responded to the MSLQ again to check whether or not there is a significant difference between their pre-and post test mean scores. Learners' motivation have been measured twice before and after the implementation of the integrated model of teaching and learning styles (the match) to make sure if there is a positive effect of matching teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles on motivation in the EFL classroom. Learners' motivation and achievement in the pre-treatment phase were compared statistically to that of the post treatment. Comparisons for statistical significance were made using the t-test in SPSS.

Analysing the surveys' data was done systematically through the statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS) version 20 to calculate sample means, standard deviations, standard error, frequencies, and t-testing. IBM SPSS is the set of software programs that are combined together in a single package. The basic application of this program is to analyse scientific data related with the social science. It is used by many researchers for

complex statistical data analysis. With the help of the obtained statistical information, SPSS first store and organize the provided data, then it compiles the data set to produce suitable output. SPSS is designed in such a way that it can handle a large set of variable data formats.

The t-test is a type of inferential statistic used to determine if there is a significant difference between the means of two groups, or two means of the same group which may be related in certain features. Researchers use it to understand the difference between two sample types, to find out the difference in the interest of two kinds of groups.

762 surveys (including 252 copies of GRLSS, 252 copies of MLSQ pre-test, 252 copies of MSLQ post-test, and six copies of GRTSI) were statistically calculated. Discussions of the obtained findings which are believed to be systematic since they are statistically analysed, are provided on solid ground to generate conclusions about the effectiveness of matching teaching styles with learning styles.

Qualitative data mainly obtained from the interview and the observation were also analysed systematically. Teachers and learners' responses to the interviews were read and examined carefully. Then, classified and organised according to the issues they address. Closed-ended questions were analysed in a shorter time compared to the open-ended ones. Content analysis is used in analysing the interviews.

The data obtained from the seven observation checklists were based on four dimensions: general observation of the classroom, observation of the learners' learning styles, observation of the teachers' teaching styles and observation of students' motivation. Each dimension underlies a number of statements that have been completed by the research in every class. Remarks then have been transformed into digit and tabulated to facilitate reading and clarify their relatedness to research questions.

4.6 The Pilot Study

Pilot study is important before conducting the main study. A pilot study is recommended as it allows the researcher to try out the instruments on a small scale to check "face validity (the extent to which the tool appears to be addressing the concepts or variables of interest) and content validity (the extent to which a tool covers all relevant concepts and variables)" (Sim & Wright, 2000, p. 72). Pilot testing also provides an opportunity for the researcher to test the feasibility of the research instruments and spot out any potential problems before the main collection of data. That is, conducting a pilot study might give information about where the research could fail, whether research methods or

instruments are appropriate or not. De Vaus (1993, p. 54) states: "Do not take the risk. Pilot test first".

Prior to the main study, the research methodology was pilot tested. In the present research work, 25 second year secondary school students participated in the pilot testing. After determining the teacher's teaching styles, students' learning styles. The results are presented in the table below:

Table 4.9

Students' Mean Score on Grasha-Riechmann Learning Style Scale (Pilot Study)

N	Independent		Avoidant		Collaborative		Dependent		Competitive		Participant	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
25	3.8	Moderate	2.7	Moderate	3.2	Moderate	4.1	High	3.4	High	3.7	Moderate

As noticed in the table above, students' dominant learning styles are found to be Dependent-Participant-Competitive styles (cluster 1).   Then, teacher's teaching style was also determined using the GRTSI. The results are presented in the table below:

Table 4.10

Teacher's Mean Score on Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Styles Inventory (Pilot Study)

	Expert		FormalAuthority		Personal Model		Facilitator		Delegator	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
Teacher X	5.4	High	5.1	Moderate	5.8	Moderate	5.6	High	4.2	Moderate

The teacher's teaching styles were mainly found to be facilitator, personal model and expert. The frequency of match was found to be 09.50% only which needed to be reconsidered. Students' learning styles did not match sufficiently with teacher's teaching styles. In addition, students' motivation was measured using the MSLQ and the scores were kept as pre-test results. After three weeks of the match implementation, students' motivation was also measured again and the results were compared to the pre-test results.

Table 4.11

Students' Pre and Post-Treatment Scores on MSLQ (Pilot Study)

	Pre-Test Results			Post-Test Results		
	Mean	Sd	Rank	Mean	Sd	Rank
a. Self-efficacy	2.50	1.00	Medium	3.56	0.71	High
b. Intrinsic Value	3.44	0.86	Medium	3.83	0.86	High
c. Test Anxiety	3.31	0.92	Medium	3.39	0.92	Medium
d. Cognitive Strategy Use	3.14	0.72	Medium	3.79	0.52	High
e. Self-regulation	3.24	0.86	Medium	3.94	0.98	High
Total	**3.12**	**0.32**	**Medium**	**3.70**	**0.19**	**High**

As it can be noticed in the above table, students' overall scale results have noticed a modest increase in the post-treatment scores. The summative nature of the MSLQ facilitates studying all the motivational constructs of the scale merely by studying the general scale mean score. The results of the pre-treatment and the post-treatment have been compared using the t-test for dependent samples to check the statistical significance of the difference.

Table 4.12

Mean Difference of Students Motivation in the Pre-and Post-Test (Pilot test)

	Pre-Test	Post-Test
Mean	3.12	3.70
Sd	0.32	0.19
Df	24	
T	**3.51**	
***p* value**	**0.02**	

As noticed in table 4.12, the **t** value equals 3.51. This calculated **t** value exceeds the critical value 1.71 at the degree of freedom 24. In addition to that, **p** value (p=0.02<0.05) which means that the difference between pre and post-test is significant enough to claim that the increase in students' motivation is not due to a mere chance but rather due to the intervention which was in this research matching teaching and learning styles.

4.7   Limitations of the Study

The purpose of the study is to investigate the relationship between teachers' teaching styles and learners' learning and motivation in the EFL classroom. It seeks to discover whether the link between teachers' teaching styles and learners' learning styles has a positive impact on learners' motivation. Our study is then based on two variables namely the match between teaching and learning styles and motivation as a second variable.

As far as scientific research is concerned, a range of difficulties and problems may be encountered by researchers and hinder them from smoothly undertake their studies, and sometimes makes it difficult for them to go through the process easily. One of them was related to the validity issue. Besides the use of classroom observation and interviews, our study is based on inventories (GRTSI, GRLSS, and MSLQ) as main data gathering tools and measuring instrument. Due to the use of such inventories, we may say that the validity of the findings is affected by a number of factors, among which:

➢ The mood of the informants while completing the surveys.

➢ The subjectivity in the informants' answers since we cannot control or make sure that they are saying the truth about what they feel as well as it is difficult to know that their responses are not biased due to the human nature.

➢ The Hawthorne effect is ubiquitous in this research study because the students may modify or develop a given aspect of their behaviour that has been experimentally measured merely because they have been studied such especially when it comes to motivation (because it is the only survey that was measured twice).

➢ Students' achievements during the study may be misleading and not reflective to the accurate level of the students if the tests/exams do not assure validity and reliability.

Another problem faced by the researcher was the difficulty to convince the teachers about contributing in the study probably because they would be observed. More importantly; convincing them to make modifications on their teaching methods was the hardest task. We informed them that after we discover their learners' learning styles and their own teaching styles, we would make a match in order to see to what extent this match affects learners' motivation. They welcomed the idea but they did not want to make extra effort in lessons preparation. The researcher gave a hand to them.

Moreover, organising workshops with teachers represent a huge obstacle for the researcher as the teachers were not willing to travel to a particular place where all teachers

would meet with the researcher and have common workshops. As stated earlier, some secondary schools were near each other, even though, some teachers refused to move to another place especially the females. So, as a final solution, the researcher organised workshops for every teacher and it was also difficult to arrange the meeting time.

In addition to that, collecting data from the six secondary schools in the city of Biskra was very difficult for the researcher as it was time and energy consuming. Sometimes the researcher went to a given secondary school but she could not make what she intended to do because the headmaster was not there as we needed an entry permission from the headmaster to let us enter the secondary school and interact with teachers. We have actually consulted many secondary schools for permission, some have refused and we fortunately got the approval of the six mentioned earlier.

Furthermore, some of the teachers were not willing to work according to the study requirements because s/he was not prepared or because s/he has already decided to do a test. It took a very long time for the researcher to collect adequate information. Very often, the lessons presented by the teachers were prepared by the researcher and communicated to the teachers to trigger their participation in the present study.

Also, analysing the results of each of the 252 students in two surveys each containing 44 item-scale and 60 item-scale with a five point Likert scale and comparing the results of each student in the pre-treatment and post-treatment phases was indeed a very complicated procedure that was time and effort consuming.

We should also note that the Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Styles Inventory and Learning Styles Survey along with their scoring instructions that accompany them are not meant to be used to determine learners' lifelong characteristics. As stated previously, learning styles may change overtime as learners grow and modify/ develop new learning styles. However, the surveys are meant to measure teachers' or learners' styles at a given time. We believe that learning and teaching styles do affect the teaching and learning process. Yet, we admit that there may be more efficient copyrighted inventories that are used only by specialists for more valid and reliable results besides modern electronic devises that study brain functions.

It is also very important to say that due to time constraints classroom observations were not enough to allow us generalise or obtain more reliable results. The researcher was actually working according to the participating teachers' willingness to be observed as well as availability.

Finally, this study results, though obtained through a triangulation of methods, cannot be generalised as they represent only the population of 2nd year secondary school FL stream in the city of Biskra.

4.8   Conclusion

As a conclusion, the present chapter aimed at providing the readers with a brief presentation of the research methodology. It highlighted the conceptual framework of the research process and the nature of the study. It presented an overview on the research design and methodology and provided an account of the study's sample consisting of EFL secondary schools teachers and second year secondary school FL stream students in the city of Biskra.

The present study has employed a triangulation of research methods including three surveys, namely, GRLSS, GRTSI, MSLQ, interviews for both teachers and students and classroom observation. In fact, each of the surveys used in the study has been designed to measure a particular aspect of our research. Using interviews and classroom observation as accompanying tools helped us strengthening our triangulation and allowed us collect data from various sources. The triangulation of methods has been used to maximize the credibility of the results. Finally, it has highlighted the data analysis procedures that have been used to analyse data using qualitative and quantitative approaches. The following chapter will be devoted to the analysis and interpretation of the results.

Chapter Five

Chapter Five: Data Analysis and Discussion/ Part One : Analysis and Discussion of the Classroom Observation, the GRLSS, and the GRTSI Findings

Chapter Five: Data Analysis and Discussion/ Part One : Analysis and Discussion of the Classroom Observation, the GRLSS, and the GRTSI Findings

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, we have introduced the research methodology adopted in undertaking this study. We have introduced the research design, the population, the data collection instrument and procedures, reliability and validity issues. The present chapter is devoted to the presentation and analysis of the data obtained from the implementation of both the classroom observation and students and teachers' surveys.

Data will be presented quantitatively using descriptive statistics through tables and graphs. The findings' analyses of the observation and the surveys (GRLSS, GRTSI) are followed by a discussion section to relate the study findings to previous literature. The choice behind presenting the findings of these tools first is mainly dictated by the chronological order of the steps of this research study. Thus, we will start with classroom observation to make a clear vision of the classroom's environment, management, instruction and learners' motivation. Then, we will move to identify the students' learning styles preferences and teachers' teaching styles.

5.2 Classroom Observation Findings' Analysis

In order to get a clear image of the context of our study, a classroom observation was carried out. It is indeed one of the main data gathering tools employed by the researcher to obtain insightful information that would help in supporting the results of the study. Conducting a classroom observation helped the researcher examine the classroom atmosphere before carrying out the investigation. It also enabled us to discover the way teachers were teaching (their prevailing teaching styles), their students' behaviours in class as well as their learning styles in a real classroom setting. In fact, two sessions for each class, i.e. 14 sessions of observation have been carried out by the researcher during October and November 2018 in seven second year FL stream classrooms from different secondary schools in Biskra. It is worth mentioning that, the second observation session was conducted to ensure the remarks the researcher has made in the first session and to add

some remarks that could not be checked previously. The collected data from the two observations were then gathered, organised and tabulated to facilitate its analysis. The following table shows in details the class, the observation number, the date, and the timing of the observed sessions.

Table 5.1

Classroom Observation Dates and Timing

The Class	Observation Number	Date	Timing	The Teacher
Class 1	First Observation	01 Oct 2018	8: 00 - 9: 00	A
	Second Observation	07 Oct 2018	11: 00 – 12: 00	
Class 2	First Observation	01 Oct 2018	9:00 – 10: 00	A
	Second Observation	07 Oct 2018	10: 00 – 11: 00	
Class 3	First Observation	02 Oct 2018	9: 00 – 10: 00	B
	Second Observation	11 Oct 2018	11:00 – 12:00	
Class 4	First Observation	15 Oct 2018	14:00 – 15:00	C
	Second Observation	21 Oct 2018	8:00 – 9:00	
Class 5	First Observation	02 Oct 2018	11:00 – 12:00	D
	Second Observation	11 Oct 2018	8:00 – 9: 00	
Class 6	First Observation	22 Oct 2018	10: 00 – 11: 00	E
	Second Observation	24 Nov 2018	9:00 – 10:00	
Class 7	First Observation	11 Nov 2018	9:00- 10:00	F
	Second Observation	13 Nov 2018	8:00 – 9:00	

Section One: General Observation of the Classroom

As mentioned earlier in chapter four, the first section in the observation checklist aims to collect information about the overall atmosphere of the classroom. It contains four statements about the physical setting, class size, students' seating and discipline.

Item 1: The physical setting is clean, organized, and comfortable so that learners feel relaxed and enjoy class activities.

Table 5.2

Description of the Class' Physical Setting

	Rating Scale			
	Yes	Somehow	No	Total
Classes	2	3	2	7
Percentage	28.57%	42.85%	28.57%	100%
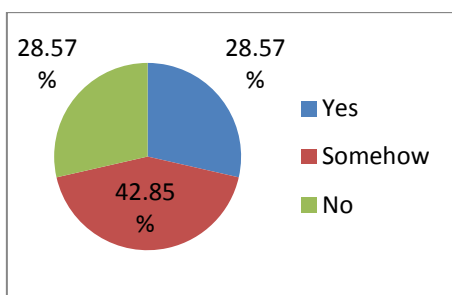
Figure 5.1 Description of the Class' Physical Setting

Based on our observation of the seven classes participating in the study, we have noticed that they were almost messy, uncomfortable and messy. As shown in table 5.2 above, only two classes (28.57%) were conducive to learning, namely classes 1 and 2. We observed that the two classes have been recently painted just few days before our observation session. The tables were also painted in the same colour with new curtains and pictures of the Algerian, English, French and Spanish flags. We have been told later by the teacher that the situation was catastrophic at the beginning of the academic year. Indeed, after two weeks, students volunteered: they bought painting materials and painted the classrooms by themselves during Tuesday afternoon, Saturday and Friday with no financial help from the administration (as a remark, all the classrooms in the foreign languages stream building were painted and decorated and not only the classrooms where the observation took place). On the other hand, three classes (42.85%) were somehow but not entirely acceptable including class 3, 4 and 6 whereas classes 5 and 7 were uncomfortable at all. Therefore, the majority of the observed classrooms (71.34%) do not represent an adequate environment for learning in the Algerian schools.

Item 2: The classrooms consist of an adequate number of students. They are not overcrowded.

Table 5.3

Students' Number Adequacy per Class

	Rating Scale			
	Yes	**Somehow**	**No**	**Total**
Classes	2	0	5	7
Percentage	28.57%	0%	71.34%	100%
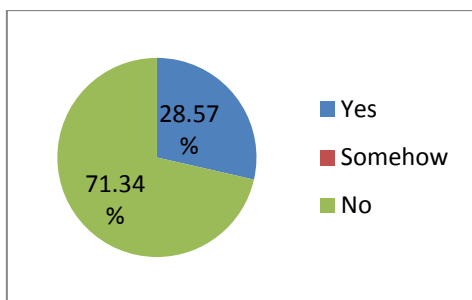
Figure 5.2 Students Number Adequacy per Class

The table 5.3 indicates that only two classes representing (28.57%) can be said to contain an adequate number of students. Class 1 and 2 as mentioned earlier in chapter four consist of 30 students each. As long as this issue is concerned, the majority of the Algerian secondary schools are suffering from overcrowded classes that encompass 35 to 47 and sometimes 50 students per class. Compared with these numbers, we consider 30 students per class as an acceptable number. For that, out of the seven observed classes, we assume that class 1 and 2 are not overcrowded. Speaking about the Foreign Languages stream in particular, we have noticed that all the secondary schools we have visited provide only one class for the second year secondary school except for Mohamed El Arbi Baarir (Tolga) secondary school, wherein there are two classes. Therefore, this is maybe the reason behind the overcrowding classes.

Overcrowded classrooms deprive learners from many opportunities to learn better and have sufficient feedback from teachers. In addition to many other obstacles such as noise, less use of technology, teachers stress or burnout, and discipline problems. According to the headmasters, having 37 or 40 is not the number that can be divided into two classrooms as the number obtained is not going to exceed 20 students per class. Having two classes instead of one means providing a setting, teachers, furniture, timing, equipment and this has an impact on the general pedagogical system of the secondary school. For that, they prefer to provide one overcrowded class instead of two classes 20 students each.

Item 3: Students' sitting system is managed appropriately.

Table 5.4

Students' Seating Syste

	Rating Scale			
	Yes	**Somehow**	**No**	**Total**
Classes	3	2	2	7
Percentage	42.86%	28.57%	28.57%	100%
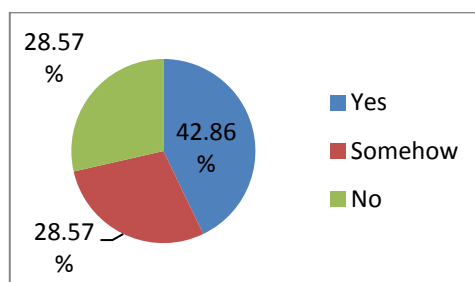
Figure 5.3 Students' Sitting System

As table 5.4 shows that students' sitting was organised in class 1, 2, and 4. We have noticed that in these classes the organisation was based on the students' heights. That is, the tall students sat behind the short ones. Boys and girls sat randmoly in different places in the same row. There were no particular remark about that. Trouble makers, as labelled by the teachers, were distributed throughout the classrooms and not put at the back as they prefer to do. They almost share the seats with quiet students and mostly sitting in front of the board in the first, second and third rows. Due to our humble experience as a teacher in secondary school, we could easily detect the trouble makers from their behaviour; so we have taken notes and then we have confirmed that from their corresponding teachers.

In fact, their bahaviours were not disruptive, they were mainly outloud speech with classmates, slight reoccuring movements accompanied by looks of curiosity about the reseracher. Students' sitting system in classes 3 and 5 was somehow apprpriately managed. Students were almost organised from the shortest to the tallest but sometimes tall students sat in front of short ones. In these classes for example, the sitting of students was in the structure that girls were in the first seat followed by boys and then girls sitting behind the boys and so on in three rows. In Class 5 however, there was a forth row that consists of boys only. In class 6 and 7 in fact, we could not detect any strategy in the seating management of the students as most of the girls were seating in the front whereas the boys were in the back.

Item 4: There are discipline problems.

Table 5.5

Students' Discipline

	Rating Scale			
	Yes	**Somehow**	**No**	**Total**
Classes	1	0	6	7
Percentage	14.28	00%	85.71%	100%
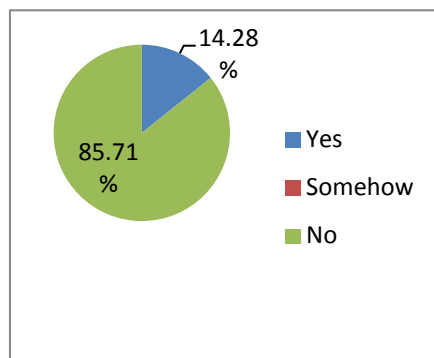
Figure 5.4 Students' Discipline

As indicated in table 5.5, we have not observed any kind of serious disruptive behaviours that annoyed the students or hindered the teacher from carrying out the lesson. Nevertheless, as mentioned in item 3 above, class 7 consists of boys seating at the back. In fact, some of the boys were making noises and were disrespectful to the teacher or the researcher.

The teacher has asked them many times to keep quiet and concentrate on the lesson but the researcher (as seating the back of the classroom) has noticed that they were playing games on their mobiles, chatting, using facebook and some others even watching videos. Of course, the teacher did not notice that whereas the research kept a non-participant behaviour and did not interfere, by taking notes only. After approximately half an hour, the teacher kicked out five students for not bringing the textbook and for making noise. This seemed a behaviour that the teacher usually does because the researcher has noticed some of these students looking for a book saying that the teacher will kick us out.

Section Two: General Observation of the Teacher-Learner Relationship and Interaction

Section two aims to obtain general information about important aspects in any classroom, notably, teacher-learner relationship and interaction in the classroom. This section consists of four statements about the teacher's movement in class, teacher's care and understanding, teacher's response to students' questions and enquiries, and teacher-student and student-student interaction.

Item 5: The teacher is active. S/he moves among learners to explain, clarify and check for comprehension.

Table 5.6

Description of Teachers' Facilitator Role

	Rating Scale			
	Yes	**Somehow**	**No**	**Total**
Teachers	2	2	2	6
Percentage	33.33%	33.33%	33.33%	100%
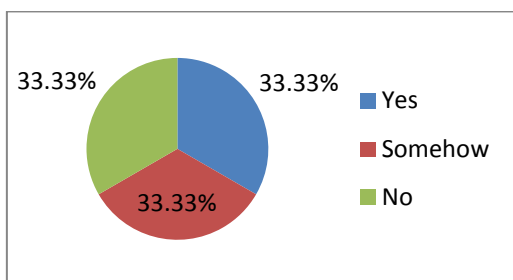
Figure 5.5 Description of Teachers' Facilitator Role

As noticed in table 5.6, only two teachers (33.33%), namely, teacher B and E have made sufficient interaction. They have moved around many times, explained, and asked questions to the students. Moreover, they have checked students' understanding and clarified ambiguities almost for every student. Two other teachers C and F did not do the same in the classroom. These teachers have only moved twice or thrice to check if the students were writing the lesson on their copybooks and whether they have textbooks. Only teacher A and D, however, did not move around during the whole session and kept in front of the students either explaining or writing on the board.

Item 6: The teacher shows interest in all of the students' questions and tries to answer them thoroughly.

Table 5.7

Teacher's Response to Students' Questions

	Rating Scale			
	Yes	**Somehow**	**No**	**Total**
Teachers	6	0	0	6
Percentage	100%	0%	0%	100%
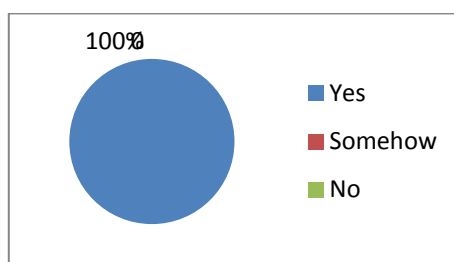
Figure 5.6 Teacher's Response to Students' Questions

According to the prevailing results in table 5.7, the entire six teachers (100%) in the seven classrooms (teacher A teaches classes 1 and 2) gave a considerable interest to their students' questions. They provided comprehensive answers and made sure that students have understood. This indicates that teachers are thoughtful persons, who despite the problems encountered in the classroom, still show feelings of responsibility.

Item 7: The teacher notices the students who were absent in the previous session and asks about them.

Table 5.8

The Teacher's Caring Behaviour

	Rating Scale			
	Yes	**Somehow**	**No**	**Total**
Teachers	2	0	4	6
Percentage	33.33%	0%	66.66%	100
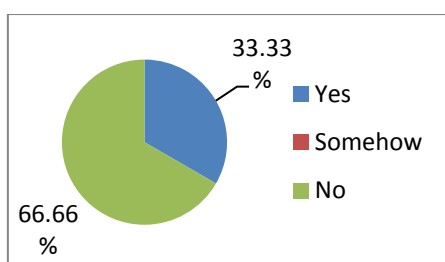
Figure 5.7 The Teacher's Caring Behaviour

As shown in table 5.8, we have noticed such a caring behaviour only in classes 3 and 6 with teacher B and E. This, in fact, indicates that the teachers are aware about the nature of the relationship between them and the students. The results also suggest that the majority of teachers ignore the importance of teacher-learner relationship and its effect on learners' motivation and sense of engagement.

Item 8: There is interaction between the teacher and the students and also between the students themselves.

Table 5.9

Interaction in the Classroom

	Rating Scale			
	Yes	**Somehow**	**No**	**Total**
Classes	2	2	3	7
Percentage	28.57%	28. 57%	42.86%	100%
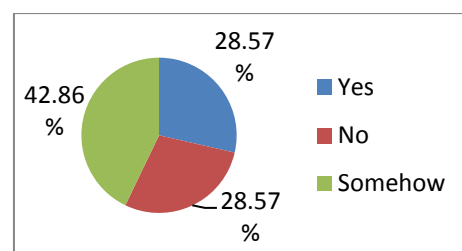
Figure 5.8 Interaction in the Classroom

As shown in table 5.9, interaction was not encouraged in all the participating classes. However, in classes 3 and 6, the researcher has noticed that there was interaction between the teacher and the students and between the students and their peers.   In the other two classes (28.57%), including class 4 and 7 however, interaction was not highly observed. Besides explaining the lessons; the teachers have asked the students about the meaning of some words. Some have made suggestions and then the teachers gave the meaning of the words and wrote them on the board. In class 1, 2 and 5 (42.86%), interaction was not sufficiently encouraged by teacher A and D. Teachers were presenting lessons in a form of lectures in which students were asked to pay attention and then answer some questions or do some assigned activities from their textbooks; students' questions were also thoroughly answered by the teacher. We have noticed that students were bored, uninterested and were not paying attention to the teachers but instead doing other things such as using their smart phones, doing activities or writing lessons of other subject matters.

Section Three: General Observation of the Learners' Learning Styles

Section three aims to collect authentic data about learners' apparent learning styles before conducting GRLSS. Using the observation checklist, the researcher has observed the learners in the real learning context and made comments about their prevailing learning styles in each class. This section includes five statements which tackle learners' learning preferences.

Item 9: Students rely on the teacher to explain everything (Dependent).

Table 5.10

Students as Dependent Learners

	Rating Scale			
	Yes	**Somehow**	**No**	**Total**
Classes	2	0	5	7
Percentage	28.57%	0%	71.42%	100%
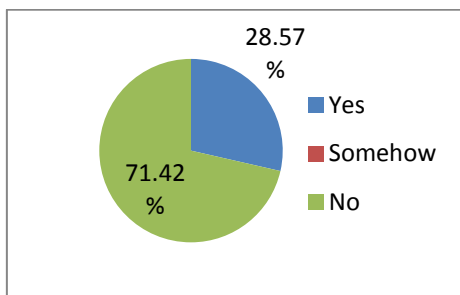
Figure 5.9 Students as Dependent Learners

Data in table 5.10 show that in two classes (28.57%) namely class 3 and 6, students were observed to display dependent learners' characteristics. In the other five classes including class 1, 2, 4, 5, and 7, a relatively high percentage (71.42%) has shown that the learners did not exhibit a dependent learning style. In fact, those learners are those who rely mainly on the teacher or sometimes peer for information. These learners are not curious or active about knowing more and learn only what is required. They lack autonomy and self-direction characteristics.

Item 10: Students prefer to work alone and do tasks (Independent).

Table 5.11

Students as Independent Learners

	Rating Scale			
	Yes	**Somehow**	**No**	**Total**
Classes	4	0	3	7
Percentage	57.14%	00%	42.85%	100%
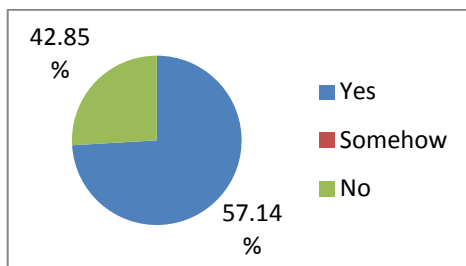
Figure 5.10 Students as Independent Learners

As noticed in table 5.11, students in the four classes (57.14%) including class 1, 4, 5, and 7 seemed to prefer working by their own on the different tasks and activities. The researcher has observed that students in the remaining three classes (42.85%) notably 2, 3, and 6 did not show preferences of working independently. Independent learners are those who prefer to work alone on activities and tasks. They like to rely on themselves in the learning process.

Item 11: Students like to compete with others (Competitive).

Table 5.12

Students as Competitive Learners

	Rating Scale			
	Yes	**Somehow**	**No**	**Total**
Classes	2	0	5	7
Percentage	28.57%	00%	71.42%	100%
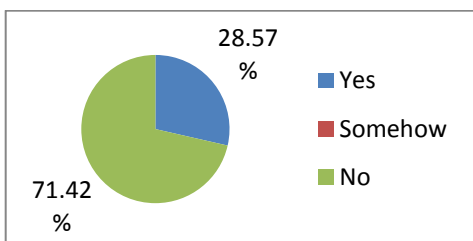
Figure 5.11 Students as Competitive Learners

As shown in the table 5.12 above, two classes (28.57%) including class 3 and 6 were observed to exhibit competent learners' characteristics. Competition aspects include being compared to other classmates, getting rewards (such as additional marks) and enjoying positive feedback from the teacher or from peers. Competitive learners like to be the centre of attention and to receive recognition for their accomplishments in class. (71.42%) of the classes namely class 1, 2, 4, 5 and 7, however, did not show sign of competitions. Learners were not interested in competing others or showing they are better than others maybe because they preferred to work cooperatively with their classmates rather than to compete with them.

