



Sudan University of Science and Technology

College of Graduate Studies

College of Languages



Investigating Influence of Motivation and Self-esteem on Speaking Fluency

تقصي تأثير الدافعية والإعتداد بالنفس علي المخاطبة باللغة الانجليزية بطلاقه

(A Case Study of Third Year Students ,College of Language ,

Sudan University of Science& Technology)

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بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

آية قرآنية

قال تعالى:

{فَتَعَالَى اللَّهُ الْمَلِكُ الْحَقُّ وَلَا تَعْجَلْ بِالْقُرْآنِ مِنْ قَبْلِ أَنْ يُقْضَىٰ إِلَيْكَ وَحْيُهُ وَقُلْ رَبِّ زِدْنِي عِلْمًا }

صدق الله العظيم

سورة طه الآية (114)

Quranic Verse

Allah the Almighty Said

(Highly exalted Allah, the true King Do not hasten with the Quran before its

revelation has been completed to you ,and say: Lord , increase me in knowledge)

Sorat Taha Verse (114)

Dedication

**To the soul of my late father (may Allah rest him in peace)
Mohammed Mahmoud & To my dear mother Layla El Hassan
& To my sisters Tahani & Maani & To my husband Salah Taha
To My son Mohammed & My daughters Rafa and Rana**

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All praise is due to Allah, Who has sent to his servant (Mohammed) the book so that it may be an admonition to all creatures and take them out from darkness into lights and peace be upon his messenger Mohammed.

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Abstract

This study investigating the influence of motivation and self-esteem on speaking English fluency. The researcher has noticed that the students ability of spoken English is very weak even English language university students have a serious problem in spoken English, and are slow in speaking. The main question of this study is (to what extent does motivation and self-esteem affect fluency among university students?).

The main hypotheses

-Self-esteem and motivation carefully taken care of can help students develop and improve oral abilities .

The methodology of the study are descriptive and analytical method . A questionnaire administered to both tutors and students .The experiment carried out at the Sudan University of Science and

Technology, College of Languages . The finding revealed that motivation and self-esteem have great affect on speaking fluency , students fears to use English language communicatively particularly in public .

مستخلص البحث

هذه الدراسة تبحث في موضوع تأثير الدافعية والثقة بالذات في التحدث باللغة الانجليزية بطلاقة، وقد لاحظت الباحثة الضعف الشديد في التحدث باللغة الانجليزية حتى الطلاب المتخصصين في اللغة الانجليزية في الجامعات يعانون من بطء في التحدث بالانجليزية.

الموضوع الأساسي لهذه الدراسة هو: "إلى أي مدى تؤثر الدافعية والثقة بالذات في التحدث بطلاقة باللغة الانجليزية بين طلاب الجامعات". تناولت هذه الدراسة طلاب اللغة الانجليزية بكلية اللغات الفرقة الثالثة، جامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا كعينة تمثل مجتمع البحث. الفرض الأساسي هو: إن للدافعية والثقة بالنفس اثر كبير علي التحدث باللغة الانجليزية بطلاقة. استخدمت الباحثة المنهج الوصفي التحليلي , والاستبانة للمعلمين وطلاب المستوي الثالث لغة انجليزية كلية اللغات بجامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا. توصلت نتائج هذه الدراسة بان للدافعية والثقة بالنفس اثر كبير للتحدث باللغة الانجليزية بطلاقة, وان معظم الطلاب يتخوفون من التحدث بالانجليزية خاصة أمام الجمهور .

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Chapter One

Introduction

This introductory chapter provides a description of the theoretical framework of the study with special focus on the statement of the study problem, study questions, hypotheses, objectives and the methodology of the study.

1.1 Context of the study

This study seeks to explore the role of motivation and self-esteem on a student's oral ability. These two elements blend together perfectly to produce effective classroom interaction. Almost all foreign language learners boast about their good knowledge of the oral skills in the language in question. The rationale behind acquiring such language skill is to attain a high development of abilities of receiving and producing the language in oral communication. However, in teaching speaking, learners sometimes face some hurdles which detrimentally obstruct their abilities to effectively communicate orally.

It follows from that, speaking is a very difficult skill or to be exact it is the difficult of the four skills. Luoma (2004:1) argues that "*speaking in a foreign language is very difficult and competence in speaking takes a long time to develop.*" Viewing oral abilities from the production standpoint start from how learners form hypotheses in order to communicate in the foreign language, as argued by Nunan (1991: 39)

"to most people, mastering the art of speaking is the single most important factor of learning a second or foreign language and success is measured in terms of the ability to carry out a conversation in the language."

To have a good grasp over the ability to speak in different languages this requires to synthesize some sub-skills and knowledge as Riddell (2010:197) points out “ *learning speaking, whether in a first or other language, involves developing subtle and detailed knowledge about why, how, when to communicate and complex skills for producing and managing interaction.*”

Bailey and Savage as cited in Celce-Murcia (2001:103) define speaking as an

“activity requiring the integration of many subsystems ...all these important factors combine to make speaking a second or foreign language a formidable task for language learners... yet for many people, speaking is seen as the central skill.”

Quite a number of people view speaking as the most important skill as people needs and ideas are readily expresses mainly through oral production during the conversation as Chaney suggests that “*it is a process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in variety of contexts*”(Chaney cited in Kayi 2006).

Despite the undeniable significance of oral production in foreign language learning as compared to the other skills, speaking is the heart of foreign language learning, it was until recently not given its due attention in schools and universities. The emphasis of traditional approaches of language learning and teaching was mainly on reading and writing. For example, Richards and Rodgers (2001) mention that the grammar-translation method is focused on reading and writing as a major interest and neglected the skill of speaking and listening. Speaking was also absent from testing because it is time consuming to conduct tests and it is difficult to evaluate.

Great thanks are due to the coming out of communicative language teaching in 1980 which has come up with almost a revolution in the field of syllabuses and methodologies. The new approaches are based on teaching the speaking skill where the grammar-based syllabuses were replaced by communicative ones. Foreign language learners would develop communication strategies, despite limited proficiency in the language. Another factor which has contributed colossally in this respect is technology which also has facilitated testing speaking by using different tools such as tape-recording which is practical to enable the widespread study of talk. The communicative approach has as one of its basic tenets is the assistance it provides for learners enhance their speaking in the foreign language through interaction which is mentioned by Littlewood (1981:94) “*communicative interaction gives learners more opportunities to express their individuality in the classroom. It also helps them to integrate the foreign language with their own personality and thus to feel more emotionally secure with it.*”

According to Celce-Murcia (2001:103), “*for most people, the ability to speak a language is synonymous with knowing that language since speech is the most basic means of human communication.*” That is to say speaking in a foreign language is equal to knowing that language. Spoken language is the first form of communication between people and writing depends fundamentally on speech because the essential question most of the time given to foreign language learners is “do you speak English?” or “do you speak Spanish?”, but not “do you write English”.

This study also takes into account the question of fluency and the factors involved in its development. Riddell (2010:165) defines fluency as “*the ability to talk fairly freely, without too much stopping or hesitating ... it also requires that the listener understands what is being said, so*

there must be intelligibility and meaning.” This means that the speaker is capable to proceed with his thoughts clearly and fluently put on air that their interlocutors could follow them and hence has the desire to more listening. According to Hadfield and Hadfield (2008) for teachers developing learners’ fluency can be introduced by monitoring and through stretching language and interacting. Teachers need to give their learners confidence when speaking in the foreign language to express what they want to say in a way those others can understand. They should give learners opportunities to practice the language enough in different situations and on different topics to become fluent.

(Hoge, n.d.) as cited in Ramírez (2010:14) considers that “fluency means you can talk easily with native speakers – they easily understand you, and you easily understand them- in fact, you speak and understand instantly.” From this quote we understand that foreign language learners can be fluent in the target language when they speak smoothly and skillfully with native speakers in order to understand and be understood at the same time.

The question of fluency is always linked with accuracy. Foreign language learners nowadays seek to be fluent in their oral production, however, they neglect to be accurate. Ungrammatical spoken language each time can be understood as a lack of respect for the interlocutors who will lose interest and break down the conversation; therefore, learners should pay attention to the grammatical structure in order to be accurate in their productive speech. For Riddell (2010:168) accuracy is “*the ability to use the correct grammar and the right vocabulary*” which means that accuracy is important.

1.2 Statement of the problem

At the present time, particularly in connection with oral delivery, there is an ever ongoing complaint and dissatisfaction about the low standard of English language learners across the different stages of education in Sudan. In fact, there are various factors that have contributed to the occurrence of the current situation. However, there is a general consensus among all stakeholders about the fact that syllabus design is among the major factors which has led to the decline of English language in basic schools.

It goes without saying that syllabus design is not a haphazard task. It is a coherent systematic process which is governed by clear-cut principles, criteria, goals, objectives and educational approaches.

Having the above ailing academic situation at hand, speaking is considered the most difficult skill to be handled and developed from amongst the eminent ones. Although first year Primary School and even Secondary school learners of English have learned the English language for many years, the majority of them are still incapable of using English orally. This relatively low achievement is mainly attributable to having no belief or confidence in the personality abilities which refers to the low self-esteem that learners have. It is an extremely confusing problem that exists among EFL learners and which affects negatively the speaking skill by reducing learners' oral engagement and performance.

Therefore, because of the unquestionable importance of oral delivery, the present research sets out to investigate the problem in an in-depth exploration and come up with insights which might prove useful for syllabus design and curricula and further have implications for classroom practitioners and educators and planners. The study will

examine the whole issue from the view point self-esteem as combined with motivation. These two factors are observed by many to have a direct effect on the learning of this skill and further developing it.

1.3 Research Questions

1. To what extent does the blend of self-esteem and motivation help students improve their oral production?
2. To what extent do the syllabuses at undergraduate level assist in developing oral skills?
3. To what extent does the lack of motivation and self esteem lead to degradation of oral production?

1.4 Research Hypotheses

1. Self-esteem and motivation carefully taken care of can help students develop and improve oral abilities.
2. Syllabuses at undergraduate level were not designed in a way to furnish students with the desired elements of oral skills.
3. Lack of motivation and self-esteem lead to further degradation of oral production.

1.5 Objectives

This study has a number of objectives to consider. However, the most important of which is the question of self-esteem coupled with motivation, and the effect of this blend on the learning and developing of oral abilities. Teachers' attention should be drawn to observing these two critical psychological factors and how they affect the overall learning operation. The success brought about by learners' ability in learning speaking skill and how teachers could help learners to take positive

attitude towards themselves in order to activate their level of achievement.

1.6 Significance of the Study

This research is addressed to educators, authors, syllabus designers, and teachers of English language. It is expected to shed light on the fundamentals that should be considered in English syllabus design in relation to the problem in question. The study findings are expected to contribute to developing the process English syllabus for basic education, which will consequently lead to the promotion of English language standard in university. Hence, the significance of this study can be shown in the following assumptions:

1. It deals with a fundamental element in basic education, English language syllabus design, which has its impact on the achievement of the designated goals of teaching / learning English as a foreign language for basic education.
2. The study is expected to shed light on the fundamental principles that govern designing the English language syllabus as a foreign language. Accordingly, the study is prospected to contribute in promoting the standards of the English status for undergraduate level.
3. The findings of the study will support teachers, students and syllabus designers to construct, implement, acquire and achieve successfully the required objectives of teaching English language as a foreign language at the undergraduate level with specific reference to oral production.

4. The findings of the study are expected to enhance knowledge and skills of English syllabus designers and enable them to develop and maintain English language syllabus for university education

1.7 Methodology

This study will use a descriptive and analytical method. A questionnaire will be administered to both tutors and students. This experiment will be carried out at the Sudan University of Science and Technology, College of Languages.

1.8 Limits of the Study

This study will be carried out at Sudan University of Science and Technology , third year students who were learning English language at the college of languages .

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND PREVIOUS STUDIES

Introduction

This chapter reviews relevant literature on the issue in question, namely the effect of motivation and self-esteem in improving students' oral abilities along its different stages and progression, and other related topics with some emphasis on the nature of motivation and self-esteem. Important findings and arguments from opponents and proponents of an English-only teaching method will be discussed. The chapter is divided into two parts, the first one is on the theoretical framework, and the other is on previous studies.

2.1: Theoretical Framework

2.2 : Related Previous Studies

2.0 Overview

One the areas that claimed the interest of linguists is the oral abilities of second language learners in view of motivation and autonomy in language learning and their interactions. Interaction simply refers to practicing the language meaningfully in sociocultural situations.

Motivation has traditionally been characterized as an individual difference (ID) variable that is implicated in learning success, alongside other ID variables such as aptitude, personality, anxiety or cognitive style (for a recent overview of ID research in second language acquisition (SLA), see Ellis, 2008: 643_723). Dornyei (2005: 4) describes ID constructs as 'dimensions of enduring personal characteristics that are assumed to apply to everybody and on which people differ by degree'. Ironically, however, despite its theoretical focus on how people 'differ' from one another or from some kind of normative standard, ID research concerns itself not with the unique characteristics of particular

individuals, but with the shared characteristics of particular types of individuals.

Language learning is one of the most challenging skills to teach in a formal learning environment. Despite the fact that all of us were successful in learning our first language, most people struggle learning a second. Of course there are those who learn multiple languages, and some quite effortlessly it seems, but these are in the minority. So what puts us off our game and how can we turn that around?

If we have proved that we can learn languages by doing it in our first few years, why in later years do we struggle so much? There are a few reasons but at the heart of it all is the fact that we are taught languages in schools with ineffective methods such as the grammar translation model which has amendments made to it to include more communication based activities and exercises. Nevertheless these enhancements have not appreciably improved the results.

2.1.1 Language Learning Challenges

At an impressionable age we are taught languages by such poor methods and for the rest of our lives we tend to believe that is the way to learn languages. And when it doesn't work, as it invariably doesn't for the vast majority, most come to believe the reason for that is our ineptitude, our lack of latent and our poor memory. This is reflected in the exceedingly poor success rates that exist for people learning languages—in fact success rates of 5% are often quoted across the globe.

The reality is that we all developed the capacities to learn languages by learning our first. The fact that those capacities are there to be used can be seen by those who learn multiple languages later in life.

Most invariably develop these abilities by themselves immersed in language speaking, not in school. Classes are for the most part are not good at empowering students, as the methodologies used rest on teacher imparted information, exercises and drills.

So what are the kinds of language learning that we used and that we can implement and use in later years? Before I list a few, we need to acknowledge that as adults we need to be at least prepared to take on the belief that we have the ability to learn languages to high levels! Without such a belief, we sabotage our efforts. As Henry Ford said, “Whether we believe we can or whether we believe we can’t, we are right.”

2.1.2 Key Factors in Language Acquisition

(i) Self-Direction

There are a number of factors which were found to be observable in language acquisition. Like all learning, the best language learning is self-directed. Teaching or texts that continually determine what we do and don’t do is flawed, as learners can become subservient to the instruction, not actively looking for what will take them forward. Learners active in the process of language acquisition depend partly on self-assessment, constantly monitoring what they’re learning and how they’re learning it.

(ii) Authenticity

Language is an expression of a perceived reality. So when learning language, the reality needs to be clear, not an intellectual construct. So grammar exercises, as an example, that have no foundation in a reality you are trying to express are awkward ways to learn a language. As an

alternative, consider walking around your house, describing what you are doing. “I am walking into my bedroom to get changed” This is a great way of practicing the present continuous.

(iii) Translation vs. Conversation Balance

Translation is a necessary and useful tool when you are learning a new language but when used excessively prevents the development of language learning skills like reasoned guessing. This kind of skill rests upon focused and sustained attention on what is going on around you. It is a necessary skill that we all have the capacity for but sometimes we let it slide. Translation serves to remove the need for its use and development.

(iv) Listening

Listening is a skill if you wish to learn to speak in another language. Without actively developing that ability in all areas, including listening for grammar, pronunciation and meaning, your ability to master that language will be severely impeded. Here is where personal character issues can impede. If you are not a good listener in your first language, your ability to master another language will be limited unless you learn to be more attentive to what others say. If you are interested in learning a foreign language, think as much about how you’re going to learn as what you’re going to learn. We are all capable of speaking another language; it’s just a matter of process.

There are many reasons to learn English as a foreign language, from working in another country to discovering your roots, through intellectual curiosity, romance, travel, and secret communication. Now, you start thinking about how you’re going to study it. Finding time to

study a language can be quite a challenge. You may think that you don't really have enough of it, but it's surprising how many spare moments you have during a typical day, and how they can add up to a useful amount of study time. After all, you will think about the materials and tools do you need to study a language. In parallel to this new shift of interest, what factor which affect language learning process, and the teacher's role in language learning process.

2.1.3 Classification of Motivation

Factors that have been studied extensively by researchers to the extent that some of the types of motivation, such as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, according to Conner (2002:20), are now considered traditional concepts. Moreover, this extensive exploration of motivation makes confusion among researchers on what to accept as a comprehensive definition of motivation. Dornyei (1998: 118) explain this problem of definition by saying *"it is not the lack but rather the abundance of motivation theories which confuse the scene"*

In another statement about the difficulty of defining motivation Stones (1976 : 97) cited in Khalid (2003 : 52) thinks that motivation is the " obverse of reinforcement " then he adds that motivation is involved in the operation of " incentives or drives " on which a lot of the definitions are based . However, he suggests that "the great danger in discussion of motivation is the tendency to suggest mechanisms which act as prime movers of behavior" These mechanisms include instincts as suggested by the psychologist , McDougall , drives , urges , forces and needs ." he says that the danger of using these mechanisms can be felt in the demonstration of such mechanisms as they are generally hypothesized Ellis (1990: 116) agrees with stones when he says that,

“The problem of defining attitudes and motivation are considerable, a commonsense view is that a person's behavior is governed by certain needs and interests which influence how he actually performs, however, these cannot be directly observed, they have to be inferred from what he actually does.”

Although it is not easy to define all the affective factors, the following definitions of motivation will be explained. First Stones (1976: 97) defines motivation “as the tendency of the organism to reduce its need or to return to its state of equilibrium”. The most important components of this definition are need and equilibrium, that is to say motivation is directed toward the individual's, needs to attain a state of equilibrium.

Amore detailed definition has been mentioned has been mentioned in encyclopedia Britannica (1977: 556) as " the term motivation popularly refers to the causes of behavior; i.e. whatever its within the individual that incites action " The most important components of this definition are based on the fact that motivation is related to individuals" observe behavior as a result of internal stimuli Brown (1994: 152) has also used the idea of internal stimuli when he defines motivation as,

“Motivation is commonly thought of as an inner drive, impulse, emotion or desire that moves one to a particular action. Or in more technical terms, motivation refers to "the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect.”

In another attempt to define motivation Norris. Holt (2002:1) follows the same ideas stated by Gardner and Lambert (1972), Ellis (1990) when he says "*motivation is the learner's orientation with regard to the goal of learning a second language*".

It seems from all the stated definitions that motivation is reflection of an inner drive that affects an individual's behavior towards performing a certain task. Therefore, a lot of studies have shown different classifications of motivation as will be explained below.

2.1.3 (a) Instrumental Motivation

Instrumental motivation is one of the common types of motivation discussed in relation to second language learning. According to Brown (1994:153) instrumental motivation , refers to motivation to acquire a language as means for attaining instrumental goals, furthering a career , reading technical material , translation ..."ELLIS(1990: 117) in another definition of instrumental motivation agrees with Brown's(1994) definition saying that learner's goals in such types of motivation are functional. Wilkins (2978 : 184) states the same perspective of instrumental motivation out fining the main reasons which lead to diversity in learning a language such as passing examinations, using a language for a job or on holiday in the country , or because learning a language is a requirement of the educational system . These stated reasons differentiate between instrumental and integrative motivation because the latter requires learning a language so as to be in contact with the target language group, or even to live in their country.

With reference to all the stated above ideas about instrumental motivation, it can be emphasized that in most cases language learning will only go on until the required objectives are attained. AL-Busairi (1990: 35), and Krashen (1981: 22) have also agreed with this idea by saying that by instrumental motivation the learner may just learn the relevant elements that help him / her to attain the goals of learning a second / foreign language learning may stop. In conclusion, instrumental

can be considered one of the factors which helps learning to achieve their intended needs of learning a language; it may go on for some time so as to attain these needs or it may continue in other cases to be developed to integrative motivation, and to go beyond the instrumental needs.

2.1.3 (b) Integrative Motivation

Integrative motivation may seem to be the reverse of instrumental motivation as it is generally identified as the drive which activates learners to study language as an end, not as only a means, to be associated with the target language community. This type of motivation should better be classified as an extension to instrumental motivation. Wilkins (1978: 184) for example explains them by saying that they include knowledge of target language values and culture, making contact with the target language members, and living in the concerned country. Then he mentions that the instrumental and integrative reasons for learning language in addition to attitudes can be seen as in a continuum ... " at the extremes we have instrumental motivation, where learning is strictly utilitarian and attitudes are intolerant, and integrative motivation, where the learner sees himself as a potential member of the second language group and has liberal attitudes".

These first ideas about integrative motivation may give the impression that a lot of consensus exists on what it means, but its value in successful language learning, or even its continuity may not have the same weight. Therefore, some definitions will be cited below to complete the picture of integrative motivation, then the importance of motivation in general will be discussed with reference to its different types.

Brown (1994 : 154) defines integrative motivation as a motive by which learners "*wish to integrative themselves within the culture of the second language group, to identify themselves with and become a part of that society*". Lambert (1967:102) as cited in AL-Busairi (1990:33) agrees with Brown's (1994)ideas about integrative motivation . In a later definition of integrative motivation the learners' desire to be identified with the second language community has been replaced by the desire to communicate with them. AL.Busairi (1990) cites this revised definition of integrative motivation, by Gardner et al, (1974:7), as follows:

“As integrative motive reflects a strong motive to learn the language of another cultural group because of a desire to communicate with member of that community. Implicit in this definition is appositive affect toward that community. The focus, however, is on wanting to communicate directly with valued members of second language community. In the extreme case, it might be suggested that the individual wants actually to become a member of that group.”

In another revision of the definition of integrative motivation according to Brown (1994:155) Graham (1984). "He made a distinction between integrative and assimilative motivation". The first is about the learner's desire to communicate or know about the target language group and culture without need for contact with them. The latter implies the learner's motive to be classified as a member of the community of the second language , and even to be in direct contact with them.

These revisions in the definitions of integrative motivation may inform about the great interest that is paid to this type of motivation and , its importance in language learning . Motive to itself is a complex affective factor as it has stated by Conner (2002:1) who says , "motivation

is a very complex and multifaceted construct which researchers have approached from a number of diverse perspectives".

2.1.3 (C) **other types of motivation**

Instrumental and integrative, as discussed above the most important types of motivation which researchers have given a lot of interest. However, there are other types of motivation, which can generally be considered as consequences of the extensive research, and the several revisions of its definition in language learning.

As a first encounter with these types of motivation it will be helpful to start with Ngeow's (2000 :2) remarks about motivation with which motivation is considered as "a multi – factorial " entity as studied by Oxford and Shearin (1994) who analyzed about twelve theories of motivation which include aspects from "socio – psychology, cognitive development, and socio – cultural psychology ". Then they identified six motivation factors in the area of language learning as follows, attitudes either towards the learning community or the target language, beliefs about self – concept, success and anxiety, clarity and relevance of learning goals, learners' active involvement and participation in learning processes, inside and outside environmental support of learning experience, and finally personal traits such as "aptitude, age, sex, and previous language learning experience " .

For all these stated points about motivation, the other types of motivation can be explained although they have not received similar attention from researchers in the same rate of instrumental and integrative motives. First motivation is generally classified into intrinsic and extrinsic, which are now considered as traditional terms according to

Conner (2002) as stated above. However, intrinsic motivation is generally defined as the desire to learn the language for its own sake, or for factors found in the language itself . AL –Busaire (1990 :30) explains these factors as pleasurable , and they include the pleasure to listen to the language , the intellectual and emotional satisfaction that learning another language may bring to the learner to 'break the code ' and to communicate through it , in addition to this the learner's interest in the language and what the language "embodies or symbolizes to him / her ".

In a similar explanation of intrinsic motivation Conner (2002:2) says that intrinsic motivation is the evaluation of task completion for its own sake and the possible rewards gained from it with no reference to external factors, Taguchi(2002 :7) in another attempt considers intrinsic motivation as "task motivation" which is directed to the performance of the various learning tasks . Another comprehensive definition for intrinsic motivation has been developed by Deci (1975)cited by Brown (1994 :155) as follow :

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

Brown's definition implies that some extrinsic behaviors may be useful for intrinsic behaviors as they aim at developing competence. According to these stated elements of extrinsic motivation, its significance in the study of receptivity can be explained with regard to receptivity to success in language learning and to all the possible rewards that a learner may get from learning other languages over his native language. The involvement in such language activities may lead to further changes in motivation, in other words extrinsic motivation may turn out to be intrinsic. In this respect AL-Busairi (1990: 31) says that as a result of achievement or positive teacher's behavior towards learners, extrinsic motivation will turn out to be intrinsic. This point is also very impotent in the steady of receptivity, as we believe that the teacher's encouragement and pleasant character are very important elements in increasing learners' receptivity and attention.

It seems from all the stated ideas about these types of motivation that they may be integrated according to changes in learner's interests , preferences and priorities , assimilative motivation in this respect , and as it has been mentioned above , is another type of motivation which is generally discussed in relation to integrative motivation . For its definition AL-Busairi (1990: 41) and Brown (1994: 155) consider Graham's (1984) definition as follows:

Assimilative motivation is (7) an essential part of normal language acquisition and , like the capacity for language acquisition itself a consequence Of species membership, (2,) largely a peer group phenomenon , (3,) he primary impetus for developing no/lye like speech in a second language, (4) strongest during infancy and childhoo4 gradually becoming weaker through adolescence and into adulthood. (5) capable

of becoming disrupted even during childhood by certain external social factors .

2.1.4 Self-esteem and Motivation

When a person lacks that sense of self-worth, it can eventually lead to feelings of depression where the individual feels like they are short of the expected potential or the expected set of abilities, on the other hand, too much of love for yourself gives a certain sense of power and inability to accept mistakes. Either way your social relationships are affected when you find yourself on both extreme sides. On a more general note, it is important to know more about self-esteem because it helps us realize things about ourselves like who we really are as a unique individual, how we face challenges in life that gives meaning to our actions, etc. It also helps us define our life goals and gives a more specific definition on what direction we are working towards in our future.

