

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel

Faculty of Letters and Language

Department of Letters and the English Language



**The Relationship between Learners' Motivation and the
Construction of their Autonomy in Reading
The Case of License Students Majoring in English at Mohammed
Seddik Ben Yahia University, Jijel**

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfilments of the Requirements of the Master Degree
in Language Sciences

Submitted by:

Imene BOUREDJOUL

Meriem MERROUK

Supervised by:

Dr. Mohammed BOUKEZZOULA

Board of Examiners:

Supervisor: Dr. Mohammed BOUKEZZOULA Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University, Jijel

Chair Person: Mrs.Loubna KOUIRA Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University, Jijel

Examiner: Mrs.Malika NOURI Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University, Jijel

2016

The Relationship between Learners' Motivation and their Construction of Autonomy in
Reading

Imene Bouredjoul

Meriem Merrouk

Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University, Jijel

Abstract

Achieving a high level of autonomy in reading is a key skill, a strong asserts for university graduates professional success and most probably the sole insurance that will continue to learn after graduation. The fostering of students' autonomy in reading has always been an arduous for teachers of English especially in a foreign language context like ours. In the absence of a module that target specifically the development of students autonomy in reading, the only option left for teachers to promote high levels of proficiency in this important skill among learners and to help them become autonomous readers within and after graduation is above all awareness raising and motivation. In order to investigate this claim, this work aimed at studying the correlation between learners' motivation and their construction of autonomy in reading. We hypothesized that the higher students are motivated to learn English, the more autonomous they become in reading. In order to verify this hypothesis, we used two research instruments, a motivation scale and a questionnaire of our own design in order to measure learners' motivation and their autonomy in reading respectively. These two research instruments were administered to thirty-three (33) students representing the three levels of license students of English at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University- Jijel. The results obtained supported the hypothesis advanced in this research; there exists a strong correlation between motivation and the construction of learners' autonomy in reading.

Dedication

We dedicate this work to our source of happiness and success in life, our parents

to our beloved brothers and sisters

to all those who have been so supportive and encouraging during the fulfilment of this work.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to express our sincere gratitude to our supervisor **Dr. Mohammed BOUKEZZOULA** for being kind enough to accept directing this work. We owe him a particular debt for his invaluable advice, encouragement, and illuminating knowledge.

We would like to thank the members of the board of examiners who have kindly accepted to examine the present dissertation.

Special thanks are due to all the participants in our study for their immense help and active participation in the accomplishment of this research work.

List of Contents

Abstract.....	I
Dedication.....	II
Acknowledgments.....	III
List of Contents.....	IV
List of Tables.....	VIII
List of Figures.....	X
List of Abbreviations.....	XI

General Introduction

Statement of the Problem.....	1
Research Questions.....	2
Aims of the Study.....	2
Research Hypothesis.....	2
Means of the Research.....	2
Structure of the Research.....	3

Chapter One: Motivation in Second Language Acquisition

Introduction.....	4
1.1 Definition of Motivation.....	4
1.2 A Historical Overview on Motivation Theories.....	5
1.2.1 The Socio-psychological Period.....	6
1.2.1.1 Socio-educational Theory and its Basic Components.....	6
1.2.1.1.1 Motivation	6
1.2.1.1.2 Integrativeness.....	7
1.2.1.1.3 Orientations.....	7

1.2.1.1.4 Attitudes toward the Learning Situations.....	8
1.2.1.1.5 Criticism of the Socio-educational Theory.....	8
1.2.1.2 Linguistic Self-confidence Theory.....	9
1.2.2 The Cognitive-situated Period.....	11
1.2.2.1 The Self-determination Theory.....	11
1.2.2.2 The Attribution Theory.....	13
1.2.2.3 Task-motivation.....	14
1.2.3 The Process-oriented Period.....	15
1.2.3.1 Process Model of L2 Motivation.....	15
1.2.3.1.1 The Pre-actional Stage.....	16
1.2.3.1.2 The Actional Stage.....	16
1.2.3.1.3 The Post-actional Stage.....	16
1.2.3.2 The L2 Motivational Self-system.....	17
1.3 Types of Motivation.....	18
1.3.1 Integrative Motivation and Instrumental Motivation.....	19
1.3.2 Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation.....	20
1.4 Continuum of Motivation: Moving from Extrinsic to Intrinsic.....	22
1.5 The Role of Motivation in L2 Proficiency.....	24
1.6 Teacher's Role in raising Students' Motivation.....	25
Conclusion.....	25