Item 12: Students enjoy working with others

Table 5.13

Students as Collaborative Learners

	Rating Scale			
	Yes	**Somehow**	**No**	**Total**
Classes	5	2	0	7
Percentage	71.42%	28.57%	0%	100%
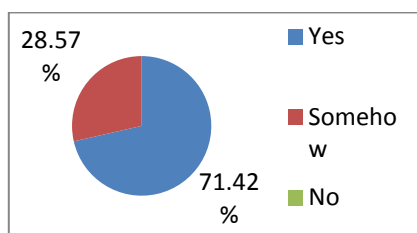
Figure 5.12 Students as Collaborative Learners

As clearly noticed in the table 5.13, the majority of students enjoyed working with each other in five (5) classes (namely class 1, 2, 4, 5, and 7). On the other, students in class 3, and 6 (28.57%) cooperate with peers only for a shorter time and seemed to be less engaged in pair or group work but still showing some collaborative characteristics. Collaborative learners are those who enjoy sharing ideas and talents with others. As far as collaborative learning style is concerned, teachers should encourage pair and group work as they allow for interaction, cooperation, and motivation.

Item 13: Students like participating in the class.

Table 5.14

Students as Participant Learners

	Rating Scale			
	Yes	**Somehow**	**No**	**Total**
Classes	4	3	0	7
Percentage	57.14%	42.85%	0%	100
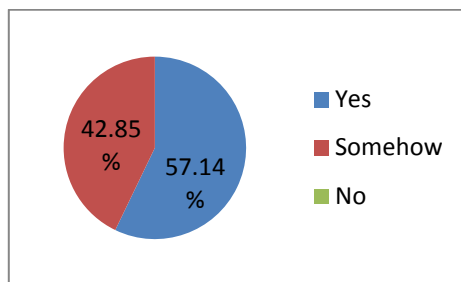
Figure 5.13 Students as Participant Learners

As shown in table 5.14, the researcher has observed that the students in all the classes apparently liked to participate in different class activities, but to varying degrees. In class 1, 2, and 4 (42.85%) students participated in some way but they did not really show high interest in participation like students in classes 3, 5, 6, and 7. Participant learners are those who enjoy going to class, be part of the learning and context and take part in as many of the course learning tasks as possible. They are also willing to do all of the required and optional course requirements as they can.

Section Four: General Observation of the Teachers' Teaching Styles

In this section, the researcher attempts to obtain valuable insights about the teachers' teaching styles by observing the method and the strategies used in lesson presentation before the implementation GRTSI. This section includes six statements which tackle teachers' preferred teaching styles.

Item 14: Teachers vary their lesson parts (warm up, presentation, practice, small group discussion, pair work, and individual work).

Table 5.15

The Variation of Lesson Parts

	Rating scale			
	Yes	**Somehow**	**No**	**Total**
Teachers	2	2	2	6
Percentage	33.33%	33.33%	33.33%	100%
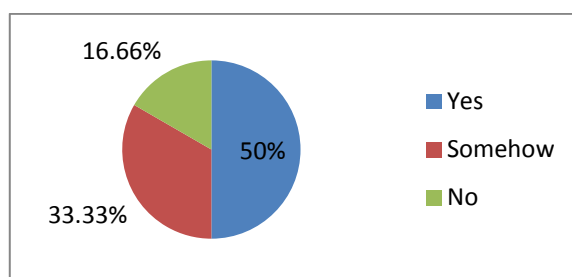
Figure 5.14 The Variation of Lesson Parts

As noticed in table 5.15, two teachers (33.33%) varied their lesson presentation and used different activities, these teachers were B and E. They started their lessons by a warming up in which different strategies have been used to introduce the new lesson. They started with retention by asking students about the previous points they have dealt with in the previous lesson and then they linked between the previously acquired knowledge and the new one. Their lesson presentation was based on the use of different types of activities. On the other hand, two other teachers did not use a variety of tasks and focus on using one method. These teachers were teacher A and D. Students in these two classes kept silent during the session except for some questions. Teacher A and D started the lesson directly explaining and presenting examples and then rules. Teacher C and F varied the lesson parts based on the textbook organisation of activities and emphasised that all students must have a textbook. After writing the date on the board, the teacher directly asked the students to open the textbook on a particular page. That is, the lesson parts were identical to the textbook activities. All learners were using their textbooks to follow, and many of them answered or found already written answers on the textbook they were using while some others (some seating at the back of the classroom) were hiding their smart phones and using them. In fact, the way the lesson is presented has a vital significance on learners' interest and motivation besides learning.

Item 15: Teachers attract students' attention by using a range of presentation techniques (e.g., pictures, data show, stories, quiz, etc) to accommodate all learning styles.

Table 5.16

Teachers' Use of Different Materials

	Rating Scale			
	Yes	**Somehow**	**No**	**Total**
Teachers	0	0	6	6
Percentage	0%	0%	100%	100%
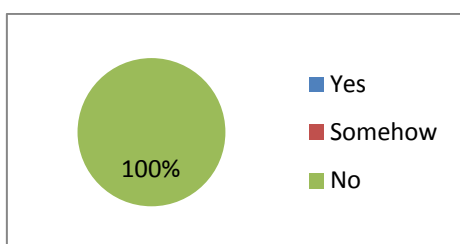
Figure 5.15 Teachers' Use of Different Materials

As the table and the figure show, in the whole sessions of observation, no teacher used a material other than the textbook. They all relied on the textbook as the source of their lesson presentation. Though some teachers especially teacher B and E approached the lesson in a different stages like warm up , presentation, practice and using different forms of activities such as pair work, group work, yet the only material was the textbook

Item 16: Teachers instruct and write on the board.

Table 5.17

Teachers' Use of the Board

	Rating Scale			
	Yes	**Somehow**	**No**	**Total**
Teachers	6	0	0	6
Percentage	100%	0%	0%	100%
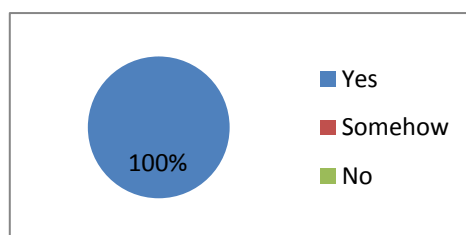
Figure 5.16 Teachers' Use of the Board

As shown in table 5.17, all teachers used the board to write answers of the activities to be copied by students on their copybooks. Teachers also used the board to explain the meaning of new vocabulary. Using the board to write important information is a useful tool to help learners process information, however, it should not be the only method used by the teachers because it will lead to boredom.

Item 17: Teachers strive to maintain discipline in the classroom.

Table 5.18

Maintaining Discipline in the Classroom

	Rating Scale			
	Yes	**Somehow**	**No**	**Total**
Teachers	4	2	0	6
Percentage	66.66%	33.33%	0%	100%
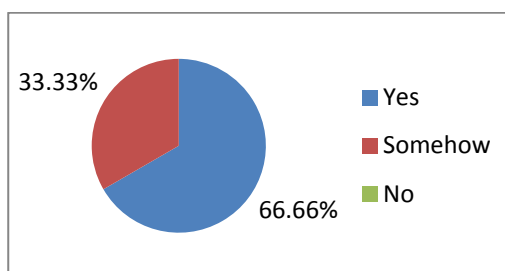
Figure 5.17 Maintaining Discipline in the Classroom

The table above displays that the majority of teachers (66.66 %) strive to keep the students disciplined and quiet. They preferred to keep the class calm and salient. For that, students were always reminded that they were not allowed to speak without permission. Students in these classes were disappointed about the situation for that reason they were most of the time doing other things such as using their smart phones secretly. Only, teacher B and E did not ask student to keep silent during the session.

Item 18: Teachers behave as authority.

Table 5.19

The Teacher as Authority

	Rating Scale			
	Yes	**Somehow**	**No**	**Total**
Classes	3	0	3	6
Percentage	50%	0%	50 %	100%
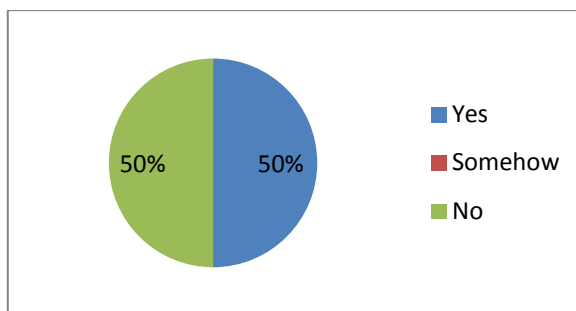
Figure 5.18 The Teacher as Authority

Half of the teachers participating in the study were observed to possess a formal authority teaching style characteristics. These teachers were A, D, and F They liked to monitor the class and keep order and silence. Their lessons were based on transferring information to students in a more teacher-centred approach. After explaining a given point, they asked students about any ambiguity before they move to the next one. Students' questions were answered and they made clear that the point is understood by the learners. The other half of the teachers including teacher B, E and to some extent C did not show any authoritative characteristics.

Item19: Teachers show more facilitator and delegator's qualities.

Table 5.20

The Teacher as Facilitator and / or Delegator

	Rating Scale			
	Yes	**Somehow**	**No**	**Total**
Classes	2	0	4	6
Percentage	33.33%	0%	66.66%	100%
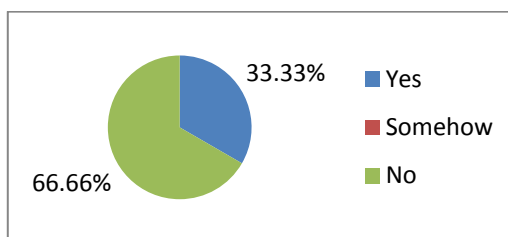
Figure 5.19 The Teacher as Facilitator and / or Delegator

It can be clearly noticed in the data shown in table 5.20 that the majority of teachers (66.66%) did not show any of the facilitator or delegator teaching styles characteristics. On the other hand, two teachers (33.33%) were observed to show some facilitator and delegator teaching styles, they are teacher E and B respectively. Students in these classes

were encouraged to interact with each other; work freely on projects where pair work and group work were highly supported. The teachers focused on involving students in the lesson by building together its components. The teachers did not present the lesson directly, rather, they made use of different strategies such as storytelling, questioning, using anecdotes, and discussions to have students deduce the rules. Even with the use of the textbook, teachers commented and made students react and speak and sometimes contradict with one another before having the points clear eventually.

Section Five: General Observation of Students' Motivation

Section Five is the last part in the observation checklist. It is more concerned by collecting information about students' motivation and engagement in class activities. This section includes one statement which tackles learners' interest and motivation in the classroom.

Item 20: Students are active. They show interest and engagement in class activities.

Table 5.21

Students' Motivation

	Rating Scale			
	Yes	**Somehow**	**No**	**Total**
Classes	1	2	4	7
Percentage	14.28 %	28.57%	57.14%	100%
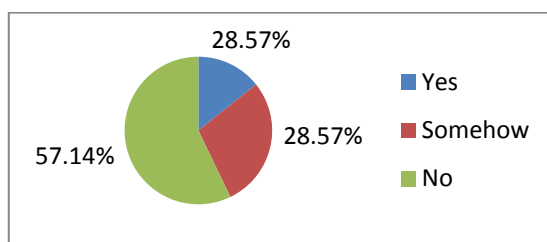
Figure 5.20 Students' Motivation

As the table and the figure show, the majority of students (57.14%) were not active. They did not show interest. Most of them seemed to be obliged to participate either to get good marks or because they were appointed by the teacher to answer on a particular question.

5.3   Classroom Observation Findings' Discussion

To improve students' motivation to learn English, this study has sought to identify second year (secondary school) students' needs for matching teachers' teaching styles with their learning styles by providing tangible instructional solutions for them. In order to examine the effect of matching teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles on students' motivation, it was mandatory to use a collection of data gathering tools, among which classroom observation. The latter was the first instrument to be employed at the very beginning of the investigation.

Classroom observation has been conducted in seven second year FL stream classes from different secondary schools in the city of Biskra. The observation has been made in two sessions for each classroom and aimed to collect a general overview about the context of the study and the participants' behaviours in the real classroom setting before undertaking the study. As mentioned earlier in chapter four, the teachers have not been informed about the real intention of the observation to avoid bias.

The observation checklist is made up of five sections that each one aims to gather information about a significant aspect in the classroom. In the first section, the researcher aims to obtain general overview about classroom atmosphere. Starting with the first item, the analysis outcome showed that only two classes out of seven were conducive to learning. The majority of the observed classrooms (71.34%) do not represent a highly favourable place to teach or to learn and supposedly it is the case of the majority of the Algerian schools. The physical setting where learning takes place should not be neglected because it is very important for the success of the teaching learning process. Stewart et al., (1997, p. 53) assume that the physical environment is regarded as the first step to "creating an orderly setting" for "establishing an environment conducive to learning".

They further claim that if the physical environment of the classroom is not orderly and attractive it can have a negative effect on the way teachers and students feel, think, and behave (Stewart et al, 1997). In other words, being in a discouraging environment is believed to have a negative effect on learning as it reduces students' interest, disturb their concentration, and decrease their motivation. Therefore, classroom management and organisation is an essential part of any success and should be reconsidered. The most significant benefit of a clean classroom is the fact that it maximizes the learning experience of the students. In fact, such a place "would have a positive effect on behaviour by improving the level and quality of student interactions, so teachers and students carry out

activities efficiently (Stewart et al, 1997; Landau, 2004). Accordingly, classrooms which are not clear, organised and comfortable have a salient effect on learners' and teachers' performance. In this vein, Marzano and Marzano (2003) believe that students cannot perform and learn to their fullest potential in a classroom that is chaotic and poorly managed.

Another important aspect in the study setting is the number of students per class. It has been found that 71.34% of the classes are overcrowded, an issue that teachers have no control over. These classes in fact represented an unpleasant atmosphere where teaching and learning took place. The overcrowded classroom is a universal problem that leads to many obstacles (Corcoran et al., 1988; Batiz et al., 1995). While indeed an ideal class size would be capped at 15 to 20 students, many schools in Algeria would regard 30 students per class a perfect deal because most classrooms exceed 35 and very often they encompass more than 40 students in a single class. A wide range of research studies has been undertaken on overcrowded classroom as an essential aspect impeding effective teaching and learning (Carbone, 1998; Carpenter, 2006; Sargent et al., 2009; Parveen Khan et al., 2012; Good & Lavigne, 2017; Marais, 2016).

According to these studies, overcrowding can result in many negative effects on teachers and learners. Batiz et al. (1995) state that students and teachers in overcrowded schools agreed that large classes negatively affect both classroom activities and instructional techniques. Among the many problems, congestion may lead to discipline issues, lack of sufficient feedback, lack of interaction and noise. Moreover, high quality learning cannot be ensured in overcrowded classrooms as large enrolment mostly results in learners' disengagement, withdrawal and lack of commitment (Kerma, 2019). Teachers find it very challenging to teach in overcrowded classes and assume the responsibility of ensuring pedagogical and psychological management, providing feedback and formative assessment, and solving discipline problems and disruptive behaviours. This was also claimed by Khan and Iqbal (2012) who find out that effective teaching was not possible in over- crowded classes and majority of teachers were facing instructional, discipline, physical and evaluation problems. Moreover, overcrowding and heavy teacher work-loads created stressful working conditions for teachers and led to higher teacher absenteeism (Corcoran et al., 1988). Most of these issues represented serious challenges that have been noticed in the classes under study.

As a result to the large classes, inadequate sitting system and discipline problems have been noticed. Most of the classes are overcrowded which made it difficult for teachers to arrange learners in suitable places. Different irrational management strategies took place that all aimed to reduce noise and made students as quiet as possible. Students' sitting can be one of the useful strategies that teachers would employ to lesson or solve discipline problems and to improve interest in learning. As the findings show that 42.86% of the classes are assumed to have more appropriate arrangement than 57.14% of the classes. In fact, sitting problems were observed in the classrooms that enrol large number of students. Also, discipline issues were observed in such classes, especially class 7, wherein trouble makers were put at the back of the classroom using smart phones, and making strange voices to interrupt the teacher. Research on seating arrangements suggests that students behave more appropriately when they sit individually (Wannarka & Ruhl, 2008).

Since it impossible to arrange students in individual seats due to the number of students per class our study, it would be better if the trouble makers are distributed throughout the classrooms, sitting with quiet students, or at least not taking place next to each other. Also, seating arrangement may influence student's learning. In this regard, Cosden, Gannon, and Haring, (1995) and Dunlap et al., (1994) suggest that offering students choices seems to be ethically responsible and may be an important component of a comprehensive classroom management system. Learners should choose with whom they would like to sit because seating in a place they do not like would probably affect their engagement and lesson their motivation. Furthermore, students with problems such as sight and or height problems necessitate a special treatment from the teacher who is required to take their needs into consideration.

The second section in our observation aimed to obtain information about teacher-learner relationship. We believe that we will not be able to discuss learners' learning styles or teachers' teaching styles without having a general overview on the nature of the relationship between them. In fact, we have examined such a relationship on the basis of four aspects, namely; the teacher's movements inside the classroom to facilitate and assist learners, his/her sense of care and understanding about every single learner, his/her response to students' questions, and interaction in the classroom.

To start with, teacher's movement to explain, clarify and check for comprehension was found to be applied adequately only by two teachers (**B** and **E**) while teachers **C** and **F** have not sufficiently moved around the classroom to check learners' comprehension and

facilitate complex points. Teachers **A** and **D**, however did not move at all from the beginning of the sessions which contradict with many researchers' views such as Marzano and Marzano (2003, p. 6) who claim that "research has shown us that teachers' actions in their classrooms have twice the impact on student achievement as do school policies regarding curriculum, assessment, staff collegiality, and community involvement".

Moreover, teachers' behaviours in the classroom including movement around the class to provide help and support are regarded as important factors in fostering teacher-learner relationship. Having only two teachers out of six who have considered the significance of this factor is unfortunately disappointing. We cannot say that teachers ignore the importance of establishing relationships between them and their students but maybe they did not do that sufficiently due to class size, teacher demotivation, teacher-students lack of communication and mainly distance; distance which should not be found the classroom. The researcher has assumed that teachers' way of responding to students' questions and their caring behaviour about every learner also dictate many aspects about this relationship.

Observation findings showed that all teachers (100%) responded to students' enquiries thoroughly but did not display a feeling of care towards them. We have suggested that teachers' questions about absent students or about something important to them can be regarded as a caring behaviour. In fact, we have observed that only teachers **B** and **E** have asked about learners' absence, which reflects that they have established a positive relationship with their learners. Asking about absent students because they were sick strengthens the relationship between the teacher and the students who feel they are important and surrounded by caring people. This helps in building a positive learning atmosphere, motivates the students to learn, improves interaction in the classroom and promotes teachers' effectiveness.

A large factor in teacher effectiveness is being able to establish positive relationships with students. In fact, a teacher who cannot communicate with his/her students will not be effective. Teacher-learner relationship and the amount of attention given to groups or individuals have significant positive correlations to a learner's ability to learn (Cano, 2001).

Interaction in the classroom was found to be well encouraged in class 3 and 6 which reflected teachers' awareness about the significance of interaction in building positive classroom climate. Interaction in Class 4 and 7 was not enough whereas it was not observed at in class 1, 2, and 5. This may be due to teachers' ignorance to the importance

of interaction or may be due teachers' focus on the lesson rather than on cultivating relationships. In fact, teachers are required to establish relationships based on communication and interaction to ensure all students feel a sense of belonging that is characterised by trust, connection and understanding (Duong, et al., 2019). According to them, teachers may focus more on academic objectives and do not support students' emotional well-being which has a direct negative effect on their performance. They also need to strengthen their relationships with learners by encouraging interaction, asking about their needs and acknowledge their positive conduct.

The third section in our observation checklist aimed to collect genuine information about learners' apparent learning styles before conducting GRLSS. Based on the findings of the first and second sections, we assume that learners are demotivated because of the discouraging classroom environment. After having a clear image about the classroom context, and the nature of relationship between teachers and learners, we needed to know the way learners prefer to learn in each class. The observation findings showed that only 28.57 % of the learners (mainly class 3 and 6) were observed to display dependent learning characteristics while the majority of the learners 71.42% were not depicted as dependent learners. Dependent learners, according to Grasha and Riechmann (1996), prefer to be enrolled in organised classrooms and they are most often frustrated when their environment is chaotic or messy. They seek structure and learn best when given clear instructions, outlines, study guides, and tasks to tackle. In other words, they like to be guided by the teacher and presented with a set of guidelines or instructions to show them what to do. These learners feel discouraged when they are tested on information that were not directly addressed in class or those have not been fully explained by the teacher.

Out of the seven classes, 57.14% of the learners were found to exhibit independent learning characteristics including class 1, 4, 5, and 7. Independent learners are those prefer to work alone on tasks. Grasha and Riechmann (1996) argue that independent learners like to be able to be responsible of choosing the direction and structure of their work, lead groups if they have to be in them, and require minimal instruction from their teachers. These students get frustrated by overbearing instruction and lengthy group projects. Moreover, the researcher aimed also to check learners' competitive styles. The observation findings displayed that 28.57% of the students in classes 3 and 6 were observed to exhibit competent learners' characteristics while 71.42% of the learners in classes namely class 1, 2, 4, 5 and 7, did not show competitions styles. Competitive learners are those always want to win or be correct. Grasha and Riechmann (1996) explain that this type of learners as

being motivated by their desire to be better than others academically or otherwise. They often lead groups, enjoy discussions, and like recognition. Also, they frequently monopolise the conversation in class in attempt to be recognised or get the highest scores on assignments. Furthermore, competitive students need opportunities for leadership in the classroom because they excel when there is the opportunity for reward, they are not challenged, when they get a bad grade, or when there is no opportunity to compete with their peers. The fourth learning style that has been observed in the learners was the collaborative styles. In fact, the findings suggest that the majority of students enjoyed working with each other in five classes (namely class 1, 2, 4, 5, and 7). On the other, students in class 3 and 6 (28.57%) were observed to cooperate with peers only for a shorter time and seemed to be less engaged in pair or group work.

Cooperative learners are those who enjoy sharing ideas and talents with others, they like group projects and their performance is much better when working in a group than when working independently. Grasha and Riechmann (1996) claim that collaborative learners learn best when they engage in interpersonal interactions. They thrive in group discussions, group projects, and seminars. Nevertheless, collaborative learners are irritated when projects are always individual, and when classes are solely lecture-based.

The fifth learning style the findings' analysis has shown is the participant style. In 57.14% of the classes, students exhibited participant learning style in class 3, 5, 6, and 7. Students in these classes were observed to enjoy, to some extent, participation in class activities. In class 1, 2, and 4 students' participation was in fact less than participation as in the aforementioned classes. According to Grasha and Riechmann (1996), participant learners are dutiful in their studies, feeling obligated to get as much out of a class as possible, they enjoy doing as much activities as they can. These students are the first to throw up a hand to answer a question because they are always prepared for class and like to participate and eager to learn more. They thrive in class discussion and highly motivated to learn. Participant learners are frustrated when work is too independent. There is no opportunity for self-learning, and when there is a lack of structure to participate in tasks. They need enthusiastic and organised teacher to reach their maximum potential. The findings suggest that there is diversity in the participating learners' learning styles. But the latter are not considered by the teachers because most learners did not seem interested in the class activities.

The fourth section attempts to obtain valuable insights about the teachers' teaching styles by observing the methods and the strategies used in lesson presentation before the implementation GRTSI. After examining the data of the observation checklist, we have found that two teachers, **B** and **E**, varied their lesson presentation and used different activities. They divided their lessons into: a warm up, presentation and practice. Moreover, their lesson presentation was based on the use of different types of activities which indicated that these teachers are aware of the importance of diversifying the lesson parts and type of activities in the success of the teaching/learning process Pashler et al., (2007). On the other hand, the five other teachers did not make an appropriate use of variety of tasks and focus on using one method. These teachers relied on the textbook to explain and extract conclusions. Their activities were identical to that of the textbook and learners were required to answer these tasks after the teachers' explanation.

All students were using their textbooks to follow, and many of them found already written answers on the textbook made previously by other learners. Many learners seemed bored and many others were using smart phones. This suggests that teachers ignored the role the instruction plays on learners' interest. In fact, researchers argue that learners fail only because they do not receive the amount and type of instruction they need (Foorman, et al., 1998; Morrison, Bachman, & Connor, 2005; Vellutino et al., 1996).

Moreover, the researcher also aimed at getting information about the different materials and techniques (such as pictures, data show, stories, quiz, visual aids) that teachers employed to present their lessons. Unfortunately, the findings showed that 100% of teachers did not use any material besides the textbook and the board. This, indeed, contradicts with researchers who claim that it is very important for teacher to arrange different teaching materials in order to improve students' learning (Gagné & Briggs, 1979; Cunnigsworth, 1984; Ambrose, 1991; Brenda, 1998). The most important consideration is that the materials should meet the students' needs. Cunningsworth (1984) assumes that students need to feel that the materials from which they are learning is connected with the real world and at the same time it must be related positively to the aspects of their inner make up such as age, level of education, social attitudes, the intellectual ability and level of emotional maturity.

Another important aspect in the classroom observation is teachers' role to maintain discipline in an authoritative teaching style. In fact, the findings indicated that almost all teachers strived to make the classroom disciplined and sustain silence throughout the session. Half of the teachers (**A, D**, and **F**) were observed to have an authoritative style.

Their classes are teacher-centred and their teaching is mainly transferring information. According to Grasha (1996), Formal Authority teacher establishes status among students. S/he clearly defines his/her learning goals and expectations and follows a set list of rules of how things should be done. This teaching style is effective for students who need structure since there are clear guidelines and expectations, and an understanding of the acceptable way to do things. However, it can also be too rigid and standardised for many other students who appreciate more active learning settings, interaction and better engagement. Moreover, the findings also indicated that two teacher (**B** and **E**) were found to possess facilitator and delegator teaching styles. According to Grasha (1996), teachers exhibiting a facilitator teaching style provide a warm and more emotional climate as this teaching style focuses on teacher-student interaction on a personal level as discussed earlier in section two of the observation checklist. The facilitator classroom is learner-centred where students are encouraged to ask questions, explore different options and suggest alternatives, with the teacher being the guide and working in a more consultative role who provides support and encouragement. The teacher aims to help students think independently and take more responsibility in their own learning process. This style allows for much greater flexibility in the classroom and focuses on student needs and goals. Nevertheless, it can be time-consuming and ineffective if the subject matter needs a more direct approach, and with students who feel uncomfortable with a less structured approach (Grasha, 1996). Furthermore, teachers possessing a delegator teaching style, as Grasha (1996) assumes, aim to make students be able to function autonomously, working independently on assignments and projects or as part of small teams with peers. This style can help students develop the tools to be confident and independent learners. However, students who are not ready for such autonomy and could become anxious and feel lost.

The last section in our observation checklist attempted to collect information about students' motivation and engagement in class activities. The findings displayed that the majority of students (57.14%) did not exhibit interest and engagement in the class activities. These students seemed to be demotivated but obliged to participate either to get good marks in the continuous evaluation or because they were appointed by the teacher to answer on a particular question. Many reasons may be attributed to students' demotiavtion. According to the findings of the observation checklist, demotivation may be due to the classroom climate inappropriateness, overcrowding, students' seating system, lack of teacher-learner relationship, lack of interaction, and the mismatch between learners' learning styles and teachers' teaching styles. In this regard, Timmins (1999) proposes

identifying the reasons of lack of motivation in students by using psychology in the classroom because it is very important for teachers to take affective factors into account for example, teachers' negative attitude towards students and non-supportive classroom environments damage students' willingness towards the lesson.

Shortage of positive reinforcements, approval and appreciation of students by teachers influences motivation to learn negatively. Moreover, teachers are required to take more careful roles. McDonough (2007, p. 2) describes teacher's role "involves providing a supportive and challenging learning environment, but also facilitating the development of the learners' own motivational thinking, beyond simply identifying their original orientation". In addition, preparing the lesson in an attractive way using different material helps the teacher enhance their motivation to learn because it addresses learners' needs. The fulfilment of students' needs acts as a hindrance for lack of motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

On the whole, all these factors (except for overcrowding) have been taken into consideration by the researcher before implementing the match of teaching styles with learning styles through the integrated model of teaching and learning styles suggested by Grasha (1996). Teachers also need to take these factors into consideration in their classrooms and feel the need to respond to their learners' needs by matching their teaching styles to learners learning styles which allow them promote their relationship, maximise interaction, and enhance motivation.

5.4 The GRLSS Findings' Analysis

Prior to administering the learning styles survey, a deep explanation was provided to students to be informed about the procedure of completing the survey as well the necessity of being objective. Students have also been told that there is no correct or wrong answer; rather, each statement should be answered according to their actual beliefs about themselves. This instrument consists of 60 items with a five point Likert scale (1932) that range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Students' responses on GRLSS (1996) were calculated and the mean of each learning styles has been extracted and then compared to the Grasha's (1996) norms of each learning style.