People with a positive self-esteem are very well grounded on their principles and values thus, they feel confident to defend themselves when opposed. This positive self-esteem further leads them to trust their instincts and is less worried about what is going to happen in the future. Also, people with healthy self-esteem appear to be dignified and because of this, they are able to enjoy many different activities. However, it may be noted that there are certain individuals who may experience an “overdose” of self-esteem and this is called narcissism. This is the instance where the person loves to be the center of attention and pride in everything he does.

On the other hand, motivation is our drive to do things. It’s the element that keeps us moving towards our goals. Motivation is essential and can go up and down depending on our self-control and other external

circumstances that affect our action. These uncontrollable factors further define the level of motivation a person has in terms of achievement of his goals.

2.1.4 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

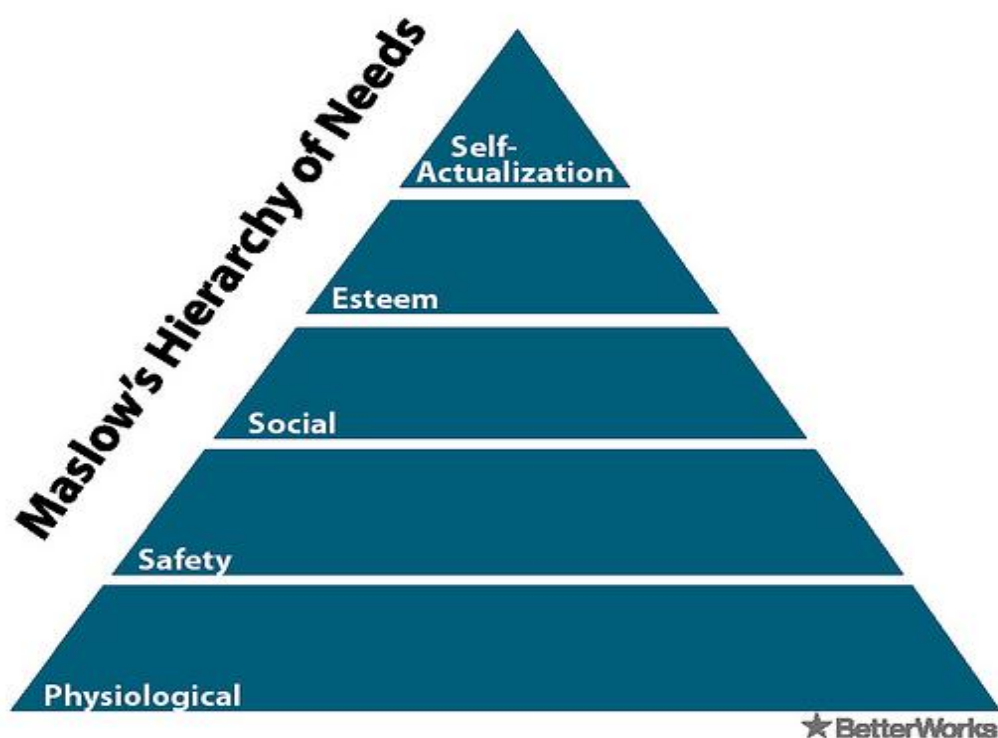
Abraham Maslow is very well-known for his theory on the hierarchy of needs. In Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, he explains that people have growing needs and this can be represented in a pyramid. Since humans have varying needs, the first or lower order needs should be satisfied before higher form of needs will be reached. When the lower order needs are met, another set of needs will arise until self-actualization is fulfilled and in effect, self-actualization influence people's behavior. When every detail to the varying needs are met, people tend to be motivated.

(a) Physiological needs are the food, shelter, clothing, air and the like. These are the very basic needs essential to sustain life. The best example for this is when a person is hungry, instantly, he can only think of food to fulfill his hunger. When you are employed, your job gives you a salary to sustain your needs for your basic necessities

(b) Security / Safety needs are comparable to having a job, fear of natural calamities or anything related to fear or danger. After meeting the physiological needs, security or safety needs arise. This is so because motivational essence of the lower order needs is already met thus, people tend to pursue higher order needs such as security or safety needs. A person will get motivated until such time that this particular need is already fulfilled.

(c) **Social needs** are those that enable a person to feel that he belongs to a particular group. The sense of belongingness and affiliation to a group gives a person the feeling that he is wanted and loved. Humans are naturally social beings and therefore, friends and family are really essential for living.

(d) **Esteem needs** can be classified as the need to be respected, the need to be appreciated, and the need for power. When the two previous needs are met, it gives a person a positive self-esteem. This self-esteem is further encapsulated with self-confidence, competence and the like. This can be manifested when for instance; an employee is given recognition for his good work.



Self-actualization needs are the highest in the hierarchy. This is like a person's desire to reach that certain level of success that he has been longing for. Say for example, a rank and file employee would like to become an executive of the company after a certain number of years. This

would be the peak of his career and feelings of success will bring the realization of his dreams.

You might ask if self-esteem and motivation are related to each other. The answer is, yes. If you happened to have a poor self-esteem, a little improvement in this aspect can take you to believe that you are not inferior when compared to other people. A strong level of self-esteem can make you feel better and gives a boost to your confidence that you can do many things as most people do different things. A high level of self-esteem can make you feel empowered and perhaps, even improve your social relationships. Furthermore, a highly improved motivation can increase your self-esteem. If you do not have the right level of motivation, then you will not have the needed self-esteem to be able to reach your goals. For example, you are not motivated to do routine clerical tasks because you believe you can do much more with your skills and abilities. Your tendency is to get less motivated or not motivated at all to go to your office every single day because you may feel that others do not see your true abilities and that you can do more than the routine clerical tasks. Now, what you can do is double your self-esteem by saying to yourself that you have valuable skills and that you can do more than the routine job. This can probably help you increase your motivation to go to work and show other people that you can do more than the clerical type of job.

2.1.5 The Importance of motivation:

At it has been stated that motivation as a concept is well defined and classified by different researchers however, different views have been expressed about the most influential type of motivation in language achievement. Some researchers believe that it is integrative motivation

that plays the greater role in success. While others believe that it is instrumental motivation that plays the greatest part in achievement still others believe that a mixture of the two is the most determining factor in language attainment in particular and in any other learning and teaching contexts with other subjects than language. To prove the importance of motivation in language success some of the previous studies in this field will be discussed and correlated.

As an initial in the discussion of the importance of motivation in language achievement , it is logical to start with the factors that lead to success in a general perspective Bialystok and Froehlich (1978:327) for example have Pointed out two main types of factors which are “hypothesized” to be related to variations in achieved proficiency in Second language. The first types of factors is related to learners cognitive variables such as aptitude and intelligence. The second type of factors is affective factors, such as attitudes and motivation. This implies that motivation as an affective factor is central component of any study aims at studying success in language learning.

To study the impact of motivation on language achievement, bearing in mind that a lot of interest is found among researchers about which type of motivation, mainly integrative and instrumental, is more influential, some of the previous studies in this field will be stated and analyzed below.

As first encounter with studies of motivation and achievement , it is appropriate to start with one of the comprehensive studies in this area presented by ALBusairi(199 0:101) Fist of all he starts with integrative motivation mentioning several studies ‘which give the primacy to this type of motivation over instrumental motivation. As a first example he

mentions Gardner and Lambert (1959) who tried to answer the question how it is possible for some people to learn a second or a foreign language while it is not possible for others to do so although they have the same chances. The researchers designed questionnaire, which was administered to a number of subjects studying French in Montréal. The findings of this study show that it is integrative motivation that is the greatest predictor of success in French. Gardner(1960) confirmed these findings by administering the questionnaire to other subjects. Anisfield and Lambert(1961) also did the same confirmation of the finding ,but it was on Jewish studying Hebrew in Montréal. In another similar study by Lambert, Gardner, Bank and Tunstall(1963) it was found that students with integrative rather than instrumental orientation in the study of French in United States of America were more successful.

All these stated studies by Al- Busairi (1990) show the importance of integrative motivation in success in second or foreign language learning. However, AL.Busairi (1990- 109) argues that “its difficult to say with confidence whether integrative motivation facilitates achievement or achievement in a second language results in the development of an integrative motivation.” We believe that success has the primacy in this respect, and to this end we have suggested, instru-integrative motivation as another type of motivation. This implies that the consequences of the learning experience, mainly of success, will have a great impact on the type, of motivation. Al-Busairi himself (1990:132): states this idea by saying that “Variation in attainment of proficiency/achievement ‘in a second - language may produce.

Change in students ‘ attitudes toward learning the language; In a similar survey across several studies of instrumental motivation Al.Busairi(1990) has cited a number of studies which support this type of

motivation. For example Burstau (1974) explained her doubts about Gardner and Lambert's results about the primacy of integrative motivation over instrumental by saying that these results could be accepted in the Canadian context where French is valued as a language and culture. Lukmani(1972).

On the other hand found that female Marathi with instrumental motivation got high scores in English proficiency tests. The same result was also expressed by Kachru (1976) who said that instrumental motivation led to the international status of Indian English, and success in acquiring English. Mulla (1979) in Saudi Arabia and England (1984) at the University Of Illinois came with the same result that instrumental motivation could be correlated with success in English as a foreign language.

These studies explain clearly that the two major types of motivation have been reported to be influential in success in language learning. It seems that the status of the, language, second or foreign, is the most important determining factor whether integrative or instrumental motivation has the primacy in language achievement over the other, It is also obvious from the review of the previous studies that no study denies the importance of motivation in language learning success. On this point Bialystok and Frohlich (1978) say that they agree.

Although much of the evidence indicates a positive relationship between attitude and attained proficiency, the strength of this relationship fluctuates depending on factors relating to the learning context, for example the correlation between attitude variables and achievement tends to be higher in cases where the environment provides many opportunities to communicate with the target language group.

2.1.6 Why Different Level of Attainment

Why is it that students of second language differ in their level of attainment, some ultimately become bilingual, others remaining virtual monoglots? Does studying a language make students more tolerant of others and more appreciative of the language group concerned? Does travel to another language community promote warmth and understanding? Are sociable students better at learning second language than those who are introverted and shy? Does learning a second language has the same meaning and significance for a member of minority ethnic group as it does for a member from a majority group?

Admittedly these questions are not new but they are becoming more and more important to both language teacher and the researcher. It was not too long ago that these questions were overshadowed by other ones. Would developing technology provide the means for improving second language achievement? Could we develop tests that would predict who would be successful in second language study? Such questions have grown out of dissatisfaction on the parts of the teachers, students and society that language courses were not achieving their desired ends in that they were not producing bilinguals.

Although many teachers still berate themselves or their apparent lack of their success, there seems to be a growing realization that perhaps second language instruction is not a complete failure, but rather that the goal of bilingualism in some contexts is possibly an unreasonable one. Such a new realization, it would seem, is a positive sign. It doesn't indicate complacency on the part of the teachers, but rather a decision to focus their energies on maximizing language growth in their students. This new orientation is reflected in the following statement from 1977

Northeast Conference on the teaching of foreign languages (Born.1977, 11) which reads,

'We propose, its nature, its history its, relationship to culture, the acquisition of it, the immediate uses to which it can be put and the development in our students of appreciation for the gift tongues.'

Obviously, this type of orientation tends to remove second language study from the purely educational realm and instead places it at the centre of social psychology.

2.1.6 Concept of Teacher Motivation

The term of motivation is used in the explanation of a great number of diverse behaviors. It is concerned with the arousal, direction and continuance of behavior. It is an omnibus word carrying many different psychological processes as passengers.

In education, motivation often has a rather specialized meaning. Motivation is a concept or variable without physical reality; and its measurement is indirect, just as is our measurement of other psychological constructs such as attitudes, interests and values. (Encyclopedia of Educational Evaluation)

Motivation has been of great interest to parents and deep concern to teachers.

Both parents and teachers want their children should learn well. Their deep anxiety is how to stimulate in children a desire to learn, and if once this desire is stimulated, how to nurture it and sustain the same. In other words, the major concern of the home and school is how to

motivate the pupil to learn how to arouse his motivation towards school and the learning that is imparted in it.

It is mentioned that motives do form an organized and unified system. But men's motives are based on his wants and needs. Therefore, the concept of motivation does imply some kind of internal drive force in the organism itself. This drive can have either a positive or negative direction. Wants, needs or desires indicate positive direction; and/or desires indicate positive direction; and they imply the individual's learning towards the achievement of some object, position or goal. The "negative directions" are indicative of fears or aversions that the individual feels and he tends to move away from the achievement of a certain object, position or goal.

Frymier (1970) clarifies that the concept in another way stating that motivation is that gives direction and the intensity to behavior and motivation to learn is that which gives direction and intensity to human behavior in an emotional context and motivation to learn in school is that which, gives direction and intensity to students' behavior in a school situation. The terms "direction" and "intensity" need some clarification. According to Frymier, direction implies selection from possible variations in purpose of goals; and intensity implied possible variations in purpose of goals and intensity implied possible variations in terms of degree of effort or energy put forth to attain the goal.

The "direction" further implied that children should be helped to learn, to value learning, to want to learn, to learn how to learn, to value knowledge, to acquire knowledge, to understand knowledge or to apply knowledge to unknown and unforeseen situations. Motivation to learn in schools ought to result in moving school children in that direction. Not only the schools should succeed in kindling a desire among school pupils

to learn but give a direction in this sense becomes learned behavior at least in part and it can be taught or developed among school children.

Motivation of students towards the school is to be interpreted in terms of academic achievement. High motivation leads to better learning and high academic achievement. Some positively, motivated youngsters seem to draw most heavily upon forces existing within themselves to enhance their learning. They feel adequate, unthreatened and secure.

The most important of Desai's study (1970) is that healthy classroom climate and school climate serve to achieve an increase in pupil's motivation towards their school at a significant level. Kurtz (1951) came out with a very significant finding that attitude towards school and academic achievement are positively related. Telling is not teaching, listening is not learning and seeing is not perceiving. So, without some theory of motivation and ability of the teacher in motivating the pupil, no matter how elementary, the teacher will have no guidelines to alter his behavior or to develop new ones to fit the teaching-learning process.

Some pertinent questions asked by many people are these. (a) Why do children dislike their schools ? (b) Why are they not interested in going to their schools ? (c) Why are the schools not able to attract their students towards them ? In other words, why is the pupils' motivation low towards the schools ? What are the factors of pupils' motivation towards schools ? What happens if their motivation is low? In order to find out answer to the questions, Frymier conceptualized the theory of pupil's motivation towards schools, standardized the tool for measuring pupils' motivation towards school and contributed a significant chapter in the concept through the special issue of his "Theory into Practice" Journal (1970).

It assumes that highly motivated children are attracted towards the whole world of ideas according to their own personality and sense of values. This assumption is based on quite a number of researches. The degree to which they are motivated towards learning by the teacher is directly related to their openness to experiences their personal sense of adequacy and the things they cherish.

Proper motivation by the teacher gives both direction and intensity to behavior. Motivation to learn in school gives direction and intensity to student's behavior in a school situation. Motivation relate to the 'why' of human behavior, what people do, 'how' they do it and 'when' or 'where' it is done – are all important but 'why people do' and 'what they do' are the motivational questions.

Motivation gives both direction and intensity to behavior to beg the question what is motivation? To be more precise we have to say that motivation is that which gives direction and intensity to behavior. And motivation to learn is that which gives direction and intensity to human behavior in an emotional context. And motivation to learn in school is that which gives direction and intensity to students' behavior in a school situation.

Motivation is an inferred construct. Direction implies selection from possible variations in purposes or goals. Intensity implies possible variation in terms of degree of effort or energy put forth to attain the goal. Motivation to learn is complex and elusive.

So, teacher's role to motivate the pupil to learn is unique and inevitable, the degree of learning depends directly on the motivational abilities of teacher. In this context, certain pertinent questions struck the mind of the Investigator.

- a. What constitutes the teacher motivation?
- b. How best can we improve the motivational abilities of teachers?

- c. How do the teachers' motivational abilities affect the standards of his/her English Language Teaching Ability?
- d. Do motivation has a say on the teachers' English Language Teaching Ability? If so to what extent?
- e. Can we classify teachers on the basis of their motivational abilities?
- f. Does the teachers' motivational abilities influence his/her English Language Teaching ability? If so to what extent? These are certain vital questions which are to be probed into and await answers.

2.1.7 Research on Motivation

Lanks (1951) found that poor teacher has a lesser degree of need satisfaction than the good teachers and hence were motivated more toward security, caution and rather repressed, conservative behavior.

Pareek (1974) after reviewing several conceptual models on work motivation presented a three level work motivation model. According to this model, work motivation can be conceived at the individual level in terms of his needs in decision to work in an organization, his / her personality etc., It can be conceived at interactional level in terms of his / her role in the organization, his work motivation or his commitment to work in the organization. At the third level it may be viewed as the final outcome of his working in an organization and the satisfaction she derives from his work and his role in the organization.

Jangira (1988) opined "Research efforts in the area of teaching skill and teacher effectiveness met in the little success. That is using a series of research reviews of the subject were found to be inconsistent, inconcensive and consequently discouraging and disappointing too.

Singh B (1980) identified the broad areas of teachers' work through discussion with teachers, headmasters, administrators and educationists. The areas of the teachers' work identified were:

1. Classroom teaching

2. School organization and administration
3. Evaluation and guidance
4. Co-curricular activities
5. Extra curricular activities.

Mittal (1988) studied teacher motivation to work and its relationship with perceived dimension of school organizational climate of senior secondary school teachers of Delhi. He found that sex of teachers and location of school had no significant influence on teachers' motivation to work. Teachers working in private management schools were more work motivated than teachers working in Government schools. Norwood, Donie Robert (1997), in his study of the relationship between teacher organizational commitment and the level of implementation of professional development school principles found, that the professional development school principals have a direct effect on teacher organizational commitment. Schools interested in the implementation of these principles showed focus on the principles having maximum effect with the understanding that all professional achievement school of principles are important as an integral part of the school.

Knowles, Kathleen Travis (1998) studied on the effect of teacher engagement on student achievement and motivation. Analysis revealed that teachers' pedagogical knowledge about English negatively predicted tenth grade achievement and positively predicted tenth grade student motivation and after prior student achievement and motivation were controlled. Teachers' intrinsic motivation toward teaching positively predicted tenth grade student achievement and motivation, after prior achievement and motivation had been controlled. Teacher's self efficacy toward teaching negatively predicted tenth grade student achievement after prior student achievement and motivation had been controlled. Analysis also revealed that the four teacher characteristics were positively

correlated with each other and could be statistically represented with one factor (teacher engagement). Teacher engagement predicted tenth grade student achievement and motivation; after prior student achievement and motivation had been controlled.

These findings also suggest that teachers who are knowledgeable about student motivation and English are motivated toward teaching positively influence high school students' achievement and motivation. Teacher engagement was also shown to be statistically supported construct and was predictive of student achievement and motivation.

Lane, Peggy Lee (1998) identified 'the impact of teaching styles on students' styles and academic outcome revealed. Student centered and those high on both student – centeredness and content-centeredness had students who reported a higher student centered orientation, themselves as well as more intrinsic motivation. Content centered teachers and those high on both student centeredness and student style and extrinsic motivation. These findings were only demonstrated for students' ratings of teachers. Discussion focused on the need to not dichotomize teacher styles but examine how different combinations of teacher style variables impact student life motivation and orientation as well as more objective outcomes as grade point average and achievement scores.

Diperma, James Clyde (1999), in his study "Testing, student models of academic achievement" the results revealed that the hypothesized student model did not fit the data particularly well, however the best fitting model was developed with the revision of a few pathways in the hypothesized model within this best-fitting model; only motivation and prior achievement demonstrated large total effects with current academic achievement of the remaining four variables, study skills and problem behaviors demonstrated negligible total effects. The best-fitting student model demonstrated acceptable fit across males and females; but

it demonstrated poorer fit across students distinguished by disability and minority status. Finally the model of academic achievement including home and student variables demonstrated acceptable fit with the data. These results along with the limitations of the study provided several directions for future research.

Venita Singh and Aman Deep Kaur (2003) studied achievement, motivation and parental background as determinants of academic achievement. They found that academic achievement and achievement motivation of students are positively correlated.

1. Children of both parents working group have better academic achievement.
2. There is no difference in the achievement motivation of children due to parents working.
3. Academic achievement of students is not affected by parent's education.
4. Parent's education does effect achievement motivation of students.

Vanitha and Desai (2004) found that students learn better and enjoy it when the subjects they study have relevance to their own learning styles. It is necessary that the teachers provide maximum diversity of materials and activities in order to exercise to variety of pupil styles, good teacher will use more than one or two classroom methods. They will vary their teaching practices in accordance with the nature of their group.

Timothy L. Seifert (2004), in his study of 'understanding student motivation' observed that student motivation may be thought of as patterns of behavior and affect. Although five patterns have been described undoubtedly more exist. However, these five patterns would probably describe most students and address the concerns of many teachers.

Of interest to teachers and researchers would be the pivotal role that feelings of competence and control play. The patterns of behaviour described in this paper may be characterized in terms of those feelings or less of those feelings, while it is reasonable to expect that other emotions may influence behaviour, competence and autonomy are critical. For students to develop into healthy adopters and constructive individuals; it is imperative to foster feelings of competence and control. Previous research has suggested that the teacher student interaction is the critical factor in fostering a sense of competence and autonomy.

2.1.8 Context and Culture in Language Learning and Teaching

Context and Culture in Language Teaching and Learning is a topic that has developed in many directions and with considerable vigor in the last 10 to 15 years. The origins lie partly within theory and practice of language teaching, and partly in response to the recognition of the social and political significance of language teaching. The two are not unconnected. The advances made in terms of defining the 'content' of language teaching, the emphasis on speech acts, functions of language and the analysis of needs, for example, have led to a greater awareness of learners as social actors in specific relationships with the language they are learning, relationships which are determined by the sociopolitical and geopolitical circumstances in which they live. Simultaneously, methodologists have developed a more differentiated view of learners as human beings with feelings and identities which have to be taken into account by those who wish to help them to learn.

Context' is thus as complex a concept as 'culture', the latter being notoriously difficult to define. 'Culture' in language teaching and learning is usually defined pragmatically as a/the culture associated with

a language being learnt. Of course this begs many questions. It is to address some of these questions and others related to 'context' that a conference with the title Context and Culture in Language Teaching and Learning was organized at the University of Durham in June 2001. This was one of a series linking the universities of Durham, Besancon and Bremen as part of a partnership between the three universities to pursue common research interests for students and staff. The partnership is however not closed and other universities may join us, just as contributors from other universities were welcomed at the conference.

All the articles except one began as contributions to the conference. The exception is the first article, by Claire Kramersch, which was written at the invitation of the editors. We saw that articles fell into two broad categories: those by Holme, Holtzer, and Fücke are reports of empirical studies of learners; Halbach, Decke-Cornill, Wandel and Breidbach focus on teachers and teaching, their purposes and methods.

Taking a single instance of learner talk, Holme shows how culture is encoded in the everyday conceptual metaphors speakers take for granted. He describes the way these encodings differ across languages as 'semantic relativism' and argues that language teachers need to be aware of this phenomenon. Only then can they fully understand their learners' interlanguage and help their learners to recognize the internal structure of the prototypical categories of the language they are learning.

Whereas Holme's focus is on the way lexical items reflect culture, Fackes' project shows how the reading of literature is determined by the learners' response as social actors with specific cultural identities. Thus each learner individualizes the learning experience and comes to very different conclusions about the meaning of a common text.

2.1.8 Awareness of the Cultural Construction of Language

In the communicative era, language teachers tend to focus on ‘culture’ according to a combination of five views: the communicative view, the classical curriculum view, the instrumental or culture-free-language view, the deconstructionist view, and the competence view. The first three views treat cultural content as marginal or even irrelevant to successful language learning. The last two views treat language and culture as being acquired in dynamic interaction, with one being essential to the full understanding of the other. They assume that language and culture actually shape and interpenetrate each other in accordance with Whorf’s (1956) relativistic studies of language and meaning. This assumption was once questionable but Whorf’s conclusion is now supported by the cognitivist interest in how the conceptual structures that underlie abstract and, hence, grammatical meaning may be culturally constructed (e.g. Gibbs, 1994; Heine, 1997; Lakoff, 1987; Lakoff & Johnson, 1999).

2.1.9 Oral Interaction in the Classroom

In view of what Ellis (2008), has assumed that interaction may be defined as the discussion jointly constructed by the pupil and his or her peers and there are many ways in which oral interaction may be beneficial in the classroom. This view of learning sees it as a result of interaction between the learner’s cognitive abilities and the linguistic environments (Long, 1996; Vygotsky, 1978; Swain, 1995) propose that interaction is necessary for second language learning. According to the linguists mentioned above, three aspects of verbal interaction can be distinguished: *input*, *production (output)* and *feedback*. Input is the language offered to the pupil by native speakers or other pupils,

production is the language spoken by the language learners themselves and the response given by the teacher or the conversational partners to the production of the pupil. In other words, one positive feature of oral interaction is that it allows pupils to experiment with language, testing previously constructed hypotheses as they venture to make their output comprehensible (Swain, 1995). Swain (1995) claims that output forces the pupil to process language on a deeper level and that the output has three functions; *Noticing*, *Hypothesis-testing function* and *Conscious reflection*. Noticing involves raising pupil's awareness of their own gap in e.g. the English language and start a cognitive process regarding the target language. Hypothesis-testing function is when pupils use their output to try out "*new language forms and structures as they stretch their interlanguage to meet communicative needs; they may output just to see what works and what does not*" (Swain, 1995:132). Conscious reflection talks about when pupils produce output and thereafter reflect upon it. Swain's (1995) aspects are all important and worth noticing, but due to the basic question of research used in this paper, these aspects are only noteworthy to state the importance of interaction and will therefore not be used later on in the paper.

Another important aspect of oral interaction in the classroom is that pupils and the teacher find a purpose for learning together (Dysthe, 1996; Swain, 2000), either that the teacher speaks to the class as a group, or when the pupils speak among themselves. This means that every pupil has something to contribute; for instance scaffolding one another's opinions and thoughts (build knowledge on each other's opinions and thoughts), learn to listen to different opinions and respecting that others may have a different view on a given subject.