Chapter Two: Autonomy in Reading

Introduction.....	26
2.1 Definition of Autonomy.....	26
2.2 Definition Of Reading	28

2.3 Types of Reading.....	30
2.3.1 Intensive Reading.....	30
2.3.2 Extensive Reading.....	31
2.4 Reading Purposes.....	32
2.4.1 Reading for Academic Knowledge.....	32
2.4.2 Reading for Pleasure.....	33
2.5 The Importance of the Reading Skill.....	34
2.6 Reading Models.....	36
2.6.1 Bottom-up Model.....	36
2.6.2 Top-down Model.....	37
2.6.3 Interactive Model.....	37
2.7 Reading Strategies.....	38
2.7.1 Definition of Reading Strategies.....	38
2.7.2 Examples of Reading Strategies.....	39
2.7.2.1 Predicting.....	39
2.7.2.2 Skimming.....	40
2.7.2.3 Scanning.....	40
2.7.2.4 Inferring.....	40
2.7.2.5 Guessing Word Meaning.....	41
2.7.2.6 Self-monitoring.....	41
2.8 Promoting Autonomy through Reading Strategies.....	41
Conclusion.....	42
Chapter Three: Methodology and Data Analysis	
Introduction.....	44

3.1 Language Learning Orientation Scale's Questionnaire.....	44
3.1.1 Sampling.....	44
3.1.2 Data Presentation and Analysis.....	45
3.2 Autonomy in Reading Questionnaire.....	52
3.2.1 Description of the Students' Questionnaire.....	52
3.2.2 Data Presentation and Analysis.....	53
3.3 Interpretations and Analysis of both Questionnaires.....	84
3.4 Limitations of the Study.....	86
Conclusion.....	86
4. Recommendations.....	87
General Conclusion.....	88
References.....	90
Appendices	
Résumé	

N°	List of Tables	Page
Chapter One		
1.1	The four main elements of attribution theory (Williams & Burden, 1997)	14
Chapter Two		
Chapter Three		
Section One		
3.1	First year students' motivation questionnaire (LLOS)	46
3.2	Second year students' motivation questionnaire (LLOS)	48
3.3	Third year students' motivation questionnaire (LLOS)	50
3.4	English students' gender	53
3.5	Students' attitudes towards reading	54
3.6	Students' level in reading	55
3.7	The language in which students read most	56
3.8	The frequency of students' reading inside the requirements of the university course	57
3.9	The frequency of students' reading in English outside the requirements of their university course	58
3.10	Students' responses to how often they read per week	59
3.11	Students' responses of how many pages they read per day	60
3.12	Students' resources for reading	61
3.13	Features that encourage students to read a particular text/book	63
Section Two		
3.14	Students' responses to whether they have been trained on reading strategies or not	64
3.15	Students' used strategies mostly in reading	66
3.16	Students' responses to whether their reading strategies has developed or not	67
3.17	Students' responses to whether they follow a specific strategy to be effective in reading or not	68
Section Three		

3.18	First year students' reordering of reasons for reading according to their importance	69
3.19	Second year students' reordering of reasons for reading according to their importance	70
3.20	Third year students' reordering of reasons for reading according to their importance	71
Section Four		
3.21	Students' responses about the type of materials they use in reading in their mother tongue	72
3.22	Students' responses about the type of materials they use while reading in English	73
3.23	Students' responses to whether they have a favourite English Writer	74
3.24	Students' responses to whether they have a favourite English Journalist	75
3.25	Students' responses to whether they have a favourite Academic Author	75
3.26	Students' goals behind choosing a particular reading material	76
Section Five		
3.27	Students' choice of materials	78
3.28	Students' responses to whom they turn to for assistance	79
3.29	Students' feeling about the time they have for reading	80
3.30	Students' responses if they will devote more time to read a particular author	81
3.31	Students' responses whether reading has contributed to improve their level of proficiency	82
3.32	Students' responses about whether reading has contributed to their academic success	82
3.33	Students' prediction about the usefulness of reading in their future professional career	83
3.34	Students' responses about the type of materials they would like to use once they finish their studies	83