Table 5.22

The Norms for Each Learning Style Scale (Grasha, 1996, p. 203)

	Low	Moderate	High
Independent	1.0 – 2.7	2.8- 3.8	3.9-5.0
Avoidant	1.0–1.8	1.9–3.1	3.2–5.0
Collaborative	1.0–2.7	2.8–3.4	3.5–5.0
Dependent	1.0–2.9	3.0–4.0	4.1–5.0
Competitive	1.0–1.7	1.8–2.8	2.9–5.0
Participant	1.0–3.0	3.1–4.1	4.2–5.0

Table 5.23

Class 1 Students' Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Learning Styles Scale

N	Independent		Avoidant		Collaborative		Dependent		Competitive		Participant	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
30	4.1	High	2.9	Moderate	4.0	High	3.4	Moderate	2.6	Moderate	3.5	Moderate
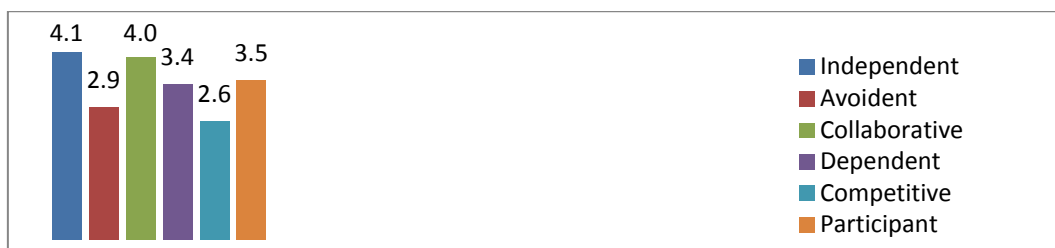
Figure 5. 21 Class 1 Students' Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Learning Styles Scale

As table 5.23 shows, after calculating every individual student's mean score in each learning style, the means of the students have been added together and divided by the number of the class students which is 30 to obtain the average mean score of the class in each learning style. Then, the attained mean score has been compared to Grasha's (1996) norms for each learning styles to indicate whether it is low, moderate or high. The highest scores determine the learning styles of the class. As noticed in the table above, in class 1, students scored high means in independent (4.1), collaborative (4.0) and participant (3.5) learning styles. Hence the students in class 1 are found to be Independent-Collaborative-Participant learners (Cluster 4). Learners possessing these learning styles are willing to take initiatives and show responsibility for their own learning.

Table 5.24

Class 2 Students' Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Learning Styles Scale

N	Independent		Avoidant		Collaborative		Dependent		Competitive		Participant	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
30	3.9	High	2.7	Moderate	3.8	High	3.2	Moderate	2.6	Moderate	3.7	Moderate
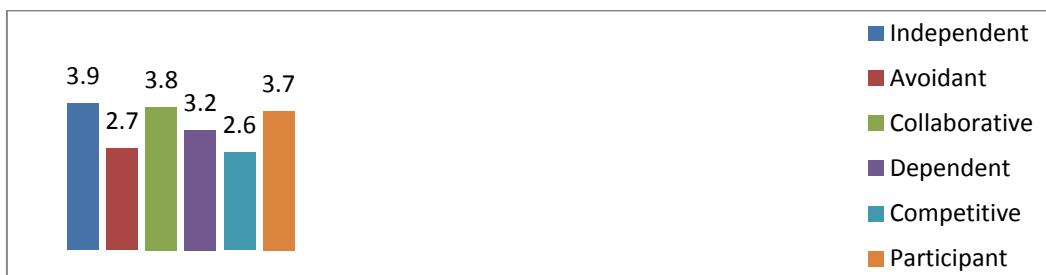
Figure 5.22 Class 2 Students' Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Learning Styles Scale

The table and the graph displays class 2 prevailing learning styles. The mean score for each learning style has been calculated to determine the whole class mean. After comparing the mean scores to Grasha's (1996) norms, we have found that class 2 learners' highest score are 3.9 in independent, 3.8 in collaborative, and 3.7 in participant. Therefore, the majority of the students in class 2 are mainly Independent-Collaborative-Participant learners (Cluster 4). As mentioned earlier, students with these learning styles are more excited to take part in the learning process.

Table 5.25

Class 3 Students' Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Learning Styles Scale

N	Independent		Avoidant		Collaborative		Dependent		Competitive		Participant	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
37	3.2	Moderate	2.4	Moderate	3.1	Moderate	4.1	High	3.4	High	3.5	Moderate

Figure 5. 23 Class 3 Students' Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Learning Styles Scale

Through the table and the graph, we notice that students in class 3 exhibit a high score in the dependent (4.1), the participant (3.5) and the competitive (3.4) learning styles. The calculation of the mean scores in each learning styles shows that the majority of students in this class display Dependent-Participant-Competitive learning style (cluster 1). Learners possessing these learning styles usually lack sufficient knowledge of the content and rely more on the teacher to provide them with the necessary directions.

Table 5.26

Class 4 Students' Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Learning Styles Scale

N	Independent		Avoidant		Collaborative		Dependent		Competitive		Participant	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
37	3.8	Moderate	2.7	Moderate	3.5	High	3.2	Moderate	2.7	Moderate	4.2	High
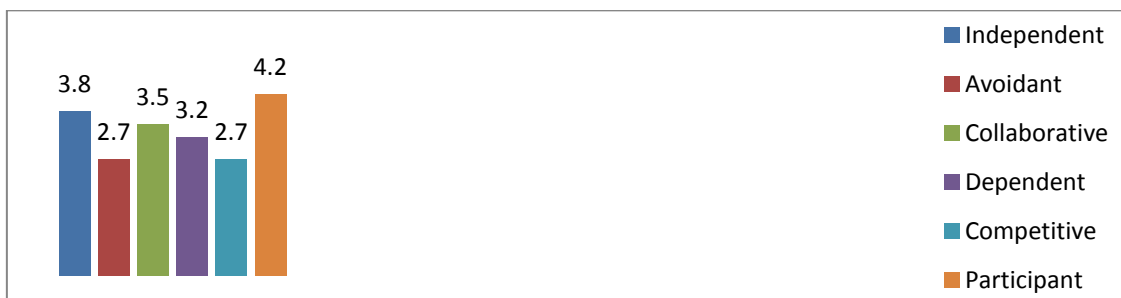
Figure 5. 24 Class 4 Students' Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Learning Styles Scale

As table 5.26 displays, the majority of the students in class 4 exhibit higher scores in participant, independent and collaborative learning styles than in avoidant, dependent and competitive. The highest mean score is in participant (4.2), followed by independent (3.8), and then collaborative (3.5). Therefore, class 4 students' prevailing learning styles are Independent-Collaborative-Participant (cluster 4). These learners show more responsibility for their own learning and like to participate in building their own knowledge.

Table 5.27

Class 5 Students' Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Learning Styles Scale

N	Independent		Avoidant		Collaborative		Dependent		Competitive		Participant	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
38	3.4	Moderate	2.6	Moderate	3.8	High	3.1	Moderate	3.3	High	3.7	Moderate
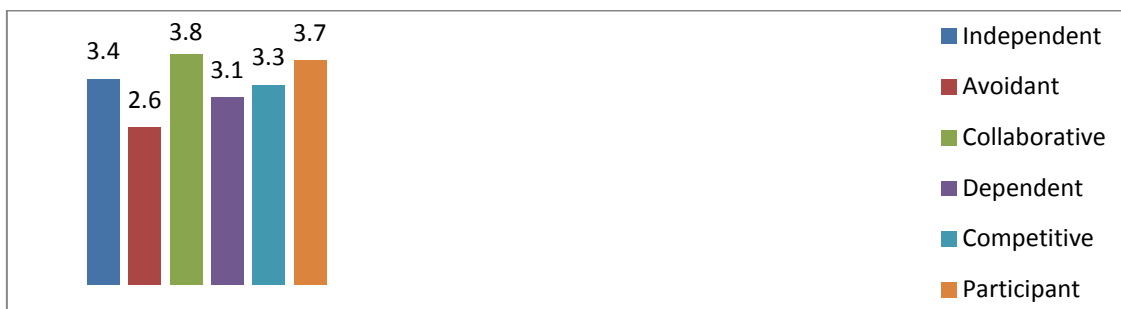
Figure 5.25 Class 5 Students' Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Learning Styles Scale

In class 5, as shown in the table and the graph, learners score high collaborative learning style (3.8), participant (3.7), and independent (3.4). They score in the competitive style (3.3) while in the dependent (3.1). These findings indicate that class 5 students exhibit a Collaborative-Participant-Independent learning styles (cluster 3). Learners possessing these learning styles are less responsible than those in cluster 4. They enjoy taking initiatives in the learning process and put emphasis on developing and practicing skills like critical and creative thinking and the ability to work with others.

Table 5.28

Class 6 Students' Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Learning Styles Scale

N	Independent		Avoidant		Collaborative		Dependent		Competitive		Participant	
40	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
	3.2	Moderate	2.6	Moderate	3.2	Moderate	4.1	High	3.3	High	3.7	Moderate
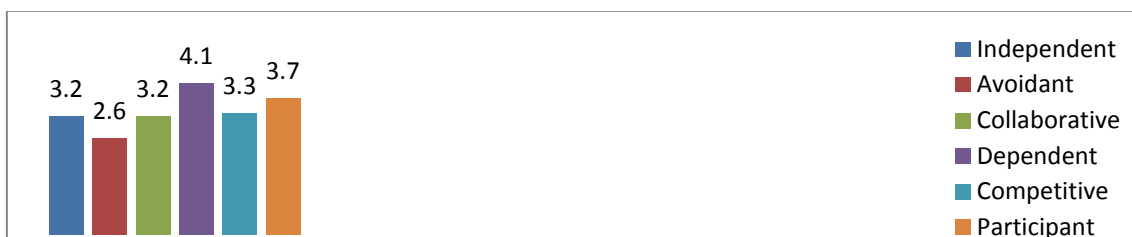
Figure 5.26 Class 6 Students' Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Learning Styles Scale

As illustrated in the table and the graph, students in class score (3.2) in the independent learning style, (2.6) in the avoidant, (3.2) in the collaborative, (4.1) in the dependent, (3.3) in the competitive, and (3.7) in the participant. Their prevailing learning styles are accordingly; Dependent-Participant-Competitive styles (cluster 1). Learners in this cluster show high dependence on the teacher to show them what to do and to spoon-feed them with the necessary information. They prefer structured organised knowledge with the teachers explaining what they are required to do.

Table 5.29

Class 7 Students' Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Learning Styles Scale

N	Independent		Avoidant		Collaborative		Dependent		Competitive		Participant	
40	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
	3.7	Moderate	2.5	Moderate	4	High	3.2	Moderate	2.7	Moderate	3.9	Moderate
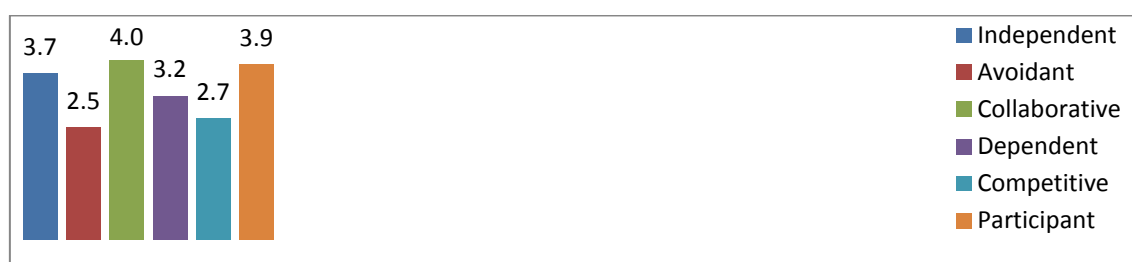
Figure 5.27 Class 7 Students' Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Learning Styles Scale

Data in the above table and graph above show that students in class 7 have varying mean scores in the six learning styles. Their highest score are (4.0) in the collaborative learning style, (3.9) in the participant, and (3.7) in the independent styles. We assume, therefore, that this class dominant learning styles are mainly Collaborative-Participant-Independent (cluster 3). Learners in this cluster, as mentioned earlier, prefer to participate actively in the learning process and enjoy working with others cooperatively.

5.5 The GRTSI Findings' Analysis

After determining the students' prevailing learning styles in each classroom, their corresponding teachers of English also have completed GRTSI to define their teaching styles. The inventory consists of 40 items on which teachers are asked to respond in a seven point Likert scale (1932) from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). The

teaching style inventory measures the teaching styles on five subcategories of teaching styles "expert, formal authority, personal model, facilitator and delegator". Each teaching style involves eight items that would describe various characteristics. The teachers' score means of each teaching style were calculated and compared to the Grasha-Riechmann's (1996) norms for each teaching styles.

Table 5.30

The Norms for Each Learning Style Scale (Grasha, 1996, p. 164)

	Low	Moderate	High
Expert	1.0-3.2	3.3-4.7	4.8-7.0
Formal Authority	1.0-4.0	4.1-5.4	5.5-7.0
Personal Model	1.0-4.3	4.4-5.7	5.8-7.0
Facilitator	1.0-3.7	3.8-5.3	5.4-7.0
Delegator	1.0-2.6	2.7-4.2	4.3-7.0

Table 5.31

Teacher A Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Style Inventory

Teacher	Expert		FormalAuthority		Personal Model		Facilitator		Delegator	
A	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
	4.8	High	5.6	High	4.7	Moderate	4.3	Moderate	2.6	Low
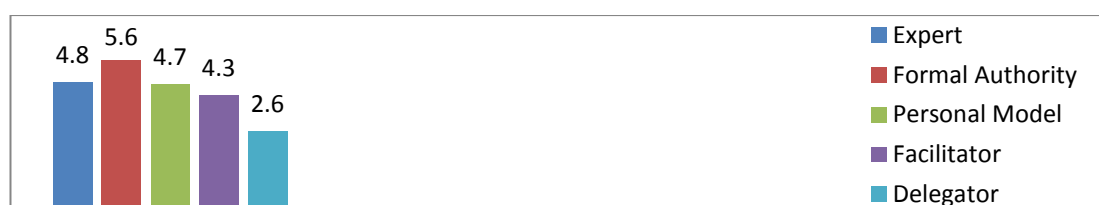
Figure 5.28 Teacher A Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Style Inventory

As shown in the table and the graph above, teacher A scored (4.8) in Expert, (5.6) in Formal Authority, (4.7) in Personal Model, (4.3) in Facilitator and finally (2.6) in Delegator teaching styles. Therefore, these findings suggest that teacher A exhibited an Expert-Formal Authority teaching style (cluster 1).Teachers with this teaching style are more content-focused and their classes are typically teacher-centred.

Table 5.32

Teacher B Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Style Inventory

Teacher	Expert		FormalAuthority		Personal Model		Facilitator		Delegator	
B	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
	4.7	High	3.7	Low	4.1	Low	5.5	High	5.7	High
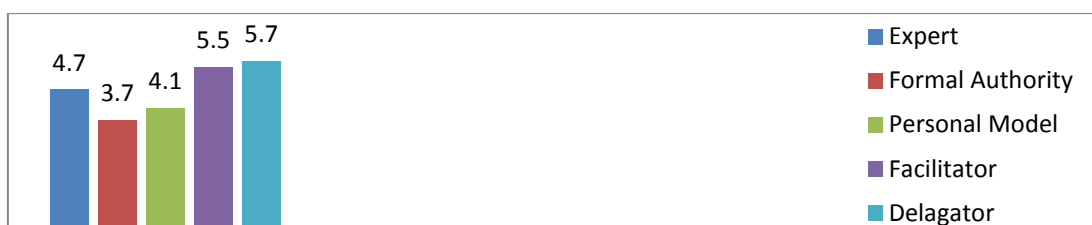
Figure 5.29 Teacher B Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Style Inventory

The table 5.32 shows that teacher B displayed different teaching styles from teacher A. Teacher B's highest score are in the delegator (5.7), facilitator (5.5) and expert (4.7) teaching styles. This indicates that teacher B possessed the Delegator-Facilitator-Expert teaching styles (cluster 4). Teachers with this teaching style work to facilitate learning and develop a professional relationship with students based on mutual respect and understanding.

Table 5.33

Teacher C Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Style Inventory

Teacher	Expert		FormalAuthority		Personal Model		Facilitator		Delegator	
C	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
	5.3	High	4.4	Moderate	5.8	High	4.1	Moderate	3.7	Moderate

Figure 5.30 Teacher C Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Style Inventory

As revealed in the table and the graph 5.29, the personal model teaching style gets the highest score (5.8), followed by the expert (5.3) and the formal authority (4.4). The findings, hence, suggest that teacher C possessed a Personal Model-Expert-Formal

Authority teaching style (cluster 2). Teachers with this style work in learning environments where coaching and following the examples of role models are prominent.

Table 5.34

Teacher D Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Style Inventory

Teacher	Expert		Formal Authority		Personal Model		Facilitator		Delegator	
D	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
	5.8	High	5.7	High	4	Low	4.2	Moderate	3.3	Moderate

Figure 5.31 Teacher D Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Style Inventory

As clearly suggested by the findings in the table above, teacher D's highest scores are in expert (5.8) and formal authority (5.7). This indicates that his dominant teaching style was mainly Expert-Formal Authority (cluster1). This cluster includes more direct, authoritative teaching styles and relies on teacher-centred activities as stated previously.

Table 5.35

Teacher E Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Style Inventory

Teacher	Expert		FormalAuthority		Personal Model		Facilitator		Delegator	
E	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
	5.5	High	3.2	Low	5.6	High	5.8	High	3.4	Moderate
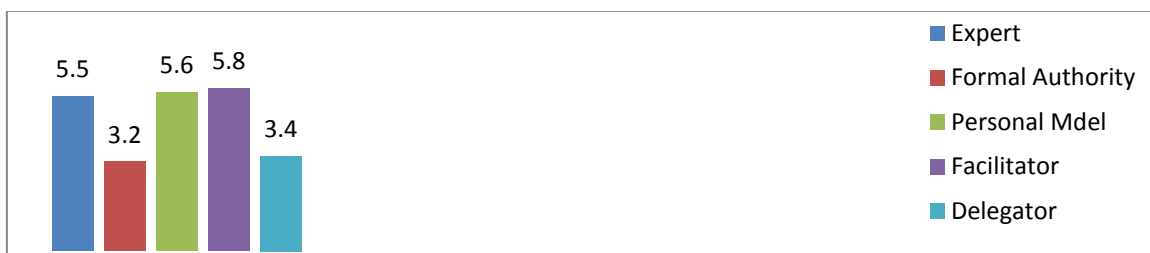
Figure 5.32 Teacher E Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Style Inventory

Data in the above table and the graph show that teacher E exhibited a variety of teaching styles. The lowest scores are in formal authority (3.2) and delegator (3.4). The highest score on the other hand were in facilitator (5.8), personal model (5.6), and expert (5.5). The findings indicate that teacher E possessed Facilitator-Personal Model-Expert teaching style (cluster 3). Teachers with this style focus on interaction, cooperation and assistance in the classroom.

Table 5.36

Teacher F Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Style Inventory

Teacher	Expert		Formal Authority		Personal Model		Facilitator		Delegator	
F	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
	5.4	High	4.7	Moderate	5.6	High	4.6	Moderate	3.5	Moderate
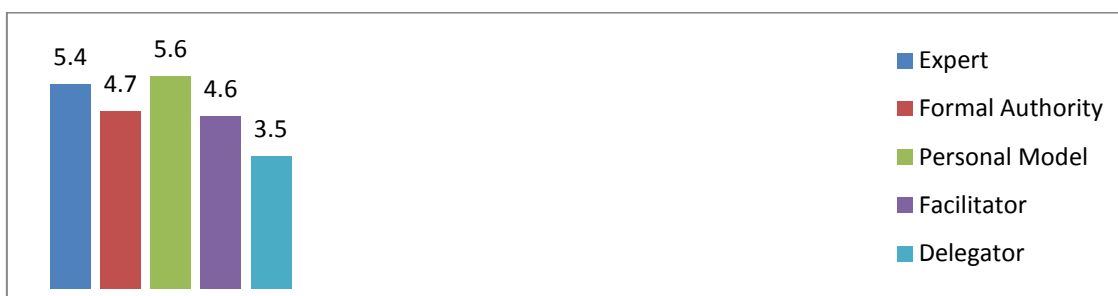
Figure 5.33 Teacher F Mean Scores on Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Style Inventory

As can be read in the table 5.36, the difference between each teaching style score is not considerably big. Teacher F scored (3.5) in the delegator teaching style; (4.6) in the facilitator, (6.7) in the formal authority, (5.4) in the expert and (5.6) in the personal model. The highest three scores indicate teacher F's dominant teaching styles, therefore, he is more Personal Model-Expert-Formal Authority (cluster 2).

Each class's dominant learning styles have been compared to its teacher's teaching style to determine whether there is a match or mismatch between teaching styles and learning styles. Then, the frequency of the match and mismatch between learners' learning styles and teachers' teaching styles have been determined by calculating every student match/mismatch between his/her learning styles and his/her teacher's teaching style. After that, the frequency of each class has been summarised.

Table 5.37

The Obtained Students' Learning Styles and their Teachers' Teaching Styles

Class/ Teacher	Learners' Learning Style	Teacher's Teaching Style
1/A	Independent-Collaborative-Participant	Expert-Formal Authority
2/A	Independent-Collaborative-Participant	Expert-Formal Authority
3/B	Dependent-Participant-Competitive	Delegator-Facilitator-Expert
4/C	Independent-Collaborative-Participant	Personal Model-Expert-Formal Authority
5/D	Collaborative-Participant-Independent	Expert-Formal Authority
6/E	Dependent-Participant-Competitive	Facilitator-Personal Model-Expert
7/F	Collaborative-Participant-Independent	Personal Model-Expert-Formal Authority

Table 5.38

The Frequency of Match and Mismatch between Teachers' Teaching Styles and Students'

Learning Styles

Class/ Teacher	N	Frequency of Match	Frequency of Mismatch
1/ A	30	11.66%	88.34 %
2/ A	30	12.33 %	87.67 %
3/ B	37	09.45%	90.55%
4/ C	37	20.81%	79.19%
5/ D	38	09.73%	90.27%
6/ E	40	09.25%	90.75%
7/ F	40	19.75%	80.25%
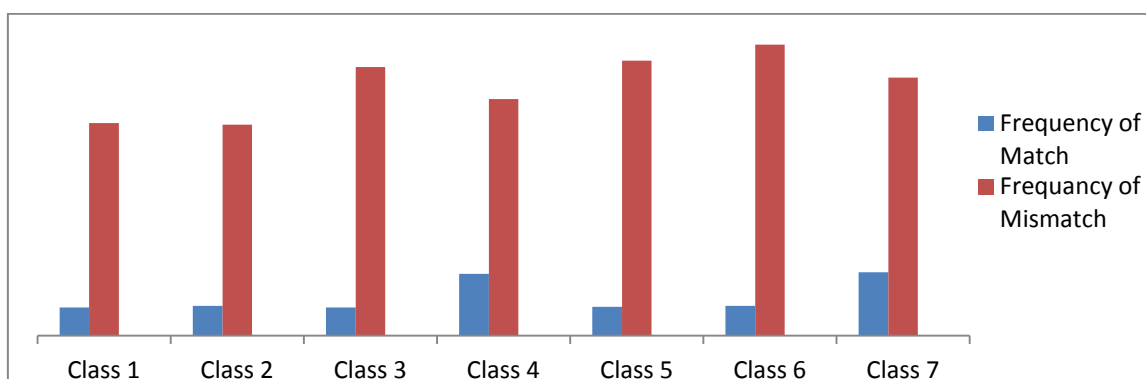
Figure 5.34 The Frequency of Match and Mismatch between Teachers' Teaching Styles and Students' Learning Styles

As noticed in the above table and the graph, most of the students (classes) participating in the study hold learning styles that are relatively different than their teachers' teaching styles. Class 1's frequency of match is 11.66% whereas the frequency of the mismatch is approximately 88.34%. In class 2, the frequency of the match is found to be equal to 12.33% which is somehow higher than it is in class 1, while the frequency of the mismatch is 87.67% which is lower than it is in class 1.

Moreover, class 3 obtained a frequency of match equal to 09.45% and mismatch 90.55% whilst in class 4, 20.81% is the frequency of the match and 79.19% is the frequency of the mismatch. The calculation of class 5 findings has revealed that the frequency of match is 09.73% while the mismatch is mainly 90.27%. In addition, the frequency of the match between learners' learning styles with teacher's teaching style is found in class 6 as 9.25% representing the lowest percentage in the whole participating classes and 90.75 % as a frequency of mismatch which is relatively the highest proportion of mismatch. Finally, in class 7, the frequency of match is found equals to 19.75% while the mismatch is 80.25%. These findings indicate that the frequency of match is considerably lower than the frequency of the mismatch in the whole classes participating in the study. Hence, it can be stated that the majority of the participating teachers do not cater for learners' learning preferences.

5.6 The GRLSS and GRTSI Findings' Discussion

The basic enquiry of the present study was mainly meant to identify second year students' learning styles and their teachers' teaching styles and to check to what extent the learning styles have been taken into consideration by teachers when assigning activities and/or preparing instructions. Put differently, to what extent teachers' teaching styles match/mismatch with learners' learning styles.

To answer the first question: What are the dominant learning styles of 2nd year secondary school FL stream students in the city of Biskra? The GRLSS was used and conducted with seven second year secondary school FL stream classrooms including 252 students from different secondary schools in the city of Biskra. We should mention that students' age and gender were not taken into account. The results showed that each class had significant learning styles that should be taken into consideration in lesson preparation to increase interest and motivation among learners. The prevailing learning styles based on GRLSS were arranged into clusters as suggested by Grasha (1996) according to learners'

mean scores in each learning style. The students' learning styles were found, therefore, to be Independent-Collaborative-Participant in class 1, 2, and 4; Dependent-Participant-Competitive in class 3 and 6; Collaborative-Participant-Independent in class 5 and 7. These clusters are classified according to the three first high scores. Grasha (1996) claims that learners do not have only one definite style but a cluster of primary styles which all work together and appear in learners' behaviours and interaction. Moreover, he assumes that learners have a set of secondary learning styles which learners may show depending on the situation.

To answer the second question: What are the dominant teaching styles of EFL secondary school teachers in the same city? The GRTSI was conducted. Six teachers of English from different secondary schools in the city of Biskra participated in the study. The findings revealed that teachers had different teaching styles. When conducting the study, teachers' age and gender have not been taken into consideration as long as we believe that it would not affect the result of the survey. The analysis of the findings showed that teacher **A** and **D** possessed an Expert-Formal Authority teaching style while teachers C and F possessed Personal Model-Expert-Formal Authority. On the other hand, teacher B possessed a Delegator-Facilitator-Expert teaching styles whilst teacher E exhibited a Facilitator-Personal Model-Expert teaching style. These clusters of teaching styles are classified according to the highest scores as suggested by Grasha (1996). According to Grasha (1996), teachers also do not have only one definite style, but a cluster of primary styles that work together in harmony. He also suggests that every teacher may use secondary teaching styles in different situations depending on the nature of the course s/he is presenting. Therefore, teachers may make modifications when necessary to improve the teaching/learning process.

Grasha (1996, p. 177) proposes four clusters of teaching styles and their relevant learning styles, for Expert-Formal Authority cluster, the compatible learning styles are Dependent-Participant-Competitive. The second cluster includes Personal Model-Expert-Formal Authority teaching style, the primary learning styles associated with this cluster are Participant-Dependent-Collaborative. The third cluster consists of Facilitator-Personal Model-Expert and the primary learning styles are Collaborative-Participant-Independent. The fourth cluster includes Delegator-Facilitator-Expert and its relevant learning styles are Independent-Collaborative-Participant. According to Grasha (1996), each of the teaching styles cluster has a number of characteristics and so does each learning style. He also proposes a variety of classroom activities that correspond to each type. Grasha (1996)

suggests that learning styles are not fixed. They can be modified depending on the teaching styles and teaching methods the teacher uses. Teachers have several options for managing their diversity of learners with regard to learning styles: accommodate particular styles, provide creative mismatches, or provide a variety of instructional approaches so that learners are both accommodated and mismatched at times.

After answering the first and the second questions, we came to determine the frequency of the match and mismatch between teaching and learning styles. Each individual learner' learning style has been compared to his/her teacher's teaching style. Then, the frequency of matches and mismatches has been computed. The findings suggested that the majority of teachers' teaching styles did not entirely meet their corresponding students' learning styles. This allows us to generate that the seven classes taking part in the present study had a mismatch between teaching and learning styles. It should be mentioned that class 1 and 2 were taught by the same teacher, namely teacher **A**. The teacher's main teaching style was found to be Expert and Formal Authority. This cluster is teacher-centred and works best in the context of the traditional lecture-discussion method of teaching. Teachers with this style are willing to control classroom tasks and do not consider it necessary to devote time to building relationships with students. They also do not encourage students to build relationships with each other. This cluster encourages and reinforces the Dependent/Participant/Competitive blend of learning styles (Grasha, 1995). However, Class 1 and 2 students' learning styles were determined as Independent-Collaborative-Participant which means that learners had different needs that were not met by the teacher's method. The frequency of matches and mismatches of this class were computed.

The frequency of match in class 1 was found to be equal to 11.66% and mismatch 88.34% whereas class 2 frequency of match was found as 12.33% and mismatch 87.67%. The high frequency of mismatch was due to the fact that those learners required a more learner-centred classroom where they could participate and work together in cooperative way. They wanted the teacher to be approachable when they need help, someone who acts as a resource person. Moreover, they wanted the teacher to be less authoritative in class and to give them guidance and support instead of direct control. Learners also needed to develop relationships inside the classroom which was in fact absent due to the teacher's teaching style.

In contrast, teacher **B**'s (class 3) main teaching style was Delegator-Facilitator-Expert whereas the learners' learning styles were Dependent-Participant-Competitive. In

this class also, the same remarks have been noticed as the frequency of the mismatch 90.55% has been higher than that of the match 09.45%. In fact, this cluster of teaching styles works best with learners who are Independent, Collaborative, and Participant (like in class 1 and 2). Learners in this class needed a teacher who is an expert and formal authority because they were less knowledgeable than those in the previous classes. When learners feel less self-confidence about their level, they prefer a teacher who manipulates the classroom tasks and enjoys a direct control on the learning process (Grasha, 1996).

Dependent-Participant-Competitive learners needed directions about what to do and preferred a more teacher-centred classroom. They were less cooperative, less interested in building relationships and showed high tendency for competition. Nevertheless, their teacher was not authoritative. She strived to engage learners in the learning process and make them active participant in building their own knowledge. In fact, the teacher's method was characterised by her emphasis on making the classroom learner-centred by playing the role of the guide who supports learners in their way and do not spoon-feed them.