According to Dysthe (1996), oral interaction creates many opportunities for the pupils to expand their knowledge in several areas; not only about regarding the subject but also tolerance, understanding and acceptance of others' opinions and thoughts. In other words, the classroom is a place where the teacher's voice is only one of many listened to, where the pupils also learn from each other and where oral usage of the language is in focus for the learning process. According to Swain (2000), what is learned through collaborative discussion might then be appropriated by the individual for future use. Pupils are seen to be joint scaffolders who give and receive support as they interact with their peers with the teacher playing a guiding role in the process (Vygotsky, 1978; Swain, 2000). Regardless of the continuing debate of these points mentioned above, teachers should keep in mind that all of this point to the fact that pupils need to develop L2 skills through participating in classroom interaction. Research has found out that the connection between oral interaction and learning complex and not all linguistic aspects of L2 proficiency are stimulated through the pupils' communicative use of the language, but interaction is still believed to play an important part of L2 development (Gass and Varonis, 1994). However, in my opinion actualization of this in the classroom will depend on the pupils' motivation and self-confidence, and the pupils' willingness to participate in oral interaction. It is essential that the pupils are secure and have confidence so as to feel that they may contribute in classroom discussions, and one way of doing this is through oral interaction with the teacher peers. In the next section, theoretical perspectives will be looked at that view pupils as active participants in the classroom, and explains the meaning of willingness to communicate in relation to oral interaction.

2.1.10 Motivation and Willingness to Interact

Pupils' oral participation in class is one of the aspects of classroom interaction in which opportunities are created for learners to practice the L2 through their willingness to communicate and to produce output. As Dörnyei (2001) points out, competence in the L2 may not be enough. Pupils need to not only be able to communicate but also willing to communicate in the L2. This implies a willingness which may arouse a cognitive and affective conflict from the learners' perspective when speaking with peers or the teacher.

What do we mean when we talk of willingness to communicate? For MacIntyre et. al. (1998) „communication“ has a wide meaning encompassing for example, reading L2 newspapers, watching L2 television, or utilizing an L2 in the classroom. MacIntyre et, al. (1998:547) defines willingness to communicate as “*the probability of engaging in communication when free to choose to do so*”. MacIntyre et. al. (1998) says that if the pupils are asked to raise their hands before speaking, even though only one pupil among them uttered his or her opinion, all of the pupils who raised their hands expressed WTC in the L2. In this paper, willingness to communicate is when pupils are willing to participate in oral classroom interaction at a given time and moment. In my opinion, willingness to communicate is a predictor for oral interaction, thus a necessity to make oral interaction occurs in the classroom.

The following is further suggested by Macintyre et. al. (1998), that a fundamental goal of language instruction should be to foster oral interaction in the target language which may assist in language learning by acting upon what Skehan (1989:48) calls „willingness to talk in order

to learn". In this paper this is of great importance given that I want to explore what consequence motivation and linguistic self-confidence have for pupils' oral interaction.

What this paper has looked at so far is that the importance of willingness to communicate arises from the role of interaction in language development described, stressing that pupils have to talk in order to learn. Pupils' participation in class is one of the aspects of classroom interaction in which 1) opportunities are created for learners to practice the L2 through their willingness to communicate, and to 2) produce output which again leads to 3) input for the other learners. This paper will not have its main focus on WTC, but rather see the very willingness as a predecessor for oral interaction, and look at some of the aspects which may influence pupils' willingness to interact in the classroom. Motivation is closely linked with willingness to oral interaction, and in the next section I will present some theoretical perspectives regarding motivation.

2.1.11 Motivation and Language Level

The concept of motivation is predominantly tackled by researchers; whether it is affective, cognitive, and behavioral or otherwise, without specifying what kind of motivation they are investigating (Dörnyei, 2001). Thus it is difficult to compare research results across different backgrounds and perspectives. According to Dörnyei (2001) motivation is a theoretical concept used to describe and explain how people think and behave. The term motivation is also used for explaining why the pupil did or did not gain knowledge; without the need to go into detail about what factors have contributed to their commitment, the teacher can simply say

“Because they are motivated” or “They are not motivated” (Dörnei, 2001:6). According to Dörnei (2001) by using the word motivation, theoreticians and researchers can more easily relate to the most basic aspects of our mind in areas such as our wills, desires, rational thinking and feelings. However, motivation is an important aspect to be considered when learning a second language as it can determine success or failure in any learning situation (Van Lier, 1996). According to Gardner (1985) cited in Dörnei (2001:49) motivation is a “*mental engine that subsumes effort, want / will and task enjoyment*”. It is this definition of motivation that I will use as a basis for explaining pupils’ motivation. The reason for choosing this specific definition is that Gardner is a well-known scholar and his definition of motivation is known and respected.

Motivation, from a teacher’s perspective, has to do with pupil behavior. Motivated pupils may want to try out their language in the classroom, express their opinions on a given subject, and hopefully maintain their concentration without needing constant feedback and direction. Dörnei (2001) speaks of motivation from standpoints such as Language Level, Learner Level and Learning Situation Level. However, in this paper, in order to investigate pupil motivation, I will look at motivation from one of Dörne’s perspectives, the Language Level.

Language Level focuses on different characteristics of the L2, such as its culture, the community in which it is spoken, and the prospective usefulness of proficiency in it. Dörnei (1994) says it can be described by two broad motivational subsystems – the integrative and instrumental. Dörnei (2005) defines integrative motivation as involving three subcomponents, where *motivation* is the last aspect. However, regarding

integrative motivation, much attention will be given to two of these aspects; *integrativeness* and *attitudes towards the learning situation*:

1. *Integrativeness*: including integrative orientation, interest in foreign languages, and attitudes towards the L2 community.
2. *Attitudes towards the learning situation*: for instance, attitudes towards the teacher and the L2 course.

The relative importance of *integrativeness* may vary (Baker and MacIntyre, 2000). That is, integrative motivation reflects whether the pupil identifies with the target culture and people in some sense, or rejects them. According to Baker and Macintyre (2000), pupils with high integrative motivation will look for opportunities to practice the target language, thus be more proficient in the L2. Hence, this is of great importance in a Norwegian school context. Today, young people in our society, as in many Western societies, are from an early age heavily exposed to and accordingly influenced by a number of varieties of English in the media. Media like television, newspapers, magazines, the Internet and books present learning opportunity for Norwegian pupils. The integrative motivation may not benefit the L2 pupil in the same manner when for instance learning French or German, since Norwegian pupils are not influenced by the languages through the mass media. In this manner, I find that the integrativeness aspect of integrative motivation is useful when investigating Norwegian pupils' oral interaction in the classroom.

As in connection with integrative motivation, it will be beneficial to investigate pupils' *attitude* (i.e. the learning situation towards oral interaction in the classroom) in both plenary and small group discussions. However, according to Ellis (2008), the concept of attitudes refers to sets

of beliefs which influence language learning in a number of ways. Pupils hold beliefs about aspects such as the topic they are going to talk about. Learning method such as plenary vs. small group discussion also plays a role: Lightbown and Spada (1993:40) indicate that learning a second language depends on a learner's attitude. There have been relatively few studies that have examined motivation and attitudes in relation to oral interaction in the classroom. An exception is Kormos and Dörnei (2000), who examined motivation in relation to oral performance on an argumentative task. They reported a significant correlation between individual willingness to communicate, the pupils' overall attitudes to the course and their attitudes to the particular task on the one hand and amount of speech produced on the other.

These findings regarding integrative motivation are interesting aspects which I find relevant for this paper and want use in my study. Further on I also want to look at the other motivational subsystem, the instrumental motivation.

In Dörnei's (1994:279) definition, the *instrumental* motivational subsystem consists of well-internalized extrinsic motives (identified and integrated regulation) centered on the individual's future career efforts. In a classroom setting, pupils who have instrumental motivation regard English as a means to an end, for instance getting a good grade, or being able to travel around the world. Coleman (1996) cited in Cook (2001:116) found that pupils did better with integrative motivation than with instrumental motivation, which would be of interest in the discussion in accordance with oral interaction.

As mentioned above, motivation is an important factor influencing the pupils' oral interaction in the classroom. Aside from being motivated,

pupils also need to feel secure and have confidence in order to interact in the classroom. I will therefore present various theories regarding self-confidence and explain how these are of importance when it comes to the pupils' oral interaction in the classroom.

2.1.12 Linguistic Self-confidence

Linguistic self-confidence is defined in terms of self-perception of second language competence and a low level of anxiety (Clement, 1986 cited in MacIntyre et. al., 1998:549). Looking at different research brings forward a considerable variation in regards to how anxiety studies have been integrated into various researches. Sometimes the term anxiety is used as both a separate independent variable and at other times as a constituent of a larger construct. In this paper, linguistic self-confidence, as described by Clement (1986) cited in MacIntyre et. al. (1998) can be divided into two main categories, namely *situation-specific self-confidence* and *L2 self-confidence*. Both of these constructs correspond with the cognitive and affective sphere of the pupil. L2 self-confidence is linked with language use anxiety. Theoretically, levels of anxiety and perceived competence create a state of self-confidence in L2 that, when combined with for example the setting in a classroom, may result in willingness to communicate in a given situation (MacIntyre et. al., 1998). In the following, I will look at linguistic self-confidence from different aspects. These are 1) L2 self-confidence (perceived L2 competence) and 2) situation-specific self-confidence. Language use anxiety is a subcomponent of both aspects and will therefore be elaborated on its own.

2.1.13 L2 Self-confidence

L2 self-confidence as described by Clement (1986) cited in Macintyre et. al. (1998:549) includes two key constructs: 1) language use anxiety and 2) perceived L2 competence (self-evaluation of L2 skills). The first construct is affective and corresponds to language anxiety, specially the discomfort experienced when using an L2. The second construct, perceived L2 competence, is cognitive and corresponds to self-evaluation of the target language skills. In other words, perceived L2 competence is basically a judgment made by the pupils themselves about their perceived proficiency in the target language. This means that if pupils evaluate their own language skills as high and has confidence in their own beliefs, they will perceive themselves as more than capable of interacting in the classroom: thus their perceived L2 competence is high. Theoretically, pupils who perceive their L2 communication competence as extremely high may be willing to speak in the classroom, almost regardless of the topic discussed, the size of the pupil group, without reflecting their actual competence in the target language. Pupils with low self-confidence, on the other hand, who perceive their L2 communicative competence as low or intermediate are not that willing to participate in oral interaction in the classroom. Basically, L2 self-confidence is not explained by pupils' real competence in the target language, but rather their perceived competence and their anxiety using the language actively in the classroom. The estimation of one's own competency may be explained by previous encounters when using the specific target language, for instance fear of negative feedback or that other pupils may laugh or ridicule at one's opinion, and consequently their L2 self-confidence may be lowered. Several studies have supported the claim that there is a strong relation between self-evaluation of language ability and

language use anxiety, and that this construct of L2 self-confidence plays a vital role in pupils development in the target language. (MacIntyre et.al., 1997; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989). In other words, this concept consists of perceived L2 competence which is essentially perceived knowledge and perceived ability.

2.1.14 Language Use Anxiety

Language use anxiety is often related to the learning situation. If pupils fear being laughed at for making a mistake, it can hinder them from their normal behavior. Consequently can this cause emotional stress which lowers their linguistic self-confidence (MacIntyre et. al., 2002). Littlewood (1992) in Arnold [1] says that communicative activities are important for any degree of fluency to develop. In this manner, practicing the target language depends on willingness to speak. Pupils have three main alternatives regarding speaking: to withdraw and refuse to speak, to speak because the teacher requires it and to speak because they really want to. The affective aspect that has received the most attention in SLA is anxiety. Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986:125) utter that anxiety is “*the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system*”.

What is relevant for this paper is what Daly et. al. (1997) calls *communication apprehension* and *negative evaluation*. Communication apprehension as described by Daly et. al. (1997:21) is defined as the “*people’s willingness to approach or avoid social interaction*”. *Communication apprehension* is the fear of negative individual experiences in oral communication (Horwitz et. al., 1986). In the classroom, anxious pupils are unwilling to talk in front of their peers or the teacher (Daly et. al., 1997). “*Speaking in the foreign language is often*

cited by students as their most anxiety-producing experience” (Young, 1990:539). The same pupils may also engage in modes of behavior that tend to vary the speed of speech when in front of others, compared to when there is no audience (Daly et. al., 1997). This indicates that some pupils would possibly be more willing to interact in the classroom if there were fewer peers present. The main reason for this may be fear of negative evaluation.

Fear of negative evaluation is according to Daly et. al. (1997) defined as apprehension about others’ evaluations, distress over their negative evaluations, and the expectation that others would evaluate themselves negatively. When pupils are unsure of what they are supposed to say, fear of negative evaluation occurs and they may doubt their ability to make a proper impression. In the classroom context, negative evaluation derives mainly from both teachers and the pupils’ peers. In order for a pupil to develop his or her language skills, oral interaction requires feedback, but anxious pupils may be vulnerable to feedback. Pupils with fear of negative evaluation may choose to adapt a strategy of avoidance.

There has been an attempt to experimentally examine how language anxiety affects language processing. Spielmann and Radnofsky (2001) cited in (Dörnei 2005:201) examined learner anxiety using observations, individual and group interviews. Their findings reveal that learners report a kind of a “mask” in the target language. This creates tension in them depending on how the learners processed the shifting nature of the language learning experience in a given situation. In other words, the learners reacted most productively to the quality of activities and materials. Bailey (1983) analyzed the diaries of 11 learners and found

that they tended to become anxious when they compared themselves with other learners in the class and found themselves less proficient. Bailey (1983) noted that as the learners perceived themselves as becoming more proficient, and therefore better able to participate, their anxiety decreased. What we have seen so far is that anxiety, and particularly language use anxiety, is complex constructs with numerous aspects. There is no doubt that anxiety affects L2 performance. Indeed, most people would probably agree with Arnold and Brown (1999:8) cited in Dörnyei (2005:198) when they conclude that “*anxiety is quite possibly the affective factor that most pervasively obstructs the learning process*”.

2.1.15 Views of Culture

The introduction of ‘culture’ into the language curriculum can be rationalized according to five principles. These principles are by no means mutually exclusive and may often work in combination. Nonetheless, they vary greatly in their perception of how central language teaching is to culture. I will call the first the communicative view, the second the classical-curriculum view, the third the culture-free-language view, the fourth the deconstructionist view, and the fifth the competence view.

The communicative view is derived from the communicative approach with its stress on giving the student language that can be put to quick use in a specific context. This approach detracts from any belief that a language may be inherently valuable. Culture, when introduced, is a source of what Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 11) call ‘carrier content’ for the language points from which it is held to be separate. For example, if a teacher introduced a video on recent race riots in the UK, the instrumental nature of much communicative teaching would insist

that the video's primary purpose would not be to acquaint students with the tensions that prevail in Britain's multi-culture. The video's purpose would be to enhance discussion skills, or more specifically, to acquaint students with a discourse peculiar to the situation that is being shown – the register of protest, perhaps, whatever that would be.

Second is the classical-curriculum view, where the interest of languages is secondary to how they function as access routes to the alien and, in some sense, enlightening modes of thought which their host communities are held to have engendered. Accordingly, the culture to which the language gives access can also enhance the intellectual value of the language. This provided a rationale for the learning of Ancient Languages, whose construction was held to inculcate their students with principles of logical thought, perhaps because their grammar was somehow associated with the rationalist philosophical tradition to which they gave birth.

I will call the third the instrumental or culture-free-language view. This view could proceed from a common concern in respect of the hidden political and cultural agenda of a language. Phillipson's (1992) thesis argues that a dominant language such as English is owned by the socioeconomic centre of global power that comprises the BANA (British, Australasian and North American) countries. The language emanates out from this 'centre' towards 'the periphery' as a mechanism of cultural and epistemological impoverishment for those located there (Phillipson, 1992: 52). Implicit in this argument is the view that a language will become a mechanism of cultural transmission, promoting the values of its host-culture against those of the regions to which it is exported. Thus, the widespread adoption of English-medium education in the Gulf could be perceived as making those countries into perpetual consumers not just of

the language of the BANA states but of the knowledge and value systems implicit in it. The obvious counter would be to declare linguistic independence by developing Arabic as a medium for modern scientific education.

However, although it is difficult to imagine that the language advisers of the Gulf might share the post-Marxist core of Phillipson's thesis; they do possess a strong awareness of the dangers of cultural contamination implicit in the learning of a dominant international language. They have responded in two quite different ways, according to the age and objectives of the learners. The first response is to contextualise the target language in the students' own region and culture. The implicit argument is that a culture does not exist in the core of language but is its movable background and can be changed like the scenery of a play. The second response is to perceive scientific, financial or technological knowledge as value-free. Language should therefore be learnt in order to afford access to communities that share knowledge or socioeconomic function. At face value, English for Science or Medicine may proffer a discourse neutered of the subversive cultural influence of the general English course-book with its overt propagation of Western teenage values. Rightly or wrongly, such a belief makes an implicit rejection of a central deconstructionist tenet by ascribing to a traditional objectivism that holds Science to be free of cultural values and language to be without any implicit cultural representation. I will now examine this deconstructionist view.

The fourth deconstructionist view embraces many quite different strands of thought. It might draw first upon on the critical literacy perspectives and critical discourse analysis of Fairclough (1989), Hodge and Kress (1993), or Maybin (1994), where the cultural construction of text means that the language student may be manipulated by that text's

implicit messages. Language learning should entail an understanding of such meanings.

First, a view of language as a social construction might carry teachers back towards the SFL (Systemic Functional Linguistic) analysis of language by which it was partly spawned. The Hallidayan concept of language as a social semiotic perceives a language's structure as reflecting the communicative needs of a given social context. A language which is fashioned around the representation of meanings in society has been interpreted by scholars such as Fairclough (1989) as a language of socially constructed meanings. This interpretation moves language from its more neutral representation of a social context towards the perpetuation of the social order and the value systems implicit in its forms of use.

I can exemplify what these approaches might mean in classroom by referring briefly to a feature of language that the SFL tradition has identified as grammatical metaphor. A grammatical metaphor is 'the expression of a meaning through a lexico-grammatical form which originally evolved to express a different kind of meaning' (Thompson, 1996). Central to the scientific use of grammatical metaphor is the nominalization common in the expression of cause and effect relationships, as in a phrase such as 'glass crack growth' (Halliday, 1993: 79). The metaphor occurs because this phrase refers to a process 'growing' which should congruently or naturally be expressed as a verb but which is here represented by a noun phrase. According to Halliday (1993: 71), grammatical metaphor complicates the task of interpreting English scientific discourse because it is not congruent with the natural expression of things as nouns and actions as verbs by which language is characterized. Although it complicated the interpretation of language,

grammatical metaphor is thought central to the expression of science because it allows a writer to set up a cause and effect relationship between processes rather than between the objects through which those processes are mediated. Thus, ‘heating increases glass crack growth’ foregrounds a relationship between two processes ‘heating’ and ‘growth’ by treating them as if they were things. By contrast, the congruent sentence, ‘if you heat the glass it will crack more quickly’, places a reduced emphasis upon the relationship between the processes. However, writers also use such devices in order to assume a mantle of spurious scientific authority. An expression such as ‘the revolution triggered the inevitable reaction’, for example, constructs history as a clash of events in a manner that denies the power of agency to its prime actors, namely human individuals. Deconstructing the use of such nominalizations might provide students both with an enhanced critical understanding of certain types of text and of the mechanisms through which they can themselves participate in the construction of a prestigious form of discourse. The Hallidayan analysis of language can therefore become useful as a tool of classroom deconstruction that will also help students grapple with forms central to the expression of scientific meanings.

2.1.16 Challenges Posed by Language Learning

Today the challenges of the teachers are many. The academicians have to update their knowledge and ensure that their students get the best of them. Teacher training programs fine-tune their capabilities as teachers of merit and service. The teacher has recently been at the receiving end of a plethora of methods and techniques; he must be appreciated for the complex role he is called on to play. Any innovation at the classroom level must happen from the ‘bottom up’ where the focus is on what is done i.e. as an outcome of perceived needs of the classroom situation.

This obviously implies the role of the teacher as the decision maker and the researcher in the classroom. Swaffer et al (1982) said that teaching is a dynamic process in which the teacher's method is a cumulative result of activities and processes that evolve over a long period of time. Therefore the teacher is not a neutral factor who can be imposed on by the theoretical linguist and methodologist – he is a force to be reckoned with. Over the years a marked change in prospective on the teacher's role from authoritarian to manager is indicative of a shift in emphasis from the teacher and the subject to the learner. Greater classroom autonomy has passed on the initiative of the instructional process to the learner who takes the responsibility for learning. This learner centered approach has transferred the role of the teacher from the authoritarian source of all knowledge to the facilitator of learning. In the instructional process the learner takes the responsibility for his learning which in no way diminishes the teacher's importance. The teacher becomes the manager of learning. Numan (1988) synthesizes theoretical models and recent empirical studies and looks at the language learning process from the teacher's perspective where the decisions are taken collaboratively and the teacher's role is that of a manager and facilitator.

The negotiated curriculum (Breen and Candlin 1980), Process (Breen 1984) and task based syllabus (Numan 1989) emphasize the role of the teacher as a co-participant and negotiator, where the teacher is empowered to exploit the resources of the learner to create an efficient learning environment. The teacher and learners collaborate to negotiate a curriculum which encourages interaction with a view to enriching the classroom process that assumes greater significance than the product and learning outcomes are negotiated in keeping with learner needs.

Action research (Numan 1990) and exploratory teaching (Allwright 1991) mark an important development as the teacher researcher turns critical

and experimental in the classroom exploring strategies and needs and investigating problems that obstruct the teaching learning process. The teacher as a researcher, refusing to be directed, seeks to increase their understanding of classroom interaction, thus narrowing the gap between research and practice. The classroom findings arising from the observation of interaction (Vanlier 1988) are different from classroom evaluation. Research enhances the teacher's understanding of what really goes on in the class.

The notion of reflective practitioner (Schon 1987, Zeicher and Liston 1987) again views the teacher as a professional practitioner following the spirit of enquiry to improve the practice of teaching. It entails a thoughtful analytical reflection by the teacher on the aspects of classroom situation in the light of past experiences and evolving an alternative means of achieving his objectives. Vital to this is creating greater teacher involvement through analytical consideration and diagnosing problems thereby arriving at informant choices.

2.1.17 Attitude

This concept owes its origin to ancient Greek. As attitude related directly to psychology, it would be useful to provide a brief definition of the term psychology. The word 'psychology' comes from Greek words 'psych' which can be freely translated as 'mind' or 'soul' and logos indicates 'study' or 'line of teaching', the psychologists have 'study of the mind'. Essentially, this definition exemplifies what psychology was about up to the end of the nineteenth century.

Recently, the most widely accepted definition of psychology is that it is "the scientific study of behavior and experience" (Malim and Birch, 1998, p.3). By this they mean that through systematic research and psychologists aim to explore questions about the way human beings, behave and how they experience the world around them.

The broadness of the concept permits various definitions reflecting theoretical view points. Gardner (1985a) states that "the concept of attitude is complex" (p.8). Elsewhere, Gardner (1980) referring to Thurstone (1928) writes, the term 'attitude' can be conceptualized depending on the basis of the context in which it is used. He has identified attitude as "the sum total of a man's instinct and feeling, prejudice or bias, preconceived notions, fears, threats, and convictions about any specified topic"(p.267). Here Gardner refers to Likert (1932) explains attitude as inference which is made on the basis of a complex of beliefs about the object.

Again, the term attitude originally used to refer to the disposition of the body, but now it is chiefly used for behavior, feeling and thought "settled behavior or manner of acting as representative of feeling; attitude of mind; deliberately adopted, or, habitual, made of regarding the object of thought" (see Margon, 1993, p.64). It is clear that this definition, as described by Morgan, is not only regarded as a matter of feeling but also of behaviour, and thought. Cognitive and conative types are automatically included in most social psychological texts. Morgan (1993, p.66) refers to Jaspers and Faser (1984, p.108) offer a useful table of different definitions of attitudes which occurs in the work of 17 different psychologists (taken from AUport's original scale in Murchison, 1935). The eight definitions given: "mental, natural, general, readiness, afferent (receptive), efferent (response) evaluative and experience" This relative distribution reveals the basic of categories of definitions: The emotional on the one hand and the cognitive/ behavioral on the other. Most work by social psychologist seems to favor on or other of these two categories. However, the important components of all such definitions is the readiness to respond to a situation.

Allport (1935) defines attitudes as a mental or natural condition of readiness that influences an individual's response to certain objects or situation.

According to him attitude is "a mental and natural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive and dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related" (Allport, 1935, p.810; cited in Malim and Birch, 1998, p.648). This definition suggests that an individual's experience creates 'a state of mind' which significantly influences behaviour in response to certain objects or situation (stimulia). The essential factor is experience which structures the response and perhaps the strength of the response, i.e. strong or weak attitudinal reactions.

Gardner (1985a) develops this definition further by stressing the relationship between attitude belief and opinion. Attitude, according to him is "an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object, inferred on the basis of the individual's beliefs or opinion about the referent (p.9). Consequently, he suggests that a belief and/or opinion may predetermine an individual's attitude. Gardner is more specific than Allport (1935), identifying belief/opinion as the constituent element of experience i.e. positive or negative favorable or unfavorable. Attitude is classified as either educational or social. Educational attitudes are those which involve attitudes toward the teacher, the course, learning the language, whereas social attitudes are those which focus on the cultural implication of target language community "both educational and social attitudes appear to play a role in the second language learning" (Gardner 1985a, p.42).

So far, we have seen that attitudes are emotional and evaluative reactions toward attitudinal objects. Such reactions refer to beliefs or opinions about the attitudinal objects. Attitudinal objects can be both animate (e.g., a teacher) and inanimate (e.g., a foreign language).

Attitudes toward referent objects can be observed as feelings, beliefs, and behaviors or actions toward the attitudinal objects.

McGuire (1989, p. 40, cited in Malim and Birch, 1998, p. 649) has linked attitudes to a tripartite view of human experience which has ancient roots in philosophy. He identifies the following types of attitude and character. His quotation is worth mentioning:

The trichotomy of human experiences into thought, feeling and action, although not logically compelling, is so compelling in Indo-European thought (being found in Hellenic Zoroastrian and Hindu Philosophy) as to suggest that it corresponds to something basic in our way to conceptualization, perhaps ...reflecting three evolutionary layers of the brain, cerebral cortex, limbic system and old brain.