N°	List of Figures	Page
Chapter One		
1.1	Bray and McClaskey's Continuum of Motivation Chart	22
Chapter Two		
Chapter Three		
3.1	Students' responses about the usefulness of reading strategies	65
3.2	Students' responses about the need of being trained on using reading strategies	65

List of Abbreviations and Symbols	
AMTB	Aptitude Motivation Test Battery
ed	Edition
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ER	Extensive Reading
L2	Second Language
LLOS	Language Learning Orientations Scale
LMD	License, Master, Doctorate
p	Page
Pos	Position
Q	Question
RS	Reading Strategies
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
%	Percentage

General Introduction

1. Statement of the Problem

Reading is perhaps the most important language macro-skill that any student of English needs to develop and master. This skill is primordial for students' success at the academic level especially in a poor input environment of English as a foreign language context such as ours. The ability to read is recognized as one of the most important requirements for successful language learning. According to Carrel (1989), "For many students, reading is by far the most important of the four skills in a second language, particularly in English as a second or foreign language" (p. 1). Given that Algeria is an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context, learners of this language generally lack enough exposure to the target language in everyday life. As a result, one of the main source left for learners to learn the language is through reading. Having a good mastery of the reading skill is not only a pre-requisite for students of English' success in their academic studies, but it is also the only insurance for these learners' continuous lifelong learning of the language and related content after graduation. Hence, reaching a high level of autonomy in reading is the only insurance that students will continue to learn the language during and after graduation. Given the fact that, unlike speaking, listening, and writing, there is no module in the license curriculum that targets specifically the development of this important skill. The only option left for teachers to foster high levels of proficiency among learners that enables them to become autonomous readers within and beyond the academic career, is through awareness raising and motivation. Hence, we believe that the development of autonomy in reading in our EFL context depends largely on teachers' efforts to motivate their students.

2. Research Question

This study attempts to shed light on this issue through answering the following question:

- Is there a correlation between students' motivation and their gradual construction of autonomy in reading?

3. Aims of the Study

This study aims at investigating the correlation between students' motivation and their construction of autonomy in reading at Jijel University.

4. Research Hypothesis

We hypothesize that the higher the students are motivated to learn the English language, the more autonomous they become in reading in this language.

5. Means of the Research

In order to verify the hypothesis advanced above, we will use two research instruments. On one hand, we will use a motivation scale to measure the students' motivation to read, on the other hand, we will design and administer a questionnaire to the same subjects to gauge the development of their autonomy in reading. In order to spot and describe the pattern of development of the potential correlation between motivation and autonomy in reading, we will select a cross-sectional sample of learners representing the three levels of license students of English. This methodological solution will help us, we believe, to compensate for the lack of enough time to conduct a longitudinal study of the same learners.

6. Structure of the Research

The present research is made up of five parts: a general introduction, two theoretical chapters, a practical chapter, and a general conclusion. The first chapter offers a review that helps defining the concept of motivation. Moreover, it reviews some theories, types, and the importance of motivation in second language proficiency. The second chapter offers a review that helps defining the concepts of autonomy and reading. In addition, it provides the types, models, strategies and the importance of reading. This chapter also shows how reading strategies can promote learners' autonomy in reading. Finally, the third chapter analyses and interprets the data gathered from both; motivation scale and autonomy in reading questionnaire.

Introduction

Motivation is a vital component to learn a second language (L2). It is an essential factor to the success or the failure in any field, especially, in the learning-teaching process since it defines students' academic achievement, commitment and engagement to a life-long learning. Motivation is a descriptive concept that helps us to understand why people behave as they do. That is, some people have the ability to learn language quickly and easily, while others do not because they are not similarly motivated. Thus, motivation is the main force that governs students' progress and ability to learn. The aim of this chapter is to shed light on relevant literature that defines motivation, motivation theories which are classified in three periods namely: the social psychological period, the cognitive-situated period and the process-oriented period. Moreover, this chapter includes the types of motivation and the role of motivation in L2 proficiency.