In class 4, teacher **C**'s teaching styles were Personal Model-Expert-Formal Authority whilst the learners' learning styles were Independent-Collaborative-Participant. The frequency of the match in this class was 20.81% and it was considerably less than the frequency of the mismatch 97.19%. As explained earlier Independent-Collaborative-Participant learners needed more freedom in the classroom. They would work better with a Delegator-Facilitator-Expert teacher. However, the Personal Model, Expert, and Formal Authority as suggested by Grasha (1996) helps if students possess Participant, Dependent, and Collaborative learning styles because this teaching style cluster is more related to coaching and following examples of role models than giving learners' freedom to construct their own knowledge.

This style is also based on teacher-centred and presents the teacher as the source of information. While learners in the study were more independent and active to participate and to engage in cooperative learning as described previously, the teacher was focusing on knowledge transmission and showing examples for learners to be followed. In fact, collaboration and participation were not ignored in this classroom yet not as much as learners preferred. Learners did not feel free but were always controlled by the teacher.

Teacher **D**'s teaching styles were Expert- Formal Authority while his students' learning styles were Collaborative-Participant-Independent. In class 5, the frequency of match was only 09.73% meanwhile the mismatch frequency was 90.27%. As explained

earlier, this cluster of teaching style works better with Dependent-Participant-Competitive learning styles while Collaborative-Participant-Independent learning style fit more the Facilitator-Personal Model-Expert. The Expert Formal Authority teacher preferred a teacher-centred class with traditional method of knowledge transmission. Learners in this classroom could not adhere to these restrictions as they were more willing to acquire knowledge by practicing rather than receiving. They were excited about taking in initiative and approaching the objective of each task. Learners also did not like authority and control over everything in the classroom. They rather liked to involve in collaborative learning by participating pair work and group work which was almost ignored because the teacher in this class did not focus on building relationships with learners and did not also allow for rapport between learners themselves.

In class 6, teacher **E**'s dominant teaching style was Facilitator-Personal Model-Expert which deliberately mismatch with the students' learning style preferences that were found to be Dependent-Participant-Competitive. The frequency of match was too little 9.25% compared to the huge percentage of the mismatch 90.75%. According to Grasha (1996), this teaching cluster work best with Collaborative, Participant, and Independent learners. While this teaching styles cluster encourages learner-centred classroom and active involvement of learners in the class activities, learners in this class preferred a teacher-centred approach to learning. Learners with Dependent-Participant-Competitive learning styles, as mentioned before, preferred their learning to be controlled and directed by the teacher. They also liked to have structured and meaningful tasks with the rules clarified rather than working on tasks by themselves and having the teacher as a guide. Though they enjoyed competition to a great extent, it was not encouraged by the teacher as the ultimate goal of the teacher was knowledge construction and independent learning facilitation and encouragement.

In class 7, teacher **F**'s main teaching styles were Personal Model-Expert-Formal Authority whereas the learners' learning styles were Collaborative-Participant-Independent The match between the teacher F's teaching style and learners' learning styles was 19.75% and the mismatch was 80.25%. According to Grasha (1996), this teaching style works best with Participant, Dependent, and Collaborative learners while the Collaborative-Participant-Independent learners work best with the Facilitator-Personal Model-Expert teachers. Learners in this classroom were willing to take part in their learning and approach the tasks by their own without being totally directed by the teacher. The classroom was teacher-centred while learners preferred to be given a room of freedom where they could

practice their acquired skills and develop critical thinking. The teacher focused on presenting role models for learners to be followed and on coaching various skills and problem solving abilities.

Overall, we can say that the findings of the GRLSS and GRTSI survey confirmed the findings obtained by the observation checklist. The outcomes suggested that there is a mismatch between teachers' teaching styles and learners' learning styles. This indicates that teachers needed to be aware of their teaching style and their learners' learning preferences to be able to manage their classes better and adapt or modify their methods to meet students' needs and therefore increase the quality of their teaching (Zhang, 2008).

Grasha (1995) suggests that teachers who would like to modify their approach to teaching have several options. For example, they might ask what learning styles they want to encourage and choose instructional processes compatible with such styles, or list the specific goals they want to achieve. Doing so, teachers may shift their teaching style to another cluster in the model in order to meet their objectives. Those teaching in Cluster 1, for example, might integrate several aspects of the instructional processes in Clusters 2, 3, or 4 into their courses.

Teachers need to know that modifying their teaching styles is not as easy as picking or choosing among elements in each of the four clusters because they need to acquire the skills necessary to use those methods. For example, engaging in Cluster 2 activities underlies that teachers know how to function as a role model, guide, or coach. Similarly, involving in Cluster 3 or 4 teaching styles required teachers to effectively use skills as a consultant and resource person and an understanding of group dynamics. Teaching in these clusters means that students are given some control over what is happening in class, teachers need to guarantee they are able to accept this and are willing to build relationships with learners and to teach them how to work effectively together. Moreover, teachers are required to make sure students are capable to learn in new ways or they need to be taught how to do so (Grasha, 1995).

Generally speaking, before teachers modify or adjust their teaching style, they implicitly or explicitly deal with five basic instructional concerns.

- How can I help students acquire and retain information?
- What can I do to enhance the ability of students to concentrate during class?
- How can I encourage students to think critically?
- What will help me to motivate my students?
- How can I help them to become self-directed learners? (Grasha, 1996).

Answers to these fundamental instructional concerns help the teacher to decide on his/her style suitability for the learners' needs, as well as on the types of instructions (lesson plans, activities, tasks, projects) to be presented.

5.7   Conclusion

We have tackled in this chapter the classroom observation, the GRLSS and the GRTSI description of findings displayed in tables and graphs with possible interpretation of the obtained results. We have presented the classroom observation into five main sections to facilitate their readability. The first section aimed to obtain general overview about classroom atmosphere. The second section attempted to get information about teacher-learner relationship. The third section was devoted to collect genuine information about learners' apparent learning styles before conducting the GRLSS. The fourth section endeavoured to collect valuable insights about the teachers' teaching styles by observing the methods and the strategies used in lesson presentation before the implementation GRTSI. Finally, the fifth section was meant to gather information about students' motivation and engagement in class activities.

However, the classroom observation was not enough to decide about learners' learning styles and teachers' teaching styles. Therefore, it was backed up by the GRLSS and the GRTSI through which learning and teaching styles have been determined and the frequency of the match/mismatch was measured. The next chapter, then, will be devoted to analysing learners' motivation in the pre and post treatment phase to confirm or reject the hypotheses of the research.

Chapter Six

Chapter Six: Data Analysis and Discussion/ Part Two: Analysis and Discussion of the MSLQ, Teachers' Interview and Students' Interview Findings

Chapter Six: Data Analysis and Discussion/ Part Two: Analysis and Discussion of the MSLQ, Teachers' Interview and Students' Interview Findings

6.1 Introduction

To improve learners' motivation to learn, this study seeks to identify second year secondary school students' needs for matching their learning styles with teachers' teaching styles and providing tangible instructional solutions for them. To determine the effect of the match on students' motivation, the latter has been measured twice before and after the implementation of the match in which a variety of instructional methods that cater for learners' differences.

Therefore, the present chapter is devoted to the presentation and analysis of the data obtained from the pre and post treatment MSLQ, besides the teachers and the students' interviews. Data will be presented quantitatively using descriptive and inferential statistics through tables and graphs. The findings' analyses of the MSLQ and teachers' and students' interviews are followed by a discussion section to compare the findings of this research with some previous studies that have been conducted on the same issue. Based on the analysis and interpretation of the findings, recommendations and suggestions for further research will be provided.

6.2 The MSLQ Findings' Analysis

In attempt to answer the third question in this study: Does matching teachers' teaching styles with students' learning styles enhance students' motivation? Learners' motivation has been checked using the short version of MSLQ. The MSLQ was conducted twice. The first time was just after determining teachers' teaching styles, learners' learning styles and the frequencies of the match and the mismatch between them (before the implementation of the match). The second one, on the other hand, took place after the match and the results of the pre-test and post test were compared.

Table 6.1

Class 1 Students' Pre and Post Treatment MSLQ Results

	Pre-Treatment Results			Post-Treatment Results		
	Mean	**SD**	**Range**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Range**
a. Self-Efficacy	3.05	0.67	Medium	3.90	0.86	High
b. Intrinsic Value	3.10	0.85	Medium	4.22	0.68	High
c. Test Anxiety	3.51	0.70	High	3.34	0.48	Medium
d. Cognitive Strategy Use	3.18	0.84	Medium	4.21	0.56	High
e. Self-Regulation	3.12	0.50	Medium	4.10	0.74	High
Overall Scale Results	**3.19**	**0.16**	**Medium**	**3.93**	**0.32**	**High**
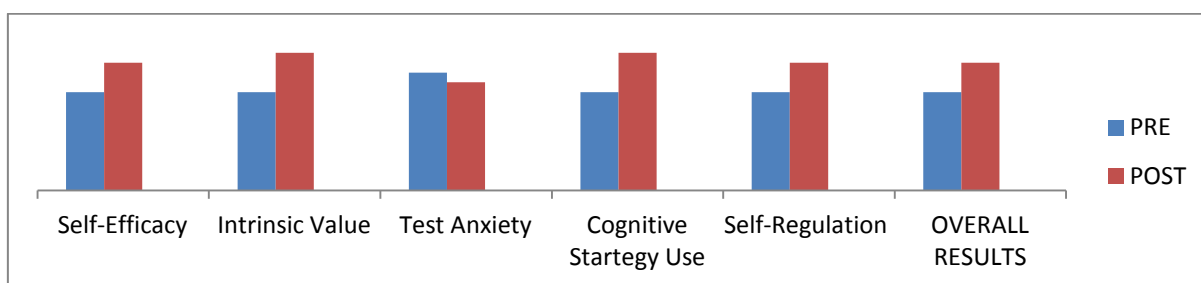
Figure 6.1 Class 1 Students' Pre and Post-Treatment MSLQ Results

As the data in the table show, class 1 overall moderate score was (M=3.19) in the pre-treatment. The class started the study with medium self-efficacy (M=3.05) and medium intrinsic value (M=3.10). Scoring a moderate mean in self-efficacy indicated that students had insufficient self-esteem and did not strongly believe in their capacities. Information about students' cognitive strategy use and self-regulation show that the class had also medium scores for both cognitive strategy use (M=3.18) and self-regulation (M=3.12). Cognitive and self-regulation strategies help students monitor and direct their cognitive abilities and allow them to use learning strategies effectively. Scoring a high mean (M=3.51) in the test anxiety scale, unlike, the other scales suggest negative interpretations. Students felt anxious to perform, do activities or have tests which impacted their overall motivation and performance negatively.

The post treatment results, on the other hand, show that learners' overall mean has developed from medium mean (M=3.19) to high mean (M=3.93) which had a positive indications. As indicated in the table and the graph, students' score means in all the scales have evolved from medium to high in the post treatment, except for test-anxiety. Learners'

self-efficacy improved to (M= 3.90) which indicated that students had a sufficient self-esteem and they believed they had the capacities and abilities to do more and better. Learners mean in intrinsic value also has increased to reach high level (M=4, 22) revealing that learners became more intrinsically motivated and put much value on learning. Students' test-anxiety has decreased from (M=3.51) to (M=3.34) which means that learners became less anxious about test or task performance. Moreover, the increase in students' cognitive strategy use (M= 4.21) and self-regulation (M=4.10) indicated that students became more self-regulated and aware about the cognitive processes they usually use when learning. Being aware about their cognitive abilities helped them learn efficiently and monitor their learning strategies.

A raise of (M=0.76) in the mean of the overall scale can be noticed in the post treatment results. The mean difference between the pre and post treatment MSLQ results is checked for significance using T-testing.

Table 6.2

T-Testing for Class 1 Pre and Post –Treatment MSLQ Results

Mean Difference	SD	SD Error Mean	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
0.76	0.11	0.04	3.21	4	.03

A t-test for paired samples was used to measure the extent to which the mean difference (M=0.76) has been noticed between class 1 pre and post MSLQ general scores. As can be seen in the table above, the obtained t-value is 3.21. The corresponding probability value (Sig=0.03) is less than the threshold p value 0.05 (p=0.03<0.05) indicating the significance of the mean difference. Hence, we can say that the raise in the post treatment scores is the result of the treatment and not a mere random coincidence. In other words, the match between teachers' styles and learners' styles in instruction was successful in helping students show more signs of motivation as indicated by the different constructs of the MSLQ.

Table 6.3

Class 2 Students' Pre and Post Treatment MSLQ Results

	Pre-Treatment Results			Post-Treatment Results		
	Mean	**SD**	**Range**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Range**
a. Self-Efficacy	3.26	0.95	Medium	4.34	0.73	High
b. Intrinsic Value	3.78	0.81	High	4.31	0.71	High
c. Test Anxiety	3.65	0.93	High	4.19	0.55	High
d. Cognitive Strategy Use	3.37	0.80	Medium	4.12	0.89	High
e. Self-Regulation	2.29	0.64	Low	4.32	0.54	High
Overall Scale Results	**3.27**	**0.52**	**Medium**	**4.25**	**0.08**	**High**

Figure 6.2 Class 2 Students' Pre and Post Treatment MSLQ Results

As shown in the table and the graph, class 2 scored an overall moderate mean (M=3.27) in the pre-treatment. Students had a medium score in self-efficacy (M=3.26) which means that students in this class did not believe in their abilities, however they were more intrinsically motivated towards the English course as the high mean (M=3.78) in intrinsic value shows. In addition, scoring a high mean in test anxiety (M=3.65) implies negative explanations which reflect students fear and nervousness about tasks and tests performance. That is, they feel afraid or anxious about tests. The class got medium mean scores in cognitive strategy use (M=3.37) and self-regulation (M= 2.29) which indicate discontinuous monitoring and calibration of students' cognitive actions.

The post treatment results, on the other hand, show that learners' overall mean has developed from medium mean (M=3.27) to high mean (M=4.25) which had a positive indications. As shown in the table and the graph, students' mean scores in all the scales have evolved from medium to high in the post treatment. Learners' self-efficacy has been improved to (M= 4.34), which indicates that students became more self-confident about their capacities than at the beginning of the study. They became more aware about their aptitude and believed they had the abilities to do better. Also, learners' mean in intrinsic value has increased to a high level (M=4.31) signifying that learners became more

intrinsically motivated and put much value on learning for its own sake. Students text anxiety has also increased slightly to (M=4.19) which shows that learners still feel fearful about tests though they became more self efficacious and intrinsically motivated. Furthermore, we can also notice the increase in students' cognitive strategy use (M= 4.12), self-regulation (M=4.32) indicating that students became more self-regulated and aware about the cognitive processes they used to monitor and direct their cognitive abilities and allowed them to use learning strategies advisedly.

As noticed in the table 6.4 below, there is a raise of (M=0.99) in the mean of the overall scale in the post treatment results. The mean difference between the pre and post treatment MSLQ results is checked for significance using T-testing.

Table 6.4

T-Testing for Class 2 Pre and Post Treatment MSLQ Results

Mean Difference	SD	SD Error Mean	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
0.99	0.39	0.028	3.52	4	.02

The results of the t-test show that the obtained t-value is 3.52 with the corresponding probability value (Sig=0.02) which is less than the threshold p value 0.05 (p=0.02<0.05). This indicates that the mean difference (M=0.99) is statistically significant. Consequently, it can be said that the raise in the post treatment scores is due to the treatment. Put differently, the use of the integrated model of teaching and learning where teaching styles and learning styles are paired has significantly impacted learners' level of motivation.

Table 6.5

Class 3 Students' Pre and Post Treatment MSLQ Results

	Pre-Treatment Results			Post-Treatment Results		
	Mean	SD	Range	Mean	SD	Range
a. Self-Efficacy	3.26	0.79	Medium	4.33	0.65	High
b. Intrinsic Value	3.42	0.75	Medium	4.22	0.68	High
c. Test Anxiety	3.14	0.75	Medium	3.29	0.61	Medium
d. Cognitive Strategy Use	3.03	0.80	Medium	4.21	0.56	High
e. Self-Regulation	3.10	0.55	Medium	4.01	0.74	High
Overall Scale Results	**3.17**	**0.15**	**Medium**	**4.21**	**0.11**	**High**
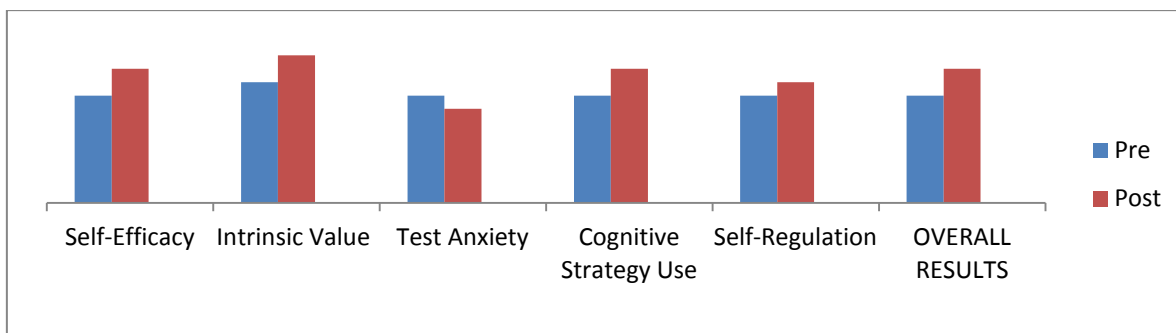
Figure 6.3 Class 3 Students' Pre and Post Treatment MSLQ Results

As the data in the table and the graph show, class 3 overall moderate score was (M=3.17) in the pre-treatment. The class started the study with medium self-efficacy (M=3.26) which indicates that students were not self-confident about what they were able to do and lacked sufficient self-esteem. Students had also scored a medium mean in intrinsic value (M=3.42) meaning that they were not well intrinsically motivated to learn. Students had also obtained a medium score in test-anxiety (M=3.14) which means that students felt irritated when they perform in tests. Moreover, students' medium scores in cognitive strategy use (M=3.03) and self-regulation (M=3.10) demonstrate that learners were not able to apply learning strategies and could not monitor their learning abilities.

Data of the post-treatment as noticed in the table and the graph display that learners' overall mean has progressed from medium mean (M=3.17) to high mean (M=4.21). One can clearly see that students' mean scores in all the scales have advanced from medium in the pre-treatment to high in the post treatment, except for test-anxiety which remained medium. Learners' self-efficacy improved to (M= 4.33), that is students had a sufficient self-esteem. Learners mean in intrinsic value also has increased to reach high level (M=4.22) revealing that learners became more intrinsically motivated and put much value on learning. Students scored (M=3.29) in test-anxiety indicating that they were still experiencing a kind of panic whenever they had to complete a test. Moreover, students' mean scores also increased in cognitive strategy use (M= 4.21) and self-regulation (M=4.01). Therefore, students became more aware about their cognitive abilities and more self-regulated. That is, they became able to monitor their learning strategies better than in the pre-treatment phase.

The mean difference (M=0.82) between the pre and post treatment MSLQ results is statistically examined using the t-test to determine whether the raise in the overall mean of the scale is due to the treatment.

Table 6.6

T-Testing for Class 3 Pre and Post Treatment MSLQ Results

Mean Difference	SD	SD Error Mean	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
0.82	0.16	0.18	4.56	4	.01

As shown in the table above, the results of the t-test display that the obtained t-value is 4.56 with probability value (Sig=0.02<0.05). Therefore, the mean difference (M=0.82) is statistically significant. We can say that the raise in the post treatment scores is the result of the treatment. Matching teaching styles with learning styles has significantly impacted learners' level of motivation.

Table 6.7

Class 4 Students' Pre and Post Treatment MSLQ Results

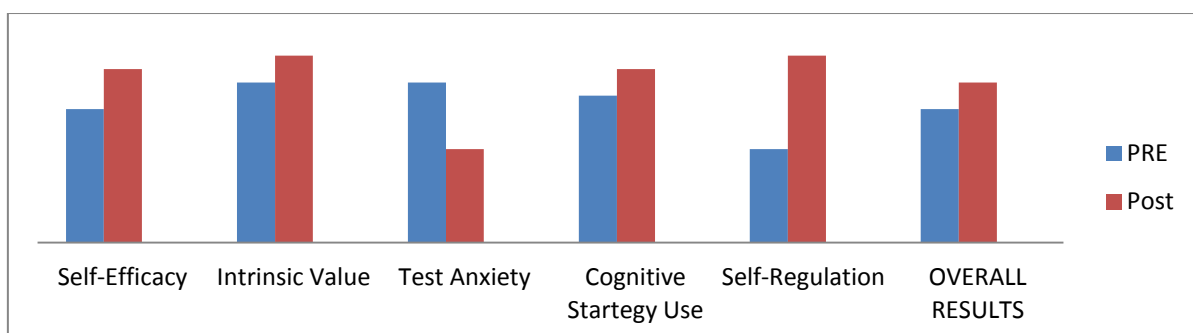|	Pre-Treatment Results			Post-Treatment Results		
	Mean	SD	Range	Mean	SD	Range
a. Self-Efficacy	3.33	0.83	Medium	4.21	0.74	High
b. Intrinsic Value	3.30	0.80	Medium	4.29	0.60	High
c. Test Anxiety	3.43	0.61	Medium	3.43	0.67	Medium
d. Cognitive Strategy Use	3.06	0.81	Medium	4.36	0.58	High
e. Self-Regulation	3.23	0.78	Medium	4.15	0.61	High
Overall Scale Results	**3.27**	**0.12**	**Medium**	**4.08**	**0.33**	**High**
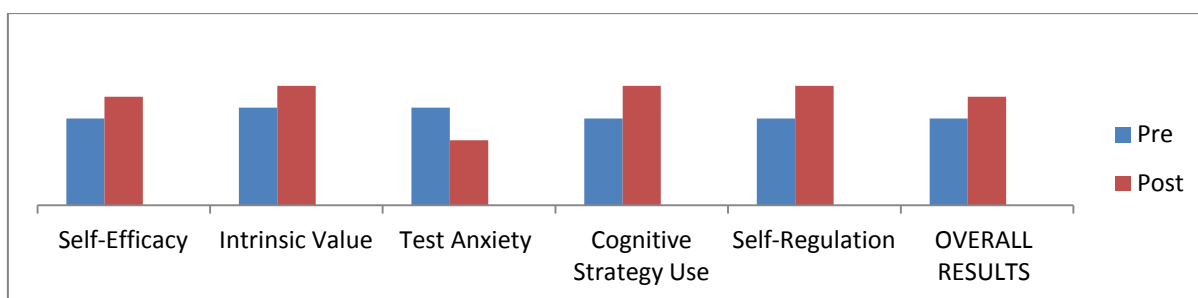
Figure 6.4 Class 4 Students' Pre and Post Treatment MSLQ Results

As shown in the table and the graph, class 4 scored a moderate overall mean (M=3.27) in the pre-treatment. Students had a medium score in self-efficacy (M=3.33) which means that students in this class did not think they can successfully approach learning activities besides the fact that they were more not intrinsically motivated towards the English course as their medium mean (M=3.30) indicates. In addition, scoring a medium mean in test anxiety (M=3.43) implies negative interpretation empathising that students did not feel well and were anxious about tests. Moreover, students obtained medium mean scores (M=3.06) in cognitive strategy use indicating that students are not aware about their cognitive abilities and faced difficulties in applying learning strategies. Obtaining a medium mean score in self-regulation (M= 3.23) designates students' difficulty to monitor their cognitive actions.

The post treatment results as shown in the table and the graph display that learners' overall mean has developed from medium mean (M=3.27) to high mean (M=4.08) which had a positive indications. Students' mean scores in all the scales have evolved from medium to high in the post treatment. Learners' self-efficacy improved to (M= 4.21) which indicates that students became more self-confident about their capacities and believed they had the abilities to approach learning better. Also, learners' mean in intrinsic value has increased to a high level (M=4.29) signifying that learners became more intrinsically motivated and value learning for its own sake. Students text anxiety did not increase (M=3.43) which indicates that learners could somehow overcome their worry about test. Furthermore, we can also notice the increase in students' cognitive strategy use (M= 4.36) and self-regulation (M=4.15) indicating that students became more self-regulated and aware about the cognitive processes used to monitor and direct their cognitive activities.

As noticed in the table 6.8 below, there is a raise of (M=0.82) in the mean of the overall scale in the post treatment results. The mean difference between the pre and post treatment MSLQ results is analysed using to t-test to check its significance.

Table 6.8

T-Testing for Class 4 Pre and Post Treatment MSLQ Results

Mean Difference	SD	SD Error Mean	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
0.82	0.24	0.22	3.76	4	.01

Data in the table above show the t-testing results. The obtained t-value is 3.76 and the probability value (Sig=0.01) which is less than the threshold p value 0.05 (p=0.01<0.05). This indicates that the mean difference (M=0.82) is statistically significant. Hence, it can be said that the raise in the post treatment scores is due to the treatment. Put differently, the match between teaching styles and learning styles has positively influenced learners' motivation.

Table 6.9

Class 5 Students' Pre and Post Treatment MSLQ Results

	Pre-Treatment Results			Post-Treatment Results		
	Mean	**SD**	**Range**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Range**
a. Self-Efficacy	3.47	0.50	Medium	4.24	0.74	High
b. Intrinsic Value	2.29	0.73	Low	4.43	0.65	High
c. Test Anxiety	3.38	0.78	Medium	3.31	0.90	Medium
d. Cognitive Strategy Use	3.26	0.72	Medium	4.26	0.69	High
e. Self-Regulation	3.02	0.64	Medium	4.22	0.73	High
Overall Scale Results	**3.21**	**0.20**	**Medium**	**4.09**	**0.39**	**High**
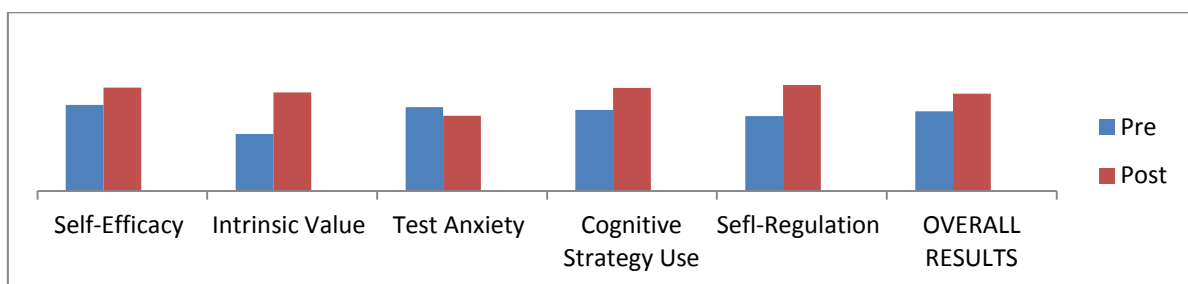
Figure 6.5 Class 5 Students' Pre-Post Treatment MSLQ Results

As the data in the table and the graph show, class 5 overall moderate mean score was (M=3.21) in the pre-treatment. The class began the study with medium self-efficacy (M=3.47) and medium intrinsic value (M=2.29). Scoring a moderate mean in self-efficacy indicates that students had insufficient self-esteem and did not think they are able to approach learning activities well. Also they medium intrinsic value clearly signifies that students were not motivated to learn. The mean score in test-anxiety was found (M=3.38) which means that learners fear being tested maybe because they had insufficient self-efficacy. Moreover, students' medium mean scores in cognitive strategy use (M=3.26) and

self-regulation (M=3.02) means that the students were unable to use cognitive abilities or to monitor their learning strategies.

The post treatment results, on the other hand, show that learners' overall mean has developed from medium mean (M=3.21) to high mean (M=4.09). As shown in the above table and the graph, students' score means in all the scales have evolved from medium to high in the post treatment, except for test-anxiety that has decreased. Learners' self-efficacy improved to (M= 4.24) which indicates that students became self-efficacious and believe they can do well in learning activities. Learners mean in intrinsic value also has increased to reach high level (M=4.43) revealing that learners became more intrinsically motivated and put much value and interest on learning English. Students' test-anxiety has decreased slightly from (M=3.38) to (M=3.31) which proves that they became less anxious about test or task performance, maybe because they became more self-confident about their abilities. Moreover, the increase in students' cognitive strategy use (M= 4.26), self-regulation (M=4.22) indicated that learners became more self-regulated and aware about the cognitive processes to be used in learning. Being aware about their cognitive abilities, students would learn efficiently and monitor their learning strategies.

A raise of (M=1.01) in the mean of the overall scale can be noticed in the post treatment results. The mean difference between the pre and post treatment MSLQ results is checked for significance using T-testing.

Table 6.10

T-Testing for Class 5 Pre and Post Treatment MSLQ Results

Mean Difference	SD	SD Error Mean	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
1.01	0.63	0.36	2.83	4	.04

As shown in the table above, the results of the t-test display that the obtained t-value is 2.83 with probability value ($p=0.04<0.05$). Therefore, the mean difference (M=1.01) is statistically significant. We can say that the raise in the post treatment scores is the result of the treatment. Matching teaching styles with learning styles has significantly impacted learners' level of motivation.