The above definition, however, is conceptualized in rather general terms and is not relevant to the context of language learning. Next we describe the components of attitudes in detail.

2.1.18 Elements of Attitude

Attitudes have three components: affective, cognition, and behavior (Fazio, 1986; Gardner, 1985a; Malim and Birch, 1998; Backer, 1992). The first component is an affective component which includes feelings toward and evaluation of an attitude object. The second is a cognitive component which refers to belief or knowledge which individual has about an attitudinal object. The third one, behavioral component, has to do with intentions or actions related to an attitudinal object. Malim and Birch (1998, p. 649) also provides a variation on this definition, suggesting that attitudes are widely held to have three components:

Cognitive, which includes perceptions of objects and events or reports or belief about them... Affective, which includes feeling about and emotional responses to objects and events...Behavioural or conative components. This concern intentions and predicts the way in which an individual may behave in relation to an object or event.

The three components are widely accepted by many researchers, as pointed out by Malim and Birch, but recently doubt has been cast upon the behavioral component. They say that it is hard to see how knowing someone's attitude towards something may realistically help us to predict his/her behavior. Ajzen (1988, quoted in Backer, 1992, p.11) hold the same view that people do not always behave in ways which are consistent with their attitudes. They may be faced with conflict between contradictory attitudes. However, for Ajzen, "Attitude is a disposition to respond to favorably or unfavorably to an object, person, institution, or event".

Faizo (1986, p. 204) holds a similar view that attitudes consists of three components: " an affective component involving feelings about an evaluation of the attitude object, a cognitive component involving beliefs about the feelings and beliefs about the referent, plus the intention to act the referent, construct the concept of attitude". He adds that one of the main functions of attitude is to facilitate evaluation of objects.

Backer (1992, p. 10) is of the view that attitude is "a hypothetical construct used to explain the direction and persistence of human behavior". He proposes that attitudes towards the language should be included in the concepts of attitudes in the language learning context,

claiming that successful learners tend to acquire positive attitudes toward the target language.

Spolsky (1989, p. 150) claims that "a learner's attitudes affect the development of motivation" and have more specific effects, so that attitudes appear to carry into particular motivation. This claim suggests that attitude can play a very important role in L2/FL language learning, as they would appear to influence students' success or failure in their language learning.

Backer (1988, quoted in Ellis 1994, p. 199) discusses the main characteristics of attitude as follows:

- (i) Attitudes are cognitive (i.e. are capable of being thought about) and affective (i.e. have feeling and emotions attached to them).
- (ii) Attitudes are dimensional rather than bipolar-they vary in degree of favorability/unfavorably.
- (iii) Attitudes predispose a person to act in a certain way, but the relationship attitudes and actions is not a strong one.
- (iv) Attitudes are learnt, not inherited or genetically endowed.
- (v) Attitudes tend to persist but they can be modified by experiences.

2.1.19 Aptitude

It is generally defined as the capacity to achieve a high level of skill in a specific area. In this study aptitude refers to only teaching aptitude. The aspects that are included in teaching aptitude are mental ability, Attitude towards children, Adaptability, Professional information and Interest in profession. Mental ability refers to the logical thinking and reasoning ability of the teachers. Teachers are supposed understand the learning abilities of the pupils. So, he must have logical thinking and reasoning ability over the difficulties that are faced by the pupils while

learning. Attitude Towards Children refers to the teacher's stand of dealing with the people, affection for the child, ability to build confidence and win their hearts by virtue of his behaviour, knowledge, warmth and temper. Adaptability refers to the teacher's ability to adjust and attune himself to the changing trends and also ability to adjust to the needs of the children and cater his services. Professional Information refers to the teacher's ability to possess the required degree of content knowledge, command over subject and consciousness to update his or her knowledge Interest. In Profession refers to the teacher's aptitude for teaching. His attitude towards his profession, the degree of his commitment to the profession and the moral values he or she develops towards the profession.

2.1.20 Role of Imagination in L2 Learning

The exploration of contemporary notions of self and identity in the field of language education has opened up an intriguing area of study – the role of imagination in second (L2) and foreign language (FL) learning. In one line of inquiry, Norton (2001) has employed Anderson's (1991) construct of imagined communities in order to explore how learners' sense of belonging to target language communities that are not immediately accessible can impact on their identity construction and language learning. More recently, Doñnyei (2005, 2009), informed by Markus and Nurius's (1986) theory of possible selves – our images of what we can or might become – has proposed the L2 Motivational Self System model.

While these two lines of inquiry have enhanced our understanding of the roles of self and identity in language learning and the ways in which learners' visions of themselves in the future influence what they do in the present, little, if any, research has focused closely on the role of

imagination in specific L2 and FL learning contexts. A greater understanding of the functioning of imagination in relation to the learning process will benefit educators as they undertake the challenge of identifying the kinds of pedagogical interventions that might support the development of positive as well as potentially attainable L2 selves and enhance learners' sense of belonging to imagined target language Communities.

This chapter explores the part played by imagination in the English language learning of a group of Japanese first-year university students. It reports on a research project investigating their experiences in a self-directed learning course, which blended self-access language learning with classroom-based instruction. Employing the combined theoretical perspectives of possible selves and imagined communities, the chapter illustrates how imagination mediated the role of these constructs in the daily learning experiences of the participants. The ensuing discussion examines the implications of the findings for language learners and educators, and considers the potential of this particular mode of learning as a pedagogical intervention capable of enhancing learners' visions of their L2 selves and enabling learners to work toward their realization.

2.1.21 Imagined Selves and Communities

The theoretical notion of possible selves, 'individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become and what they are afraid of becoming, was introduced to the field of psychology by Markus and Nurius (1986: 954). Applying this construct to the field of L2 learning and drawing on Higgins's (1987; Higgins et al., 1985) notions of the 'ideal self' and the 'ought-to self', Doñnyei (2005, 2009) elaborated his theory of the L2 Motivational Self System, which consists of three components: the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self and the L2 learning experience. Doñnyei (2009: 29) explains that, 'if the person we would

like to become speaks an L2, the “‘ideal L2 self’” is a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves’. The ought-to L2 self relates to ‘the attributes that one believes one ought to possess in order to meet expectations and avoid possible negative outcomes’ (Do˝nyei, 2009: 29), while the L2 learning experience concerns motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience.

Imagination comes into play in Do˝nyei’s motivational model primarily in two ways. First, a possible self or one’s ideal self is manifested as a mental image or composite of mental images. As Boyatzis and Akrivou (2006: 632) explain, ‘the dream or image of a desired future is the content of the ideal self’. Secondly, learners who envision an ideal L2 self will most likely imagine themselves using the language in some social context or target language community (Yashima, 2009). Wenger (1998), who has explored how we develop our identities through participation in various communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991), provides a conceptual framework for situating possible selves within an imagined social context. Wenger (1998: 176) defines imagination as ‘a process of expanding our self by transcending our time and space and creating new images of the world and ourselves’. He contends that while engagement in social groups in our immediate environment provides opportunities for identity construction, our imagination enables us to have a sense of belonging to communities that are not immediately accessible or are diffuse or distributed over a widespread geographical area (Wenger, 1998;Wenger et al., 2002), i.e. imagined communities. Since Norton (2001) first introduced the concept into the field of language education, research has primarily explored how visions of future participation in imagined communities can influence individuals’ language learning trajectories (Kanno, 2003; Kanno &

Norton, 2003; Lamb, this volume; Murray, 2008a) and the (re) construction of learners' identities (Kinginger, 2004; Murphey et al., 2004; Norton, 2001).

Much of the research to date exploring possible selves in the area of L2 and FL learning has been of a quantitative nature with the general aim of providing empirical support for Doñnyei's L2 Motivational Self System (Csize'r & Kormos, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009; Ryan, 2009). One notable exception to this trend employed the dual perspectives of possible selves and imagined communities to investigate the experiences of Japanese English as a foreign language (EFL) students as they participated in a model United Nations (UN) project (Yashima, 2009; Yashima & Zenuk- Nishide, 2008). These researchers concluded that learning activities enabling students to participate in imagined international communities could be instrumental in the development of the future L2 self. The study reported on in this chapter builds on these previous inquiries in three ways: it demonstrates how another type of L2 learning experience might foster a learner's vision of an L2 self and facilitate its realization; it examines the role that imagination plays in this process; and, in doing so, it illustrates the link between imagination and metacognition.

2.1.22 Imagination and goal setting

Imagination mediated the process of goal setting in two ways. First, it enabled the learners to have a vision of a possible self they could work toward. Secondly, picturing this self operating in an imagined target language environment helped them identify intermediate goals, or the steps they needed to take in order to make their future self a reality, which in turn led to the emergence of a learning plan (Taylor et al., 1998). While future possible selves might be viewed as long-term developmental goals comprised of interim goals, they are more than a set

of goals (Pizzolato, 2006); rather, they are “‘self states’” that people experience as reality’ (Dořnyei, 2009: 16). The data in this study suggest that the learners had images of an ideal self _ although not always clearly articulated _ and in the self-directed learning course they set goals designed to help them move from their present toward their imagined future self state.

Hiro, for example, had a vision of an ideal self that was distinct from the goals he set in order to realize that self. Explaining in an interview why he was learning English, Hiro said, ‘I want to become an International person and I want to work in a foreign country using English’. His vision of an international person was inspired by a dynamic Japanese EFL teacher who had lived abroad and whose lessons actively engaged his students. Recounting this experience in his language learning history, Hiro concluded, ‘I thought that I wanted to learn English at university and become an international person like him’.

A number of the participants recounted similar stories in their language learning histories and echoed Hiro’s desire to become an international person. Their comments indicated that their understanding of the term was akin to the concept of international posture, which Yashima (2002, 2009) has identified in her research designed to explain how students in an FL setting, like Japan, might relate to the target language community. She describes international posture as an ‘interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners, and, one hopes, openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures’ (Yashima, 2002: 57). While the term posture suggests possessing a set of attitudes, for the learners in this study, the attributes Yashima outlines serve more as a description of the self they hoped to become _ a self,

embracing a global identity (Arnett, 2002) of which an English-speaking future self was one aspect.

Not only did the learners' visions of their ideal selves appear to extend beyond images of themselves as English language speakers, but a number of the participants viewed becoming an English speaker as an interim goal on the road to making this self a reality. When the participants were asked, on the course evaluation questionnaire, how they thought they would use English in the future, a number of the responses indicated that they saw English as a tool to help them realize their ideal self. For example, one anonymous learner wrote, 'My dream is to be a flexible global thinker. I want to make efforts to study English as a first step for my dream'. In the self-directed learning course, the learners set intermediate goals designed to guide their efforts to make this first step a reality.

The intermediate goals that Hiro, Rina and Mari set for themselves in the self-directed learning course appeared to be strongly influenced by their visions of a future self participating in imagined communities – more specifically, they wanted to improve their ability to participate in everyday conversations. Hiro, for example, said, 'Now I visit there [the Centre] and watch movies... when I go abroad I have to talk with them [English speakers]. So I want to watch a drama with daily conversations'. Rina, whose future self appeared to have a more career-oriented focus reflecting an ought-to L2 self, said, 'In the future I want to be a tour guide so I have to study English and history'. Mari, on the other hand, did not explicitly articulate her vision of a future or ideal self; nonetheless, as the discussion of her choice of course content in the following section makes apparent, her goals were also influenced by her vision of a possible self engaging in imagined target language communities.

2.1.23 Imagination and Content

Seeing themselves engaging in imagined communities with people of their own age influenced the students' choice of content in the self-directed learning course. Many of the students chose to work with DVDs of movies and television programs so they could learn slang and idiomatic expressions that they could use in conversations with their future English-speaking peers. Speaking of her choice of content, Mari had this to say:

I watched the DVD, *How to Lose a Guy in 10 Days*. I chose this movie because it was my favorite. . . . I thought it would be useful for me to learn because the DVD has a lot of slang, and the American way of speaking in English, and phrases I would use in daily life.

Mari's comments not only point to her emerging meta-cognitive awareness of the need to be knowledgeable about the pragmatic and sociocultural aspects of language use _ or, as she put it, 'the American way of speaking' _ but also illustrate the connection between meta-cognition and imagination (Oyserman et al., 2006). Her experience suggests that having images of themselves using the language in target language communities helps learners know which aspects of the language they need to learn and, subsequently, which materials would be appropriate.

In addition to drawing attention to the relationship between metacognition and imagination, Mari makes another point meriting closer attention _ she chose this movie because it was her favorite. Many of the students had favorite movies or television programs that they worked with _ in some cases _ the whole semester. Elsewhere, I have argued that DVDs present imagined communities that can provide learners with a form of peripheral engagement through the power of the imagination

(Murray, 2008b). Writing on this topic, Wenger (1998: 203) says, ‘Stories can transport our experience into the situations they relate and involve us in producing the meanings of those events as though we were participants’. Mari’s comments suggest that she was having this kind of experience and finding it beneficial for her language learning. When asked in an interview if she thought her work in the course helped her meet her goal of participating in everyday conversations, she replied, ‘I think so because DVDs have daily conversation with daily phrases and if you listen carefully to the conversations maybe you can see it in yourself’. Mari’s comment suggests that the DVDs provided potential models of English-speaking selves. Furthermore, her peculiar turn of phrase, ‘see it in yourself’, gives us a clue to the role of imagination in the construction of her future English-speaking self. She suggests that she was relating these expressions to who she was as a person – trying them on to see if they fit her emerging L2 self. It would seem that Mari’s imagination enabled her to picture herself using these expressions in similar situations to see if they would work for her.

Like Mari, Hiro, in his efforts to realize his future self, also used DVDs to reach his goal of being able to participate in everyday conversations. In addition to this, he worked with a monthly news magazine produced for Japanese EFL learners. Hiro said, ‘CNN English Express was very helpful for me because this book writes about current events in the world and I can gain a broad vision and I could gain a lot of information in the world’. Many students in the self-directed learning course used this material to increase their vocabulary; however, Hiro suggests that he found an additional purpose – it provided him with information that was helping him visualize the communities he might participate in one day. The experiences of these learners suggest that they chose content that supported the work of their imagination by providing

material that helped them develop clearer images of imagined communities, portrayed models of potential L2 selves and aided them in building a linguistic repertoire appropriate for the L2 self that they envisaged.

2.1.24 Maintaining Motivation in Distance Language Learning

Developments in technology are encouraging the growth in distance language learning and teacher education, often as part of a ‘blend’ of face-to-face and technology-mediated learning, although the exact combination and amount of each may vary widely (Hall & Knox, 2009). Learners in such programs are generally responsible for scheduling their study time and are expected to set personal goals, select their route through the material, monitor their own learning progress and maintain their motivation within the framework of a language learning program, which may offer more or less guidance and structure. In other words, they may enjoy an increasing degree of autonomy in their study. Autonomous learners are, by definition, motivated learners, but even autonomous learners experience setbacks or changing circumstances. Self-motivation is crucial in distance learning, but, as Oxford and Lee (2008) ask, how do learners keep going when the going gets tough? This chapter explores self-motivation from the perspective of distance language learners. It begins with a brief overview of the relationship between distance language learning, autonomy, motivation and learner identity with reference to self-determination theory (SDT; Ryan & Deci, 2000) and Do˝nyei’s second language (L2) Motivational Self System (2005, 2009). These theoretical frameworks are then used to analyse the experience of distance language learners of French, German and Spanish at the Open University (UK). The findings provide some insight into ways in which distance language program designers and learners may enhance self-motivation.

Distance learning is not necessarily synonymous with autonomous learning and in the past has been seen as ‘learning by yourself’, following the prescriptions of course writers, rather than a way of taking more control over one’s language learning (Benson, online). White (2007: 100) has shown how distance learning has developed and changed ‘from a concern with the production and distribution of learning materials to a concern with communication and learning as a social process supported largely by ICT’, where learners are encouraged to decide the content and goals of their learning. Even where reliance on printed materials remains, program designers are increasing the degree of learner choice and decision-making to enhance learners’ capacity for autonomy (Murphy, 2008).

Despite the fact that technology has potentially removed some of the most problematic aspects of distance language learning, i.e. the physical separation of learners and teachers and the lack of opportunity to develop interactive competence in the target language, distance learners still have to schedule and pace their own learning. Many have a range of other commitments and responsibilities besides language learning, which may reduce time and energy for interaction with other learners. On the other hand, their past language learning experience may mean that they enjoy learning in the company of others and find it hard to monitor and evaluate their own progress when they cannot compare themselves with fellow learners. They can experience distance learning as both an isolated and an isolating activity. A situated view of learning highlights the significance of social identity and the learner’s context in relation to motivation and self-motivation. This is particularly significant in the case of adult distance language learners, who have to find a way of reconciling a distance learning environment, their own life contexts and their personal attributes and aspirations (White, 2005).

A number of researchers have described phases in the motivational process (e.g. Doñrneyi & Otto´ , 1998; Williams & Burden, 1997), which Hiromori (2009) divides into pre- and post-decisional phases, the latter covering implementation and sustaining motivation. For the reasons noted above, the initial enthusiasm and motivation for learning a language through a distance education program may be hard to sustain, depending on the unique combination of personal circumstances, experience, expectations and individual attributes. The aim of the study reported here was to explore how learners sustain motivation and overcome demotivation in distance language learning, an area that has not been investigated to any great extent to date, but is increasingly important as more and more people engage in forms of distance language learning. Benson (2007) explains the way in which autonomy has been linked to the study of language learning motivation through Ryan and Deci's (2000) SDT. This emphasises the significance of intrinsic motivation, interest in the subject and learning process itself. Ryan and Deci identify three innate psychological needs related to intrinsically motivated processes: competence, relatedness and autonomy. They describe intrinsic motivation as being shaped by working towards what are termed 'optimal challenges', gradually extending the individual's capabilities and promoting feelings of achievement. This is supported by feedback or interaction prompting positive self-evaluation and enhanced feelings of competence. The study described below examines distance language learners' experiences in maintaining their motivation and looks for evidence of the motivational impact of competence (feelings of achievement and skill development), relatedness (positive interaction with others and feedback on performance) and autonomy (making decisions about their learning). For reasons already discussed, each of these may be problematic in a distance learning setting, depending on the

nature of the program and the circumstances or experience of individual learners.

Intrinsic motivation is an important factor in maintaining motivation to study at a distance as in other settings, but much research has also focused on the personal goal orientation of language learners, their individual reasons for studying a language and how these reasons and the context for learning may sustain study. For many years, the social psychological approach of Gardner and his associates in Canada and the notion of ‘integrativeness’ dominated this research, but a number of issues have gained prominence recently, as summarized by Ushioda and Do˝rnyei (2009), who propose re-theorising language learning motivation in relation to ‘self’ and ‘identity’. Do˝rnyei (2005, 2009) sets out a model of motivation, termed the L2 Motivational Self System, rooted in earlier psychological theories of self, which comprises three components: (1) ideal L2 self (the L2 specific version of one’s ideal self _ what we would like to become as a speaker of the target language); (2) ought-to L2 self (the attributes one believes one ought to possess in order to meet expectations and avoid possible negative outcomes); and (3) L2 learning experience (concerns motivation related to the immediate learning experience, e.g. impact of teacher, peer group and success) (Do˝rnyei, 2009: 29). He emphasizes the significance of the imagery involved in picturing the ideal L2 self. ‘Language learning is a sustained and often tedious business and I felt that the secret of successful learners was their possession of a superordinate vision that kept them on track’ (Do˝rnyei, 2009: 25). In the same volume, Ushioda (2009: 220) argues for ‘a more contextually embedded, relational view of motivation and identity’. She emphasizes the need to focus on people rather than on learners and to remember that ‘language learner’ is just one aspect of a person’s identity (Ushioda, 2009: 216). She makes a powerful case for encouraging

students to express their own identities through the target language by having more choice and control over their input (Ushioda, 2009: 223) in a more autonomous learning environment: arguments that she develops further in this volume.

The study of distance language learners reported here did not initially set out to explore the relevance of the L2 Motivational Self System or the notion of learner identities, but aimed to identify the self-motivational strategies that learners deployed and the importance of intrinsic motivation. However, the experiences of the distance learners themselves and the language in which they described them indicated the relevance of these concepts. Thus, the study now links distance language learning, autonomy, motivation and learner identity through reference to SDT and Do˘nyei's L2 Motivational Self System.

2.1.25 The Importance of Self-esteem:

In one of the definitions mentioned above Brown (1994) States clearly the importance of self-esteem in any successful cognitive or affective activity. Language learning in general can be considered as a process of both cognitive and affective domains. Hence, success in language learning is greatly affected by some degree of self concept.

It is likely the case that all researchers agree on the of self-esteem in success in second/foreign language learning.. For example Bley-Vroman (1997:158) thinks that adult language learners are more affected by affective factors such as ' motivation, attitudes, socialization, self-image' etc. Then he mentions Heyde's (1983) correlation between proficiency and self-esteem in adult learners. He also mentions Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco's (1978) report about a clear absence of self confidence among 'less successful second language learners.

Which in turn, implies increased self-confidence among successful second. language learners. Heyde (1979: 227) in the same way believes that our evaluation of self can be reflected in our language behavior, then she cites Fitts(1965); Miskirins (1973) Who express the same ideas by saying that the feeling we have towards our abilities and ourselves is directly reflected in our language behavior and language output.

As it has been mentioned in the above' paragraph that self concept is reflected in an observable language behavior, which implies that the study of self-esteem should be based on such observable activities. For the same reason Heyde(1979: 228).

Thinks that it is better to focus on oral production skills rather than on the other skills in studying learners' self-esteem for the following reasons: first the current research proves that affective factors are closely related to oral production and listening than. to reading and writing as studied by Richard Tucker. Gardner and Lambert (1972) in the same direction of interest find a correlation between integrative motivation and second language proficiency.

(1979:228) that such a correlation is normal because oral production, such . Speaking, is surrounded with risks due to the evaluation of the speaker's grammar or pronunciation. Secondly, Heyde believes that "a student's evaluation of himself and his speech has an effect on his oral performance." We also believe that, writing as a productive skill, needs such a type of self- evaluation the correlation between self-evaluation. And oral language production is .a normal process in language learning language is known as a natural discipline which is mastered through intensive practice.

To study the correlation between Self-esteem and the oral production of a second language learner, Heyde(1979: 229) mentions the gradual interest in the study of self-esteem in the area of ‘psychotherapy’ of cases of clients’ self-esteem before and after treatment, and also in cases of studying and classifying normal and abnormal behavior: Then research is directed to study self-esteem in learning and education, such as the study of self- esteem in relation to the prediction of future performance, to academic performance, and its relation to motivation and attitudes. Fitts(1972) for example, as cited in Heyde’s (1979:229) study of self-esteem, has developed a measure called “Tennessee Self - concept Scale’ with other colleagues to do extensive research for predicting future performance of a varied population. The main results of this study explain that self-concept ‘predicts’ who will get on with training programs and who will do better on the job after the completion of training Brodkey and Shore (1976) also cited by Heyde(1979: 230) have found that test of self-esteem through Q-sort technique is predictive of good and poor language performance measured by teachers. In other studies by Fitts (1972) the correlation between self - esteem and academic performance; and that certain self-evaluations re better predictors of grades and achievement test scores. Fitts(1972) also finds, a relationship between self-esteem and factors influencing academic performance such as different types of attitude and motivation. Hyde(1979:231) cites Fitts: (1972:43).Comments cited in Khalid(2003:53)as follows:

a person with a healthy concept is apt to use his intellectual resources more efficiently and this may be a critical factor in his achievement f his intellectual resources or educational background are borderline. Otherwise his self- concept seems to be more closely related to the noncognitive aspects within the academic setting.

Heyde's(1979: 232) pilot study, to explore the "relationship between global and specific self-esteem and the oral production of English as a second language", is also one of the famous studies. The subjects of this pilot study were students enrolled in high levels at the "English Language Institute" so as to be able to read the scale with no need for translation, which may affect the validity of the scale. The results showed that global and specific levels of self-esteem are related; however, there is a tendency "for specific self- esteem to be more closely related to oral performance than global self-esteem." It was also proved that with high self-esteem got 'higher oral produc4on ratings from themselves and their teachers' than those with low self-esteem Specific self - esteem was also found to be more predictive of oral performance than global self-esteem.

2.1.26 Relationship between Self-Esteem and Achievement in English Language

The aim of this section is to discuss the relationship between self-esteem and achievement in English as a foreign language. Research on the relationship of self-concept to academic achievement has been somewhat mixed, though generally positive relationship have been found. However, it is suggested that self-esteem is a contributing factor to success, i.e. the higher the self-esteem is , the higher is the achievement .

To show the relationship between self-esteem and learning foreign languages, Schmidt (1987) described her mother's early. Experiences with English language use and ethnic bias, her family's language use patterns, family sensitivity to language attitudes, school experiences with language use and language learning, and her feelings of low self-esteem and frustration as a result of linguistic repression. She recounts the effects

of this "forced non-bilingualism" on her ability to use her native Spanish English, and her chosen third language , French , and supports the use of transitional and maintenance bilingual education programs to enhance bilingual children's self-esteem and to avoid the problems of her own experience . Also , Foss et al .(1988) see self-perception as a critical factor in both language learning anxiety and communication anxiety . In fact, its role has been widely recognized by researchers in both fields . Communication apprehensive – whether those speaking their native language or those learning a new one – typically have low self-esteem , perceive themselves as less worthy than others , perceive their communication as less effective than that of their peers , and expect continued failure no matter what feed-back they actually receive .

Furthermore , foreign language anxiety entails a risk to self beyond that experienced by a native speaker because the speaker knows he Or she cannot present the self fully in the new language . Horwitz et al .(1986) summarize

Adult language learners' self-perceptions of genuineness in presenting themselves to others may be threatened by the limited range of meaning and effect that can be deliberately communicated ... Probably no other field of study implicates self-concept and self-expression to the degree that language study does (p. 128).