1.1. Definition of Motivation

Despite a long time of research on human motivation and the countless contribution from various perspectives over the course of several centuries, it was only thirty years ago that this concept began to be systematically investigated from psychological and educational perspectives. However, it remains a complex area to approach (CF. Brown, 1987 and Burstall, 1975).

The term motivation is frequently used in both educational and research field. It was interpreted differently by different researchers. According to Dornyei (1998), "it is rather surprising how little agreement there is in the literature with regard to the exact meaning of this concept" (p. 119). Psychologists defined motivation as the set of processes which involve the arousal, direction, and the sustaining of a behaviour.

LEARNERS' MOTIVATION AND THEIR AUTONOMY IN READING⁵

Dornyei and Ushioda (2011, p. 4) indicated that researchers in the field of motivation share the notion that motivation in general concerns, the direction and magnitude of human behaviour. Therefore, motivation is responsible for “the choice” of doing an action, “persistence” with doing it and “effort” invested in doing such an action. According to Dornyei and Otto (1998, p. 6),

motivation is the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiate, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor process whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalized, and successfully or unsuccessfully acted out.

Gardner (1985) defined motivation as “the combination of efforts plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes towards learning the language” (p. 10). He believed that motivation is concerned with the question ‘Why does an organism behave as it does?’. Other definitions of the term are found in dictionaries and glossaries of Applied Linguistics. As cited by Richard. J et al., (1985), the Longman dictionary of Applied Linguistics defined motivation as “the factors that determine a person’s desire to do something in second language and foreign language learning”. In addition, Merriam Webster Online dictionary (2016) defined motivation as “the act or process of giving someone a reason for doing something: the act or process of motivating someone”.

1.2. A Historical Overview on Motivation Theories

Dornyei (2005) provided an overview of second language motivation research, dividing the history of the field into three major phases: *the social psychological period*

(1959-1990), the cognitive-situated period (during the nineties) and the process-oriented period.

1.2.1. The Social Psychological Period

In the field of language learning, serious research on motivation was first initiated by social psychologists due to their awareness of the social and cultural effects on L2 learning (Dornyei, 2003). As a result, a number of models that stressed the effective aspects of language learning were emerged. These models include: Krashen's Monitor Model (1981) and Schumann's Acculturation Model (1986). However, the most influential model of language learning motivation was that developed by Gardner and his associates in the early sixties through the eighties of the previous century. This model came to be known as *the socio-educational model*.

1.2.1.1. The Basic Components of the Socio-educational Model

The socio-educational model consists of four main parts namely:

1.2.1.1.1. Motivation

Gardner and Lambert (1959) stated that, L2 motivation is not similar to that involved in other learning processes, because language is inherently related to socio-cultural identities and socio-political factors. Motivation to learn a second language plays a significant role in the socio-educational model and it is affected by many variables, which are: ability, culturally relevant variables, educationally relevant variables, language anxiety and environmentally relevant variables. According to Gardner (1985), for a student to be motivated: four elements of a goal, desire to achieve the goal, positive attitudes, and efforts are necessary. He suggested that motivation is "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language, plus favourable attitudes toward learning the language" (p.10). Thus, motivation in the

socio-educational model according to him (2010) is assessed in terms of the following three components:

- a) Desire to learn the language.
- b) Attitudes toward learning the language.
- c) Motivational intensity (i.e. the effort extended to learn the language).

Gardner asserted that these three elements could be measured by a test that he named *The Aptitude / Motivation Test Battery (AMTB)*. Dornyei (2005) defined Gardner's (AMTB) as "a multi-compensational motivation questionnaire made up of over than 130 items [...]. It operationalizes all the main constituents of Gardner's theory of the integrative motive" (p. 70). According to Gardner (2010), "it was designed to produce a test that would measure the major affective individual different variables identified by the socio-educational model of second language acquisition" (p. 108).

1.2.1.1.2 Integrativeness

Gardner (2010) hypothesised that the individual's openness, i.e., their willingness or ability to acquire features of another community, plays a significant role in the process of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). At the same time, Gardner and Lalonde (1985) suggested that "the motivational component is influenced to some extent by factors that affect an individual's willingness to accept foreign behaviour patterns" (p.1). This aspect is regarded as the cultural component of second language acquisition that is represented in the construct of integrativeness (Gardner, 2010). In the same vein, Cook (2008) referred to it as "how the learner relates to the target culture in various ways" (p. 223). i.e., integrativeness reflects the individual interest in learning the second language in order to come closer to the other language community.