Table 6.11

Class 6 Students' Pre and Post Treatment MSLQ Results

	Pre-Treatment Results			Post-Treatment Results		
	Mean	**SD**	**Range**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Range**
a. Self-Efficacy	3.17	0.82	Medium	4.59	0.56	High
b. Intrinsic Value	3.37	0.78	Medium	4.16	0.58	High
c. Test Anxiety	3.43	0.52	Medium	3.47	0.89	Medium
d. Cognitive Strategy Use	3.15	0.91	Medium	4.14	0.74	High
e. Self-Regulation	3.11	0.75	Medium	4.26	0.56	High
Overall Scale Results	**3.24**	**0.12**	**Medium**	**4.12**	**0.36**	**High**
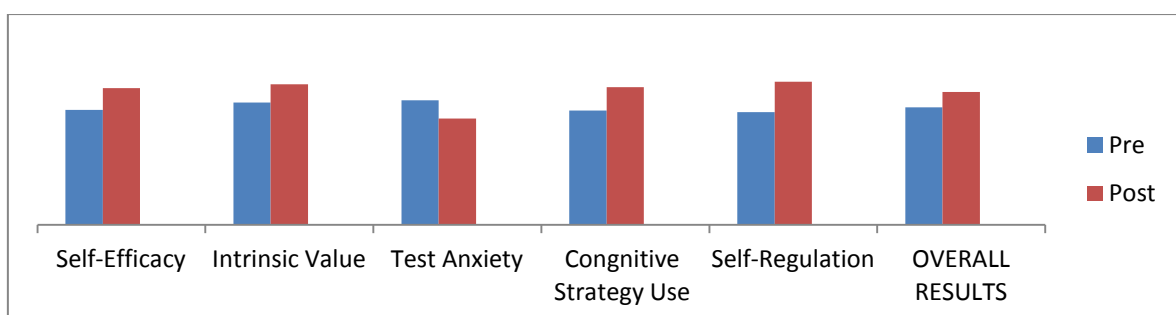
Figure 6.6 Class 6 Students' Pre-Post Treatment MSLQ Results

As data in above the table and the graph show, class 6 overall moderate score was (M=3.24) in the pre-treatment. At the beginning of the study, the students obtained medium score in self-efficacy (M=3.17) which means that students were not self-confident their abilities and lacked sufficient self-esteem. Students had also scored a medium mean in intrinsic value (M=3.37) meaning that they were not highly intrinsically motivated to learn. Students had also obtained a medium score in test-anxiety (M=3.43) which means that students felt irritated and fearful about test performance. Moreover, students' medium scores in cognitive strategy use (M=3.15) and self-regulation (M=3.11) demonstrate that learners were not able to apply learning strategies and could not monitor their learning abilities.

On the other hand, the post-treatment results as shown in the table and the graph display that learners' overall mean has progressed from medium mean (M=3.24) to high mean (M=4.12). One can clearly observe that students' mean scores in all the scales have advanced from medium in the pre-treatment to high in the post treatment, except for test-anxiety which stayed medium. Learners' self-efficacy improved to (M= 4.59), that became

more self-confident about what they can do. Learners mean in intrinsic value also has increased to reach high level (M=4.16) revealing that learners became more intrinsically motivated about learning. Students scored (M=3.47) in test-anxiety indicating that they were still panic whenever they had a test but not to a high level. Moreover, students' mean scores also increased in cognitive strategy use (M= 4.14) and self-regulation (M=4.26). Therefore, students became more aware about the cognitive processes employed to monitor their learning.

The mean difference (M=0.88) between the pre and post treatment MSLQ results is statistically examined using the t-test to determine whether the raise in the overall mean of the scale is due to the treatment.

Table 6.12

T-Testing for Class 6 Pre and Post Treatment MSLQ Results

Mean Difference	SD	SD Error Mean	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
0.88	0.27	0.23	3.76	4	.01

Data in the table show the results of the t-testing. The obtained t-value is 3.76 with probability value (Sig=0.01) which is less than the threshold p value 0.05 (p=0.01<0.05). This demonstrates that the mean difference (M=0.88) is statistically significant. Hence, it can be said that the raise in the post treatment scores is due to the treatment. Put differently, the match between teaching styles and learning styles has positively influenced learners' motivation.

Table 6.13

Class 7 Students' Pre and Post Treatment MSLQ Results

	Pre-Treatment Results			Post-Treatment Results		
	Mean	**SD**	**Range**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Range**
a. Self-Efficacy	3.07	0.77	Medium	4.10	0.66	High
b. Intrinsic Value	3.35	0.95	Medium	4.01	0.60	High
c. Test Anxiety	3.19	0.64	Medium	3.31	0.90	Medium
d. Cognitive Strategy Use	3.16	0.77	Medium	4.00	0.63	High
e. Self-Regulation	3.24	0.62	Medium	4.02	0.62	High
Overall Scale Results	3.20	0.09	Medium	3.88	0.29	High
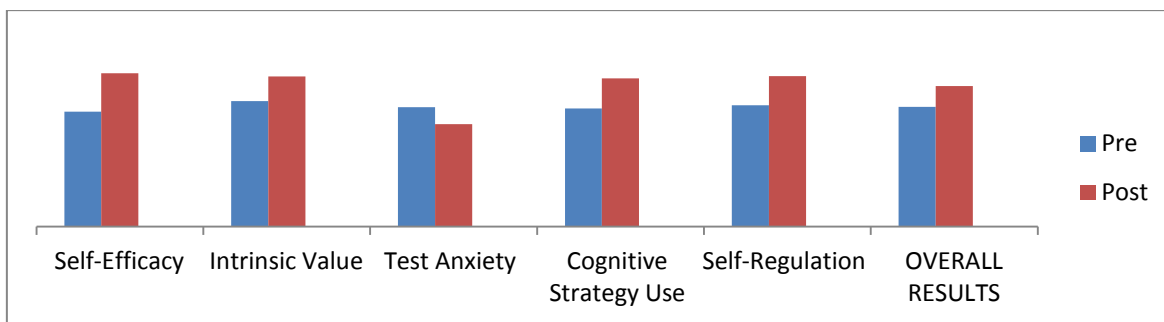
Figure 6.7 Class 7 Students' Pre-Post Treatment MSLQ Results

As the data in the table and the graph show, class 3 overall moderate score was (M=3.20) in the pre-treatment. Students' self-efficacy mean score (M=3.07) was medium which indicates that students lacked sufficient self-esteem and did not think they were able to approach English learning tasks. Students had also scored a medium mean in intrinsic value (M=3.35), that is, they were not motivated to learn English. Moreover, students had obtained a medium score in test-anxiety (M=3.19) which means that students did not like passing tests and. Furthermore their medium scores in cognitive strategy use (M=3.16) and self-regulation (M=3.24) demonstrate that learners were not capable to apply learning strategies and could not monitor their learning abilities.

Data of the post-treatment as noticed in the table and the graph display that learners' overall mean has progressed from medium mean (M=3.20) to high mean (M=3.88). As notice the table, students' mean scores in all the scales have advanced from medium in the pre-treatment to high in the post treatment, except for test-anxiety which remained medium. Learners' self-efficacy improved to (M= 4.10), that is, the learners became more self-confident and self-efficacious, and thought they could learn better than before. Also, their mean in intrinsic value also has increased to reach high level (M=4.01) revealing that learners became more intrinsically motivated and put much value on learning. In addition, students scored (M=3.31) in test-anxiety indicating that they still had the fear of being testes. The increase in their cognitive strategy use (M= 4.21) and self-regulation (M=4.01) signifies that students became more aware about their cognitive abilities and more self-regulated. In other words, they became able to monitor their learning strategies better than in the pre-treatment phase.

The mean difference (M=0.69) between the pre and post treatment MSLQ results is statistically examined using the t-test to determine whether the raise in the overall mean of the scale is due to the treatment.

Table 6.14

T-Testing for Class 7 Pre and Post Treatment MSLQ Results

Mean Difference	SD	SD Error Mean	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
0.69	0.12	0.15	4.46	4	.01

As shown in the table above, the results of the t-test display that the obtained t-value is 4.46 with probability value (p=0.01<0.05). Therefore, the mean difference (M=0.69) is statistically significant. Therefore, it might be said that the raise in the MSLQ post treatment scores is the result of the treatment. In other words, matching teaching styles with learning styles has significantly impacted learners' level of motivation.

Table 6.15

Variables Pearson Correlation

Variables	Pearson Correlation
The Match of Teaching Styles with Learning Styles **Students' Motivation**	**.3504***

*Correlation is significant at p < .01.

To test the hypothesis that the match between teaching styles and learning styles affect learners' motivation in the EFL classroom, Pearson correlation was utilised. The results show Pearson correlation value r=.3504 significant at p<.01. Therefore, a positive correlation exists between the match of teaching styles with learning styles and students' motivation. It appears that general match between teaching styles and learning styles could affect the level of motivation.

6.3   The MSLQ Findings' Discussion

To improve students' motivation and achievement in English, this study sought to identify second year students' needs for matching teachers' teaching styles with their learning styles and providing tangible instructional solutions for them. The effect of matching teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles on students' motivation and achievement was examined. The students' pre-and post test scores were compared to test the research hypotheses and find answers to the research questions. Put differently,

students and teachers have been part of an experimental study to examine the effect of matching teaching styles with learning styles on motivation.

In attempt to answer the third question in this study: Does matching teachers' teaching styles with students' learning styles enhance students' motivation? The MSLQ was conducted to 252 second year secondary school students FL stream. The students have completed the survey at the beginning of the study after their learning styles have been determined and the frequency of the match and mismatch has been systematically examined. Motivation to learn has been measured at the beginning of the study to see to what extent learners are motivated and interested to learn English. After determining teachers' teaching styles and their learners' learning styles, students have completed a short version of the MSLQ. The latter has been distributed to learners directly after determining the percentage of the match and mismatch between teaching styles and learning styles

The aim behind using the MSLQ is to check whether motivation has been influenced by the use of the integrated model of teaching and learning in which teaching styles are matched with learning styles. The reason behind choosing the MSLQ in particular is because it is regarded as the best instrument used to assess motivation and self-regulation for its practicality and systematic analysis (Dornyei, 2010).

The MSLQ results obtained from the pre-treatment were compared to those of the post-treatment and analysed statistically using the t-test to determine the effect of the match on learners' motivation. The results of the pre-test revealed that almost all the students participating in the study had a moderate level of motivation but in different degrees. In contrast, students' motivation has witnessed a considerable progress to reach high level in the post-treatment findings. In order to examine whether this increase was due the application of the integrated model of teaching and learning styles, we have gone through a number of statistical calculations to attain systematic explanations.

Starting with class 1, students showed moderate overall signs of motivation in the pre-treatment with an overall mean (M= 3.19). The class has also experienced a statistically significant change in the level of motivation (M=3.93) after the treatment with a mean difference (M=0.76) that was significant at (p =0.03 <0.05). The same increase was noticed in class 2 where overall mean in the pre-treatment has been (M=3.27) and evolved to (M=4.25). There has been a considerable increase in all the means of the scale with a mean difference (M=0.99) which was significant at (p=0.02<0.05). This can be noticed in class 3 too where students had an overall mean in the pre-treatment (M=3.17) which has

increased in the post-treatment to (M=4.21). The statistical calculation reflected a mean difference equals to (M=0.82) and probability value (p=0.02<0.05) which indicated that the change in learners' motivation has resulted from the match between teaching styles and learning styles. In order to confirm these results the same statistical calculations have been worked out for classes 4, 5, 6, and 7. Students in class 4 have an overall mean score (M=3.27) in the pre-treatment and (M=4.08) in the post treatment. The mean difference (M=0.82) was found to be significant at (p=0.01<0.05) which also confirms the validity of our hypothesis; that the match has a positive effect on learners' motivation. Moreover, the findings of class 5 showed that there was an enhancement in students' overall mean from (M=3.21) to (M=4.09) resulting in a mean difference (M=1.01) significant at (p=0.04<0.05). In addition, class 6 pre-treatment overall mean of motivation has been (M=3.24) which progressed to (M=4.12) in the post treatment after matching teaching styles with learning styles. After we have calculated the mean difference (0.88) the change in the means has been found statistically significant at (p=0.01<0.05) and this has confirmed the influence of match statistically. Finally, students' overall means of motivation (pre M= 3.20; post M=3.88) in class 7 were also compared. The obtained mean difference (M=0.69) was found to be significant at (p=0.01<0.05). On the basis of the obtained results in the seven classes, we claim that the change in the participating learners' level of motivation was due to the treatment which was mainly matching teachers' teaching styles and learners' learning styles in lesson presentation. This was in accordance with researchers' views such as McMahon (1999) who considers matching teaching and learning styles provide an ideal situation for effective learning and Reid (1995) who assumes that any incompatibility between learning styles and teaching styles leads to failure, discouragement and demotivation.

The classes participating in the study showed moderate overall signs of motivation and self-regulation in the pre-test. The post-test mean scores, however, have proved a statistically significant change in all the scales of MSLQ. The mean scores of the MSLQ have increased from moderate to high, with a salient decrease in the scale of Test anxiety.

The effects of matching teaching styles with learning styles can be best seen in the fact that the students showed more self-efficacy in the post-treatment results than in the pre-treatment (**class 1:** 3.05 < 3.90 / **class 2:** 3.26<4.34 / **class 3**: 3.26 < 4.33 / **class 4:** 3.33< 4.21 / **class 5**: 3.47< 4.24 / **class 6:** 3.17< 4.59 / **class 7:** 3.07 < 4.10). The match of teaching styles with learning styles in the classroom instruction has improved the level of

students' self-efficacy which means that learners have promoted a high self-esteem and elevated their beliefs about their capacities. This has a positive indication that learners might have felt responsible for their own learning which in return helped them gain more confidence and more personal construction and evaluation of knowledge. This change may be also due to the fact that the match has emphasised a learner-centred constructivist environment in which they might have felt responsible for their own learning which in return helped them gain some confidence. This was ascertained by Oxford et al., (1991) arguing the match is necessary because incompatibility between teaching and learning styles is likely to result in student boredom, discouragement, poor test performance, low motivation, shattered self-esteem, and decisions to quit the course or program. Learners' beliefs about their capacities are more likely to prosper when their styles are matched to their teachers' teaching styles, otherwise, their self esteem would deteriorate.

Learners' overall mean of intrinsic value has also improved in the post-treatment in all the classes (**class 1**: 3.10< 3.90 / **class 2:** 3.78< 4.31 / **class 3:** 3.42< 4.22 / **class 4:** 3.30< 4.29 / **class 5**: 2.29 < 4.43 / **class 6:** 3.37 < 4.16 / **class 7:** 3.35<4.01). The increase in learners' intrinsic value was also found significant. Accordingly, the match of teaching styles with learning styles has fostered learners' motivation to learn English. Students have significantly started to see learning English and doing tasks as an end in itself and not as a means to an end (Pintrich et al., 1999). This has been also supported by Felder & Henriques (1995), Garland and Martin (2005) claiming that in the EFL classroom, the match impacts positively the quality of students' learning, their attitude and their intrinsic motivation toward the subject. Moreover, scoring a medium overall mean in test-anxiety in the post-treatment which is less than that of the pre-treatment indicates that learners developed a control over their affect and could overcome problems related to test panic. This is related also to their increase in self-efficacy and intrinsic value levels because students became more self-efficacious and started to perceive themselves as capable learners who believe they could well in tests, and therefore their anxiety has decreased. It is also related to intrinsic value, as students became more intrinsically motivated to learn English; they considered learning English as an end rather than as a means to end as suggested earlier by Pintrich et al., (1999). That is, they are not learning to get good marks in tests, so they would fell afraid of getting bad marks, but they saw tests as learning tasks from which they would learn more. In the same vein, a study about the effect of using matched styles in the classroom resulted in increased levels of achievement and higher

attitude test scores after treatment as well a low level of test anxiety among students (Minotti, 2005).

Furthermore, the survey results revealed a positive impact on learners' cognitive strategy use as shown in the overall means of the pre-and post-treatment scores (**class 1:** 3.18<4.21 / **class 2:** 3.37<4.12 / **class 3:** 3.03<4.21 / **class 4:** 3.06 <4.36 / **class 5:** 3.26< 4.26 / **class 6**: 3.15< 4.14 / **class 7:** 3.16< 4.00). The same remark has been noticed in students' self-regulation mean scores in the pre- and post- treatment results (**class 1:** 3.12 < 4.10/ **class 2:** 2.29 < 4.32 / **class3**: 3.10 < 4.01 / **class 4:** 3.23< 4.15 / **class 5**: 3.02< 4.22 / **class6:** 3.11< 4.26 / **class 7:** 3.24< 4.02). Self-regulation involves the processes whereby learners personally activate and maintain cognitions, affects, and behaviours that are systematically oriented toward the accomplishment of personal goals (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2011). Improvement in cognitive strategy use and self-regulation underpins the effect of the match in empowering students' awareness of their cognitive process and the strategies use to monitor learning. According to Mokhtari and Reichard (2008), the nature of learning motivates students to employ many strategies. Working in an environment where learners feel interested and in the subject and motivated by having their styles approached, led them to use their cognitive strategies effectively. Moreover, using strategies suggest that these learners were, generally, aware of their learning process and capable of taking action in order to overcome difficulties and monitor learning (Alhaqbani & Riazi, 2012).

Generally speaking, an overall increase in the scales of the MSLQ entails an improvement in students' motivation. The statistical calculations have revealed that this increase was the result of implementing the integrated model of teaching and learning where teachers' teaching styles have been matched with their students' learning. Besides the t-test results, Pearson correlation analysis has been also used to explain the nature of relationship existing between the match and motivation. The results were also used to explain the cause and effect relationship between matching teaching styles with learning styles and the improvement of students' motivation. The findings indicated that there is a positive relationship between matching teacher's teaching styles with learners' learning styles, and motivation. In other words, the increase in students' motivation was caused by the match between teachers' teaching styles and learners' learning styles in lesson presentation and learning activities.

Lessons were presented in a way that corresponded to learners' preferences. In fact many researchers have highlighted the effect of the match on learners' achievement and motivation. Numerous studies (Clement, Dronyei & Nocls, 1994, Olshatin, Shohamy, Kemp & Chatow, 1990; Pintrich, Roser, & Degroot, 1994; Wigzell &Al-Ansari; 1993) stress that teaching styles, teacher attitudes, means of assessment, the materials being taught, the way students prefer to work, and other classroom context effects influences not only achievement, but also many aspects of motivation. This indeed supports the findings of our study.

One of the main objectives in foreign language learning area is to enhance learners' motivation and accordingly their achievement. Teachers' awareness about students' personal differences and the match of teachers' teaching styles with learning styles in lessons and instructions has been found to greatly influence learning. The success of EFL learning is not only affected by cognitive factors but also to affective one such as personality, motivation, (Brown, 2000; Carrel et al, 1996). Therefore, we believe that motivation plays a central role in learning success, also, personality and learners' differences are of great importance (Carrell et al, 1996). According to Ackerman and Heggestad (1997) individual difference can be used to explain academic performance, motivation and examination outcomes. Therefore, they represent a very important factor that needs to be taken into consideration in the classroom.

Students learn better when they are aware of their learning styles and are taught accordingly (O'Connor, 1997). In this vein, it should be noted that the determination of learner's learning styles helps teachers and educationalists to provide students with the necessary educational support and supplies that would promote their motivation and learning in general (Anderson & Elloumi, 2004). Teachers participating in the study became aware of the importance of matching styles with learning styles to improve motivation and learning. According to Dwyer (1998), studies about learning show that considering learning styles in planning and presenting education can improve learning processes meaningfully. On the whole, we can assume that the findings of the MSLQ have confirmed our research hypothesis that matching teaching styles with learning styles would enhance students' motivation the EFL classroom. This survey has been backed up by teachers' and learners' interview to help get valuable information about teachers' and learners' attitudes and opinion towards the match and its effect on learning motivation.

6.4   The Teachers' Interview Findings' Analysis

The interview was devised to investigate the teachers' views about the effect of matching teaching and learning styles on students' motivation. The interviews were handed out to the six secondary school teachers of English who have participated in the study. The aim behind conducting an interview with teachers at the end of the study is to gain insights into their opinions and attitudes towards teaching styles, learning styles and the match between them to increase learners' motivation in the EFL classroom besides the major difficulties encountered when they prepared lessons within the framework of the integrated model of teaching and learning styles.

The interview has been divided thematically into three sections. Section one includes information about teachers' personal information attempting to give an account about teachers' personal profile such as gender, experience and qualification. Section Two presents information about teachers' perceptions about teaching styles and learning styles. This section aims to identify the participating teachers' views towards teaching styles, the effect of these differences on learners' motivation, and their considerations about lesson design and instructional materials. Section Three reports data about motivation. This section attempted to determine teachers' views about motivation, the ways they use to enhance students' motivation, and the effect of matching teaching styles with learning styles on students' motivation and achievement.

Section One: Teachers' Personal Information

Q1: Gender

Table 6.16

Gender of the Respondents

Response	Respondents	Percentage
Male	4	66.66%
Female	2	33.33%
Total	6	100%
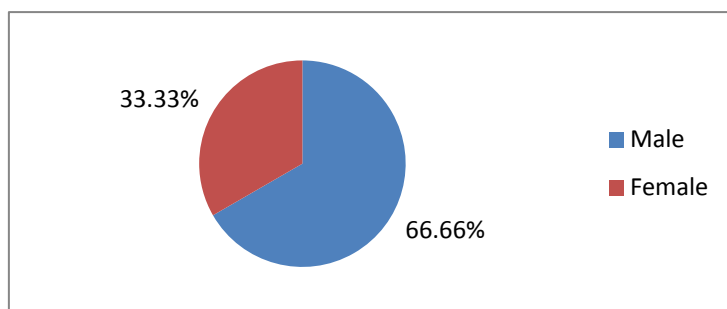
Figure 6.8 Gender of the Respondents

As shown in the table and the figure above, the majority of the teachers participating in the study were male 66.66%. Female on the other hand represented only 33.33% of the total respondents.

Q2: For how long have you been teaching English?

Table 6.17

Teachers' Experience of Teaching English at Secondary School

Response	Respondents	Percentage
Less than 5 years	0	0%
More than 5 years	1	16.66%
More than 10 years	2	33.33%
More than 15 years	3	50%
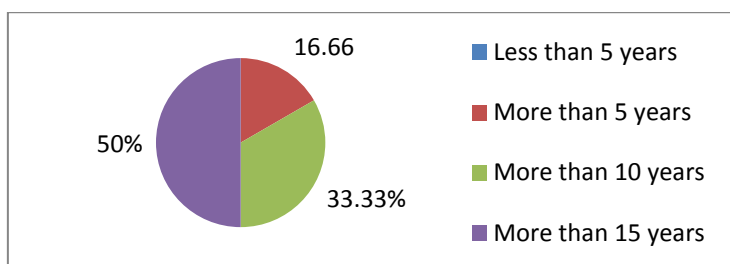
Figure 6.9 Teachers' Experience of Teaching English at Secondary School

Data in the table above indicate that most teachers (50%) had been teaching English for more than 15 years which means that they had a considerable experience in teaching English the secondary school. Two teachers (33.33%) answered that they taught English for more than ten years whereas only one teacher (16.66%) had been teaching English for more than five years. Generally speaking, all the participating teachers had an adequate experience in teaching and dealing with students.

Q 3: What are your qualifications?

Table 6.18

Teachers' Qualification

Response	Respondents	Percentage
Licence B.A.	5	83.33%
Master M.A.	1	16.66%
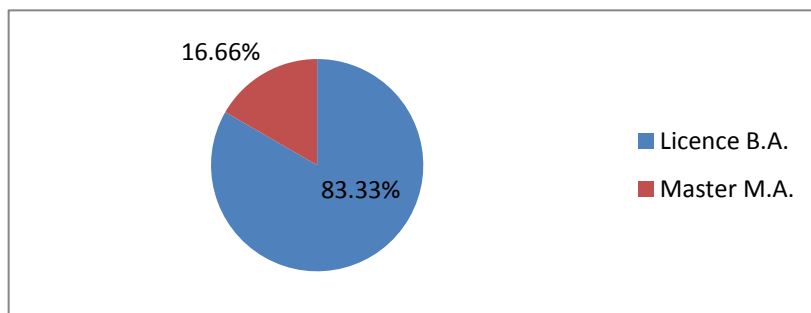
Figure 6.10 Teachers' Qualifications

As shown in the table above, 83.33 % of the teachers got a licence degree whereas only 16.66 % got a master degree. The latter has been teaching English for more than five years but less than ten years. Teachers with a licence degree were mainly those who have been teaching for more than ten years. The results revealed that teachers had adequate qualifications in English. This also indicated that that most of them have a considerable amount of knowledge about effective teaching.

Section Two: Teachers' Perceptions about Teaching Styles and Learning Styles

Q4: Do you think all students learn in the same way?

Table 6.19

Teachers' Views about Students' Learning Difference

Response	Respondents	Percentage
Yes	0	0%
No	6	100 %
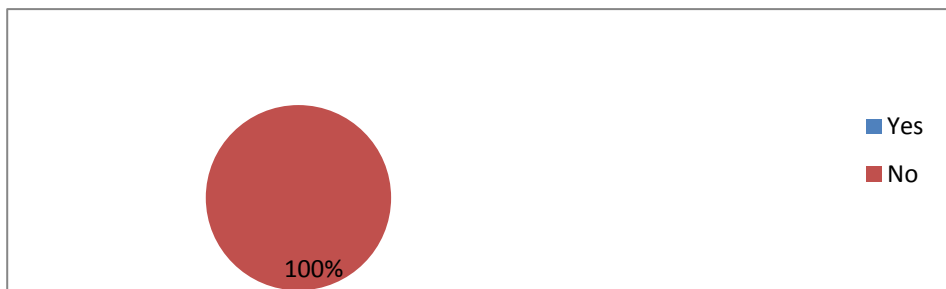
*Figure 6.11*Teachers' Views about Students' Learning Differences

The results in table 6.19 show that all teachers (100%) agreed that students do not learn in the same way. This indicates that teachers were aware of their learners' different learning styles and preferences. Students have different personalities, therefore, they do not learn in the same way.

Q5: Do you think that learning styles represent an important factor that needs to be taken into consideration in the teaching /learning process? If yes, do you take learners' learning styles into account when preparing your lesson?

Table 6.20

Teachers' Views about the Importance of Learning Styles

Response	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Number	1	4	1	0	0	6
Percentage	16.66%	66.66%	16.66%	0%	0%	100%
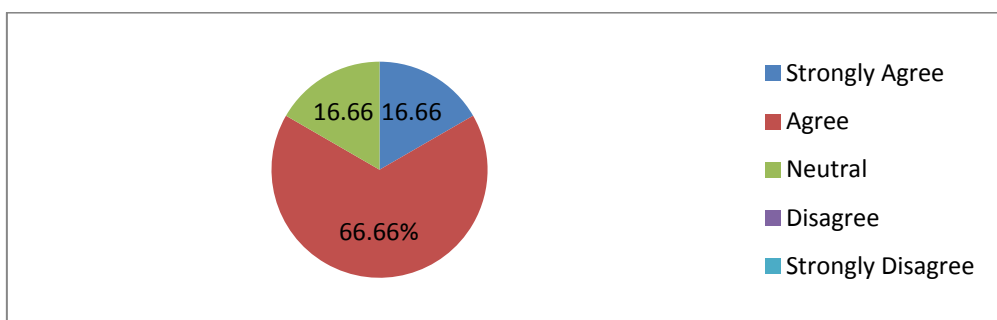
Figure 6.12 Teachers' Views about the Importance of Learning Styles

The findings demonstrate that the majority of teachers consider learning styles as important and significant factor in the success of the teaching/learning process. A high percentage of participant 66.66% agree about the statement. One teacher 16.66% opted for the choice strongly agree whereas another for neutral. The data obtained indicate that almost all teachers were aware about the role learning styles play in the classroom.

For the second part of the question, teachers' answers were as follow:

T. A: "I think learning styles are important factor in the success of learning, but I think also it is impossible to cater for each learner's learning style......it is very difficult to manage this in large classes".

T. B: "I think being aware of my learners' learning styles is very important, but it is so idealistic also. I would probably think to adapt some theories or models like Grasha's model especially that I have been working with. I'm a flexible person I'd like to practise new things in my class especially if they are beneficial".

T.C: "learning styles influences students' learning. However, I don't think I'll take them into consideration when I prepare lessons. Maybe I will do that but certainly not always.....it depends on the situation, the learners, and the environment".

T.D: "I believe that learning styles represent one of the widely investigated fields in academic research. However, I'm not sure if they really have an effect on students' learning.....though I have been part of a study about that, honestly, I don't think I'll be able to do that again".

T.E: "learning styles are very important aspect in the classroom, but most teachers ignore the way how to cater for learners' differences....I think we have been thinking too much about many things such as failure, frustrating climate, classroom atmosphere, learners and teachers' demotivation but we have neglected the fact that we can do many things to overcome these problems. We can create our own motivating environment. We need to reconsider learning styles or change our method of teaching to renew our classrooms. I think I will do my best to take my learners' needs into account and vary the type of my lesson activities accordingly."

T.F: "yes, certainly learning styles are very important in the learning process. Yet, they work better in special classroom environment such as small classes, good teaching atmosphere, and equipment. To be honest, I don't think this is possible in Algeria".

Teachers' answers differed due to the variation in their teaching experiences and mainly due to their different conceptions and beliefs about teaching in general. As shown above, although all of them agreed about the importance of learning styles, no one

mentioned that s/he takes it into consideration when designing lesson plans or prepare instructional materials, expect for teacher **B** and **E** who seemed willing to incorporate learning styles in their future lessons. This indicates that despite the fact that teachers were aware of the significance of considering learning styles and appealing to the different needs of the learners, they did not try to match their teaching methods to their learners' learning styles.