2.2: Previous related works

In this part a few studies will be reviewed in a way to reflect differences and similarities between them and the present research. The first study was conducted by Al-Ruffai (1990) investigated two groups , (60) males and (60) females who are students at first secondary at school of Al-Quneitra Governorate .The two samples were divided into four

groups , where two groups (one of the males & another of the females) , were positively reinforced . The other two groups were left without reinforcing attempts. The aim of the research was to see the effect of positive reinforcement on achievement in English , and to investigate the effect of reinforcement on sex variable and to formulate guidelines and suggestions to improve the teaching methods of English subject in order to raise the rate of academic achievement in the mentioned subjects . The researcher used Student Test to support or reject the hypotheses of the research . The results indicated that the positive reinforcement has an effective role in raising the academic achievement in English of both males and females. As for the sex differences, no significant differences were found. It is to be mentioned that the positive reinforcement has its noticeable effect on the middle & high achievers whereas no significant statistical effects were found on the low achievers.

The second study by Laughlin (1978) who investigated the relationship between self-esteem and schooling entirely in French of partly in English , and the mechanisms associated with high self-esteem . The sample was a random survey of 300 French Canadian in Quebec. Results showed that French Canadians who attended French school exclusively have higher self-esteem not because they set their sights lower (as the researcher hypothesized) , but because they are more ambitious , the French Canadian elite having a strong belief in success and North American values . Schooling exclusively in French also leads to high self-esteem because the ethnic group is valued, despite lower positions in the occupational structure.

The third study was conducted by Kou (1982) who investigated the four sources of self-esteem : general self , self-peers , home and parents , and the school of selected immigrant monolingual Chinese and

bilingual Chinese-English speaking children .The relationship between the four self-esteem measures and the children's length of residence as well as their competency in English verbal communication was also studied . The participants were 81 children , ten to twelve years of age from a population of lower middle to low income families residing in the Chinatown community , and selected from two New York City Chinatown Public Elementary Schools . The results show a significant correlation between the four self-esteem measures and competency in English verbal communication.

Ikeguchi (1996) conducted a study to show self-assessment and ESL competence of Japanese returnees . The sample was two groups of Japanese students , 40 university students (aged 18 – 25) and 34 high school students (aged 13 – 15), assessed their own English language skills (listening , speaking , reading and writing) after having lived in an English speaking country for at least a year before returning to Japan . This evaluation was compared with objective listening test results and teachers' assessments of oral skills . Influence of such variables as age , sex, attitude toward English , English use patterns overseas , length of stay overseas, and time since return from overseas was also examined .

Results show the college students felt their skills had deteriorated, and this was confirmed in listening and speaking tests results, particularly the longer the time since return . High school students' results show a correlation between self-assessment and language environment after return to Japan. Both groups found their classroom learning about English-speaking cultures most useful and their vocabulary study least useful . Issues in self-evaluation arising from the findings, particularly as they related to age differences and follow-up support after return from overseas are discussed.

Chern (1994) tested the hypothesis that more proficient language learners are more aware of the strategies they use in reading . Subjects were 28 native speakers of Mandarin Chinese who learned English as a second language (ESL) .

All were university students, experienced readers were recruited from among fourth –year English majors inexperienced readers were drawn from first – year students in academic areas. Subjects were first interviewed about their reading habits in Chinese and English .They then read two manipulated passages, one in English and one in Chinese. In each passage, eight function words were removed and replaced with non-sense words, characters / or character combinations . After reading , the subjects were interviewed about how they resolved difficulties in reading the passages . It was found that in general , the subjects were less bothered by difficult words in their native language than by those in English . When confronted by unfamiliar words , frustration, nervousness, and low self-esteem were common feelings for inexperienced ESL readers . Results were consistent with previous research .

Aime & Joseph (1995) responded to a situation in which limited – English –Proficient Haitian students were found to have behavior problems, anxiety , depression , low motivation, low energy , and underachievement attributed to low self-esteem, a project was undertaken to improve student self-concept and achievement . Ninth-and tenth – grade Haitian English – as – a – Second Language (ESOL) students (n=100) were first administered a country oral language test, the Piers – Harris self-concept scale, and a behavioral checklist as pre-tests. Subsequently, ESOL techniques were implemented in concert with filmstrips, television viewings, tape recordings, field trips, and an inter-

ethnic group fair . At the end of the academic year, the students were retested with the same measures, and the results indicated improved self-esteem, classroom behavior, and learning ability. Then , Iris and Pousada (1995) conducted a study to investigate the factors most important in creating and maintaining English -as – a – Second Language (ESL) Programmes for Hispanic Women in Prison .An ESL teacher who was also inmate in a maximum – security women's correlation institution undertook the study .Introductory section describe the prison inmate population , history of educational programs , and development of the ESL class .The researcher , a Hispanic women , inmate , and ESL teacher , drew data from her own and assistant tutors' journals concerning ESL instruction , interviews in Spanish with students and student portfolios . Analysis focused on the roles of self-esteem, motivation, educational history, peer influence, and attitudes toward learning .The major patterns emerged.

Fraser (1991) conducted a statistical analysis of adult learners. Participants were 206 adult students studying English as a Second Language or enrolled in upgrading and business courses at a metropolitan Toronto (Ontario , Canada) secondary school . Variables assessed were as follows : gender , area of learning , quadmesters (10-week periods) present , courses completed , employment achieved , co-op placement , work experience , support auspices , responsibilities outside school , age , and plans for continuing education .Findings indicated that the following factors contributed to success in achieving employment and enhancement in . quality of life : length of attendance, courses completed , cooperative education placement , financial support , and previous work experience. Students who were present for three quadmesters were more likely to achieve employment than those who remained in school longer . Those

who came from areas of skilled employment, unskilled employment, and employment outside Canada achieved employment in that order. students who attended school on a training allowance had the highest likelihood of achieving employment and those working part-time or full-time outside school achieved employment at higher rate than those on General Welfare or receiving family Benefits . In the staff survey on quality of life components that enhanced the lives of students, self-esteem and cultural adjustment were perceived to most important.

Zimmerman ,et. Al (1992) conducted a study to show the causal role of students' self-efficacy beliefs and academic goals in self-motivated academic attainment using path analysis procedures . parental goal setting and students' self-efficacy and personal goals at the beginning of the semester served as predictors of students' final course grades in social studies . In addition, their grades in a prior course in social studies were included in the analyses . A path model of four self-motivation variables and prior grades predicted students' final grades in social studies. Students' beliefs in their efficacy for self-regulated learning affected their perceived self-efficacy for academic achievement , which in turn influenced the academic goals they set for themselves and their final academic achievement . Students' prior grades were predictive of their parents' grade goals for them , which in turn were linked to the grade goals students set for themselves . These findings were interpreted in terms of the social cognitive theory of academic self-motivation (Bandura & Cervone, 2000) tested the hypothesis that self-evaluative and self-efficacy mechanisms mediate the effects of goal systems on performance motivation . These self-reactive influences are activated through cognitive comparison requiring both personal standards and knowledge of performance. 45male and 45 female undergraduates performed a

strenuous activity with either goals or performance feedback, goals alone, feedback alone, or without either factor. The condition combining performance information and a standard had strong motivational impact, whereas neither goals alone nor feedback alone affected changes in motivation. When both comparative factors were present, the evaluative and efficacy self-reactive influences predicted the magnitude of motivation enhancement. The higher the self-dissatisfaction with substandard performance and the stronger the perceived self-efficacy for goal attainment, the greater was the subsequent intensification of effort. When one comparative factor was lacking, the self-reactive influences were differentially related to performance motivation.

Gasm Al Seed (1992) "The Communicative Approach and its Techniques in English Language Teaching in Sudanese School" the purpose of this study is to investigate the nature of the techniques in English language teaching in Sudan .

The researcher of this study applied the descriptive methodology for data collection and two tools which are questionnaire and observation check list. The questionnaire were distributed to the teachers and the teachers' trainers. The observation check – list was designed to check what the teachers have studied and whether they practice what they have been taught in the training courses or not.

The findings of the study were as follow

The condition for Sudanese pupils who are learning English are very different. The pupils do not have the advantages that make it easy for them to learn because they only hear and use the language in the classroom for only nine periods per week. The pupils learn in artificial situations. The pupils do not have very strong reasons for learning a

foreign language. They are probably learning only to pass the examination. The pupils do not have close relationship with their teachers. The pupils do not learn the foreign language as a natural part of growing up and learning to control the world. The teachers do not speak English with their students. The teachers do most of the talking in the class, the pupils only sit and listen. The recommendations which were put by the researcher of this study are :

1-Teachers should increase the pupils' talking time.

2-Teachers should encourage the pupils to communicate in English.

3-Teachers should make close relationship with their pupils, and create a friendly atmosphere in the school

Karadawi(1994) in a research titled "the problems of productive skills of English language writing' in a way or another touched the current study since both of them are investigating the productive skills (writing and speaking).

The researcher of this study has applied various techniques for data collection. Although the major method is the cross-sectional design, other sources for getting data were used. Questionnaires for secondary fourth-year student have been carried out –Besides, questionnaires for twenty of Sudanese secondary school teachers were also done. Expert teachers' opinions also have been utilized, units like the Sudan Examination Council, the ministry of curriculum section and Khartoum English language supervisors have provided the researcher with the necessary information. The study has come to the following findings.

(i) The full-year-course of composition in the Nile course 6 is not sufficient to make the students well-prepared for meeting the

requirements of the final English examination which contains among other items two writing tasks, a guided text and a free one.

Also 16 teachers of the 20 who were questioned have claimed that the topics in the Nile course 6 aren't adequate. The result of the study also showed that the topics in Nile course 6 are not of interest to the learners, the quality of the material for composition is unsuitable and the text books lack graduation.

The recommendation put by the researcher of this study is: To review the Nile course series and design a course relevant to the Sudanese. The new course should be graded.

Osman (1995) "The Effect of Anxiety and Self-esteem on the students' achievement of English"

The researcher used the descriptive method for collecting data; he also applied questionnaires and interviews. The finding of this study are that anxiety affects students' achievements of English. It can be facilitating which contributes to the success of learning the language or delimitating which affects the students learning negatively. It is also proved that self-esteem is a contributing factor in helping the students acquire the language. The study also proved that boys and girls feel the same in regard to the level of anxiety in a foreign language

The recommendations which are put by the researcher of this study are: The material for teaching English as a foreign language should be of interest and relevant to the learners needs.

Ahmed (1995) in "The problem of the listening skill" investigated the effect of the problems of the listening skill on the spoken English, the tools applied in this study are questionnaires and tests .

These problems are mentioned as follows :

A: the material (message)

B: the speaker and the listener (presentation)

C: the environmental condition such as noise, visual elements and any activities outside the classroom .The study finds that in the presentation aspect it is very important to expose the learners of a foreign language to the normal speaking of a native speaker from the beginning of learning . It is also found that slow speech should be avoided in teaching listening . Finally it is found that the listening material should be recorded.

The recommendations for this study are that the students should be exposed to the language in real situation and they must be encouraged to hold debates and discussions in English.

Summary of the Chapter

This has reviewed the most important theoretical and empirical parts of motivation and self-esteem. It explored and compared some of previous studies both inwardly and externally.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This study primarily involved a survey, comprised to two sets of data collection techniques namely a test and a questionnaire relating to motivation and self-esteem. Moreover, in order to discover more deeply the relationships and among learners' beliefs about motivation , they were subjected to a close observation testing . Sampling, tools for collecting and analyzing data will be described and discuss in details .

3.1 Study design

The researcher adopts two study designs. Initially, a questionnaire has been designed for lecturers-besides, assessing Test. An attitude interviews were conducted by the researcher to measure the students' opinion towards using English language supported with Arabic if necessary or using English language without any usage of Arabic as a motivating factor to help facilitate learning. Besides, pre- and post-test which is designed to find out the impact of the experimental factor (translation) on enhancing students' comprehension of English language Skills (Reading, Writing, listening and speaking). As a final point, the researcher compares the pre- and post-tests results to see if there is a progress in the students' performance.

3.2 Sample

The subjects are EFL students, third year at Sudan University of Science and Technology. A number of 30 of EFL students (males) have been selected randomly out of 40 students who represent the target population. The subject's ages range between (19 - 22) years.

3.3 Tools and sample of the study

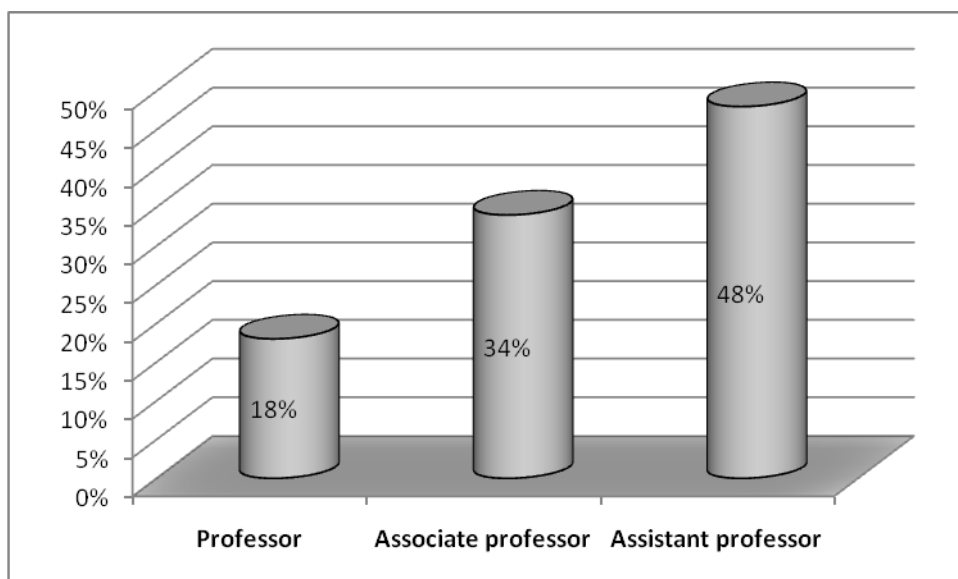
In the present study the researcher used the questionnaire for the teachers and a diagnostic test for the students (Undergraduates (Second Level) of Sudan University of Science and Technology.

- The respondents from different gender (Male, Female).
- The respondents have different qualifications (M.A., Ph.D.).
- The respondents of different years of experience (1-5 years, 5-10 years, above 10 years).

The following is detail description for study sample individuals according to the above variables

Part One: Personal Information (Table 3.1)

Percentage	Frequency	Academic Status
18%	9	Professor
34%	17	Associate professor
48%	24	Assistant professor
100%	50	Total



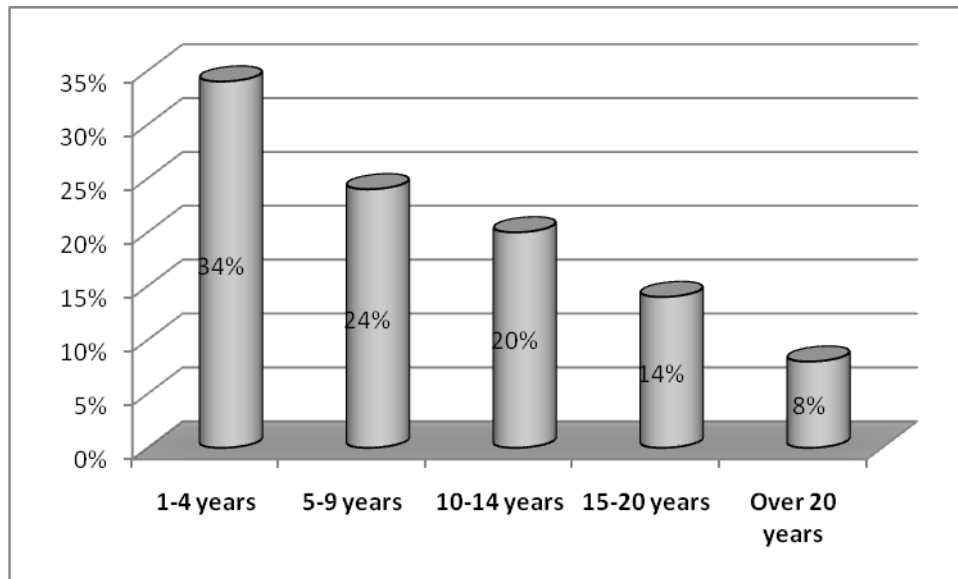
From the above table No. (3.1) and figure No. (3.1), it is shown that most of the study's respondents have the academic status assistant professor, the number of those were (24) persons with percentage (48%), the number of the respondent's in the study who have academic status associate professor was (17) with percentage (34%). The numbers of respondents' in the study who have academic professor were (9) with percentage (18%).

The Experience:

Table No.(3.2)

The Frequency Distribution for the Study Respondents According to Experience:

Percentage	Frequency	Years of experience
34%	17	1-4 years
24%	12	5-9 years
20%	10	10-14 years
14%	7	15-20 years
8%	4	Over 20 years
100%	50	Total



It is noticed from the above table No.(3.2) and the figure No.(3.2) that, most of the sample's respondents have experience between (1) and (4) years, their number was (17) persons with percentage (34%). The number of sample's respondents who have experience between (5) and (9) years was (12) persons with percentage (24%). The number of sample's respondents who have experience between (10) and (14) years was (10) persons with percentage (20%). The number of sample's respondents who have experience above (20) years was (4) persons with percentage (8%)

Table no.(3-3)The frequency distribution for the study respondents according to the Gender

Percent	Number	Gender
73.3	22	Male
26.7	8	Female
100.0	30	Total

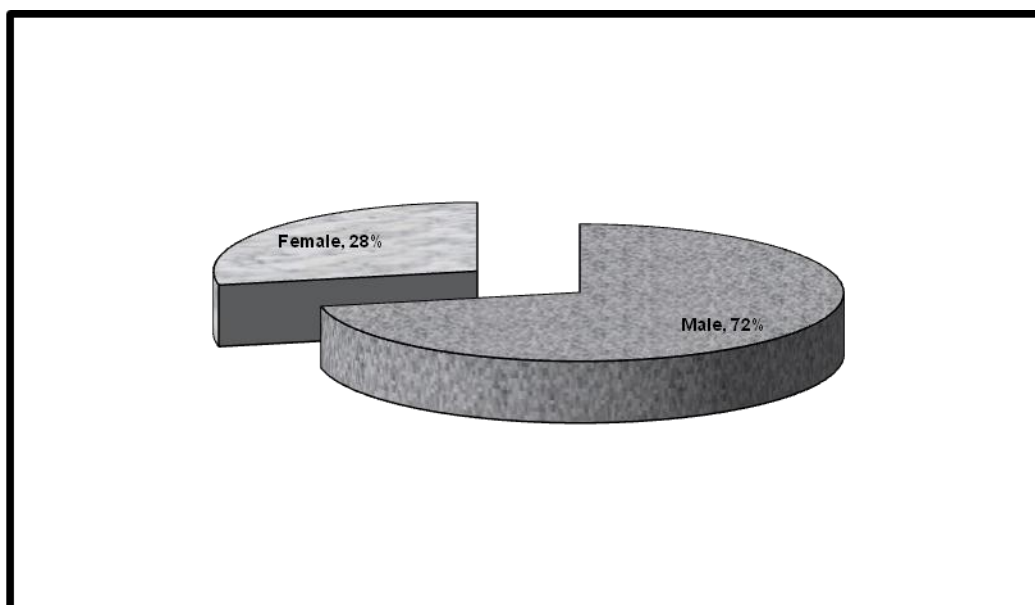


Figure no.(3-3): The frequency distribution for the study respondents according to the gender. From above table and figure, it is shown that most of the study's respondents is Male, the number of those was (22) persons with percentage (73.3%). The respondents is female was (8) persons with (26.7%).

Diagnostic Test

Table (3.4) : the means distribution of the respondent's answers

P	F	Mean
34%	17	Relevant
50%	25	Irrelevant
10%	5	Clear
6%	3	Not clear
100%	50	total

(3.6) Hypotheses testing by using chi-square test

Chi – square test formula

$$X^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(O_i - E)^2}{E_i}$$

where :

O_i = sample frequencies

E_i = expected frequencies

$\sum_{i=1}^n$ = the summation

n = the number of the sample individuals

i = 1 .2 .3 ... n

This is the calculated chi- square value which we always compare it with tabulated value at the specific significance level and degree of freedom. And then the significant values determine if there is statistically differences between the sample frequencies and sample frequencies that by comparing the probability value with the significance value (0.05) . and if the probability value is smaller than the significance value 0.05 this indicate that there is statistically differences between the answers so we compare the real mean with the hypothesized mean of the statement and find out if it's less than hypothesized mean this is enough evidence for the no acceptance of the respondents to the statement and if its greater this indicate that most of the respondents are agree with the statement.

3.5 Reliability and Validity of the Questionnaire

Apparent Reliability and Validity:

In order to check the apparent validity for the study questionnaire and validation of its statements according to the formulation and explanation, the researcher showed the questionnaire to the (5) Ph.D. holding referees who are specialists in field of the study. Some of the referees made some suggestions and amendments here and there to improve the structuring of certain statements or variables, and others have agreed about the suitability of the questionnaire. In anyway, all the suggestions have been accepted and corrections were made accordingly. The following table is showing the referees and their jobs and places of work.

Table (3-5)The questionnaire's referees and their jobs and places of work

Place of work	Qualification	Job	Name	No.
SUST	Ph.D holder	Asso. Prof	Abdallah Yassin Abdallah	1
SUST	Ph.D holder	Lecturer	Hilary M. Pitia	2
SUST	Ph.D holder	Lecturer	Wigdan Yaghoub	3
Omdurman Islamic University	Ph.D	Assoc.Prof	Ahmed Mukhtar	4.
Sudan Open University	Ph.D	Asst. Prof	Kiryia Mohamed Nasr	5.

3.6 Statistical Reliability and Validity:

Reliability of any test is to obtain the same results if the same measurement have reintroduced more than one time under the same conditions. In addition, the reliability means when a certain test was applied on a number of individuals and the marks of every one were counted; then the same test applied another time on the same group and the same marks were obtained; then we can describe this test as reliable. In addition, reliability is defined as the degree of the accuracy of the data that the test measures. Here are some of the most used methods for calculating the reliability:

1. Split-half by using Spearman-Brown equation.
2. Alpha-Cronbach coefficient.
3. Test and Re-test method
4. Equivalent images method.
5. Guttman equation.

On the other hand, validity also is a measure used to identify the validity degree among the respondents according to their answers on certain criterion. The validity is counted by a number of methods, among them is the validity using the square root of the (reliability coefficient). The value of the reliability and the validity lies in the range between (0-1). The validity of the questionnaire is that the tool should measure the exact aim, which it has been designed for. The following equation has been used to calculate the validity statistically.

$$\text{Validity} = \sqrt{\text{Reliability}}$$

Split half method was the equation applied to measure the the reliability coefficient for the measurement. This method stands on the

principle of dividing the answers of the sample individuals into two parts, i.e. items of the odd numbers e.g. (1, 3, 5, ...) and answers of the even numbers e.g. (2,4,6 ...). Then Pearson correlation coefficient between the two parts is calculated. Finally, the (reliability coefficient) was calculated according to Spearman-Brown Equation as the following:

$$\text{Reliability Coefficient} = \frac{2 \times r}{1 + r}$$

r = Pearson correlation coefficient

The above equation was employed in order to prove the questionnaire valid and reliable and that as many as (30) respondents have been asked to respond to the variables provided by the questionnaire.

Statistical Instruments

In order to satisfy the study objectives and to test its hypotheses, we use the following statistical instruments:

1. Graphical figures.
2. Frequency distribution.
3. Person correlation coefficient.
4. Spearman-Brown equation for calculating Reliability coefficient.
5. Median.
6. Non-parametric Chi-square test.

In order to obtain accurate results, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used. In addition, to design the graphical figures, which are needed for the study, the computer program (Excel) was also used.

3.7 Administration of the Study's Tools:

After the step of checking questionnaire reliability and validity, the researcher had distributed the questionnaire on determined study sample (30) persons, and the researcher constructed the required tables for collected data. This step consists of transformation of the qualitative (nominal) variables (Strongly agree, Agree, Not sure, Disagree, Strongly disagree) to quantitative variables (5, 4, 3, 2, 1) respectively, also the graphical representation have been applied for this purpose.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the analysis of data obtained from experiment, pre-test, post test and teachers' questionnaire.

4.1 Analysis of the Experiment.

The analysis of the experiment will focus on answering vital questions on the role of motivation on language learning and its effects on classroom interaction as well as its effect on the overall standards of the students' interlanguage and knowledge of English. To answer these questions, we computed the mean, standard deviation, standard error and ranges for the pretest- and post-test scores of both experimental and control groups. T-test was computed to find out whether each group had made any progress as a direct result of instruction. The following three hypotheses will be verified or confirmed in view of the analysis of the diagnostic test, Discourse Completion Test (DCT) as well as the questionnaire for the tutors and students.

4.2 Analysis of the Questionnaire

The researcher distributed the questionnaire on determined study sample (102), and constructed the required tables for collected data. This step consists transformation of the qualitative (nominal) variables (yes , No , to some extent , and strongly agree) to quantitative variables (1, 2, 3,) respectively, also the graphical representations were used for this purpose.**Statistical Reliability**

Reliability refers to the reliability of any test, to obtaining the same results if the same measurement is used more than one time under the same conditions. In addition, the reliability means when a certain test was

applied on a number of individuals and the marks of every one were counted; then the same test applied another time on the same group and the same marks were obtained; then we can describe this test as reliable. In addition, reliability is defined as the degree of the accuracy of the data that the test measures. Here are some of the most used methods for calculating the reliability:

Alpha-Cronach coefficient.

On the other hand, validity also is a measure used to identify the validity degree among the respondents according to their answers on certain criterion. The validity is counted by a number of methods, among them is the validity using the square root of the (reliability coefficient). The value of the reliability and the validity lies in the range between (0-1). The validity of the questionnaire is that the tool should measure the exact aim, which it has been designed for.