1.2.1.1.3 Orientations

LEARNERS' MOTIVATION AND THEIR AUTONOMY IN READING⁸

Gardner (2010) defined orientations as “classifications of reasons that can be given for studying a language, and there is little reason to believe that the reason, in and of themselves, are directly related to success” (p.16). In other words, orientation deals with the overall aim, purpose, direction, and the goal of the activity. The first orientations were proposed by Gardner and Lambert in 1959 in what they called ‘Orientation Index’. This orientation index classifies individuals as integratively or instrumentally oriented. The difference between the two types of orientations, integrative and instrumental lies on the fact that integrative orientation reflects a desire of becoming a part of a community, whereas instrumental orientation refers to “practical benefits for the individuals” (Gardner, 2010, p. 17). Gardner’s hypothesis suggests that integrative oriented learners were more persistently and intensely motivated than other learners. He stated that an intergratively oriented learner would likely have a stronger desire to learn the language, have more positive attitudes toward the learning situation, and more likely to expand efforts in learning the language.

1.2.1.1.4 Attitudes toward the Learning Situation

Gardner (2001) stated that, the context where the language is learnt, affects our attitudes toward the learning situation. For instance, if we take school as a context, the attitudes could be directed toward the teacher, the course, classmates, the materials, extra-curricular activities associated with the course, etc. In any situation, some individuals outnumber others in expressing positive attitudes. These differences in attitudes toward the learning situation are the main concern of the socio-educational model (Gardner, 2001, p.6).

1.2.1.1.5 Criticism of the Socio-educational Theory

LEARNERS' MOTIVATION AND THEIR AUTONOMY IN READING⁹

Even though, the socio-educational model had largely contributed to motivation research, it was a subject to serious criticism from a large number of researchers (e.g. Dornyei, 1990, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Oxford, 1996; Belmechri & Hunnel, 1998; and Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). Researchers have pointed out the emphasis of the socio-educational model on the social aspect of motivation rather than on the role of motivation in the classroom. Gardner himself stated that he was approaching the research as a social psychologist. Though Gardner discussed the learner's reaction to the learning situation, he offered little explanation on how the learning situation can be manipulated in order to affect the learner's motivation in a positive way. Another criticism coming from a constructivist approach to knowledge and learning posed serious questions to the socio-educational model and to the other language learning models that stressed the importance of the integrative component. Researchers as Crookes and Schmidt (1991) were among the first researchers to question Gardner's approach, stating that empirical evidence is not clear enough to support the notion that integrative motivation is a cause and second language achievement the effect. Crookes and Schmidt identified a clear need to research and classify L2 learning motivations as it relates directly to classroom. They identified four areas of L2 motivation; the micro level (involves the cognitive processing of L2 input), the classroom level (includes the techniques and activities employed in the classroom), the syllabus level and a fourth level which involves factors outside the classroom.

1.2.1.2. Linguistic Self-confidence Theory

The social psychological approach is not only about Gardner's Socio-educational Model. Some important strands of research were also included within this tradition, especially in Richard Clément's (1980) Social Context Model. This model was concerned with the motivation of individuals in multi-ethnic setting and their

efforts to learn and use the language of the other speech community. From his line of inquiry, the concept of 'linguistic self-confidence' was emerged. As Dornyei (2005) explained, self-confidence is "the belief that a person has the ability to produce results, accomplish goals, or perform tasks competently" (p. 73). That is, self-confidence refers to the feeling of security that an individual can have towards what he or she is capable of achieving.

Clément introduced the term "self-confidence" as a motivational factor in L2 classrooms (1977 in Dornyei, 1998, p. 123). He argued that in

[...] multicultural context, where direct contact with L2 is available, positive attitudes toward an L2 would promote interactions with the L2 speakers, which in turn develop an independent motivational process identified as self-confidence (as cited in Pae, 2008, p.11).