Q6: Are your instructions mainly taken from:

Table 6.21

The Sources of Teachers' Instructions

Answers	Respondents	Percentage
The textbook	3	50%
Adapted material	0	0%
Both of these	3	50%
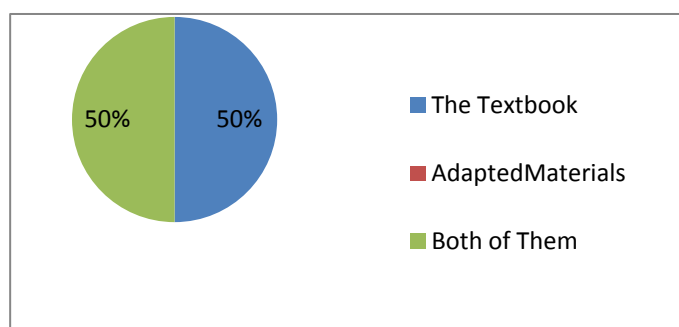
Figure 6.13 The Sources of Teachers' Instructions

      Teachers were asked to determine the sources of their instructions. Half of them (50%) indicated that they use the textbook as a primary source. The activities, the reading and the listening texts were largely the ones of the textbook. All students are required to bring their textbook for the English class. The other half (50%) of teachers used both the textbook and other materials adapted from different sources including books, magazines, and the internet. When teachers used different and varied sources of instructions, they would provide their learners with various lessons to respond to their interests.

Q7: Do you teach in the same way you have been taught?

Table 6.22

The Relationship between the Way Teachers' Teach and the Way They Were Taught

Response	Respondents	Percentage
Yes	0	0%
No	6	100 %
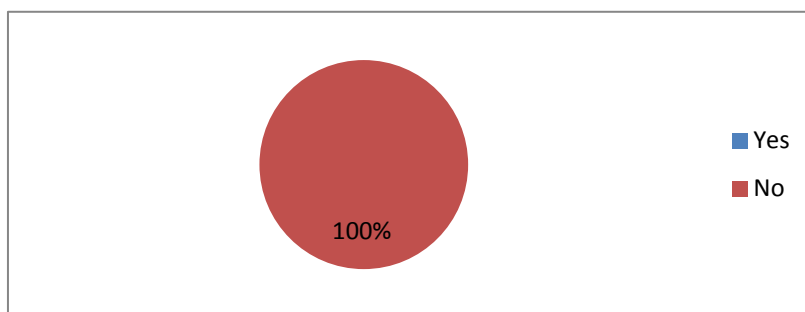
Figure 6.14 The Relationship between the Way Teachers' Teach and the Way They Were Taught

As clearly seen in the table and the figure, all of the respondents (100%) claimed that they did not teach in the same way they had been taught. Teachers did not teach in the way they were taught because they agreed that they are required to be up to date in terms of topics, methods and interaction. For them, the old methods did not suit new generation's needs. Nowadays, teachers are exposed to a variety of challenges among which the necessity to provide students with new techniques and strategies that attract their attention and respond to their learning preferences.

Section Three: Motivation

Q8: Do you believe that appealing to your learners' needs and diversifying the learning tasks involve all the students in class activities?

Table 6.23

Involvement of Students in Class Activities by Appealing to their Needs

Response	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Number	1	3	2	0	0	6
Percentage	16.66%	50 %	33.33 %	0%	0%	100%
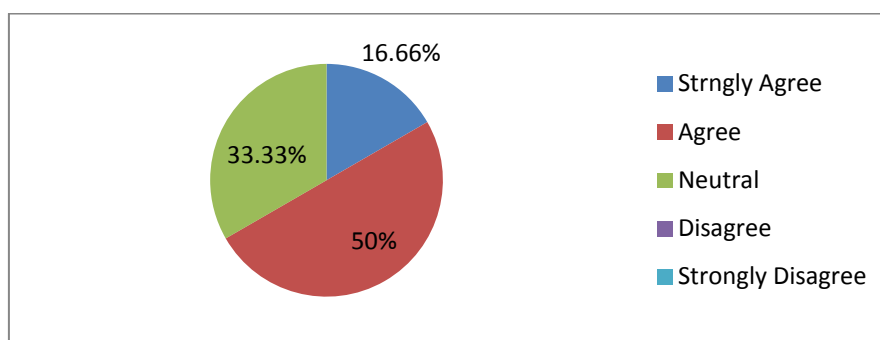
Figure 6.15 Involvement of Students in Class Activities by Appealing to their Needs

As data in the table and graph indicate, almost all the participating teachers agreed on the fact that appealing to learners' needs and using a diversity of learning tasks make students engage positively in class activities. They confirmed that using tasks of different types helped them make all students interested in learning. Only two teachers (33.33%) had a neutral position but they did not disagree with the statement.

Q9: To what extent do you think that students' motivation is related to their teachers' teaching styles?

T.A: "To some extent. Students may have different sources of motivation besides the teacher, but if the teachers' methods are stimulating ...then students will enjoy a major source of motivation."

T.B: "To a great extent, I believe the teacher is responsible of creating a positive and enjoyable atmosphere of learning."

T.C: "Teachers' teaching styles and methods can either motivate or demotivate students. Using various types of tasks and efficient teaching techniques generally brings positive effect on learning and motivation."

T.D: "To some extent".

T.E: "To a great extent. Using appropriate teaching methods and styles that cater for learners' needs would absolutely influence students' motivation positively".

T.F: "To a great extent. Teachers play a central role in their students' motivation. Their teaching style in class is very important".

Q10: In your opinion, what are the factors that undermine students' motivation?

T.A: "The learning environment is one of the most important factors."

T.B: "There are many factors such as bad learning conditions, overcrowded classes besides students' attitude towards learning".

T.C: "The school's difficulty to provide small classes, good teaching atmosphere, and equipment".

T.E: "The classroom environment, the material used in teaching and the teaching methods. Also, we can add overcrowding and students' attitudes and the teaching method".

T.F: "The environment, the number of students in the classroom, teaching conditions, the full timetable, learners' interest and seriousness".

 Q11: As long as this study is concerned, have you found that matching teaching styles and learning styles beneficial in terms of empowering students' motivation?

Table 6.24

The Effect of Matching Teaching Styles with Learning Styles on Motivation

Response	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Number	4	2	0	0	0	6
Percentage	66.66%	33.33%	0 %	0%	0%	100%
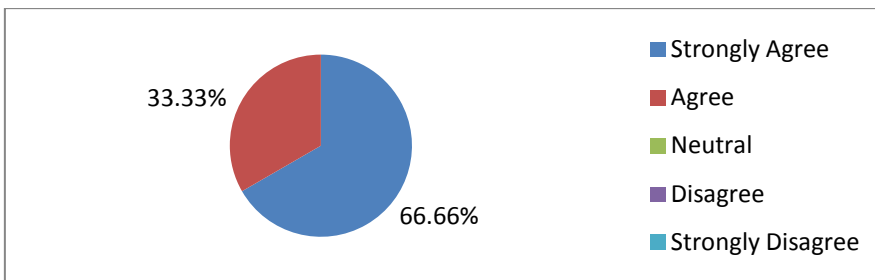
Figure 6.16 The Effect of Matching Teaching Styles with Learning Styles on Motivation

As noticed in table above, 66.66% of the interviewees strongly agreed that matching teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles helped in increasing their students' motivation. Teachers' had answered based on the results of the experiments. They noticed that after they diversified their teaching methods and match to their learners' learning styles, students' motivation have increased. This indicated that teachers were aware of the beneficial effect of the match as learners' interests have been catered for. Therefore they felt more interested than before and this enhanced their motivation.

Q12: Do you think that matching teaching and learning styles will help in creating a sense of immediacy between you and your students?

Table 6.25

The Relationship between Matching Teaching with Learning Styles and Immediacy in the Classroom

Response	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Number	2	4	0	0	0	6
Percentage	33.33%	66.66%	0 %	0%	0%	100%
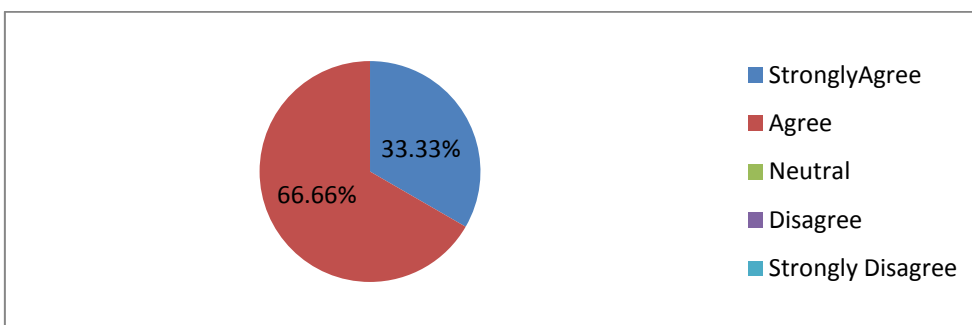
Figure 6.17 The Relationship between Matching Teaching with Learning Styles and Immediacy in the Classroom

The data obtained from this question clearly show that all teachers agreed that matching their teaching styles with the learners' learning styles helped in creating and fostering immediacy between teachers and learners. Immediacy includes teacher-learner relationship. The match enabled teachers to become closer to their students in one way or another as it fostered interaction and understanding to learners' differences.

Q13: Do you think you can match your teaching styles with students' learning styles in the other classes?

T. A: "Honestly, I think it is very difficult, especially that we are limited by time to cover the syllabus".

T. B: "Yes I think I can do that but the problem is that we have many students in class and this is going to be very tiring.....maybe it will take some time till I adapt my teaching methods and styles......Maybe we need to balance our teaching styles in a way that cater some learners styles.....Well!....I think I need to read more about that to find easy ways to apply this in the other classes".

T.C: "I don't think I'll do that....maybe sometimes...well I'm not sure".

T. D: "I don't think I'll be able to do that again....I have many classes with many students, so using the textbook is much easier to deal with our many responsibilities".

T.E: "Yes, certainly.....but I need to work harder than before. I'll try to use different materials and different methods so that all learners would feel interested. Working with Grasha's Clusters has not been that difficult as we need to modify our tasks according to what learners prefer to work....I guess I may prepare tasks for every learning style, and choose among them on the basis on my learners' styles or I may have the task done differently to respond to a particular learning style...... I think it is manageable".

T.F: "To be honest, I don't think so".

For this question, almost all teachers agreed about the importance of using an integrated model of teaching and learning where teaching and learning styles are matched, however, they claimed that this is going to be time and energy consuming as they have to rethink their teaching methods and make immense changes. The answers indicated that teachers have benefited from the experiment that they were part of. Yet, the changes to be done in their classrooms must be wise and slow. Two teachers (**T.D** and **T.F**) were very honest to declare that they would not do this with the other classes. They were to some extent reluctant about changing their methods of teaching besides their participation in the study. Two other teachers (**T.A** and **T.C**) were not sure about being able to match their

teaching styles with the learners' learning styles. The causes were mainly time, and energy. According to those teachers, it was difficult to repeat lesson plans and prepare different activities for each class. On the hand, two teachers (**T.B** and **T.E**) seemed willing to have the experience again in the other classes.   Overall, we can summarise that the interviewees were happy about the results.

6.5   The Teachers' Interview Findings' Discussion

Motivation is a very important factor in the success of the learning process. Every teacher strives to optimise his/her learners' motivation by creating a positive learning environment. Creating such an environment does not only requires an appropriate physical setting where teaching and learning takes place, rather it underpins many other aspects. Among them, we suggest teachers conceptions of teaching translated into styles and methods in the classroom, learners' learning styles, teacher-learner rapport or relationship, learners' attitudes towards learning in general and the learning materials in particular.

In attempt to investigate ways to enhance students' motivation in the EFL classroom, the researcher proposed matching teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles. This match we believe underlies the fulfilment of other aspects such as rapport, interaction, understanding, and appropriate teaching materials. After undertaking the study and confirming the benefit of the match in fostering motivation, we have conducted an interview to have insights into teachers' attitudes and opinions about the influence of the linking their teaching styles with learners' learning styles in their classrooms and the problems they encountered.

In order to answer the first part of the fourth question in this research work: What are the attitudes of both the EFL secondary school teachers and 2nd year secondary school FL stream students as well towards matching teaching styles with learning styles? An interview for teachers has been undertaken. It was divided into three sections. The first section is devoted to collect information about teachers' personal profile. The second one aims at consulting teachers' opinions about teaching styles and learning styles. The third section, on the other hand, attempts to check teachers' viewpoints about the importance of motivation in learning and the ways used to foster learners' motivation.

The findings of the interviews revealed that all teachers had been teaching for more than five years which indicate that they had an adequate teaching experience and acknowledged background information about learners' differences, teaching methods and

styles, learning strategies, and the effect of learners' attitudes and motivation on learning. Teachers believed that learners do not learn in the same way and considered learning styles as a salient factor in the success of learning. This highly indicates that teachers were aware about the importance of taking students' learning differences into account when teaching. According to Tennant (1997), Knowledge of the different learning styles in the classroom stresses the importance of learning and facilitates the distribution of power and control and helps to assess and evaluate achievement. However, when teachers have been asked about whether they take learning styles into consideration in lesson preparation, their answers contradicted with what they believe. In other words, although all of them agreed about the importance of learning styles, they did not consider them when designing lesson plans or preparing instructional materials. Hence, despite the fact that teachers were aware of the significance of considering learning styles and appealing to the different needs of the learners, they did not try to match their teaching methods to their learners' learning styles. This contradicts with Sarasin (1999, p. 7) who considers that "teaching cannot be successful without a knowledge of learning styles and a commitment to matching them with teaching styles and strategies". Understanding learning styles and the role of learning styles in the teaching/learning process is a key component in effective teaching that need to accounted for applied in the classroom.

The findings also revealed that teachers did not teach in the same way they have been taught because they recognise learners' needs to up to date teaching materials and appropriate teaching methods that would attract their attention and engage them in positive learning environment. However, they also claimed that they did not use teaching materials rather than the textbook and sometimes they brought some adapted materials from the internet or from magazines. We can clearly notice that there was a kind of contradiction in the teachers' opinions. Being aware of learners' needs necessitates working to satisfy those needs and not ignorance because if teachers do not use diverse teaching methods in response to learners' different learning styles, leaning will not be boosted. Many researchers have investigated the individual learning preferences and how instructional methods can be tailored to cater to the different styles (Baykan & Naçar, 2007, Dobson, 2009; kumar et al., 2011; Latha et al., 2009) and claim that when the students' learning styles are identified and targeted by the teachers, students become motivated and willing to achieve better which would create a promising environment for both teaching and learning. In this respect, Huxland and Land (2000) claim that, once instructors know their students

learning styles, they can develop approaches, methods, and sequences that are likely to make learning more active and engaging for students.

The interview findings also revealed that the majority of teachers believed that the diversity of class activities boosted learners' engagement, involvement and interest in class activities. Interest is a powerful motivational process that energises learning and guides academic and career trajectories (Renninger & Hidi, 2016). In the same respect, teachers have been also asked to what extent motivation can be related to their teaching methods. All teachers agreed that learners' motivation is influenced by the teachers' teaching methods and styles. In fact, research has claimed that overemphasizing the traditional methods is believed to lead to inactive learning and ignorance to learners' learning styles. This, therefore, results in motivation and interest destruction (Aminfar, 1989). In the same vein, Martin (2010) argues that teachers need to be empowered to refine the art of instruction, trusted to develop and use their skill and intuition, and encouraged to implement strategies that meet the students' needs. Meeting students' helps in fostering learners' motivation to learn.

The findings pointed out that teachers became aware of the fact that matching teachings styles with learning styles entailed meeting the demands of their learners and responding to their learning preferences and had a positive impact on their motivation. This was also stated by Gilakjani (2012) who assumes that if a teaching style matches with the learning style , then the student is motivated and actively involved in English language learning. A divergence between learning styles and teaching styles causes learning failure, irritation of learning potential. Responding to learners' preferences can be achieved by employing a range of learning materials and different types of activities. In this regard, Sabeh et al., (2011) assume that respecting others' styles and responding to different styles by accommodating some strategies could help promote learning.

Teachers also agreed that matching teaching styles with learning styles helped in creating a sense of immediacy between them and their learners. Immediacy is important in the classroom because without a sense of immediacy, the student will not feel comfortable to engage with either the instructor or the teachings (Mehrabian, 1981). Immediacy is achieved by mutual understanding, interaction, and communication. Matching teaching styles with learning styles cannot be done if teachers and learners do not interact or communicate. If teachers do not understand learners' differences, they will not be able to respond to their needs. Hence, all these aspects are interrelated together in the sense that the match cannot be achieved if these aspects are not considered. Teachers' view that the

match helped them to create immediacy with learners, indeed, was interesting. Research has shown that a student's emotional response to an instructor's immediacy cues can predict whether that student will avoid or approach learning and school related activities, such as class time and homework (Allen et al., 2006; Mottet & Beebe, 2002; Rocca, 2004).

Overall, teachers admitted that they indeed believed in the importance of rethinking their teaching methods in ways that respond to their learners needs but also they confessed that they did not do that all the time and might not be able to do that in the future because they found it is time consuming. Teachers agreed that they were limited by time and they had to cover the entire syllabus in due time. They agreed that using the textbook was easier especially that they had to deal with large classes. Nevertheless, teachers believed that despite the restriction of the curriculum, they needed to balance their teaching styles to avoid any possible problem that would stem from the mismatch between their teaching styles and students' learning styles as Peacock (2001) suggests.

From the results of the interview, the researcher has found that teachers' awareness plays an important role in creating a promising learning environment. Matching teaching styles with learning styles, according to teachers' views, helped in fostering learners' motivation to learn, boosted their interest in the subject, and reinforced immediacy and interaction. Nevertheless, teachers have also highlighted a number of problems that hindered them from designing lessons on the basis of the match. Among them, they denoted the overcrowding and large number of students, the demotivating classroom environment and the lack of equipment, the working conditions including full timetables and the teacher's never-ending responsibilities, and time limitation to cover the syllabus. We can clearly notice that the results of the interview confirm the findings obtained from the classroom observation.

6.6   The Students' Interview Findings' Analysis

Students' interview was administered to 20 second year secondary school students who had participated in the study. The aim behind conducting an interview with students at the end of the study is to obtain insights into their opinions and attitudes towards teaching styles, learning styles and the effect of the match between them on their motivation. The questions of the interview are mainly closed-ended questions and one open-ended question. The interview consists of six questions that helped the researcher to get insightful conclusions about learners' opinion regarding the match. Students' interview was divided

into two sections. The first section, attempts to highlight the respondents' dominant learning styles, and sought to investigate their opinions about their teacher's teaching style. Section two, on the other hand, is dedicated to shed light on students' motivation by determining learners' attitudes towards the match of teaching styles with learning styles and its effect on motivation.

Section One: Learning Styles

Q1: Which of the following statements describes your preferred way of learning?

Table 6.26

Learners' Preferred Learning Styles

The Statements	Respondents	Percentage
-You rely on the teacher to explain everything to you. (Dependent)	4	20%
-You participate and take part in various learning activities (Participant)	5	25%
-You Cooperate with others, you like group working, peer-working (Collaborative)	4	20%
-You do not enjoy participating in activities (Avoidant)	0	0%
-You prefer to work alone and do tasks by your own (Independent)	2	10%
-You prefer to compete with others (Competitive)	5	25%
Total	**20**	**100%**
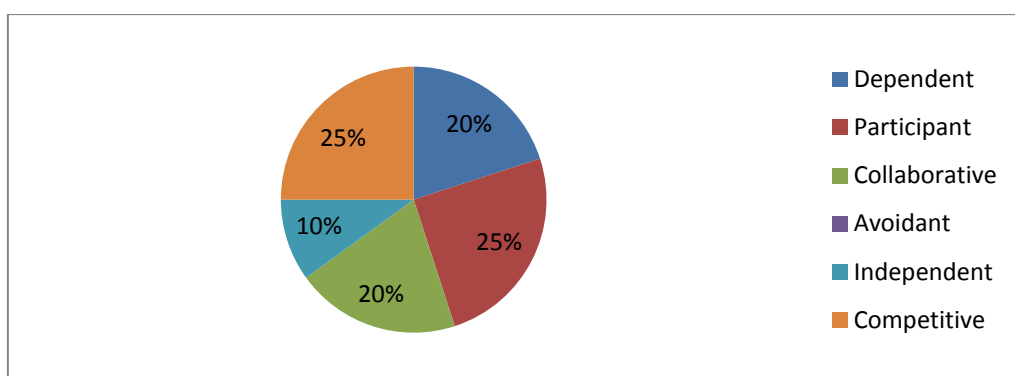
Figure 6.18 Learners' Preferred Learning Styles

Students' answers revealed some of their preferred learning styles. The twenty students being interviewed have identified their most favourite style of learning among six choices. As the data in the table above display, (25%) of the respondents enjoyed taking part in class tasks while other (25%) indicated that they like to compete with others. Some students (20%) provided that they like to cooperate with other students and prefer group work and peer work. The same proportion of students (20%) preferred that the teacher explains everything for them. The least proportion of learners (10%) preferred to work on tasks independently. The results show that the students were aware about their styles preferences.

Q2: Do you see that your teacher's teaching method suits your learning styles?

Table 6.27

The Adequacy of Teaching Method to Learning Style

Response	Respondents	Percentage
Yes	7	35%
No	13	65%
Total	**20**	**100%**
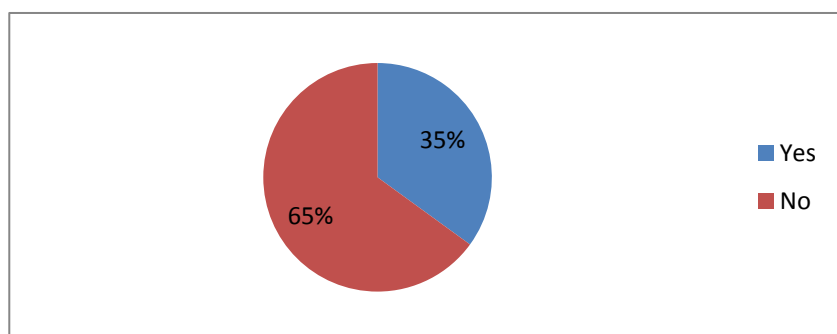
Figure 6.19 The Adequacy of Teaching Method to Learning Style

Students answers to this question varied but the majority of learners indicated that their teachers' teaching method suit their learning style. As noticed in the table and the graph above, 65% of the respondents agreed that their teacher's teaching method suits their learning style whereas 35% disagreed. This question concerned teachers' methods before the treatment and not during the application of the match. Students different answers reveal that students became aware about their learning styles and could differ between different teaching methods especially those they did not prefer.

Section Two: Motivation

Q3: Did you enjoy class activities before (before the experiment of the match)?

Table 6.28

Students' Views about Class Activities before the Treatment

Response	Respondents	Percentage
Yes	4	20 %
No	16	80 %
Total	20	100%
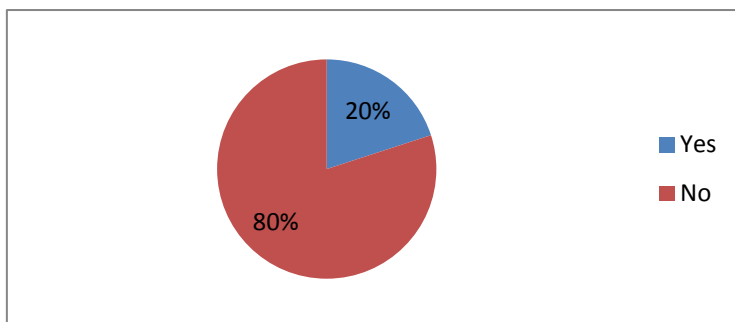
Figure 6.20 Students' Views about Class Activities before the Treatment

The data obtained from this question put into evidence show that learners' views about class activities at the beginning of the academic year varied from one student to another. As displayed in the table 6.28 and the graph 6.20 above, 4 students (20%) claimed that they enjoyed the activities and the method of the teacher at the beginning of the study. They also admitted that they liked the English course during the treatment period when their teacher's method changed. It can be concluded that those students have intrinsic motivation, that is, they liked to learn English regardless of the external factors. On the hand, 16 students (80%) answered that they did not enjoy their class activities before and felt uninterested and demotivated.

Q4: Do you feel more motivated to study English now?

Table 6.29

Learners' Motivation after Matching Teachers' Teaching Styles with Learners' Learning Styles

Response	Respondents	Percentage
Yes	16	80%
No	4	20%
Total	20	100%
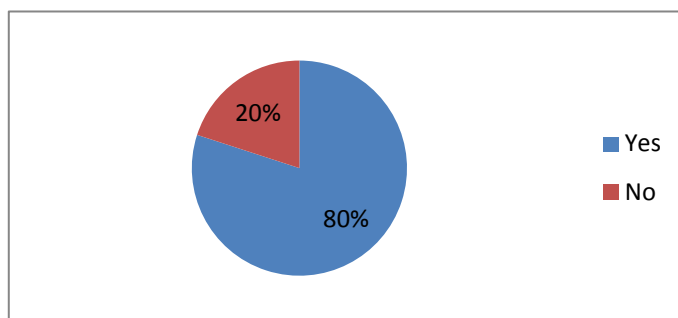
Figure 6.21 Learners' Motivation after Matching Teachers' Teaching Styles with Learners' Learning Styles

Students' were asked whether they were motivated to study English or not. This question aimed to check students' opinions about matching their learning styles to their teacher's teaching style. As shown in the table and the graph, (80%) of the respondents answered yes. That is, they liked their learning styles to be matched to the teacher's teaching styles because it fosters their motivation as their learning needs were taken into consideration. It also creates a pleasant learning atmosphere where they felt they could learn better. In contrast, (20%) of students responded by no. They said that their level of motivation did not change because they have already been motivated to study English. These students are the same who have claimed that they enjoyed class activities before the treatment in the previous questions. We believe those students are highly motivated and interested to learn English form the beginning of the study.

Q5: Have your achievement in English increased?

Table 6.30

Learners' Views about their Achievement

Response	Respondents	Percentage
Yes	19	95%
No	1	5%
Total	**20**	**100%**
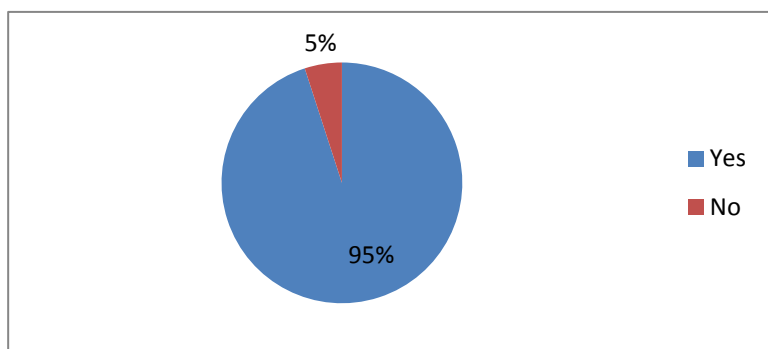
Figure 6.22 Learners' Views about their Achievement

As shown in table 6.30, the respondents were asked to determine if their achievement has increased after the experiment took place. Here, in accordance with their scores in the continuous evaluation of the first and third trimesters, 95% of the students responded that they had achieved better after their teachers considered their learning preferences and matched their teaching styles to the learners' learning styles. However, 5% of the respondents did notice any increase in the level of achievement.

Q6: Do you like to be taught in a way that caters for your learning styles? Why?

Table 6.31

Learners' Views about Matching Teaching Styles with Learning Styles

Response	Respondents	Percentage
Yes	20	100%
No	0	0%
Total	20	100
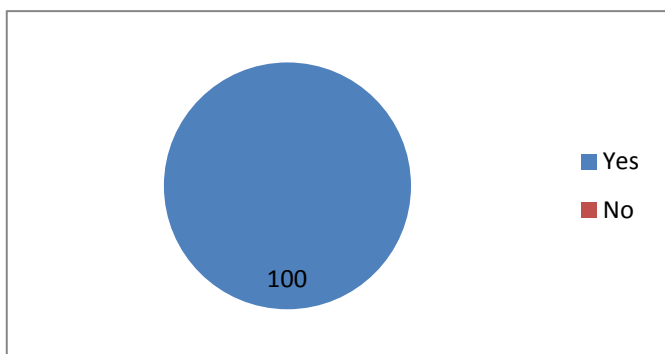
Figure 6.23 Learners' Views about Matching Teaching Styles with Learning Styles

As clearly seen in table 6.31, all the interviewed students replied by saying that they like to be taught in a way that caters for their learning styles. 100% of the respondents claimed that they had benefited from the experience and wished they could be taught in the same way in the other subject matters. Being taught in a way that takes into consideration individual differences and seeks to cater for different learning preferences is undoubtedly the best way of teaching as the students reported. Students' answers to this question are as follow:

Students **2, 5, 7, 12, 13, 15, 16, 18, 20** argued that they likes and would like their teachers to teach them in respect to their learning differences. They assumed that the match enabled them to have an opportunity to learn in ways that are suitable and appropriate to their needs. They have also claimed that this match helped them to be more self-confident of their abilities because previously they thought that they would not be able to learn English and perform tasks adequately.

Moreover, students **1, 4, 9, 11, 14, 17, 19** asserted that liked to be taught in a way that catered for their learning styles simply because they found it very interesting. They claimed that they liked English but the sessions were very boring. They had to use the textbook in every session with the same method. They said that they wanted something to make them interested but they could not know what it was. Students' claimed that they got more interested, they have different types of activities, also they were not using the textbook always, so, the lesson was always surprising which made them attentive and attracted to what the teacher is presenting. Furthermore, they got different types of activities including pair/group work, individual and independent research. This diversity according to those students prompted their interest and motivation.

In addition, students **3, 6, 8, 10** agreed that they enjoyed being taught in a classroom where learning styles are taken into consideration. According to these learners, they liked the English session very much even before the experience of the match. Yet, the match, for them, was an experience that they had never though they would have. They claimed that they did not know about learning styles before (this was also noted by all the interviewed students) and the lessons were a kind of a new experience where they discovered more about their learning strategies and their abilities.