In this study the validity calculated by using the following equation:

$$\text{Validity} = \sqrt{\text{Reliability}}$$

The reliability coefficient was calculated for the measurement, which was used in the questionnaire using Alpha-Cronbach coefficient Equation as the following:

For calculating the validity and the reliability of the questionnaire from the above equation, the researcher distributed (20) questionnaires to respondents to calculate the reliability coefficient using the Alpha-Cronbach coefficient; the results have been showed in the following table

Reliability Statistics

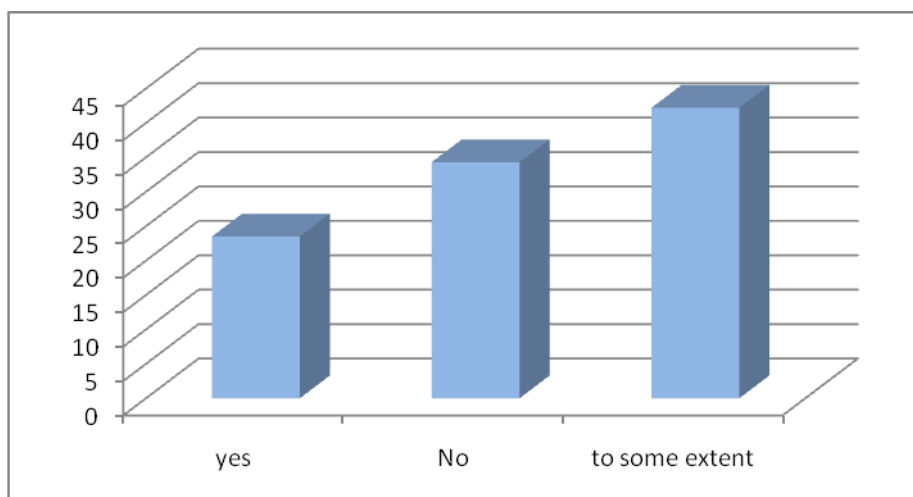
N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
20	.75

Statement (*Do you often become afraid to speak English in classroom at the presence of your peers.*):

Table (4.1) : the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents according to the statement (1)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
23.5	23.5	23.5	24	Yes
57.8	34.3	34.3	35	No
100.0	42.2	42.2	43	to some extent
	100.0	100.0	102	Total

From the above table (4.1) and figure (4) it's shown that, the number of respondent who answered yes to the question (*Do you often become afraid to speak English at the presence of your peers?*) was (24) with percentage (23.5%) and the number of respondents who answered No to that question was (35) with percentage (34.3%), and the respondents who answered some time was (43) with percentage (42.2%).



Certainly, quite a big number of students are afraid to get involved in any kind of activity under the observation or sight of others even their peers. This a natural type of apprehension which can be surmounted through the tutor’s motivation and encouragement to their students to take active parts on variety of tasks. This verifies the third hypothesis of this study which states that *some learners are afraid to take any active part in front of their peers in the classroom.*

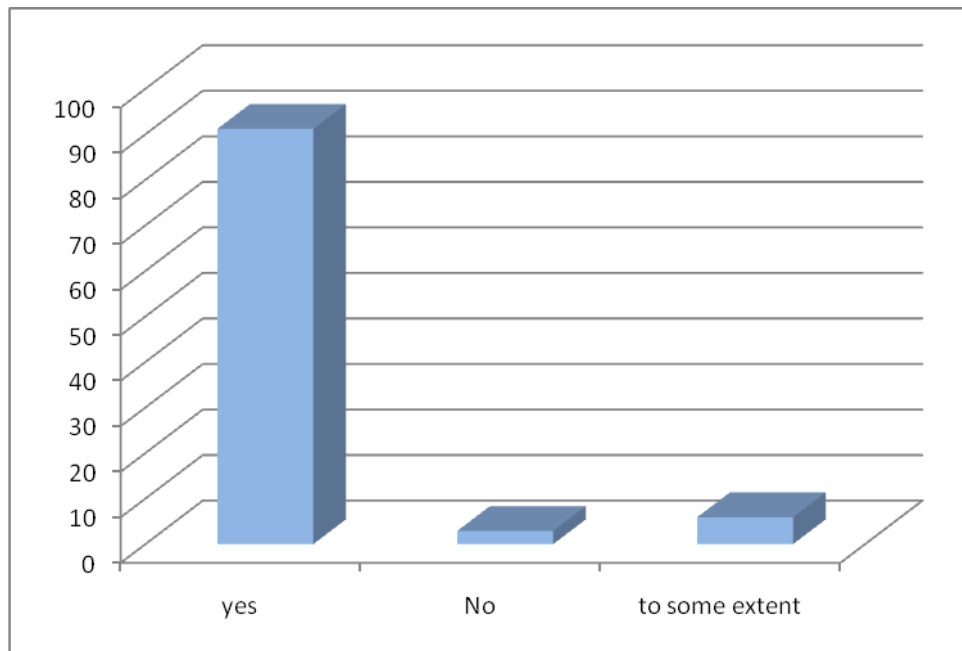
Statement (*Does your tutor encourage and motivate you to speak English during the lecture?*):

Table (4.2) : the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents according to the statement (2)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
91.2	91.2	91.2	93	Yes
94.1	2.9	2.9	3	No
100.0	5.9	5.9	6	To some extent
	100.0	100.0	102	Total

From the above table (4.2) and figure (5) it's shown that , the number of respondent who answered yes to the question (*Does your tutor encourage and motivate you to speak English during the lecture ?*) was (93) with percentage (91.2%) and the number of respondents who answered No to that question was (3) with percentage (2.9%), and the respondents who answered some time was (6) with percentage (5.9%).

Good tutors always tend to motivate their students to take active part on the classroom tasks. Tutors should be well informed of their students' psychological and emotional problems to help them overcome their hurdles and become involved with their classroom mates.



Tutors should interfere every now and then to support their students to have self-confidence through excessive encouragement not to neglect to highlight even their insignificant contributions. The fact that a higher self-confidence enhances the individual's motivation gives anyone with a vested interest in his performance an incentive to build up and maintain his self-esteem. This confirms the first hypothesis of the study

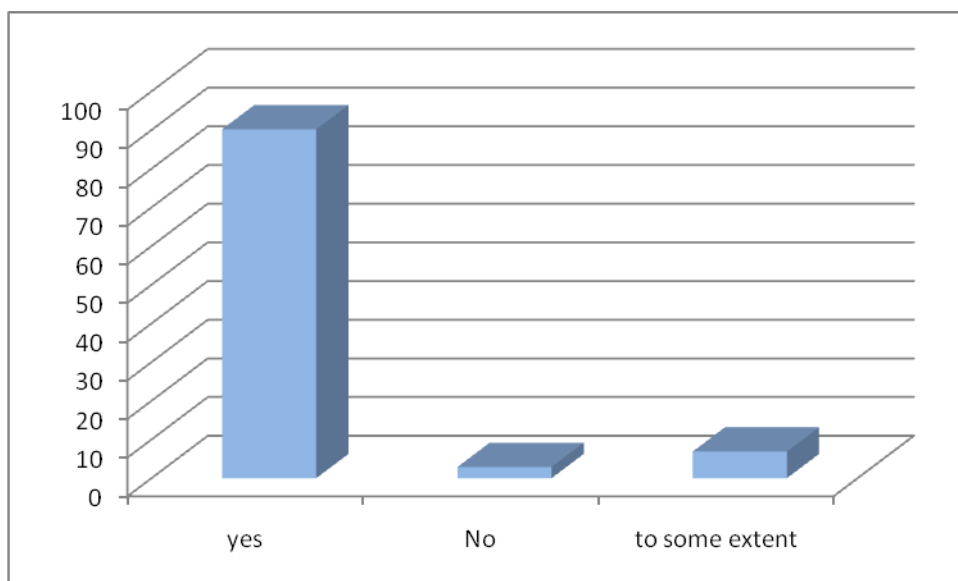
which maintains that *Self-esteem and motivation carefully taken care of can help students develop and improve their oral abilities.*

Statement (*Do you have the desire to speak a lot in English?*):

(4.3): the frequency and percentage distribution of the responding to the statement (3)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
90.2	90.2	90.2	92	Yes
93.1	2.9	2.9	3	No
100.0	6.9	6.9	7	to some extent
	100.0	100.0	102	Total

From the above table (4.3) and figure (6) it's shown that, the number of respondent who answered yes to the question (*Do you not have the desire to speak a lot in English?*) was (92) with percentage (90.2%) and the number of respondents who answered No to that question was (3) with percentage (9.2%), and the respondents who answered some time was (7) with percentage (6.9%).



One of the main factors that improve the speaking skill in the learning process is the interaction between learners. The following diagram of Scrivener (2005:86) shows how students interact with each other. This will have the effect that students will want to speak more as they communicate without any fear or apprehension from the teacher. The teacher-learner interaction leads learners to improve their speaking and listening skills. Teachers must pay attention to their language in the classroom because of the importance role that the language plays in effective interaction. Furthermore, teachers should take into consideration the level of learners in order to provide suitable content to the learners and to identify the way of speaking that motivate them. The more students feel the craving or need to speak to their peers the more they learn. They are intrinsically motivated or naturally inclined to speaking.

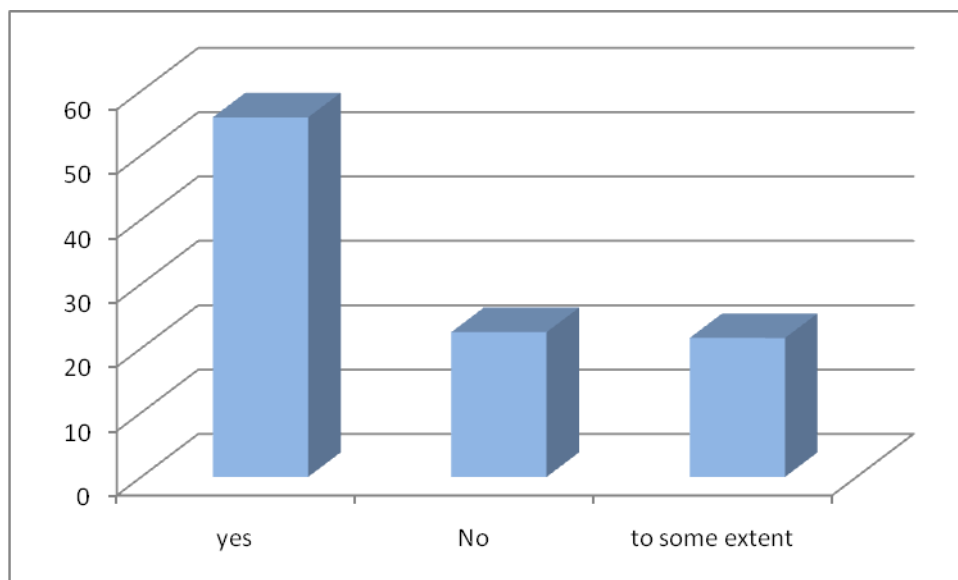
Statement (*Do you find it difficult to speak English?*):

Table (4.4) : the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents according to the statement (4)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
55.9	55.9	55.9	57	Yes
78.4	22.5	22.5	23	No
100.0	21.6	21.6	22	to some extent
	100.0	100.0	102	Total

From the above table (4.4) and figure (7) it's shown that, the number of respondent who answered yes to the question (*Do you find it*

difficult to speak English?) was (57) with percentage (55.9%) and the number of respondents who answered No to that question was (23) with percentage (22.5%), and the respondents who answered some time was (22) with percentage (21.6%)



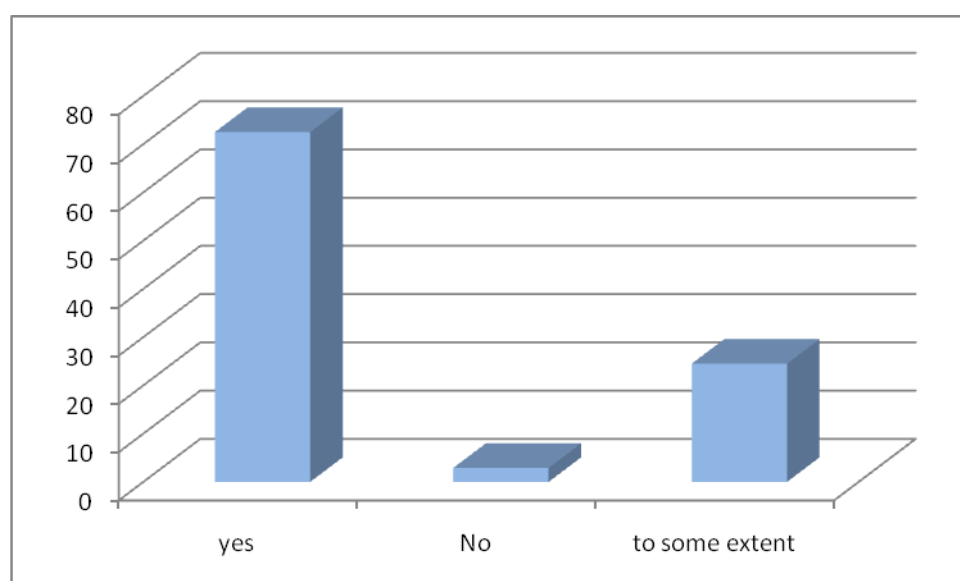
According to Naegle (2002:128), “talking students with their peers about the content of the course is a powerful way for them to reinforce what they have learned.” This means that speaking among learners themselves can raise the desire to learn the language and make them active rather than passive participants. Teachers then should encourage such type of interaction between learners because it promotes the sense of learning community and reduces the negative psychological factors that influence learners’ personalities. Scriverener (2005) says that the purpose of communicative activity is to make learners interact in realistic and practical ways. So, learner-learner interaction gives learners confidence to speak the language naturally, develops collaborative works and provides a basis for language learning in general. In such a situation where all learners are actively taking part in the dialogue or speech, learners will never find it difficult to speak.

Statement No. (5) (Is English your favorite subject?):

Table (4.5) : the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents according to the statement (5)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
72.5	72.5	72.5	74	Yes
75.5	2.9	2.9	3	No
100.0	24.5	24.5	25	to some extent
	100.0	100.0	102	Total

From the above table (4.5) and figure (8) it's shown that, the number of respondent who answered yes to the question (*Is English your favorite subject?*) was (74) with percentage (72.5%) and the number of respondents who answered No to that question was (3) with percentage (2.9%), and the respondents who answered some time was (25) with percentage (24 .5%).



Tutors must take into consideration that there are many factors that interact when the learners experience speaking the foreign language; therefore, they should provide a wealth of information about communicative strategies in their activities to make learners aware about their own learning styles and to give them more opportunities to speak the foreign language. Oral expression activities are helpful for learners to practice the language individually or within the group. When the tutors fail to provide their students with enough examples to practice speaking the effect will be damaging that some of those who could not take part may develop a negative feeling towards English. English will no longer be their favorite subject.

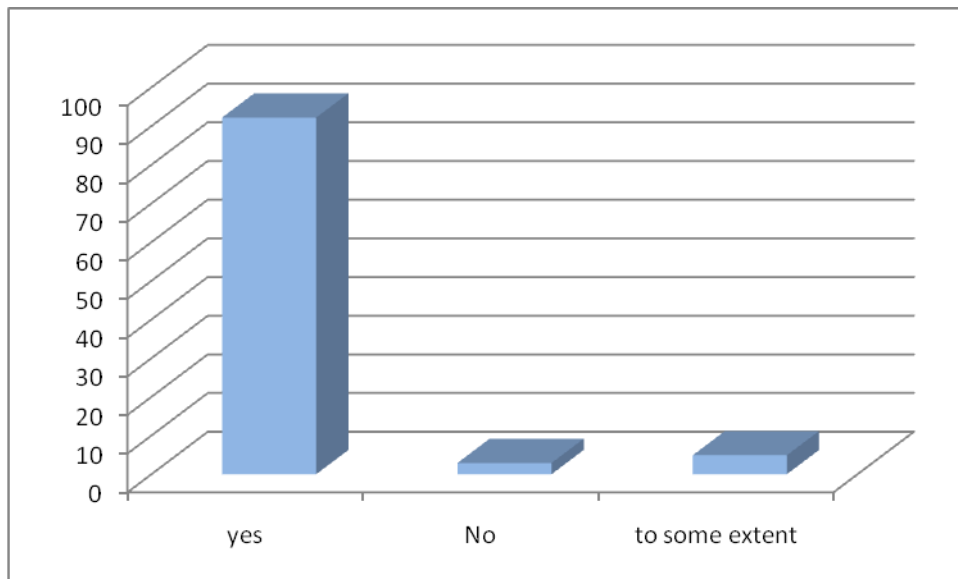
Statement (*Do you speak English outside the class?*):

Table (4.6) : the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents according to the statement (6)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
92.2	92.2	92.2	94	yes
95.1	2.9	2.9	3	No
100.0	4.9	4.9	5	to some extent
	100.0	100.0	102	Total

From the above table (4.6) and figure (9) it's shown that the number of respondent who answered yes to the question (*Do you speak English outside the class?*) was (94) with percentage (92.2%) and the number of respondents who answered No to that question was (3) with

percentage (2.9%), and the respondents who answered some time was (5) with percentage (4.9%)



Students hardly practice their English language outside the classroom as they feel apprehended or shy of the community whose members use only mother tongue. Some students are of the opinion that English is only used in the classroom.

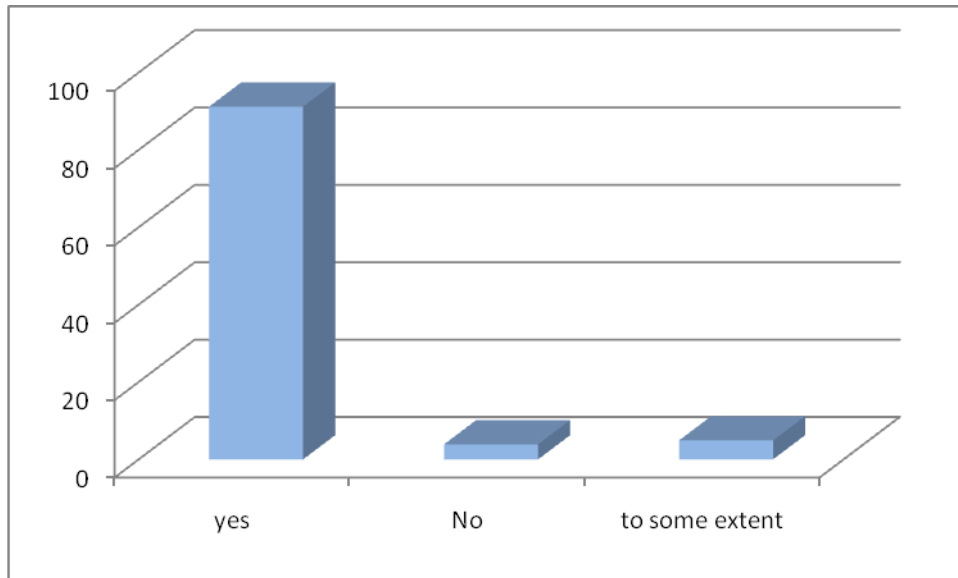
Statement (*Do you participate in answering question?*):

Table (4.7) : the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents according to the statement (7)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
91.2	91.2	91.2	93	Yes
95.1	3.9	3.9	4	No
100.0	4.9	4.9	5	to some extent
	100.0	100.0	102	Total

From the above table (4.7) and figure (10) it's shown that, the number of respondent who answered yes to the question (*Do you participate in*

answering question?) was (93) with percentage (91.2%) and the number of respondents who answered No to that question was (4) with percentage (3.9%), and the respondents who answered some time was (5) with percentage (4.9%)

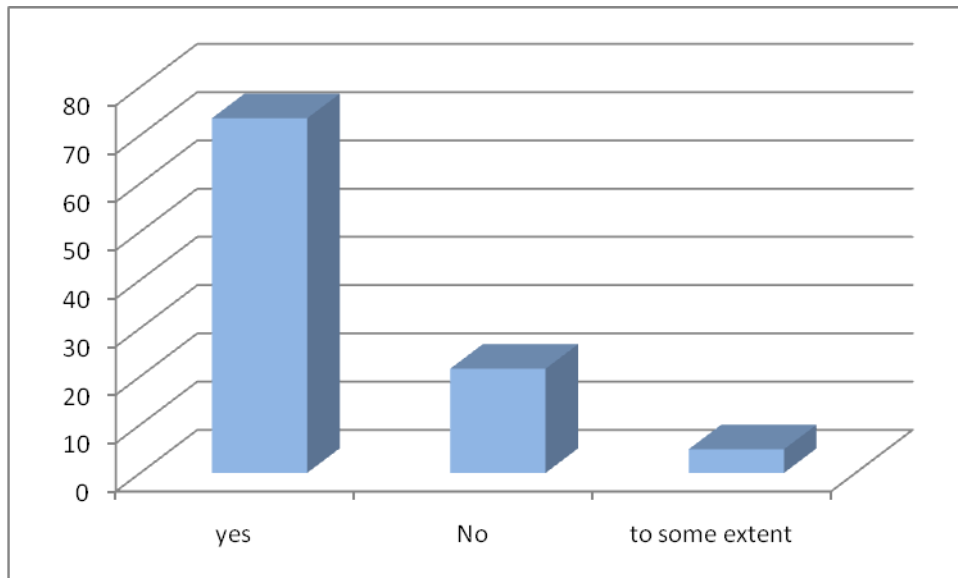


Statement (*Do you feel shy when you fail to answer a question?*):

Table (4.8) : the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents according to the statement (8)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
73.5	73.5	73.5	75	Yes
95.1	21.6	21.6	22	No
100.0	4.9	4.9	5	to some extent
	100.0	100.0	102	Total

From the above table (4.8) and figure (11) it's shown that , the number of respondents who answered yes to the question (*Do you feel shy when you fail to answer a question*) was (75) with percentage (73.5%) and the number of respondents who answered No to that question was (22) with percentage (21.6%) , and the respondents who answered some time was (5) with percentage (4.9%).



Education is a process of growth and development which takes place in students, when they work at it under favorable or unfavorable circumstances. The content of education is not a body of knowledge. It is a cluster of attitudes, feelings, perceptions, insights, abilities and skills of which the ability to think independently and clearly is of the first importance. No less valuable is the ability to experience life fully and honestly.

Knowledge, as far as education is concerned, is a means to this end and not an end in itself. For the student, there is no knowledge until the student involves himself in getting it. Until the student does something with it, it is only a set of materials waiting to be transformed into living thoughts, ideas and attitudes. In other words, knowledge exists as something known by someone. It has no independent reality of its own.

Hence, classroom practitioners should not only pay attention to question of presenting information and filling the minds of students with lexical items and the like. They should consider their attitudes and emotions and help them to become active and overcome their inhibitions which prevent them from taking parts in the process of learning, as they are afraid.

It is therefore important to understand and assess students' emotions and behavior before stuffing them with knowledge and information.

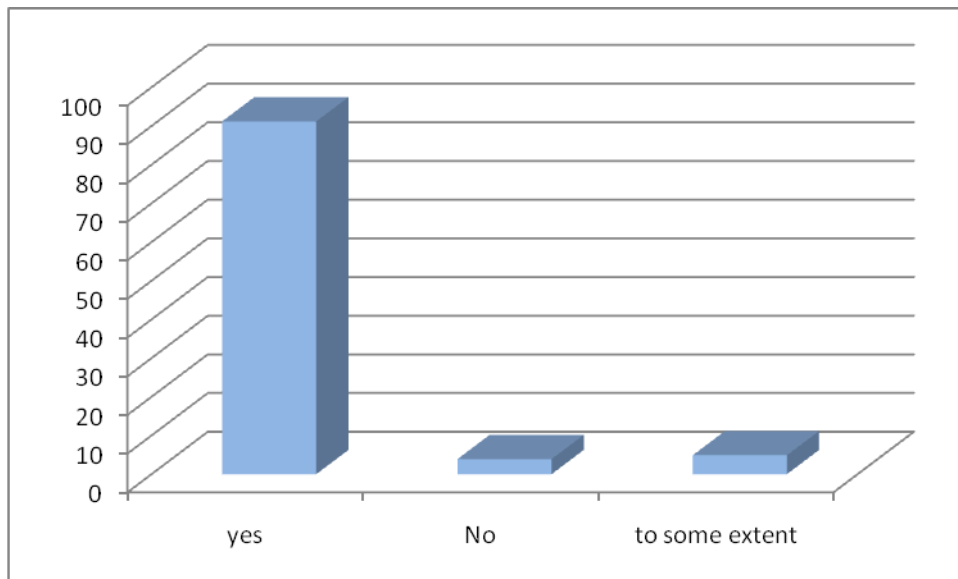
Part two: Self-esteem scale

Statement (*Do you feel comfortable when you speak English or take part in the classroom?*):

Table (4.9) : the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents according to the statement (8)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
91.2	91.2	91.2	93	Yes
95.1	3.9	3.9	4	No
100.0	4.9	4.9	5	to some extent
	100.0	100.0	102	Total

From the above table (4.9) and figure (12) it's shown that, the number of respondent who answered yes to the question (*Do you feel comfortable when you speak English or take part in the classroom?*): was (93) with percentage (91.2%) and the number of respondents who answered No to that question was (4) with percentage (3.3%), and the respondents who answered some time was (5) with percentage (4.9%)



In the main, most education systems do not help youngsters to understand the components of their conscious and unconscious personalities, the mechanisms of the brain, the operation of the intelligence, the laws governing their physical development, the meaning of dreams and operations, the nature of their relations with one another and with the community at large. Tutors have to help students to think independently and assess their abilities to discover their weaknesses so that they should set about correcting them and feel relaxed particularly when they take part in classroom activities. Knowing one's limitations is in itself a big positive step as it will lift up self-esteem and deepen sense of self-confidence.