That is, when a learner feels confident being in contact with members of L2, he/she will be more motivated and willing to communicate with second language speakers. Clément and Kruidenier (1985) argued that, "Self-confidence is the most significant determining factor of motivation to learn L2" (p. 24). Their study of French speaking Canadians (1985), concluded that "contact with members of second language group not only determine the level of proficiency but also the pertinence and operation of the self-confidence process" (p. 34). Clément and Kruidenier stressed the importance of contact and interaction in promoting students' competence and self-confidence in the language.

The linguistic self-confidence theory is not only applicable in multi-cultural settings. But also, it is applicable in uncultured setting. According to Dornyei (2005),

self-confidence construct is also valid in foreign language context where, although learners are not in contact with L2 native people, they receive input of the L2 culture through the media. In this line, he said “considerable indirect contact with the L2 culture is possible through the media...” (1998, p. 123).

Therefore, having self-confidence, as stated above, whether, it comes from direct or indirect contact with the L2 community has been proved as a successful motivational factor in learning L2.

1.2.2 The Cognitive-situated Period

Unlike the social psychological period that focuses on the significance of attitudes and feelings of language learners towards the L2 communities and L2 learning, the cognitive-situated period focuses on how the learners' mental processes influence their motivation. The learning context, the students and teachers' needs in the classroom are considered more important than the community and the social context. Thus, the cognitive-situated period main concerns were about motivation in L2 instructional contexts, integrating motivation concept in the educational field, and developing a more extensive theoretical framework. The main theories of this period are *the Self-determination Theory, the Attribution Theory and Task-motivation Theory*.

1.2.2.1 The Self-determination Theory

The self-determination theory is one of the most influential theories in motivational psychology (Dornyei, 2003). Brophy (2010) claimed that Deci and Ryan are the ones who set the majority of the ideas in the self-determination theory (p. 154). Deci and Ryan (1985) claimed that, motivated people try to get something by taking on goal-oriented action to achieve it, so their motivated action would be either self-determined or controlled. When learners choose to do an action not because of external pressure, self-determination is more applicable (as cited in Colak, 2008, p. 14). In this line,

LEARNERS' MOTIVATION AND THEIR AUTONOMY IN READING¹²

Keblawi (2006) stated what Deci and his associates have developed "to be self-determining means to experience a sense of choice in initiating and regulating one's own actions" (Deci et al., 1989, p. 580, as cited in Keblawi, 2006, p. 32). This means that, when a learner is self-determinant, he/she will be more autonomous, self-dependent and responsible for choosing an action.

Self-determination theory distinguished between two kinds of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The first refers to an individual's motivation to perform a particular activity due to its permanent interest. It results from the need to achieve internal rewards such as joy, pleasure and satisfaction of curiosity. Whereas in the extrinsic motivation, the individual expects an extrinsic reward such as good grades or praise from others that is why they perform an action. The self-determination theory agrees that the reasons of increasing intrinsic motivation are the social settings when they meet the three needs: competence, autonomy, and relatedness. First, competence is the need to succeed at optimally challenging tasks and to be able to attain desired outcomes that is to say; competence is one's belief for how well he or she can perform a task. Second, autonomy concerns experiencing choice and feeling like initiation of one's own actions, in other words; it is concerned with the degree of freedom by which students decide to perform a particular task (Brophy, 2010, p. 154). Third, the relatedness which is concerned with establishing a sense of mutual respect and relatedness with others (Baurd, Deci, & Ryan, 2004; Ryan & Deci, 2006). i.e., relatedness signifies the need of belongingness to a particular group, and the need to uphold strong relationship within this group.

According to the self-determination theory, there are three kinds of extrinsic motivation; external regulation, interjected regulation and identified regulation. Firstly, external regulation refers to actions that individuals pursue and that are determined by

rewards when the action is done perfectly, and punishment when it is not. Secondly, less external regulation is interjected regulation, which refers to activities performed due to some external pressure that the individual has incorporated into the self. This is still not a self-determined activity since it has an external rather than internal source. For instance, a person who learns the language in order not to feel ashamed if he does not know it. Thirdly, the identified regulation is seen in students who consider attending classes or work as important for their self-selected goal of being in college or in a specific career. (Brophy, 2010).