6.7   The Students' Interview Findings' Discussion

In order to answer the second part of the fourth question in this study: What are the attitudes of both the EFL secondary school teachers and 2nd year secondary school FL stream students as well towards matching teaching styles with learning styles? An interview for students has been conducted. The interview is divided into two sections. The first section aims to get an overview about the respondents' prevailing learning style and investigate learners' opinion about their teacher's teaching style. Section two, on the other hand, is dedicated to shed light on students' motivation by determining learners' attitudes towards the match of teaching styles and learning styles and its effect on their motivation.

The first section of the interview embodies two questions about learners' learning styles and teachers' teaching styles. The findings of the interview revealed that students' possess different learning styles. Going through the experience they had by the implementation of the treatment of the study, learners became aware of their learning styles and learning preferences. They were more conscious about the way through which they learn better. Students' awareness of their learning styles can be viewed in the second question which aimed to check learners' opinions about their teacher's teaching methods. 65% of the students argued that their teacher' teaching method did not suit their learning styles while 35% considered that the teaching methods were suitable. We can clearly notice that the students became able to differentiate between different instructional methods and could agree or disagree about the suitability of one method or another. This can be explained by students' development of cognitive strategy use and self-regulation which can be depicted from their ability to monitor learning as found by the MSLQ previously. O'Connor (1997) claims that people learn more when they are aware of their learning styles. Their learning became more efficient as they are able to take decisions and monitor the learning process.

The second section is devoted to collect information about learners' motivation in class and their attitudes towards the match. The findings revealed that the majority of students (80%) did not enjoy the class activities before the application of the match due to many reasons including demotivation, uninteresting instructional materials, the teaching method or the learning environment. Research has claimed that matched teaching styles and learning styles would result in learning activities that are more interesting and engaging for learners (Huxland & Land, 2000). The outcomes also revealed that learners became more motivated after the match. 80% of the students agreed that the match

between teachers' styles and learners' styles has tremendously influenced their motivation level. In addition, students' achievement has also been also influenced by the match as (95%) of the learners admitted that their achievement has increased. This goes hand in hand with the researchers' claims about the impact of the match on learning. For example, Reid (1995) assumes that the matches are very important because the mismatch between teaching and learning styles leads to learning failure, frustration and demotivation. In other words, the match does not only affect motivation but also academic achievement.

The obtained findings also confirm that the match of teaching and learning styles deeply affect students' motivation and achievement. Both the teachers and students should be aware of their styles and try to harmonize them (Reid, 1995; Oxford, Hollaway & Horton-Murillo, 1992). All the students argued that they would like to learn in classes where their learning styles are being catered for. They claimed that being enrolled in classes where teaching styles and learning styles are matched increased their interest in the subject as this provided them with opportunities to learn in ways that responded to their needs. They have also claimed that this match helped them to be more self-confident of their abilities. Furthermore, students claimed that they become more motivated to learn because the classes were no longer boring. Different methods have been used by the teachers, which made them more interested and engaged in class activities. Students also argued that they liked the experience of the match and they would like to be taught in the same way in the other classes. They were exposed to different types of activities; and this diversity prompted their interest and motivation. Moreover, students asserted that they enjoyed being taught in a classroom where learning styles are taken into consideration because they could develop a high self-esteem and discover more about their learning strategies and their abilities which can be explained by students' development of self-regulation and calibration of cognitive activities.

Using different methods that cater for learners' differences by matching teaching styles with learning styles has been affirmed by the findings of the study in accordance with many researchers. Teachers should identify the learning styles of their students and adapt their classroom methods to best fit each student's learning style by varying their instructional material and teaching methods (Sprenger, 2003; Gregorc, 1977). Many studies in EFL have found that in order to be effective EFL teacher, it is mandatory to have knowledge about learners' learning needs, individual differences in learning, the required teaching methods, learners' preferences as well as the necessary teaching materials required to meet learners' needs in the educational setting (Bain, 2004; Bull &

Ma, 2001; Felder & Spurlin, 2005; Li, Chen & Tsai, 2008; Rayneri, Gerber & Wiley, 2006; Woolfork & Murphy 2001; Zhang, 2006).

6.8   Synthesis of the Main Findings

This research study has attempted to explore how motivation is enhanced in the EFL classroom through using the integrated model of teaching and learning styles proposed by Grasha (1996). It aimed at showing the effect of the application of matching teaching styles with learning styles in the Algerian EFL classroom. In this study, the researcher has arranged a number of instruments to collect corpus more accurately. The data collection instruments were the classroom observation, the GRLSS, the GRTSI, the MSLQ, teachers' interview and students' interview. Based on the analyses and the discussion that have been presented previously, the main results of this research are:

➢ The findings of the observation showed that most of the classrooms were not comfortable and not favourable places for both teachers and students. Most of them were not clean, crowded with high number of students, and inappropriate seating system. Teacher-learner relationship, rapport, immediacy and interaction were almost absent in all the classes. The findings also showed a considerable mismatch between teachers' teaching styles and students' learning styles. Lesson presentations and instructional materials did not seem to match to learners' preferences which led to students' demotivation, disinterest, disengagement and negative attitudes towards EFL.

➢ To answer the first and the second questions about the identification of teachers' teaching styles and learners' learning styles and to confirm the findings of the observation, two surveys have been conducted. The first was GRLSS that aimed to determine learners' prevailing learning styles while the second was GRTSI which attempted to identify teachers' teaching styles. After the identification of styles, the findings revealed a frequency of mismatch that was higher than that of the match. This clearly indicated that teachers' teaching styles did not match with learners' learning styles which in fact corroborate with the researcher's observation results.

➢ The findings obtained from the surveys revealed that the first and the second hypotheses were partially rejected. Put differently, the first hypothesis was partly rejected as 2nd year secondary school FL stream students' dominant learning styles in the city of Biskra are not only Dependent-Participant-Competitive but are also Independent-Collaborative-Participant,   Dependent-Participant-Competitive,   and   Collaborative-

Participant-Independent. In addition to that, the second hypothesis which assumed that EFL secondary teachers in Biskra exhibit Facilitator-Personal Model-Expert teaching style was also rejected as teachers were found to demonstrate different teaching styles including Expert-Formal Authority, Personal Model-Expert-Formal Authority, Delegator-Facilitator-Expert, and Facilitator-Personal Model-Expert.

➢ Motivation is regarded as a dominant part in the success of the teaching/ learning process. Appealing to students' learning preferences is a salient factor in promoting students' motivation and therefore there is a positive relationship between the teaching and learning styles match and motivation in the EFL classroom. In order to answer the third question, the MSLQ has been administered in the pre and post-test. The results of the t-testing revealed that the differences between the pre-and post-test mean scores were statistically significant. Hence, the increase in students' level of motivation was the result of the match. In order to test the validity of the third hypothesis that matching teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles positively enhances students' motivation to learn English and therefore there is a positive relationship between the match of teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles and motivation in the EFL classroom, Pearson (1996) correlation was utilised. The results revealed there was a cause and effect relationship. Thus, having teaching styles and learning styles matched enhanced students' motivation. The correlation between the match and motivation has been, therefore, confirmed using Pearson (1996) correlation. In other words, the increase in students' motivation was caused by the match between teachers' teaching styles and learners' learning styles in lesson presentation and learning activities. Consequently, the third hypothesis was validated.

➢ In order to test the validity of our hypothesis stating that matching teaching styles with learning styles positively enhances students' motivation and in attempt to answer the third question about the effect of the match on students' motivation, the MSLQ was conducted. This latter has been administered to students twice; the first was after determining the frequency of the mismatch and before the treatment whereas the second was after the treatment which was the implementation of the integrated model of teaching and learning styles wherein teaching styles were matched to learning styles in class. The findings of the pre-test MSLQ showed that students' motivation ranged from medium to low in the different scales. The findings of the post-test, on the other hand, displayed an increase in the students' level of motivation from medium to high in almost all the scales of the MSLQ. To test the significance of this increase, the statistical t-test was used. The

results of the t-testing indeed showed that the difference between the pre-and post treatment mean scores were statistically significant. In order to link the variables together, it was found that there was a cause and effect relationship. Having teaching styles and learning styles matched enhanced students' motivation. The correlation between the match and motivation has been confirmed using Pearson correlation. The findings indicated that there is a positive relationship between matching teacher's teaching styles with learners learning style, and motivation. Put differently, the increase in students' motivation was caused by the match between teachers' teaching styles and learners' learning styles in lesson presentation and learning activities.

➤ To answer the fourth question about teachers' and students' attitudes towards the match and its effect on students motivation, two interviews have been led; one for teachers and another for students. The findings of teachers' interview highlighted their awareness of the importance of matching teaching styles with learning styles. It has been also found that teachers held positive attitudes towards the match and mostly believed it had a positive influence on their learners' motivation. However, some of them have shed light on the main problems that hindered them from matching teaching styles with learning styles such as the large number of classes, the lengthy syllabus, time constraints, and the many pedagogical responsibilities. The findings of students' interview showed their learning styles awareness and confirmed that these styles have not been considered by their teacher leading to their demotivation and disinterest from learning. The results have also shown that students believed the match had positively influenced their level of achievement and motivation after teachers had varied their learning activities and instructional materials that catered for their learning needs. The findings have also revealed students' positive attitudes towards the match and their agreement about its efficacy in enhancing their interest and motivation. Accordingly, the fourth hypothesis which stated that EFL secondary school teachers and 2nd year secondary school FL stream students in the city of Biskra hold indifferent attitudes towards matching teaching styles with learning styles has been rejected.

6.9   Some Recommendations and Implications

Teaching and learning have always been interwoven entities. Both terms are related in a way that they cannot be separated. Rather, they are two faces of the same coin. Hughes (2006) suggests that we are all learners, just as we are all teachers. In FL, learning is the conscious process of accumulating knowledge of the features of the language such as vocabulary or grammar in instructional setting (Yule, 2006, p. 163). An instructional setting refers to the schools or to the institution where knowledge takes place.

Improving FL teaching and learning have been widely investigated. A variety of educational approaches and methods sought to foster FL learning. To make teaching and learning effective, students' motivation has been suggested as a main factor. As far as this research is concerned, we have proposed the implementation of Grasha's (1996) integrated model of teaching and learning in the EFL classroom to enhance motivation. In this model, students' learning styles and the teacher's response to these styles are two important factors in determining the success of the teaching learning process.

The results of this study showed how students' motivation increased when their learning styles were matched to their teachers' teaching styles. This informed teachers about the differences that existed between learners and helped them to understand the various ways through which these learners approach learning and the difficulties they might encounter when their teaching styles do not match to the learners' learning styles. The results also shed light on the main teaching styles used by secondary school teachers of English and second year secondary school FL stream students' learning styles. In addition the study contributes to the existing literature in the areas of motivation, learning styles, learners' differences, teaching styles, teaching methods, and classroom instruction. It has demonstrated the significance of the teacher-learner styles match in the EFL classroom. The match proves to be effective in elevating students' motivation and interest towards the subject matter. The findings of this study go in accordance with Grasha (1996, p.224) proposition of some elements of the classroom that are regarded by students as motivating:

•Enthusiasm of the teacher.

• Studying course material that is perceived as personally relevant and important.

• Having a well prepared and organized teacher.

• Assignments and course material is challenging but "doable."

• Students are actively engaged in classroom learning through hands-on activities and discussions

•Variety and novelty are present in the assignments and classroom learning techniques.

• Students feel they have good rapport with their instructors and that teachers are approachable.

• Course material is made real, concrete, and understandable through the use of appropriate examples.

The success of the teaching/learning process is chiefly determined by the compatibility of learning and teaching styles. However, one of the challenges encountered by the Algerian secondary school teachers of English is how to meet students' needs and expectations, and cater for their differences. Since learners process information in different ways, teachers are required to determine their learners' preferred learning styles and vary their instructions in response to the learners' needs. The identification of learning styles will help them to plan lessons, adapt their teaching styles and provide more appropriate activities and tasks.

On the basis of the research findings obtained from the classroom observation, the GRLSS, the GRTSI, the MSLQ, the teachers' interview, and the students' interview, we suggest some recommendations and implications for the enhancement of motivation in the EFL classroom that would facilitate teaching and improve EFL learning:

- **Matching teaching styles to learning styles to foster motivation**

Through motivation is a salient aspect in the classroom, most teachers find it challenging to have their students motivated. In fact, disappointment and disinterest instead of motivation seem to become a more familiar feeling to the students. Learners' motivation seems to undermine due to the teaching methods as students are exposed to the same teaching style that does not correspond to their learning styles. As a result, the subject matter becomes more difficult, boring, and the classroom environment becomes dull. Students' lose confidence on their abilities and hold negative attitudes about the course in general which may result in low academic achievement. Accordingly, understanding the elements that trigger student's motivation and student academic success is essential in the classroom.

However, hanging or modifying the teaching styles to respond to learners' learning has proved to be a challenging situation. As long as teachers generally teach in the way they see appropriate, asking them to adapt new methods maybe somehow threatening for

comfort in the classroom. This is mainly because teachers are used to teach in a particular method or approach and altering to another make them feel uncomfortable. Nevertheless, matching teaching styles with learning styles does not necessarily mean changing the method of instruction entirely. It indicates, nonetheless, the use of various instructional techniques and strategies that would appeal to various learners' needs. Teachers are recommended to adapt their teaching style in a way that suits learners' preferred style of learning to motivate them to learn and activate their abilities (Gagné & Briggs, 1979; Cunnigsworth, 1984; Ambrose, 1991; Vellutino et al., 1996 ; Grasha, 1995; Brenda, 1998; Foorman, et al., 1998; Morrison, Bachman, & Connor, 2005; Zhang, 2008).

➢ Teachers should try to create a positive atmosphere to increase interaction in the classroom

➢ Teachers should use visual aids and up-to-date technological devices that attract learners' attention and enhance cognitive and memory processes.

➢ Teachers should diversify their activities in the classroom and avoid lecturing for a long time.

- **Planning lessons compatible with learning styles**

At the beginning of each academic year, teachers should identify their learners' preferred learning styles. This enables them (i.e., teachers) to review their teaching strategies and instruction and understand learners' differences. Instruction should be conducted in the classroom in an effective way that ensures the match between teaching styles and learning styles (Oxford et al., (1991). Learning needs would be fulfilled if teachers could change and modify their teaching styles and methods and provide a variety of activities that appeal to the majority if not all learners' preferences. Accommodating different learning styles in the language classroom would encourage EFL learners to succeed (Cunningsworth, 1984; Timmins, 1999; McDonough,2007)

- **Using various types of activities to appeal to different learning styles**

Students' learning styles vary from one learner to another. For that reason, teachers will be encouraged to diversify their activities and tasks and divide their instruction in a way that appeal to the learners preferences. The classroom tasks should be developed in accordance with the learning styles of the learners to whom the task will be presented. Doing so will make the learners interested and give them an opportunity to find their own way to succeed (Deci & Ryan, 2000). When preparing instructions, teachers could use

symbols or codes indicating the learning style in front of the activity to facilitate and better organise the lesson plans. Teachers would find it easy to identify whether a particular learning style is incorporated in the lesson.

- **Rethinking the teaching method and approach**

The interest in applying a learners-centred approach has increased as the traditional language teaching approaches noticed considerable drawbacks. Though English language teaching in secondary schools is done on the principles of the competency-based approach, the match between teaching and learning styles has not received enough consideration. Accordingly, it might be beneficial, if teachers design lesson plans in a constructivist way based on learners' individual differences and not a blind use of the text-book. To be effective, teachers must treat the learners as they are, but at the same time, with reference to what they might become (Acero, 2000). In addition to that, teachers should diversify their instruction modes as learners learn better when information is presented in different methods (Reid, 1995).

- **Providing training programs**

Teachers should be provided by different programs and training courses that encourage and help them to use a variety of teaching styles. Teachers could participate in language teaching programs to facilitate their difficulties regarding the way they should deal with learners' differences. In addition to that, teachers could benefit from short term training or workshops with inspectors that assist them manage their strategies and methods to deeply respond to the various learning needs of the students. In addition to that, teachers may be asked to be flexible and accept to change their preferred teaching method and give opportunities to receive special knowledge from specialists about teaching method and psychologist and adapt to their classrooms (Beck, 2001).

- **Promoting positive teacher-learner relationship**

It is highly important that teachers build strong and positive relationships with learners. Teacher-learner rapport should be encouraged based on understanding and support in order to avoid negative classroom atmosphere (Marzano & Marzano, (2003). Teachers may be encouraged to:

➢ Focus on learner-centred classroom instruction. This is believed to positively affect the students motivation and effectively build supportive relationships between teachers and learners.

➢ Create a positive class environment. Stronge (2002) believes that classrooms which promote emotional well-being create an environment for effective learning. Providing a positive learning atmosphere helps teachers not only to perform effectively but also to foster motivation.

➢ Use rewards and reinforcement. Praising learners for their performance shows teachers interest and care about learners which in turn helps in empowering the relationship between the teacher and the learners. In this respect, Kohn (1993) suggests that praises are manipulative and contributing to a relationship between students and teachers.

➢ Promote learners' engagement. Using appropriate instruction makes students involved in the learning activities and motivates them to develop their learning skills.

- **Incorporating an understanding of learning styles into teaching**

According to Montgomery (1998), there are many reasons to tolerate the differences among learners and understand their various learning styles.

➢ Making teaching and learning a dialogue, through a variety of active learning techniques that engage students.

➢ As student bodies become more diverse, it becomes necessary to consider all the factors that influence the learning of students from different races, cultures and nationalities.

➢ Communicating our message across more effectively which can only be done if presented in a multi-faceted way across the range of student learning styles.

➢ Making teaching more rewarding. Considering learning styles forces teachers to self-reflect and deem ways to change teaching methodologies and move away from being caught in teaching the way we were taught, assuming that it will work for all students.

Many EFL teachers face difficulties in presenting lessons or any instructional materials that do not link or match to students' styles of learning. When teachers make decisions about the type of activities to be conducted in the classroom, they should take into account learners' differences. In the light of the results of the study, a number of activities appropriate for each cluster of learning styles are proposed:

6.9.1 Some activities appropriate for cluster one: Dependent/ Participant/ Competitive.

• **Presentations**

One of the main activities appropriate for the dependent/participant/competitive learners is the use of presentations in from of short lectures 10 minutes. Using these short or mini-presentations must be followed by questions, examples or activities about the material being presented in order to activate students and involve them in the lesson. According to Grasha (1996), for presentations to be successful in appealing to the students' needs, teachers should:

✓ Keep it to about ten or twelve minutes in length.

✓ Precede the mini-presentation with a brief thirty second overview of what will be covered. Conceptual prequestion could be used here as well other advanced organizers.

✓ Allow no more than two or three key teaching points to be made during the presentation.

✓ Avoid a natural tendency to stray from the topic. Thus, keep what needs to be said relatively clear, simple, and focused on the issue at hand.

✓ Stress concrete vivid examples of key points and their applications. This stimulates the imagination and interest of listeners. Visual aids should be used.

✓ Vary the rate of speech, inflection patterns, and tone of voice.

✓ Give a brief sixty to ninety second summary or wrap-up at the end of the presentation.

• **Technology-Based Presentations**

Presentation which are technology based include those involve the use of technological devices and programmes such as computers, data show projectors, speakers, audio and video tapes, smart phones, power-point, and prezi besides communication technologies such as the internet, social networking. The use of such devices makes the presentation can be of great use in classes dominated by the dependent/participant/competitive learning styles. These presentations may serve as supplementary content to the teachers' main instructional presentation or can be the essential instructional material presented via technology through which information are demonstrated. Technology based presentation are regarded as a tool to improve students' learning (Simmons & Markwell, 2001) This activity is a teacher-centred as learners are not

active in building knowledge rather they receive content from which they would derive insights, information, and on which they would question, debate or contradict. This type of presentation, unlike the first mentioned above, can be advantageous (Grasha, 1996; Hertlein & Ancheta, 2014) in many ways:

- ✓ It helps to transmit essential information faster and clearer.
- ✓ It helps to motivate students, especially secondary school students and young pupils
- ✓ It provides innovation and variety in the lesson.
- ✓ It helps to attract students' attention
- ✓ It helps to strengthen immediacy.
- ✓ It helps students to interact and discuss the presented content and think critically.

- **Teacher-Directed Discussions**

Class-discussions can be used are to engage the class as a whole in a discussion. Discussions might evolve from teachers or students questions about a particular point in the lesson. Discussions made with the dependent/participant/competitive learners are always manipulated and directed by the teacher. Questions and examples are presented by the teacher while the students may react, respond, debate or dispute about what the teacher has raised.

6.9.2 Some activities appropriate for cluster two: Participant/ Dependent/ Competitive.

- **Guided Writing**

This type of activities is more suitable for students with participant/ dependent/ competitive learning styles. Guided writing involves teachers' assistance through providing a model for the students' to follow. By supervising the student throughout their activity completion, the teacher engages in the thought processes and/or skills the student is expected to learn. In guided writing activities, students originate the sentences in which they are given suggestion from the teacher regarding the content and organization of what is written (Murcia, 1978). Therefore, these activities involve students' participation but in a dependent way on a particular model suggested by the teacher. Hill (1996) refers to guided writing as a task which involves individuals or small groups of students writing a range of text types. The teacher may provide short mini lessons to demonstrate a particular aspect of text type, grammar, punctuation or spelling. Guided writing is linked to reading and various text types are used as models. Student may use writing frames or templates as scaffold for writing

- **Guided practice/Guided assignments**

Guided practice often entails an assignment or activity to be completed in class while the teacher controls the activity's development at different stages and assesses progress. Handouts, illustrations or drawing projects, experiments, and writing assignments all lend themselves well to guided practice. Many of these activities are approached through direct example analysis and observation of the model's steps such as completing an application letter, doing project works, doing a survey where students must identify a problem and make a mini research using questionnaires or interviews, analysing data using tables, graphs, and providing findings analysis and discussion. These in fact are some of the secondary school syllabus activities but teachers need to use them in accordance with students' learning styles. Some of what is learned also can be very deliberate and subject to interventions by the teacher. One area is when demonstrations of various ways to apply the content, to complete tasks, or to use skills and techniques are provided.

6.9.3 Some activities appropriate for cluster three: Collaborative/ Participant/ Independent.

- **Role Plays**

Role plays and may help students gain insights about how to employ particular ideas and enables them to learn how to express ideas, opinions, or feeling by using English words and interjections. Students might role play situations to demonstrate the use of particular communication strategies, vocabulary, context-related expressions, grammatical forms, language functions and so on in simulating different learning situations in the classroom (Fuhrmann & Grasha, 1983). Put differently, Role-plays give students the opportunity to demonstrate how to use English in real life situations and make them focus more on communication.

Teachers may initiate class discussions about the topic illustrated in the role play. Also, role plays may be used to apply language forms in a real-life situation and get students criticise and provide arguments. Role plays helps in developing students' critical thinking skills, students' communicative and cultural competence by simulating leaning situations as they occur in a native environment. Role plays are important because they give learners an opportunity to practice communication in different social contexts and different social roles (Larsen-Freeman, 2000) .

- **Project-Based Learning**

This activity is very appropriate to learners who are collaborative participant/independent. According to Stoller (2002), the project method is "a natural extension of what is already taking place in class" (p. 109). It is an open learning process where its limits are not strictly defined and develops in relation to the specific teaching context and learners' needs and interests (Frey, 1986; Kriwas, 2007). Incorporating projects in the EFL classroom, entails many advantages. According to Fried-Booth (2002), the process leading to the end-product of project-work provides opportunities for students to develop their confidence and independence which helps students to demonstrate increased self-esteem, and positive attitudes towards learning (Stoller, 2006) as well as an increased sense of autonomy (Skehan, 1998).

Moreover, the project work is very beneficial in supporting students' increased social and cooperative skills, language skills and group cohesiveness (Coleman, 1992; Papagiannopoulos et al, 2000; Levine, 2004).). Because the project work progresses according to the specific context and students' interests increases interest, motivation to participate, engagement, enjoyment and can promote learning (Kriwas, 1999; Lee, 2002; Brophy, 2004). When applying project works, the EFL teacher is no longer dominant or authoritative rather s/he acts as a guide, advisor, coordinator and facilitator (Papandreou, 1994), and facilitator.

6.9.4 Some activities appropriate for cluster four: Independent/ Collaborative/ Participant.

• **Jigsaw-Based tasks**

This method or activity works better with students who possess independent/collaborative/participant learning styles. In this activity, teachers can make students learn by themselves in a collaborative manner. That is, teacher can divide the classroom into small groups of four or five students and ask them to do an assignment or task about a given point in the lesson, and then make students teach other based on what they have prepared. This activity can be done immediately after reading or listening to a text, for example, and the teacher gives each group a number of questions to answer process; or as homework to be prepared before class. Each member in the group is directed to complete a particular part of the assignment. Then, students present what they have done and try to be as informative as possible while listeners may prepare questions. At the end, the information would be clear for all the members of the group. Many

advantages have been associated to jigsaw tasks. According to Tewksbury (2000, p. 3), applying jigsaw in the EFL classroom indicates that:

✓ Students have the opportunity to teach themselves, instead of having material presented to them. The technique fosters depth of understanding.

✓ Each student has a practice in self-teaching which is the most valuable of all the skills. This can help them to learn.

✓ Students have a practice in peer teaching which requires understanding the material at a deeper level than students typically do when simply asked to produce in an exam.

✓ Each student has a chance to contribute something that is difficult to achieve in large group discussion. Each student develops an expertise and has something important to contribute.

Using such type of activities may be done by having all the groups in class completing different assignments so that various points in the lesson would be covered by the learners themselves in an independent and collaborative way while the teacher plays the role of the guide who may explain elements or answer questions that have not been dealt with adequately. In this respect, the teacher plays several roles in this process (Lie 1990; Flowers & Ritz, 1994; Thanasoulas, 2002):

✓ Planning dynamic lessons for transfer of learning.

✓ Encouraging students to learn.

✓ Extending participation.

✓ Motivating high level thinking.

✓ Balancing interactions: teacher to student, student to material, student to student.

✓ Evaluating students.

- **Pair and Group-Based Assignment**

The use of pair and group activities in EFL classrooms can be very effective when learners are independent/collaborative/participant. Pair and group- based assignments and activities have been supported by researchers as an independent and collaborative way of learning. Knowles (1975) argues that students who take the initiative in learning learn more things and learn better than those who sit at the feet of teachers passively waiting to be taught. Ellis (1994) states that pair and group activities develop higher levels of thinking than the traditional lecture approach and help to retain knowledge

Using pair and group- based activities can provide a valuable learning experience to students and provide them opportunity to practically experience and strengthen their learning. They can be also a source of motivation to learners as they feel more motivated to engage in further communication when they have more opportunities to speak (Ellis, 1994). Students may work in pairs or be assigned to different groups based on their choice to work on activities about different points in the lesson. Working together elevates learners' interaction and generates a more relaxed and cooperative classroom atmosphere (Gower, 1987). However, the implementation of pair or group-based activities should be based on some criteria:

- ✓ First, the teacher should behave as a consultant by supporting, praising, and encouraging group members.
- ✓ Second, the necessity of leadership should be recognized. A great person who can both skillfully and expressively control the group is a key to lower the tension level.
- ✓ Third is the fact that the teacher should not assign routine tasks for pairs to do in order to engage them more. (Shimatani, 1986)

As a conclusion, considering learners' learning styles is not difficult as teaching in itself is a matter of style. Organisation, management, and innovation are required ingredients for an effective teaching. Teachers need to understand their learners' differences and try to alter and enrich their own teaching styles and widen their scope of instruction. Being limited by the syllabus content, teachers are invited to consider these among many other types of activities to have an insight about the various types of tasks appropriate for each learning styles cluster. These activities serve as a starting point from which teachers move a step forward to modify their instruction; or as a framework teachers may use to adapt the textbook activities accordingly.

6.10 Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the research findings, various issues seem to emerge. Enhancing learners' motivation to learn may be accomplished by the consideration of many other factors that have not been explored in this study. Also, the effect of matching teaching styles and learning styles on achievement is one of the major concerns that needs to be investigated thoroughly. More research should be undertaken in-depth alongside with detailed studies to fill the gaps that this study points out.

The findings of this study are believed to be beneficial inputs for Algerian secondary school EFL teachers and students in order to create a positive learning environment. They also contribute to the studies in the fields of teaching styles, learning styles, and motivation in Algerian secondary schools. However, further research is required to determine the factors causing learners' differences, and the consistency of these learning styles throughout time.

The same study could be duplicated in other schools, other settings, and different level with learners of different age, and different gender in order to evaluate the efficacy of matching teaching styles with learning styles throughout age, gender and level.

➢ A parallel research work may be conducted with students in different subject matters in order to see whether similar results are obtained. This way enables the researcher to determine whether or not learners use the same learning styles in different subject areas in attempt to investigate the factors that influence academic success.

➢ Other research may be carried out with EFL teachers teaching various levels to evaluate their teaching styles and their use of instructional activities in a variety of contexts and through different levels.

➢ It is hoped that this research will enable teachers incorporate effective instructional methods where learners' learning styles are cater for and motivation is maximised in the EFL classroom.

6.11 Conclusion

This chapter provided the explanation, analysis, and discussion of the MSLQ pre- and post-test, teachers' interview and students' interview findings. It was a complementary chapter as it presented the second stage of the research study. The outcomes of the MSLQ were analysed statistically and accompanied by the previous chapter's results in order to answer the research questions. Then, teachers and students' interviews findings were analysed and also linked to the previously obtained data in order to cross-validate the results of the different instruments employed in this research and to get insight into teachers' and students' attitudes towards the implementation of the teaching and learning styles match.