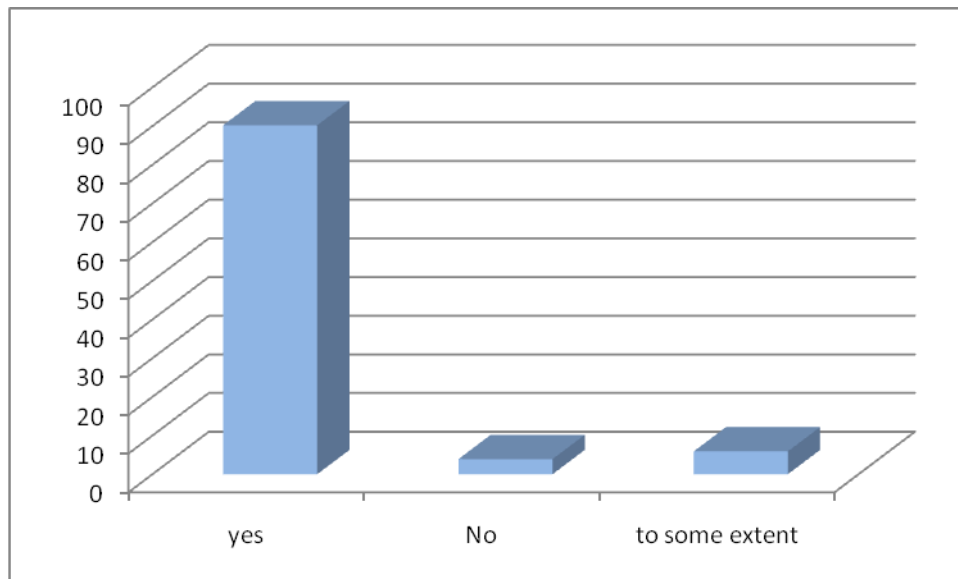
Statement (*Do you feel shy or nervous to speak English in public?*):

Table (4.10) : the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents according to the statement (9)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
90.2	90.2	90.2	92	Yes
94.1	3.9	3.9	4	No
100.0	5.9	5.9	6	to some extent
	100.0	100.0	102	Total

From the above table (4.10) and figure (13) its shown that , the number of respondent who answered yes to the question (*Do you feel shy or nervous to speak English in public?*) was (92) with percentage (90.2%) and the number of respondents who answered No to that question was (4) with percentage (9.3%) , and the respondents who answered some time was (6) with percentage (5.9%)

Many non-native English students have fear of speaking the language because of the thought that they may end up speaking English incorrectly, which may make them look foolish in front of an audience (Steward, 2011). Certainly, during the learning process of English as a foreign language, the development of the oral skill is affected by anxiety and fear of speaking in public.



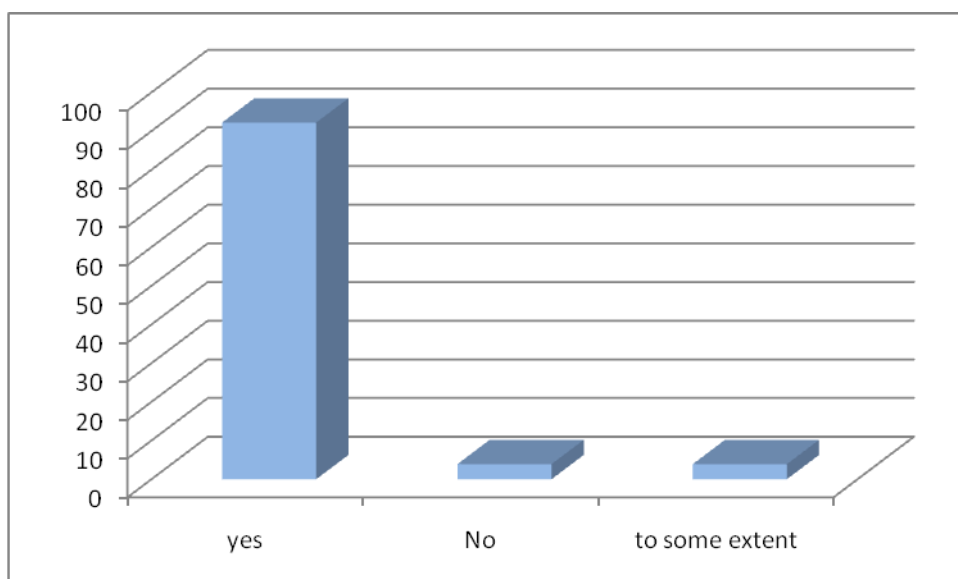
Researchers found out that Advanced English students experience fear or anxiety when speaking English in public inside and outside of the classroom. The students expressed that this fear or anxiety occurs because they have poor vocabulary, and they are afraid of making mistakes in front of people since they do not want people to mock at them. They also expressed that they get nervous and confused when speaking English. Some the students claimed that they panic when they have to speak English without preparation in advance. He added that he trembles when he is going to be called on to speak English. Another student stated that even if she is well-prepared, she feels anxious about speaking English. Moreover, the students more than once stated that when speaking English in public, they start speaking English normally, but all of a sudden, they do not find the words to express their ideas so that they stop speaking. In addition, Sudanese students particularly expressed that they feel ashamed when speaking English in front of their classmates because some students speak better than they do, and this is the reason why they tend to believe that if they make mistakes, the rest of their classmates will make fun of them. So the role of tutors is to help them out of their psychological predicament of inhibition.

Statement (Do you speak English in class without a feeling of anxiety?):

Table (4.11) : the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents according to the statement (10)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
92.2	92.2	92.2	94	Yes
96.1	3.9	3.9	4	No
100.0	3.9	3.9	4	to some extent
	100.0	100.0	102	Total

From the above table (4.11) and figure (14) its shown that , the number of respondent who answered yes to the question (*Do you speak English in class without a feeling of anxiety?*): was (94) with percentage (92.2%) and the number of respondents who answered No to that question was (4) with percentage (3.9%) , and the respondents who answered some time was (4) with percentage (3.9%)



Students are not afraid to speak in class compared with outside environment which is teeming with strangers who are not their classroom mates. “Teachers are always after students’ mistakes,” she said. “Teachers should give strategies on how to cope with students’ challenges instead of concentrating themselves on every mistake that students make.” Moreover, she expressed that Intensive Advanced English II students do not possess enough vocabulary they need to express their ideas. That is why, students feel unconfident when they have to speak English.

Statement (*Do you feel relaxed to speak English in presentations?*):

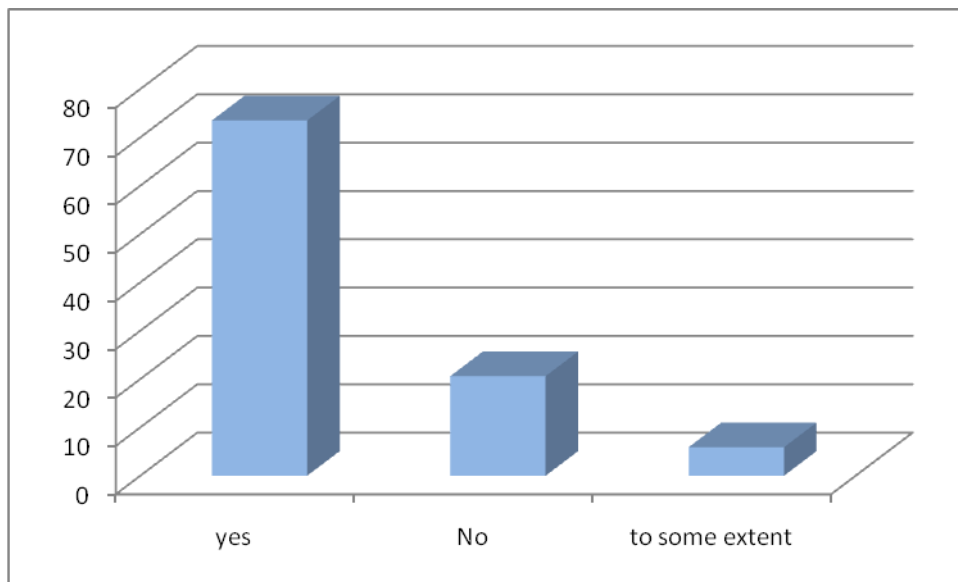
Table (4.12) : the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents according to the statement (11)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
73.5	73.5	73.5	75	Yes
94.1	20.6	20.6	21	No
100.0	5.9	5.9	6	to some extent
	100.0	100.0	102	Total

From the above table (4.12) and figure (15) it’s shown that, the number of respondent who answered yes to the question (*Do you feel relaxed to speak English in presentations*) was (75) with percentage (73.5%) and the number of respondents who answered No to that

question was (21) with percentage (20.6%), and the respondents who answered some time was (6) with percentage (5.9%).

Lack of clear objectives results in anxiety and perplexity. So in presentations and seminars students are prepared and have a plan. The fear or anxiety that students have can affect their academic development not only in their grades, but also in their performance at the end of their major since she has observed that when students reach the fifth year of the major,



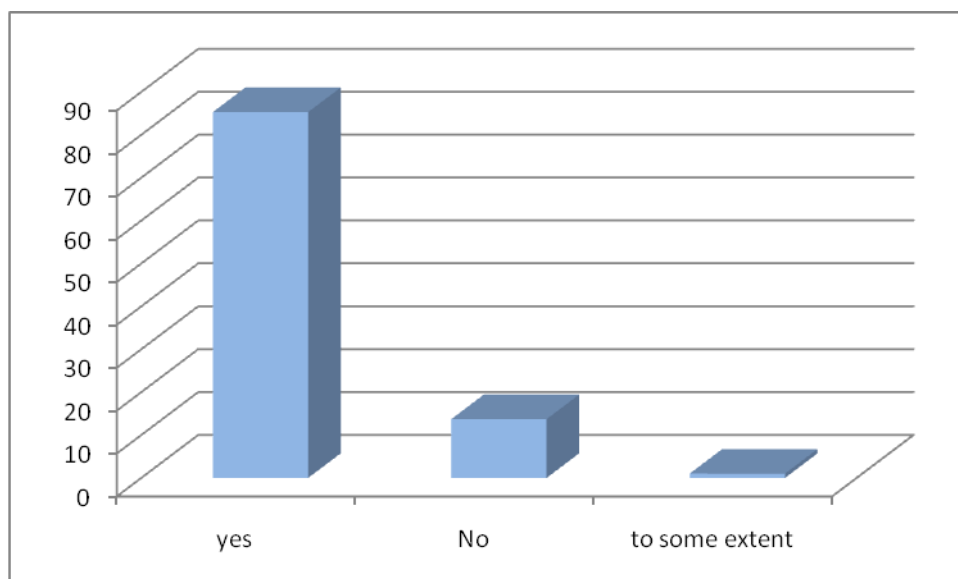
Some students speak very well, but some others speak really poorly. Finally, she stated that in some cases, students do not have clear objectives of what they are doing, and they do not practice the English language. Therefore, students' results will be bad grades and performance.

Statement: *(Are you afraid of making mistake when answering the teacher's question?)*

Table (4.13): the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents according to the statement (12)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
85.3	85.3	85.3	87	Yes
99.0	13.7	13.7	14	No
100.0	1.0	1.0	1	to some extent
	100.0	100.0	102	Total

From the above table (4.13) and figure (16) it's shown that, the number of respondent who answered yes to the question (*Are you afraid of making mistake when answering the teacher's question?*) was (87) with percentage (85.3%) and the number of respondents who answered No to that question was (14) with percentage (13.7%), and the respondents who answered some time was (1) with percentage (1.0%).



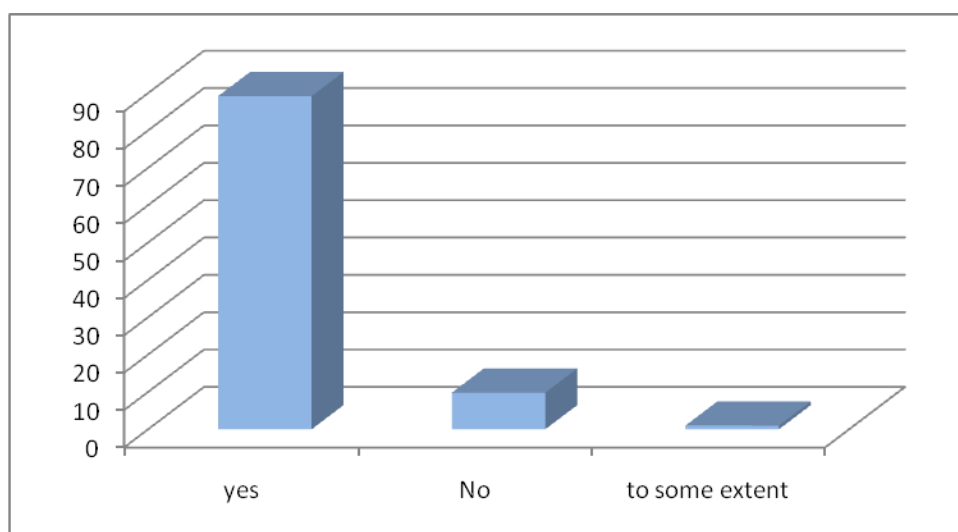
Answering teachers' questions in classroom is not a difficult affair that almost all students do without hesitation or anxiety unlike public speaking. Students experiencing public speaking anxiety say they are concerned they will be embarrassed if they speak. They say they are worried they will make a mistake, look "stupid" to others, or be judged unattractive. Some students say they get upset thinking about others looking at them or being the center of attention. Others express the belief that no one would be interested in anything they would have to say, or that nothing they would say would be worthwhile. The bottom line is fear of unfavorable evaluation by others. Many students reveal that their public speaking anxiety started after an upsetting or humiliating public speaking experience when they were in elementary or high school. Some students feel their oral presentation must be perfect (something, of course, not expected or reasonable), and feel anxious due to their self-imposed pressure for perfection.

Statement: *(Are you afraid of being laughed at when standing up to speak English in the classroom?)*

Table (4.14) : the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents according to the statement (13)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
89.2	89.2	89.2	91	yes
99.0	9.8	9.8	10	No
100.0	1.0	1.0	1	to some extent
	100.0	100.0	102	Total

From the above table (4.14) and figure (17) it's shown that, the number of respondent who answered yes to the question (*Are you afraid of being laughed at when standing up to speak English in the classroom*) was (91) with percentage (89.2%) and the number of respondents who answered No to that question was (10) with percentage (9.8%), and the respondents who answered some time was (1) with percentage (1.0%).



Students should be motivated not laughed at by their peers or tutors. Motivation is an important factor in learning a second and foreign language (Gardner, Scarcella & Oxford, 1992), (as cited in Lucas, Pulido, Miraflores, Ignacio, Tacay, & Lao, 2010, p. 3). It is defined as the individual's attitudes, desires, and effort (Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997), (as cited in Lucas, et al, 2010, p. 3). Moreover, Ryan and Deci (2000), (as cited in Lucas, et al., 2010, p. 3), define motivation as concerning energy, direction, persistence and equifinality-all aspects of activation and intention.

In the field of second language acquisition (SLA), motivation has been identified as one of the key factors that determine L2 achievement and attainment. It serves as an impetus to generate learning initially and

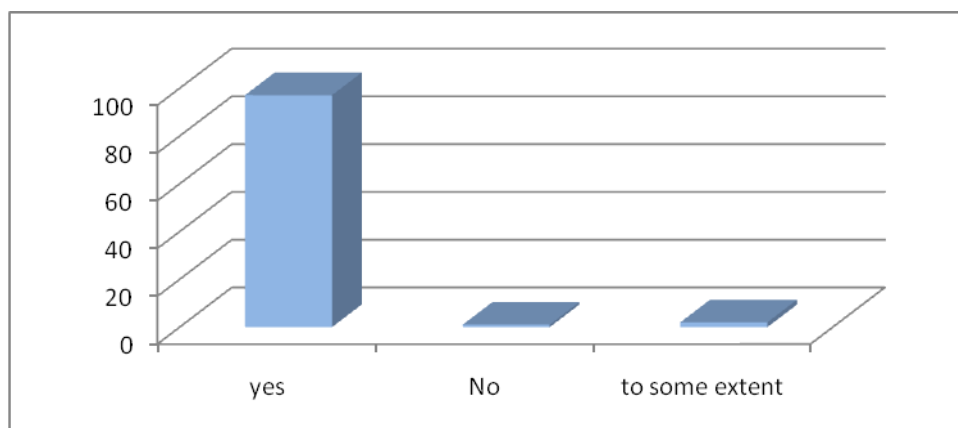
later as a sustaining force to the tedious process of acquiring a target language (Cheng & Dornyei, 2007), (as cited in Lucas, et al, 2010, p. 3-4).

Statement: (*Does your teacher encourage you to practice speaking English in the classroom?*)

Table (4.15) : the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents according to the statement (14)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
97.1	97.1	97.1	99	Yes
98.0	1.0	1.0	1	No
100.0	2.0	2.0	2	to some extent
	100.0	100.0	102	Total

From the above table (4.15) and figure (18) it is shown that , the number of respondent who answered yes to the question (*Does your teacher encourage you to practice speaking English in the classroom?*) was (99) with percentage (97.1%) and the number of respondents who answered No to that question was (1) with percentage (1.0%) , and the respondents who answered some time was (2) with percentage (2.0%).



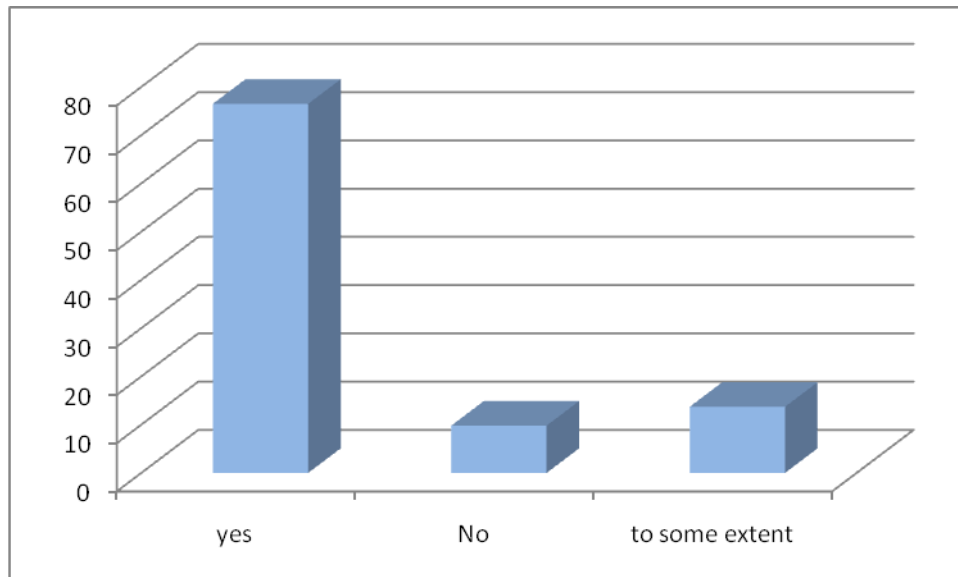
Motivation is one of the main determinants of second/foreign language (L2) learning achievement. In the last thirty years, there had been considerable amount of research done that explores on the nature and role of motivation in the L2 learning process. Canadian psychologists Gardner and Lambert who, with the help of their colleagues and students grounded motivation research in a social psychological framework have initiated the bulk of these researches. They also established scientific research procedures and introduced standardized assessment techniques and instruments thus bringing L2 motivation research to reach its zenith in the field of research (Dornyei, 1994), (as cited in Lucas et al, 2010, p. 4-5).

Statement: (*Do you get nervous and confused when you speak in language lecture?*)

Table (4.16) : the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents according to the statement (15)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
76.5	76.5	76.5	78	Yes
86.3	9.8	9.8	10	No
100.0	13.7	13.7	14	to some extent
	100.0	100.0	102	Total

From the above table (4.16) and figure (19) its shown that , the number of respondent who answered yes to the question (*Do you get nervous and confused when you speak in language lecture ?*) was (78) with percentage (76.5%) and the number of respondents who answered No to that question was (10) with percentage (9.8%) , and the respondents who answered some time was (14) with percentage (13.0%)



Ryan, Kuhl and Deci (1997), (as cited in Lucas et al, 2010, p. 5), introduced the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) which they defined as an approach to human motivation and personality that utilizes traditional empirical methods while employing a meta-theory that highlights the importance of human's evolved inner resources for personality development and behavioral self-regulation. This approach examines people's inherent growth tendencies and innate psychological needs that are the basis for their self-motivation and personality integration, as well as for the conditions that foster those positive processes.

There are students who are by nature and up-brining easily get confused when speaking at the presence of others who are not family members. Tutors should help encourage these students to cope with their

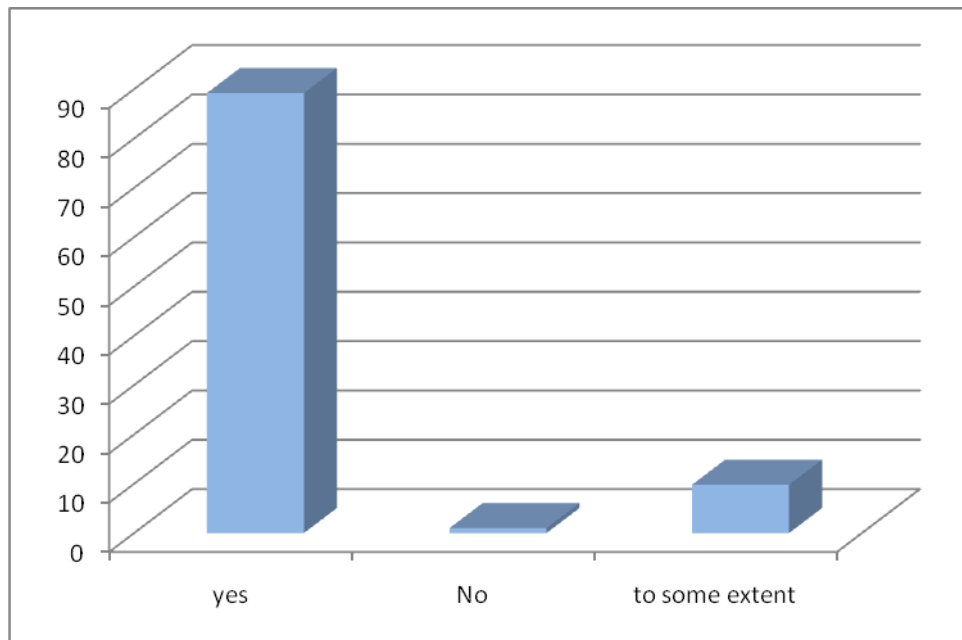
peers. There are students who were exposed to severe or strict type of upbringing which later had such an impact on their behavior.

Statement: *(Do you get nervous when the language teacher asks questions?)*

Table (4.17) : the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents according to the statement (16)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
89.2	89.2	89.2	91	Yes
90.2	1.0	1.0	1	No
100.0	9.8	9.8	10	to some extent
	100.0	100.0	102	Total

From the above table (4.17) and figure (20) it's shown that , the number of respondent who answered yes to the question *(Do you get nervous when the language teacher asks questions ?)* was (91) with percentage (89.2%) and the number of respondents who answered No to that question was (1) with percentage (1.0%) , and the respondents who answered some time was (10) with percentage (9.8%)



Some students become extremely nervous in situations when questions were posed by the teacher and answers are elicited quite randomly. They are not prepared to answer the questions and hence they become nervous or to be laughed at and ridiculed. Due to the fact that language anxiety is a psychological construct, it most likely stems from the learner's own self as an intrinsic motivator, e.g., his or her perceptions about others (peers, teachers, interlocutors, etc.) and target language communication situations, his/her beliefs about L2/FL learning, etc. Language anxiety may be a result as well as a cause of insufficient command of the target language.

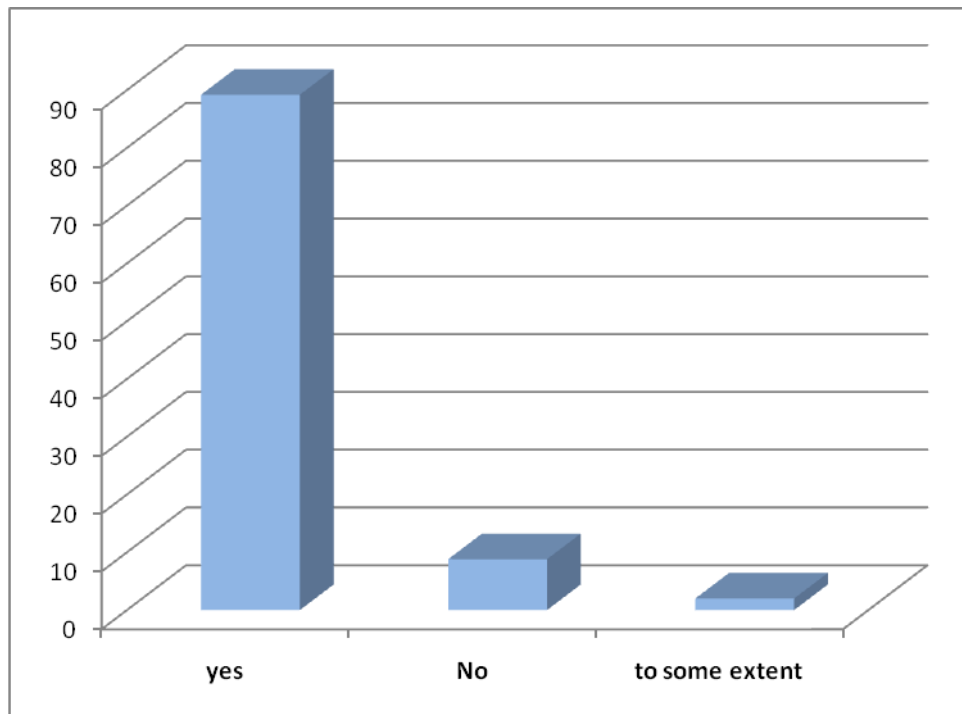
Statement: (*Do you fail to express your ideas and talk in English fluently?*)

Table (4.18) : the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents according to the statement (17)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
89.2	89.2	89.2	90	Yes
98.0	8.8	8.8	9	No
100.0	2.0	2.0	3	to some extent
	100.0	100.0	102	Total

From the above table (4.18) and figure (21) its shown that , the number of respondent who answered yes to the question (*Do you fail to say your ideas and talk in English fluently ?*) was (91) with percentage (89.2%) and the number of respondents who answered No to that question was (9) with percentage (9.8%) , and the respondents who answered some time was (3) with percentage (2.9%)

Fluency never aligns with anxiety or any psychological disorder or negative feelings of emotions. According to Hilgard, Atkinson, & Atkinson, (1971), (as cited in Tanveer, 2007, p. 1), “Anxiety is a psychological construct, commonly described by psychologists as a state of apprehension, a vague



Fear that is only indirectly associated with an object.” Anxiety, as perceived intuitively by many language learners, negatively influences language learning and has been found to be one of the most highly examined variables in psychology and education. These authors admitted that psychologists make a distinction between three categories of anxiety: trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety .Trait anxiety is relatively attached to personality characteristics, a more permanent predisposition to be anxious while state anxiety is a transient anxiety, a response to a particular anxiety-provoking stimulus such as an important test.