The final concept proposed by self-determination theory is 'Amotivation'. It is the situation in which people lack the intention to behave, they see no relation between efforts they make and the outcomes they get. Thus, doing an activity for them has no meaning. This happens when they lack self-efficacy or a sense of control on the desired outcome. In this case, the learner has no goal and thus processes neither intrinsic nor extrinsic motivation to perform the activity (Noels, et al., 2001). Amotivation leads people to not perform any behaviour or to chase any goal (Brophy, 2010).

1.2.2.2 The Attribution Theory

The second theory that belongs to the cognitive-situated period is the attribution theory. Weiner (1992) proposed this theory which aims at comprehending individual's explanation to their success or failure in accomplishing a given task. According to Dornyei (2005), "the subjective reasons to which are attribute our past success and failure considerably shape our motivational disposition underlying future action" (p.79). For example, a learner who has always experienced failure in learning a second language would be less motivated than a learner who has always experienced success in learning that language. Furthermore, Dornyei (2005, p.79) stated that an individual would be more motivated to try again an activity in which he/she failed if he/she

ascribes this failure to a lack of effort on his/her part or to “unsuitable learning strategies”. On the contrary, if the learner ascribes his/her failure to a lack of ability on his/her part, it is more likely that this student will never give another chance to that activity. Weiner and others (Slavin, 2003, Dornyei, 2001, William and Burden, 1997) described attribution theory in terms of four explanations for success and failure: ability, effort, the perceived difficulty of a task, and luck. These attributions are either internal or external (locus), stable or unstable (stability) and controlled (controllability) William and Burden (1997). A major assumption of attribution theory is that individuals usually try to up hold a positive self-image (Slavin, 2003, Thomson, Davidson & Barber, 1995).

As a result, while they perform well in a given activity, they relate their success to their own efforts or ability. However, when they fail, they relate their failure to uncontrollable external factor.

Table 1.1

The Four Main Elements of Attribution (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 105).

Locus of control		
	Internal	external
Stable	Ability	Task-difficulty
Controlled	Effort	luck

1.2.2.3 Task-motivation Theory

The third theory classified in the cognitive-situated period by Dornyei is task-motivation. According to him (2005, p. 80), “tasks [...] constitute the basic building blocks of instructed SLA”. Dornyei (2005) also argued that “Engaging in a certain task

activates a number of different levels of related motivational mind sets or contingencies associated with various action contexts, resulting in complex influences” (p. 81). i.e., it is the context and the types of activities which define students' motivation. For instance, an individual has not the same motivation for different activities; different contexts of action have different motivations for the learner. In addition, Dornyei (2005) stated that “these motivational mind sets and contingencies activated during task-performance feed into a dynamic task processing system” (p. 81). It encompasses three mechanisms: task execution, appraisal and action control.

1.2.3 The Process-oriented Period

While the cognitive situated period had its focus on the way learner's mental process affects their motivation, researchers in the process-oriented period began to focus on the dynamic character of motivation. They concerned with the exploration of the ongoing changes of motivation and its variation over time (Dornyei, 2005). i.e., motivation is a construct that varies over time. Dornyei suggested that if during a single class motivation varies during years of L2 learning, it could experience different phases. The most notable theories that developed in this period were: Dornyei and Otto's (1998) process model of L2 motivation and the L2 motivational self-system.

1.2.3.1 Process Model of L2 Motivation

As Dornyei pointed out (2005, p. 84) the process model of L2 motivation

describes how initial wishes and desires are first transformed into goals and then into operationalized intentions, and how these intentions are enacted, leading [...] to the accomplishment of the goal and concluded by the final evaluation of the process.

In other words, Dornyei's process-oriented model of language learning motivation demonstrates how learners are motivated at three main stages of their progress. Dornyei referred to them as the pre-actional stage, the actional stage (executive stage) and the post actional stage (motivational retrospection stage).

1.2.3.1.1 The Pre-actional Stage (Choice Motivation)

It refers to the motivation that has to be generated. The pre-actional stage may be divided into three parts: goal setting, intention and the initiation of intention enactment (Dornyei, 2000). These phases may occur in quick succession. However, sometimes an amount of time between a person's desire to learn a language and the actual enactment of this desire is important. Dornyei (2000) suggested that antecedents of the goal setting stage involve an individual's reasons for language learning such as integrative feelings, an instrumental goal, or some combination of both. These antecedents need to be found into goals and then into intention so that, they become a part of the language learning process. The pre-actional stage is ended when an intention leads to an action plan, which includes subtasks and time frames.