Ultimately, the study outcomes provided answers to our research questions, revealed the validity of our hypothesis and demonstrated the effectiveness of matching teaching

styles with learning styles in enhancing students' motivation in the EFL classroom. In light of these results, some recommendations and suggestions for further research have been provided at the end of the chapter.

General Conclusion

Motivation is a fundamental aspect in determining the success of teaching and learning in general and of teaching and learning a foreign language in particular. In the EFL classroom, motivation plays is a salient factor in promoting students' achievement and facilitating the teaching/learning process. This doctoral thesis is an attempt to investigate the effect of matching teachers' teaching styles with students' learning styles on motivation in the EFL classroom and therefore examine the relationship between the match and students' motivation to learn English in the Algerian secondary school.

The present thesis is made up of six integrated chapters, three theoretical chapters, one chapter for the methodology and two analytical chapters. The first chapter focused on motivation in the EFL classroom; in fact, it has tackled motivation in general and motivation to learn a foreign language in particular. The chapter began with some definitions of motivation. Then, it provided a detailed explanation of the prominent theories of motivation which have strived to illuminate this concept and elucidate the motive behind peoples' thoughts and behaviours. In the same vein, intrinsic and extrinsic motivations along with its instrumental and integrative orientations have been reviewed with an emphasis on motivation and foreign language learning. Moreover, the different factors that influence students' motivation have been discussed including teacher-learner relationship, teachers' teaching styles and language learners' attitudes. Finally, the chapter accentuated that establishing good relationships with students based on respect, understanding, and diversifying the teaching methods to appeal to learners' needs proved to have a positive impact on EFL students' motivation to learn.

The second chapter focused on the role of matching teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles in enhancing motivation. It has begun with a presentation of some theoretical concepts in the EFL classroom. Then, definitions of teaching and learning were provided alongside with the main approaches to foreign language teaching. The chapter also reviewed the literature on learning styles and teaching styles and their major models with much emphasis on Grasha's integrated model of teaching and learning styles (1996). The latter was introduced and explained in details since it was the model adopted in the present research work. Moreover, the relationship between motivation and learning styles has been highlighted and tackled based on different researchers' perspectives and studies.

The chapter concluded with a discussion about of the match between teaching styles and learning styles and its effect on learners' motivation in the EFL classroom.

The third chapter attempted to shed light on the EFL teaching and learning situation in the Algerian secondary school. In other words, this chapter focused on the context of the study trying to picture the teaching and learning of EFL within the Algerian educational system. The chapter began with a historical overview of foreign language education in Algeria, then, moved to discuss English insertion in education, its status within the educational system and the main objectives of EFL teaching/learning. Furthermore, the structure of the Algerian educational system has been presented discussing the school system and the levels of study followed by an overview on the main approaches adopted to teach English in Algeria. In addition to that, the context of the present study, specifically, second year secondary school was introduced. Therefore, the teaching of English to second year secondary school students on the basis of the CBA has been presented thoroughly along with a general description of the second year textbook of English *'Getting Through'*. The chapter ended up with a presentation to the major problems and obstacle that face EFL teaching and learning under the CBA in Algeria.

The fourth chapter presented the research design and methodology of the practical part of the present study. It has provided a description of the methods and procedures adopted in undertaking the collection and analysis of the study's data. Moreover, it gave an account of the study population and sample which include teachers and students from different secondary schools in Biskra city. Due to the complexity of the topic this research studied, a triangulation of research methods has been employed to maximize the credibility of the results. The methods employed in the study embraced the GRLSS, the GRTSI, the MSLQ, two interviews for both teachers and students, and classroom observation. The GRLSS, the GRTSI, and the MSLQ surveys were used to examine students' learning styles; teachers' teaching styles and students' motivation respectively measure a particular aspect of our research. The use of the interviews and the classroom observation as accompanying tools allowed the researcher to collect data from various sources and helped in strengthening the research findings. Furthermore, the triangulation of methods has been used. Finally, the chapter concluded by highlighting the data analysis procedures that have been used to analyse the findings using qualitative and quantitative approaches.

The analytical part of this thesis was composed of two chapters. Chapter five dealt with the findings' analysis and discussion of the classroom observation, the GRLSS and the GRTSI. Chapter six was devoted for the findings' analysis and discussion of the MSLQ

and teachers' and students' interviews. In addition to that, some recommendations and suggestions for further research have been provided.

Since the present study has been proposed to investigate the effect of matching teaching styles with learning styles on motivation in the EFL classroom, four questions have been raised. The first question was about the identification of second year secondary school students' preferred learning styles. The second one looked for the teachers' preferred teaching styles. The third question dealt with the effect of matching teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning style on students' motivation in the EFL classroom. Finally, the last question investigated teachers' and students' attitudes towards matching teachers' teaching styles with students' learning styles. Thus, this thesis tried to answer these questions and see whether the findings were plausible with the suggested hypotheses.

To answer the above questions and test the validity of the hypotheses, six methods were used to collect data in two major phases. In the pre-treatment phase, classroom observation, the GRLSS, the GRTSI were used whereas the MSLQ, teachers' interview and students' interview were conducted in the post-treatment phase. In the pre-treatment phase, classroom observation was used to get a general overview of the classroom atmosphere. The findings showed that most of the classrooms did not represent favourable places for both teachers and students. In addition, the physical inappropriateness such as overcrowding and cleaning problems, teacher-learner relationship, rapport, immediacy and interaction were almost absent in all the classes. Moreover, the findings also showed a considerable mismatch between teachers' teaching styles and students' learning styles. In this respect, lesson presentations and instructional materials were not observed to cater for learners' learning preferences while students' demotivation, disinterest, and disengagement were strikingly noticed.

Furthermore, the GRLSS and the GRTSI were used to answer the first and the second questions in order to determine learners' prevailing learning styles and teachers' teaching styles respectively. The findings obtained from the classroom observation and the GRLSS revealed that each class had distinct learning styles including Independent-Collaborative-Participant in class one, two, and four; Dependent-Participant-Competitive in class three and six; Collaborative-Participant-Independent in class five and seven. Therefore, the first hypothesis was partly rejected as 2nd year secondary school Foreign Language stream students' dominant learning styles in the city of Biskra are not only Dependent-Participant-Competitive.

To test the second hypothesis which stated that EFL secondary school teachers' dominant teaching styles in the city of Biskra are Facilitator-Personal Model-Expert, the GRTSI was used. The findings showed that teacher A and D possessed an Expert-Formal Authority teaching style while teachers C and F possessed Personal Model-Expert-Formal Authority. On the other hand, teacher B possessed a Delegator-Facilitator-Expert teaching styles whilst only teacher E exhibited a Facilitator-Personal Model-Expert teaching style. This indicates that the second hypothesis was also rejected as teachers were found to demonstrate different teaching styles. After the identification of the learning and teaching styles, the findings revealed a frequency of mismatch that was higher than that of the match in the seven participating classes. This clearly indicated that teachers' teaching styles did not match with learners' learning styles which in fact corroborate with the researcher's observation results.

The researcher considered motivation as a dominant part in the success of the teaching/ learning process and assumed that appealing to students' learning preferences is a salient factor in promoting students' motivation and therefore there is a positive relationship between the match of teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles and motivation in the EFL classroom. Therefore, it was hypothesised that matching teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles enhances students' motivation. In order to test the validity of the third hypothesis, it was a prerequisite to measure the level of students' motivation in the pre-treatment phase after measuring the frequency of the mismatch between teaching and learning styles.

In order to answer the third question, the MSLQ has been administered to students twice; the first was after determining the frequency of the mismatch and before the treatment whereas the second was after the treatment. The findings of the pre-treatment MSLQ displayed that in the seven classrooms, students' motivation ranged from medium to low in the different scales. On the other hand, the findings of the post-treatment showed a salient boost in the students' level of motivation from medium to high in almost all the scales of the MSLQ in varying degrees.

In order to confirm whether the increase in motivation was due to the match of teacher's teaching styles with learners' learning styles, the t-test was used. The results of the t-testing revealed that the difference between the pre-and post-treatment mean scores were statistically significant. Hence, the increase in students' level of motivation was the result of the match.

In order to test the validity of the third hypothesis that matching teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles enhances students' motivation to learn English and therefore there is a positive relationship between the match of teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles and motivation in the EFL classroom, Pearson (1996) correlation was utilised. The results revealed there was a cause and effect relationship. Thus, having teaching styles and learning styles matched enhanced students' motivation. The correlation between the match and motivation has been, therefore, confirmed using Pearson (1996) correlation. In other words, the increase in students' motivation was caused by the match between teachers' teaching styles and learners' learning styles in lesson presentation and learning activities. Consequently, the third hypothesis was validated.

Dealing with teachers' and students' interviews, both of them highlighted the importance of motivation in the classroom. The findings of teachers' interview displayed that teachers held positive attitudes towards the match of teaching styles with learning styles and mostly believed it had a positive influence on their learners' motivation. Moreover, some teachers felt the need to shed light on the main problems that hindered them from matching teaching styles with learning styles such as the large number of the classes they teach, the crowded classes, the lengthy syllabus, the time constraints, and the burden of many pedagogical responsibilities.

The findings of students' interview revealed their awareness of their learning styles and confirmed the positive effect of the match on their motivation and interest to learn English. The results showed that students believed the match had influenced their level of motivation and achievement positively after teachers had varied their learning activities and instructional materials that catered for their learning needs. In the same vein, the findings revealed students' positive attitudes towards the match and their agreement about its efficacy in promoting their interest and motivation. Accordingly, the fourth hypothesis which stated that EFL secondary school teachers and 2nd year secondary school Foreign Language stream students in the city of Biskra hold indifferent attitudes towards matching teaching styles with learning styles has been rejected.

The results obtained from the surveys (GRLSS, GRTSI, and MSLQ), the classroom observation and the teachers' and the students' interviews have provided thorough answers to the research questions. The findings also revealed that the integrated model of teaching and learning styles (Grasha, 1996) where teaching styles and learning styles are matched is applicable in the Algerian secondary school context, especially in the EFL classroom.

We noticed from the research findings that implementing an integrated model of teaching and learning where teaching styles are matched with learning styles is beneficial for both students and teachers as well. By contrast, we had noticed in the pre-treatment phase that teachers did not vary their teaching techniques to match the learning style preference of their learners which result in students' demotivation, disinterest and negative attitudes. This was due to the fact that teachers did not design types of instructions appropriate to students' learning styles. The mismatch between teachers' instructional method and learners' learning style preferences had clearly influenced students' motivation as noticed in the study's results.

The findings of the post-treatment showed that integrating new and adequate methods of instruction helped students learn in a learners-centred atmosphere based on social interaction which improved learners' motivation and attitudes towards EFL. The findings, consequently, demonstrated the significance of the teacher-learner styles match in the EFL classroom which proved to be effective in fostering students' motivation and interest towards the subject matter. To this end, learners' learning styles should be taken into consideration when preparing lesson plans and activities. Instruction in the classroom should be diversified and designed in a way that corresponds to the majority of students' preferences.

For this result, the researcher assumed that in order to create a better teaching/learning environment, it is necessary to improve the quality of teaching instruction and teaching methods. It is recommended that teachers should match their teaching style to learning style to foster motivation and create a positive learning atmosphere to increase interaction in the classroom. Visual aids and up-to-date technological devices might be used to attract learners' attention and enhance cognitive and memory processes. Moreover, teachers should diversify their activities in the classroom and avoid lecturing for a long time. In this vein, lesson plans should be compatible with learning styles by using various types of activities to appeal to different learning styles. In addition to that, training programs should be provided to teachers by the Ministry of National Education to provide teachers with up-to-date information regarding teaching methods, students' needs, learning differences, classroom management, teacher-learner relationship and teaching practices. Among a number of recommendations, the researcher has proposed some types of activities that serve as a guideline for teaching different clusters of learning styles.

The findings of the study are expected to contribute to the study of motivation, teaching styles and learning styles in the EFL classroom. It is believed to be beneficial inputs for Algerian secondary school EFL teachers and students in order to create a positive learning environment. It is expected that other research focuses on the factors causing learners' differences, and the consistency of these learning styles throughout time. In addition, further research needs to be conducted in different schooling levels with learners of different age and different gender in order to evaluate the efficacy of matching teaching styles with learning styles throughout age, gender and level. Moreover, other studies may be conducted with students in different subject matters in order to determine whether or not learners use the same learning styles in different subject areas and to investigate the factors that influence academic success. Furthermore, research may be carried out with EFL teachers teaching various levels to evaluate their teaching styles and their use of instructional activities in a variety of contexts and through different levels.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Grasha-Riechman Student Learning Styles Scale (GRLSS)

The following questionnaire has been designed to help you clarify your attitudes and feelings toward the courses you have taken thus far in college. There are no right or wrong answers to each question. However, as you answer each question, form your answers with regard to your general attitudes and feelings towards all of your courses. Use a rating of **1** if you **strongly disagree** with the statement. Use a rating of **2** if you **moderately disagree** with the statement. Use a rating of **3** if you are **undecided**. Use a rating of **4** if you **moderately agree** with the statement. Use a rating of **5** if you **strongly agree** with the statement

Statements	1	2	3	4	5
01. I prefer to work by myself on assignments in my courses.					
02. I often daydream during class.					
03. Working with other students on class activities is something I enjoy doing.					
04. I like it whenever teachers clearly state what is required and expected.					
05. To do well, it is necessary to compete with other students for the teacher's attention.					
06. I do whatever is asked of me to learn the content in my classes.					
07. My ideas about the content often are as good as those in the textbook.					
08. Classroom activities are usually boring.					
09. I enjoy discussing my ideas about course content with other students.					
10. I rely on my teachers to tell me what is important for me to learn.					
11. It is necessary to compete with other students to get a good grade.					
12. Class sessions typically are worth attending.					
13. I study what is important to me and not always what the instructor says is important.					
14. I very seldom am excited about material covered in a course.					
15. I enjoy hearing what other students think about issues raised in class.					
16. I only do what I am absolutely required to do in my courses.					
17. In class, I must compete with other students to get my ideas across					
18. I get more out of going to class than staying at home.					
19. I learn a lot of the content in my classes on my own.					
20. I don't want to attend most of my classes.					
21. Students should be encouraged to share more of their ideas with each other.					
22. I complete assignments exactly the way my teachers tell me to do them.					
23. Students have to be aggressive to do well in courses.					
24. It is my responsibility to get as much as I can out of a course.					
25. I feel very confident about my ability to learn on my own.					
26. Paying attention during class sessions is difficult for me to do.					
27. I like to study for tests with other students.					
28. I do not like making choices about what to study or how to do assignments.					
29. I like to solve problems or answer questions before anybody else can.					
30. Classroom activities are interesting.					
31. I like to develop my own ideas about course content.					
32. I have given up trying to learn anything from going to class.					
33. Class sessions make me feel like part of a team where people help each other learn.					
34. Students should be more closely supervised by teachers on course projects.					
35. To get ahead in class, it is necessary to step on the toes of other students.					
36. I try to participate as much as I can in all aspects of a course.					
37. I have my own ideas about how classes should be run.					
38. I study just hard enough to get by.					

39. An important part of taking courses is learning to get along with other people.					
40. My notes contain almost everything the teacher said in class.					
41. Being one of the best students in my classes is very important to me.					
42. I do all course assignments well whether or not I think they are interesting.					
43. If I like a topic, I try to find out more about it on my own.					
44. I typically cram for exams.					
45. Learning the material was a cooperative effort between students and teachers.					
53. I like to know how well other students are doing on exams and course assignments.					
54. I complete required assignments as well as those that are optional.					
55. When I don't understand something, I first try to figure it out for myself.					
56. During class sessions, I tend to socialize with people sitting next to me.					
57. I enjoy participating in small group activities during class.					
58. I like it when teachers are well organized for a session.					
59. I want my teachers to give me more recognition for the good work I do.					
60. In my classes, I often sit toward the front of the room.					

Appendix B: Grasha-Riechmann Teaching Style Inventory (GRTSI)

Teachers are here kindly requested to respond to the statements, they are also asked to resist the temptation to respond as they believe they should or ought to think or behave, or in terms of what they believe is the expected or proper thing to do. Please respond to questions below by using the following rating scale:**1 = strongly disagree | 2 = moderately disagree | 3 = undecided | 4 = moderately agree | 5 = strongly agree**

Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1. Facts, concepts, and principles are the most important things that students should acquire.					
2. I set high standards for students in this class.					
3. What I say and do models appropriate ways for students to think about issues in the content.					
4. My teaching goals and methods address a variety of student learning styles.					
5. Students typically work on course projects alone with little supervision from me.					
6. Sharing my knowledge and expertise with students is very important to me.					
7. I give students negative feedback when their performance is unsatisfactory.					
8. Activities in this class encourage students to develop their own ideas about content issues.					
9. I spend time consulting with students on how to improve their work on individual and/or group projects.					
10. Activities in this class encourage students to develop their own ideas about content issues.					
11. What I have to say about a topic is important for students to acquire a broader perspective on the issues in that area.					
12.Students would describe my standards and expectations as somewhat strict and rigid.					
13. I typically show students how and what to do in order tomaster course content.					
14. Small group discussions are employed to help students develop their ability to think critically.					
15. Students design one of more self-directed learning experiences.					
16. I want students to leave this course well prepared for further work in this area.					
17.It is my responsibility to define what students must learn and how they should learn it.					
18. Exapmles from my personal experience often are used to illustrate points about the material.					
19. I guide students' work on course projects by asking questions, exploring options, and suggesting alternative ways to do things.					
20. Developing the ability of students to think and work independently is an important goal.					
21. Lecturing is a significant part of how I teach each of the class sessions.					
22. I provide very clear guidelines for how I want tasks completed in this course.					
23. I often show students how they can use various principles and concepts.					
24. Course activities encourage students to take initiative and responsibility for their learning.					
25. Students take responsibility for teaching part of the class sessions.					
26. My expertise is typically used to resolve disagreements about content issues.					

27. This course has very specific goals and objectives that I want to accomplish					
28. Students receive frequent verbal and/or written comments on their performance.					
29. I solicit student advice about how and what to teach in this course.					
30. Students set their own pace for completing independent and/or group projects.					
31. Students might describe me as a "storehouse of knowledge" who dispenses the fact, principles and concepts they need.					
32. My expectations for what I want students to do in this class are clearly defined in the syllabus.					
33. Eventually, many students begin to think like me about course content.					
34. Students can make choices among activities in order to complete course requirements.					
35. My approach to teaching is similar to a manager of a work group who delegates tasks and responsibilities to subordinates.					
36. There is more material in this course than I have time available to cover it.					
37. My standards and expectations help students develop the discipline the need to learn.					
38. Students might describe me as a "coach" who works closely with someone to correct problems in how they think and behave.					
39. I give students a lot of personal support and encouragement to do well in this course.					
40. I assume the role of a resource person who is available to students whenever they need help.					

Appendix C: Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ)

Please rate the following items based on your behaviour in this class. Use a rating of **2** if you **moderately disagree** with the statement. Use a rating of **3** if you are **undecided**. Use a rating of **4** if you **moderately agree** with the statement. Use a rating of **5** if you **strongly agree** with the statement.

Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1. I prefer class work that is challenging so I can learn new things.					
2. Compared with other students in this class I expect to do well					
3. I am so nervous during a test that I cannot remember facts I have learned					
4. It is important for me to learn what is being taught in this class					
5. I like what I am learning in this class					
6. I'm certain I can understand the ideas taught in this course					
7. I think I will be able to use what I learn in this class in other classes					
8. I expect to do very well in this class					
9. Compared with others in this class, I think I'm a good student					
10. I often choose paper topics I will learn something from even if they require more work					
11. I am sure I can do an excellent job on the problems and tasks assigned for this class					
12. I have an uneasy, upset feeling when I take a test					
13. I think I will receive a good grade in this class					
14. Even when I do poorly on a test I try to learn from my mistakes					
15. I think that what I am learning in this class is useful for me to know					
16. My study skills are excellent compared with others in this class					
17. I think that what we are learning in this class is interesting					
18. Compared with other students in this class I think I know a great deal about the subject					
19. I know that I will be able to learn the material for this class					
20. I worry a great deal about tests					
21. Understanding this subject is important to me					
22. When I take a test I think about how poorly I am doing					
23. When I study for a test, I try to put together the information from class and from the book					
24. When I do homework, I try to remember what the teacher said in class so I can answer the questions correctly					
25. I ask myself questions to make sure I know the material I have been studying					
26. It is hard for me to decide what the main ideas are in what I read					
27. When work is hard I either give up or study only the easy parts					
28. When I study I put important ideas into my own words					
29. I always try to understand what the teacher is saying even if it doesn't make sense.					
30. When I study for a test I try to remember as many facts as I can					
31. When studying, I copy my notes over to help me remember material					
32. I work on practice exercises and answer end of chapter questions even when I don't have to					

33. Even when study materials are dull and uninteresting, I keep working until I finish					
34. When I study for a test I practice saying the important facts over and over to myself					
35. Before I begin studying I think about the things I will need to do to learn					
36. I use what I have learned from old homework assignments and the textbook to do new assignments					
37. I often find that I have been reading for class but don't know what it is all about.					
38. I find that when the teacher is talking I think of other things and don't really listen to what is being said					
39. When I am studying a topic, I try to make everything fit together					
40. When I'm reading I stop once in a while and go over what I have read					
41. When I read materials for this class, I say the words over and over to myself to help me remember					
42. I outline the chapters in my book to help me study					
43. I work hard to get a good grade even when I don't like a class					
44. When reading I try to connect the things I am reading about with what I already know.					

Appendix D: Teachers' Interview

Section One: Personal Information

Q1: Gender: male   female

Q2: For how long have you been teaching English?

> ➢ Less than 5 years
>
> ➢ More than 5 years
>
> ➢ More than 10 years
>
> ➢ More than 15 years

Q3: What are your qualifications?

Section Two: Teachers' Perceptions about Teaching Styles and Learning Styles

Q4: Do you think all students learn in the same way?

> ➢   Yes/ No

Q5: Do you think that learning styles represent an important factor that needs to be taken into consideration in the teaching /learning process? Do you take learners' learning styles into account when preparing your lesson?

> ➢   Strongly Agree   Agree   Neutral   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

Q6: Are your instructions mainly taken from: the textbook, adapted material, both of these.

Q7: Do you teach in the same way you have been taught?

> ➢ Yes /   No

Section Three: Motivation

Q8: Do you believe that appealing to your learners' needs and diversifying the learning tasks involve all the students in class activities?

> ➢ Strongly Agree   Agree   Neutral   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

Q9: To what extent do you think that students' motivation is related to their teachers' teaching styles?

Q10: In your opinion, what are the factors that undermine students' motivation?

Q11: As long as this study is concerned, have you found that matching teaching styles and learning styles beneficial in terms of empowering students' motivation?

> ➤ Strongly Agree   Agree   Neutral   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

Q12: Do you think that matching teaching and learning styles helped in creating a sense of immediacy between you and your students?

> ➤ Strongly Agree   Agree   Neutral   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

Q13: Do you think you can match your teaching styles with students' learning styles in the other classes?

Appendix E: Students' Interview

Section One: Learning Styles

Q1: Which of the following statements describes your preferred way of learning?

-You rely on the teacher to explain everything to you. (Dependent)

-You participate and take part in various learning activities (Participant)

-You cooperate with others, you like group working, peer-working (Collaborative)

- You do not enjoy participating in activities (Avoidant)

- You prefer to work alone and do tasks by your own (Independent)

- You prefer to compete with others (Competitive)

Q2: Do you see that your teacher's teaching method suits your learning styles?

Section Two: Motivation

Q3: Did you enjoy class activities before (before the experiment of the match)?

Q4: Do you feel more motivated to study English now?

Q5: Have your achievement in English increased?

Q6: Do you like to be taught in a way that caters for your learning styles? Why?

Appendix F: Two Examples of the Headmasters' Permissions for Carrying out a Research Study in the Secondary School

الى السيد مدير ثانوية محمد العربي بعزيز طولقه

الأستاذة مسعودة بن دحمان

كلية الاداب واللغات الأجنبية

قسم اللغات الأجنبية

شعبة الإنجليزية

جامعة محمد خيضر بسكرة

الموضوع : طلب الموافقة على اجراء دراسة ميدانية في مؤسستكم

في البداية تقبلوا مني تحية احترام و تقدير اما بعد:

يشرفني سيدي المدير ان اتقدم اليكم بطلبي هذا المتمثل في طلب رخصة للقيام بدراسة ميدانية في ثانوية محمد العربي بعزيز مع تلاميذ السنة الثانية لغات اجنبية و ذلك في اطار تحضيري لرسالة الدكتوراه علوم في اللغة الإنجليزية تخصص لسانيات تطبيقية. تتضمن الدراسة الميدانية حصص ملاحظة، استبيان للطلبة و الأساتذة و حوار مع الطلبة و الأساتذة و ورشات عمل مع الأساتذة.

ارجو ان يؤخذ طلبي هذا بعين الإعتبار و لكم مني جزيل الشكر.

امضاء السيد مدير ثانوية محمد العربي بعزيز طولقة

امضاء الأستاذة

الى السيدة مديرة ثانوية الدكتور سعدان بسكرة

الأستاذة مسعودة بن دحمان

كلية الاداب واللغات الأجنبية

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سعدان بسكرة مع تلاميذ السنة الثانية لغات اجنبية و ذلك في اطار تحضيري لرسالة الدكتوراه علوم في اللغة

الإنجليزية تخصص لسانيات تطبيقية. تتضمن الدراسة الميدانية استبيان و حوار مع الطلبة و الأساتذة.

ارجو ان يؤخذ طلبي هذا بعين الإعتبار و لكم مني جزيل الشكر.

امضاء السيد و مديرة ثانوية الدكتور سعدان بسكرة

مسعودة بولقرون

الموافقة

امضاء الأستاذة

Summary

Motivation is believed to be an essential factor in the success of teaching and learning process. This dissertation investigates the effects of matching teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles on motivation in the EFL classroom within the Algerian secondary school context. It aims to identify how students of different learning styles learn and how their motivation is influenced by their teachers' practices. For this end, a mixed method approach was adopted in which a classroom observation, teachers' and students' interviews and three different surveys were conducted for EFL secondary school teachers and 2nd year secondary school Foreign Languages stream students in the city of Biskra. The findings showed that teaching-learning styles match has positively promoted students' motivation. The attained results accentuated the importance of ameliorating and diversifying class instruction, rethinking the teaching beliefs and methods and offering equivalent opportunities for all learners by responding to their needs and differences. The study eventually provided some recommendations and implications in attempt to create a positive teaching and learning environment.

Keywords: motivation, teaching styles, learning styles, EFL instruction, teaching-learning styles match

Résumé

La motivation est considérée comme un facteur essentiel dans la réussite du processus d'enseignement et d'apprentissage. Cette thèse étudie les effets de l'appariement des styles d'enseignement des enseignants avec les styles d'apprentissage des apprenants sur la motivation dans les classes d'anglais langues étrangère dans le contexte de l'enseignement secondaire algerien. Il vise à identifier comment les élèves de différents styles d'apprentissage apprennent et comment leur motivation est influencée par les pratiques de leurs enseignants. À cet éffet, une approche de méthode mixte a été adoptée dans laquelle une observation en classe, des entretiens avec des enseignants et des élèves, et trois interview différents ont été menées auprès des enseignants du secondaire ALE et d'élèves de 2ème année du secondaire Langues étrangères de la ville de Biskra. Les résultats ont montré que l'adéquation des styles d'enseignement et d'apprentissage a favorisé positivement la motivation des élèves. Les résultats obtenus ont accentué l'importance d'améliorer et de diversifier l'enseignement en classe, de repenser les croyances et les méthodes d'enseignement et d'offrir des opportunités équivalentes pour tous les apprenants en répondant à leurs besoins et différences. L'étude a finalement fourni quelques recommandations et implications pour tenter de créer un environnement d'enseignement et d'apprentissage positif.

Mots-clés: motivation, styles d'enseignement, styles d'apprentissage, enseignement ALE, appariement des styles d'enseignement et d'apprentissage

ملخص

لطالما اعتبر التحفيز عاملا أساسيا في نجاح عملية التعليم والتعلم. و عليه فإن هذه الاطروحة تدرس آثار توافق أساليب التدريس للأساتذة مع أنماط تعلم الطلاب على دافعية و تحفيز الطلاب لتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في المدرسة الثانوية الجزائرية. تهدف الدراسة إلى تحديد كيفية تعلم الطلاب ذوو أنماط تعلم مختلفة ومدى تأثرهم بأساليب وممارسات اساتذتهم التعليمية. ولهذه الغاية، تم الاعتماد على عدة طرق لجمع البيانات حيث تم إجراء ملاحظة للحصص الدراسية، مقابلات مع الأساتذة والطلاب اضافة الى ثلاثة استبيانات مختلفة لكل من أساتذة اللغة الانجليزية في المدارس الثانوية وطلاب السنة الثانية ثانوي شعبة لغات أجنبية في ولاية بسكرة. أظهرت النتائج أن ربط أساليب التعليم والتعلم قد عزز بشكل إيجابي دافعية و تحفيز الطلاب للتعلم. وعليه فإن النتائج المتحصل عليها قد أبرزت أهمية تطوير وتنويع الدروس المقدمة في القسم ، مراجعة معتقدات و منهجية التدريس ، وكذا تقديم فرص متكافئة لجميع الطلاب من خلال الاستجابة لاحتياجاتهم واختلافاتهم. خلصت الدراسة في النهاية الى مجموعة من التوصيات التي تهدف جميعها الى خلق بيئة تعليم وتعلم إيجابية.

الكلمات المفتاحية: التحفيز ، أساليب التدريس ، أنماط التعلم ، تعليم اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية ،ربط أساليب التعليم والتعلم