Chi –square test for the hypothesis of the study:

p-value	Chi square	SD	mean	Statement	No.
0.000	22	4.1	1.7	Do you get afraid to speak English during the section of speaking ?	1
0.000	19	0.5	1.6	Does the teacher encourage and motivate you to speak English during the lecture ?	2
0.000	31	0.9	1.5	Do you feel interest when you speak English?	3
0.000	22	1.6	1.9	Do you get afraid when you present any topic in English ?	4
0.000	36	0.7	1.6	Do you have the desire to speak a lot in English ?	5
0.000	23	1.5	1.7	Do you face difficulties to speak English ?	6
0.000	22	0.6	1.8	Is English your favorite subject ?	7
0.001	38	3.5	1.1	Do you speak English outside the class?	8
0.000	22	1.6	1.9	Do you participate in answering questions?	9
0.000	36	0.7	1.6	Do you feel shy when you fail to answer a question?	10

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (1-1) was (22) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and

the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “Do you get afraid to speak English during the section of speaking ?”

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (2) was (19) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.6) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “motivate you to speak English during the lecture ?”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (3) was (31) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.5) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “Do you feel interest when you speak English?”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (4) was (22) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.9) which is greater than the

hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “Do you get afraid when you present any topic in English ?

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (5) was (32) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.6) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “Do you have the desire to speak a lot in English?
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (6) was (23) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.7) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “*Do you face difficulties to speak English?*
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (7) was (22) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “Is English your favorite subject?
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (8) was (38) which is greater

than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(3.1) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “ Do you speak English outside the class ?

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (9) was () which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “Do you participate in answering question?
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (10) was () which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(3.1) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement Do you feel shame when you fail to answer a question ?

Table (4.19) Chi –square test for the first part of the study

p-value	Chi square	SD	mean	Statement	Nom
0.000	27	2.1	1.8	Do you feel comfortable when speak English ?	1
0.000	29	1.5	1.7	Do you speak English in public ?	2
0.000	34	0.5	1.6	Do you speak English in class?	3
0.000	27	1.6	1.4	Do you speak English in presentations ?	4
0.000	23	2.7	1.9	Do you fear making mistake when answering the teacher's question?	5
0.000	30	1.5	1.7	Do you feel funny inside class, if you stand up and speak English?	6
0.000	24	0.6	1.8	Do you practices speaking English?	7
0.000	23	2.7	1.9	Do you get nervous and confused when you speak in language lecture?	8
0.000	30	1.5	1.7	Do you get nervous when the language teacher asks questions?	9
0.000	24	0.6	1.8	Do you fail to say your ideas and talk in English fluently ?	10

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (1-1) was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “Do you feel comfortable when speak English ?”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (2) was (29) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.7) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “Do you speak English in public ?”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (3) was (34) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.6) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement Do you speak English in class?”
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (4) was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are

statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.4) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “Do you speak English in presentations?

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (5) was (23) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.9) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “Do you fear making mistake when answering the teacher's question?
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (6) was (30) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.7) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “Do you feel funny inside class, if you stand up and speak English?
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the statement No (7) was (24) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.8) which is greater than

the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “Do you practices speaking English? “

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (8) was (33) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (3.2) which are greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement Do you get nervous and confused when you speak in language lecture?”

4.3 Test of the Study Hypotheses

To answer the study's questions and hence verify its hypotheses, the median will be computed for each question from the diagnostic test, Discourse Completion Test (DCT) as well as the questionnaire that shows the opinions of the study respondents about the problem in question, namely expanding classroom interaction to reinforce interlanguage and pragmatic or what is known as pragmalinguistic communicative competence. To accomplish this task five degrees for each answer "strongly agree", four degrees for each answer "agree", three degrees for each answer "neutral", two degrees with each answer "disagree", and one degree for each answer with "strongly disagree" will be given. This means, in accordance with the statistical analysis requirements, transformation of nominal variables to quantitative variables. After that, we will use the non-parametric chi-square test to know if there are statistical differences amongst the respondents' answers about hypotheses questions. The hypotheses to be tested are as follows:

1. Self-esteem and motivation carefully taken care of can help students develop and improve their oral abilities.
2. Syllabuses at undergraduate level were not designed in a way to furnish students with the desired elements of oral skills.
3. Some learners are afraid to take any active part in front of their peers in the classroom.

In order to maximize classroom interaction and certain language material was chosen for conducting the diagnostic as well as the DCT, as the outcome of the two tests will also give insights into the type of teaching material to be used to enhance classroom interaction. The material was taken from the internet as this web-based learning, students' syllabus and other resources. As far as the diagnostic test is concerned, the first question was intended to check the students' vocabulary as regards cultural knowledge of native speakers. The question also calls on the students to use their language to describe their environment, their visit to a foreign country etc ...clothing in relation to whether worn on the head, round the neck, top/bottom or half of the body. 17 marks were given to this question. So it is clear that all questions as will be seen call for pragmatic competence .The following is the analysis in relation to:

(i)Statistical Reliability and validity for student's test

The reliability coefficient was calculated for the measurement, which was used in the test using Alpha - Cronbach coefficient Equation as the following:

For calculating the validity and the reliability of the test from the above equation, the researcher distributed the test to respondents to calculate the reliability coefficient using the Alpha-Cronbach coefficient the results have been showed in the following table:

<i>N</i>	<i>Validity</i>	<i>Reliability</i>	
	0.93	0.89	ALPH – CRONBACH

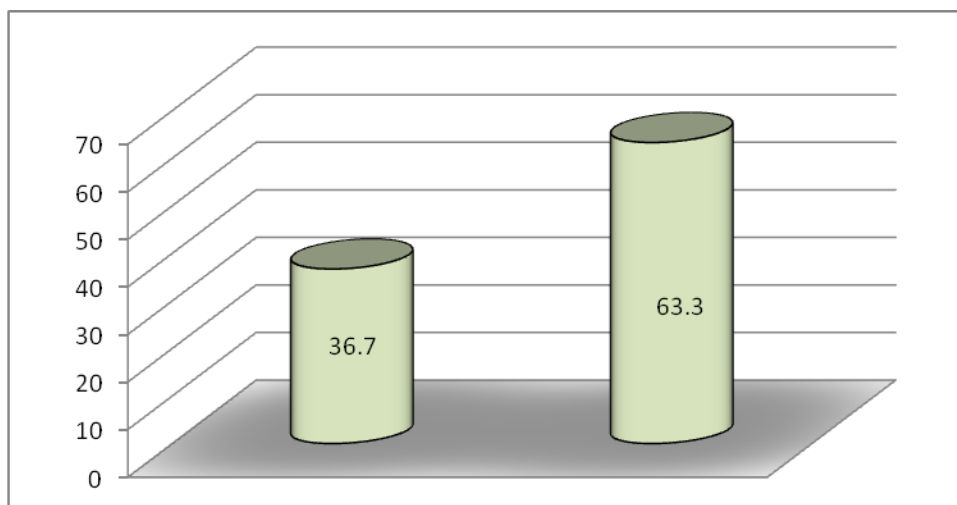
$$\text{Validity} = \sqrt{\text{Reliability}}$$

From the above table it's shown that the validity of the test is very high (0.93). This indicates that if we repeat the test we are sure with 93% that it's going to give us the same results.

Table (4.20) the frequency and percentage distribution of the students according to section (1)

Percentage	Frequency	Valid
63.3	95	Success
36.7	55	Failure
100	150	Total

from the above table No.(4.20) and figure No (1) it's shown that there are as many as (95) students in the study's sample with percentage (63.2 %) have managed to produce the right answer in section number 1 (*Choose the meaning of underlined words or phrases from the given four alternatives*) . There are (55) persons with percentage (have failed)

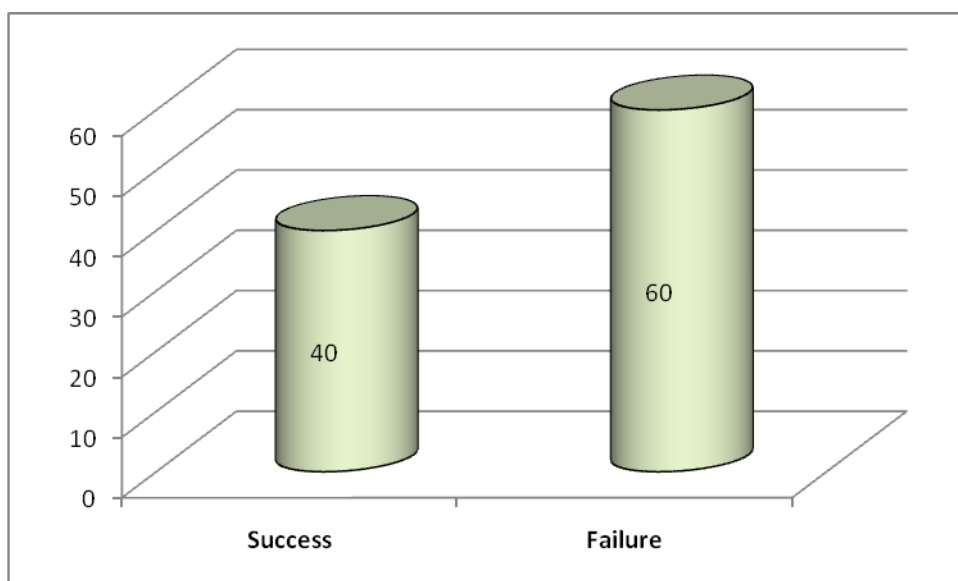


Nonstandard test items were more difficult for students to answer correctly than the standard test items, provided no enhanced ability to discriminate between higher- and lower-performing students, and resulted in poorer student performance. Item-writing guidelines should be considered during test construction.

Table (4.21) the frequency and percentage distribution of the students according to section (1)

Percentage	Frequency	Valid
60	90	Success
40	60	Failure
100	150	Total

from the above table No.(4.21) and figure No (2) its shown that there are (90) students in the study's sample with percentage (60.0%) are success the test in section number 2 (***Choose the words below that best complete the sentences in the text:***) There are (60) persons with percentage (40.2 %) are failures.



The students ‘performance on this section is noticeably better than any other sections. This is due to the fact that multiple choice questions—also known as fixed choice or selected response items—require students to identify right answers from among a set of possible options that are presented to them. Possible answers are "fixed" in advance rather than left open for the learner to generate or supply.

The advantage of these items is that they can be scored rapidly, providing quick feedback to students and enabling efficient ways to assess large numbers of students over a broad range of content. One drawback is that constructing good multiple-choice items takes time, especially if you are writing questions to test higher order thinking.

Table (4.22) the frequency and percentage distribution of the students according to **section (3)**

Percentage	Frequency	Valid
64	96	Success
36	54	Failure
100	150	Total

The students ‘performance on this section is noticeably better than any other sections. This is due to the fact that multiple choice questions—also known as fixed choice or selected response items—require students to identify right answers from among a set of possible options that are presented to them. Possible answers are "fixed" in advance rather than left open for the learner to generate or supply.

The advantage of these items is that they can be scored rapidly, providing quick feedback to students and enabling efficient ways to assess large numbers of students over a broad range of content. One drawback is that constructing good multiple-choice items takes time, especially if you are writing questions to test higher order thinking.

Table (4.22) the frequency and percentage distribution of the students according to section (3)

Percentage	Frequency	Valid
64	96	Success
36	54	Failure
100	150	Total

The students ‘performance on this section is noticeably better than any other sections. This is due to the fact that multiple choice questions—also known as fixed choice or selected response items—require students to identify right answers from among a set of possible options that are presented to them. Possible answers are "fixed" in advance rather than left open for the learner to generate or supply.

The advantage of these items is that they can be scored rapidly, providing quick feedback to students and enabling efficient ways to assess large numbers of students over a broad range of content. One drawback is that constructing good multiple-choice items takes time, especially if you are writing questions to test higher order thinking.

Table (4.22) the frequency and percentage distribution of the students according to section (3)

Percentage	Frequency	Valid
64	96	Success
36	54	Failure
100	150	Total

from the above table No.(4.22) and figure No (3) its shown that there are (96) students in the study's sample with percentage (46.0%) are success the test in section number 2 (*Choose the words below that best complete the sentences in the text*) .There are (54) persons with percentage (36.0 %) are failure

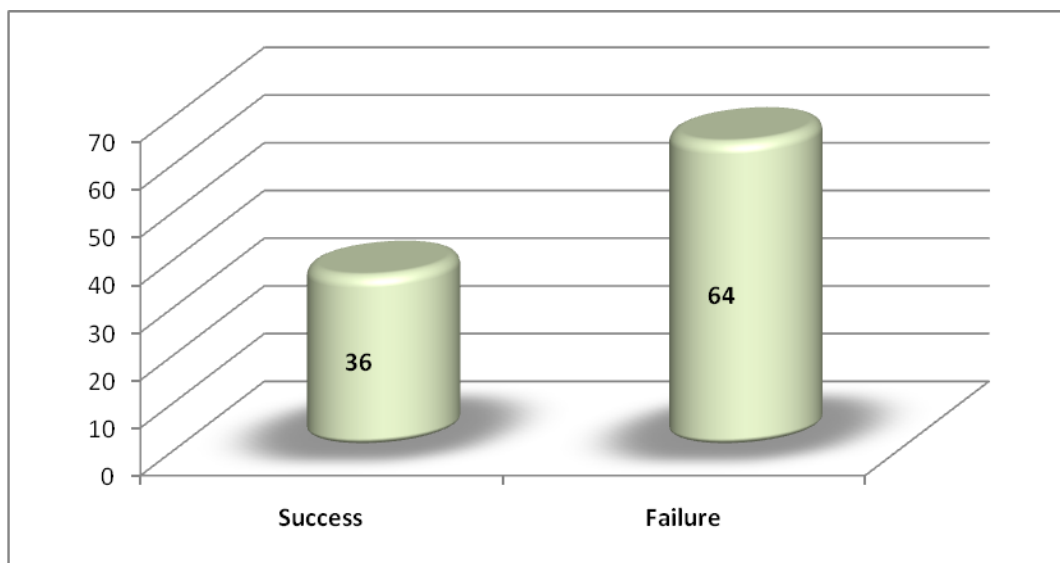


Table (4.23) one sample T-TEST for the questions of the study

p-value	DF	t-value	SD	mean	N	Sections
0.002	149	14.5	0.2	3.6	150	1
0.001	149	17.1	1.81	2.7	150	2
0.012	149	7.17	2.44	3.4	150	3
0.032	149	15.50	4.03	6.33	150	For all

The calculated value of $T - TEST$ for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the section No (1) was (14.5) which is greater than the tabulated value of $T - TEST$ at the degree of freedom (149) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (2.34). this indicates that, there is statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents . this mean that our hypothesis is accepted .

The calculated value of $T - TEST$ for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the section No (2) was (17.1) which is greater than the tabulated value of $T - TEST$ at the degree of freedom (149) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (2.34). this indicates that, there is statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents . this mean that our hypothesis is accepted .

The calculated value of $T - TEST$ for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the section No (3) was (7.17) which is greater than the tabulated value of $T - TEST$ at the degree of freedom (149) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (2.34). this indicates that, there is statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents . this mean that our hypothesis is accepted .

4.4 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter investigated on a number of issues chiefly the analysis of the collected data, confirmation of hypotheses. The questionnaire and the diagnostic test were both analyzed.

CHAPTER FIVE

MAIN FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

This chapter provides a summary of the study, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

5.1 Main Findings

This study sets out to investigate the Role of Motivation and Self-esteem in enhancing learning. The study comprises five chapters, where chapter one, an introductory touches on the nature of motivation and self-esteem. In chapter two, a theoretical framework and examination of previous related works, the most important theories in motivation have been highlighted. In chapter three, which is the research methodology, the type of methods of investigation, namely descriptive and analytical were underscored along with a description of the tools of data collection. Chapter four looked into the validity and reliability of the collected data and how they may be used to verify the posed questions and hypotheses

The study as part of achieving its overall objectives posed the following questions which were turned into hypothetical statements:

1. To what extent does the blend of self-esteem and motivation help students improve their oral production?
2. To what extent do the syllabuses at undergraduate level assist in developing oral skills?
3. To what extent does the lack of motivation and self esteem lead to degradation of oral production?

In order to examine these questions thoroughly the following hypotheses were formulated:

1. Self-esteem and motivation carefully taken care of can help students develop and improve oral abilities.
2. Syllabuses at undergraduate level were not designed in a way to furnish students with the desired elements of oral skills.
3. Lack of motivation and self-esteem lead to further degradation of oral production.

To realize its objectives, the study adopted a descriptive analytical method where all the data collected have been statistically handled to arrive at clear cut conclusions. This has the effect of allowing the different instruments used here to be in full alignment with each other. The SPSS program, version 20 was used for analyzing the data.

As many as (100) students have been selected for the experiment and 50 tutors have answered the questionnaire. The study found beyond doubt that almost all students have apprehension anxiety and fears to use their English language communicatively particularly in public. This situation calls for the intervention of the tutors to encourage their students into taking active part in discussion. Fear of making mistakes as argued by many theorists, fear of mistake becomes one of the main factors of students' reluctance to speak in English in the classroom. With respect to the fear of making mistake issue, it is found that this fear is linked to the issue of correction and negative evaluation. In addition, this is also much influenced by the students' fear of being laughed at by other students or being criticized by the teacher. As a result, students commonly stop participating in the speaking activity. Therefore, it is important for teachers to convince their students that making mistakes is not a wrong or

bad thing because students can learn from their mistakes. In order to help students to overcome their fears tutors have establish a strong sense of rapport with their students and strong emotional bonds with them.

In this way students will feel comfortable and build a sense of anticipation that their tutors are there ready to help them upon faltering and making mistakes. Tutors should the teacher create a harmonious atmosphere that can reduce students' nervousness. In this context, how to deal with errors in conversational English of students is worth discussing and emphasizes that mistakes in communication are keys to carry out a communication.

One of the factors that the study underscored as a problem obstructing students from getting along with speaking either in the classroom or outside is the issue of Shyness is an emotional thing that many students suffer from at some time when they are required to speak in English class. This indicates that shyness could be a source of problem in students' learning activities in the classroom especially in the class of speaking. Therefore, paying attention on this aspect is also quite important in order to help the students do their best in their speaking performance in the classroom. In line with this, It is explained that speaking in front of people is one of the more common phobias that students encounter and feeling of shyness makes their mind go blank or that they will forget what to say. This theory is also supported by the result of this research in which most students fail to perform the speaking performance at their best. As they say, their inability to show their ability in speaking is also influenced much by their feeling of shyness. In other words, it can be said that shyness plays an important role in speaking performance done by the students.

Therefore tutors have to intervene to raise students' self-esteem through the right type of motivation and encouragement in order to overcome their fears and anxiety.

The study found that that some shy learners are caused by their nature that they are very quiet. In this case, the students are not very confident and tend to be shy because most of them find it very intimidating when speaking English in front of their friends and teacher. In addition, the researcher identifies that most of English students feel shy when they speak the language because they think they will make mistakes when they talk. They are also afraid of being laughed at by their peers. This fact is also found in the data of this study that students' shyness is their perception on their own ability. In this sense, they are afraid of being laughed at by their friends due to their low ability in speaking English. Most Sudanese students are that type of learners who are shy to take part not only in speaking but in many other activities which call for facing the public.

5.2 Recommendations

In an attempt to provide possible solutions for the problems obstructing students in taking active parts in the tasks held in classroom, the following points are recommended.

1. Teachers should seek to establish a friendly and open classroom environment and a strong sense of rapport with their students.
2. This will in turn, help shy students to overcome their inhibitions and catch up with their peers.
3. Tutors should not interfere to correct every mistake as this is bound to make students worry about their imperfect pronunciation and grammar.
4. In order to help students to be more confident in their speaking that convinces students to look upon shyness as a thing to overcome and do not fear failure or success.

5. Anxiety stands out as one of the main blocking factors for effective language learning. In other words, anxiety influences students in learning language. Tutors have to work hard to reduce this emotional and affective factor.

6. Teachers should make an attempt to create a learning atmosphere which gives students more comfortable situations in their learning activity. Anxiety influence the quality of oral language production and make individuals appears less fluent than they really are.

7. Teachers need to pay attention to each student's strengths and weaknesses so that they can create a learning method which accommodates all students in the classroom.

5.3 Suggestions for Further Studies

The following suggestions are forwarded for future studies:

1. A large scale study is required to substantiate the current one and hence assures the role of motivation in improving students' learning enable them to overcome their communicative hurdles.
2. Excessive research on this area of motivation and self-esteem is largely recommended to portray how effective and beneficial motivation in driving momentum into students.
3. In the current study motivation and self esteem are mainly viewed as effective tools or techniques that teachers should opt for to improve their students' standards.
4. A workshop or any influential projects should be arranged for to further raising the awareness of tutors of the importance of motivation and enhancement of students' self-esteem.

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Appendix

بِسْمِ اللّٰهِ الرَّحْمٰنِ الرَّحِیْمِ

Sudan University of Science and Technology

College of Languages

This is a questionnaire for third year students at the Sudan University of Science and Technology, College of Languages , to investigate the influence of motivation and self-esteem on speaking fluency .

Dear Student

This questionnaire is one of the instruments Ph.D study .The research investigate the influence of motivation and self-esteem on speaking fluency .

I assure you that your point of view and response will be strictly and confidently treated only for research purposes.

Thank you for cooperation

By: Mawahib Mohammed Mahmoud

Supervisor : Dr.Mahmoud Ali Ahmed

Part One Motivation Scale

For each of the following question indicate your answer by putting(✓) in the column that best expresses your opinion .

	Item	Yes	No	To some extent
1	Do you get afraid to speak English during the section of speaking ?			
2	Does the teacher encourage and motivate you to speak English during the lecture ?			
3	Do you feel interest when you speak English?			
4	Do you get afraid when you present any topic in English ?			
5	Do you have the desire to speak a lot in English ?			
6	Do you face difficulties to speak English ?			
7	Is English your favorite subject ?			
8	Do you speak English outside the class ?			
9	Do you participate in answering question ?			
10	Do you feel shame when you fail to answer a question ?			

Part Two Self-esteem Scale

Below are ten statements. put (✓) in the column that best represents your feeling .

	Item	Yes	No	To some extent
1	Do you feel comfortable when speak English ?			
2	Do you speak English in public ?			
3	Do you speak English in class?			
4	Do you speak English in presentations ?			
5	Do you fear making mistake when answering the teacher's question?			
6	Do you feel funny inside class, if you stand up and speak English ?			
7	Do you practices speaking English?			
8	Do you get nervous and confused when you speak in language lecture ?			
9	Do you get nervous when the language teacher asks questions ?			
10	Do you fail to say your ideas and talk in English fluently ?			

Test

Name

Reading Comprehension

Read the following passage carefully , then answer the questions that follow:

Endangered

You have never watched a dodo bird scurry along the ground. You have never been frightened by a saber-toothed cat crouched in a tree. You have never seen the huge tusks of a mastodon. These animals once lived on Earth, but they all died out. They went extinct.

You can still see blue whales, giant pandas, and tigers. But these animals are in danger of becoming extinct. There aren't many of them left. Blue whales, giant pandas, and tigers are some of the endangered animals on Earth. There are thousands of others.

WHY DO ANIMALS GO EXTINCT?

Different kinds of animals have appeared and disappeared throughout Earth's history. Some animals go extinct because the climate where they live changes. The climate may become wetter or drier. It may become warmer or cooler. If the animals cannot change, or adapt, to the new climate, they die.

Some animals go extinct because they cannot compete with other animals for food. Some animals go extinct because they are killed by enemies. New kinds of animals are always evolving. Evolving means that the animals are changing slowly from generation to generation. Small differences between parents, children, and grandchildren slowly add up over many, many generations. Eventually, a different kind of animal evolves.

Sometimes many of the animals on Earth go extinct at the same time. Scientists call this a mass extinction. Scientists think there have been at least five mass extinctions in Earth's history. The last mass extinction happened about 65 million years ago. This mass extinction killed off the dinosaurs.

(A) Give short answers :

1-What sort of animals go extinct ?

.....
.....

2-Why do animals go extinct ?

.....
.....

3-What is the last mass extinction ?

.....

4-When was the last mass extinction happened ?

.....

Question One : Language

A. Put the verbs between brackets in their correct forms :

1-Listen! Those birdsin their nests. (sing)

2-Studentstheir home work regularly . (do)

3-While Yousifhis sheep the sun set . (milk)

4-Hiba.....her house for an hour and she hasn't finished yet . (clean)

5-Mahmoud.....a very good composition two weeks ago . (write)

6-If wishes were horses , beggars (ride)

7-All.....well that ends well . (be)

B.(I) Add the following prefixes to the words at the end of each sentence to form words which fit the given spaces below :

dis - in - un - mal - re

1-It isto sleep under the trees at night . (healthy)

2-Some people in the third world suffer from
(nutrition)

3-The farmer willthe loan soon. (pay)

4-It isto travel by lorry .(convenient)

5-The snow will soon.....when the warm weather comes .(appear)

Question (2) :

A . Add the following suffixes to the words at the end of each sentence to form words that fit in the given spaces below :

ity - al - ness - less - ly

1-It is wrong to be (hope)

2-Students always speak(polite) to their teachers .

3-In America there is between the whites and blacks . (equal)

4-Mothers are famous for theirto their children .(kind)

5-Tourists visit Jabal Marra because of itscharm and beauty .(nature)

B. Choose the suitable words from the list below to complete the following text:

Boycott - refused - in - peaceful - until

Martin Luther King believed that these things were not right . He believed that the only way to make society equal was by

Protest . He organized a bus which meant that black people to use the buses

.....they were allowed to sitany part of the bus.

Question (3) :

Choose the suitable preposition from the list to fit in the spaces below :

over - on - to - for - at

1-Abu Bakr is sitting his comfortable desk.

2-My friend invited me Lunch.

3-Dr. Salah left Khartoum El Obied.

4-The bus ran a cat.

5-There are rows of beautiful treeseither side of the Nile.

Question (4) :

Complete sentence (B) so that it has a similar meaning to sentence (A), using the given words in each space.

1-(A)Kassala is such a beautiful town that we can visit it .

Very (B)Kassala is.....

2-(A)We always keep our schools tidy and clean .

Keep (B)Our schoolstidy and clean.

3-(A)French is more difficult than English.

Easy (B)English isFrench.

4-(A)I saw a stranger . His name is Zain .

Whose (B)I saw a stranger

5-(A)I would very much like to visit Port Sudan .

Look forward (B)I look.....Port Sudan.