1.2.3.1.2 The Actional Stage (Executive Motivation)

The actional stage refers to the fact that generated motivation needs to be "actively maintained and protected during the time the action takes place" (Dornyei, 2005, p.84). The actional stage includes subtask generation and implementation an ongoing appraisal process, and the application of action control mechanisms, or self-regularity techniques by which the learner can keep himself or herself committed to the course of action (Dornyei, 2000, p.527). That is by means of the appraisal process and action mechanisms, the learner can determine whether the action is leading to a positive

actional outcomes. Therefore, the learner can determine whether the L2 learning action has been successful or if it should be determinate.

1.2.3.1.3 The Post-actional Stage (Motivational Retrospection)

Dornyei (2000, p. 8) assumed that the post-actional stage starts with one forming casual attributions about the actional phase. Next, one can evaluate their internal standards and strategies by using experiences to determine the types of activities they will be motivated to pursue in the future. Then, it ends with the process of dismissing intentions associated with the completed process. During the post-actional stage, the major motivational influences are: the learner's attributional styles and biases, self-concept beliefs, and received feedback during the L2 learning process (Dornyei, 2000).

1.2.3.2 The L2 Motivational Self-system

The L2 motivational self-system is the newest theoretical strand suggested by Dornyei (2005). The L2 motivational self-system uses the psychological construct of possible selves to explain how foreign language learners can imagine themselves as integrated participants in the target language community. The possible selves construct consists of the ideal self, the-ought-to self and the L2 learning experience. Dornyei (2010) referred to the ideal-self as "the powerful motivation to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual ideal selves" (p. 29). That is, the ideal-self refers to what one hopes to become, or the person he/she would like to become. The second component is the-ought to L2 self. According to Dornyei (2010), it is related to "the attribution that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcomes" (p. 29). That is, the-ought to self tends to correlate to a prevention aspect or what one hopes to avoid and to achieve his/her goal. Finally, the L2 learning experience which Dornyei (2010) referred to as "situated

executive motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience. For example, the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, the experience of success" (p. 29). In other words, the L2 learning experience includes the situational and environmental aspects of language learning process, as well as, one's subjective learning experience. However, in order to be a powerful motivator, the L2 motivational ideal self should own certain conditions, according to Dornyei (2010), these are:

- (1) The learner has a desire future self-image, (2) which is elaborated and vivid, (3) which is [...] plausible and is in harmony [...] with the expectations of the learner's family, peers [...]. (4) Which is regularly activated in learner's working self-concept, (5) which accompanied by relevant and effective procedural strategies that act as a road map toward the goal. And [...] (6) which also contains elaborate information about the negative consequences of not achieving the desired end-state (p. 32).

1.3. Types of Motivation

There are many different reasons for studying a foreign language. Sometimes, people study a language for practical reasons while other times people have a special affinity for the practical language and its people. Language teachers are often very aware of the career advantages that language proficiency can bring, but to many language learners, studying the language is only an abstract undertaking required for an academic degree. Many researchers studied motivation and its influences on language learners. However, the most influential research in the field of second language

learning motivation was carried out by Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972). They tried to investigate the role of motivation and determine how attitudinal and motivational factors affect language-learning success. Gardner and Lambert distinguished between two basic types of motivational integrative and instrumental. Researchers like Tarone and Swiezbin also distinguished between two other types of motivation. One of them comes from the outside world, while the other one is internal. It involves the learners' desires and needs. These types are entitled extrinsic and intrinsic motivation.

1.3.1 Integrative Motivation and Instrumental Motivation

Integrative motivation is distinguished by learners' positive attitudes towards the target language group, and the desire to interact with those group members (Qashoa, 2006). That is, integrativeness is the identification with the foreign language society. The purpose of integrative motivation is not to get a benefit from learning the language but language is learnt just to be integrated in that language and its culture. Masgoret and Gardner (2003) suggested that a student can be integratively motivated if he/she is inspired to learn, willing to join the other language group, and holds positive attitudes towards the learning process. Integrative motivation is crucial in the learning process as a source of motivation because it influences the students' level and ability to succeed. Gardner et al., (1976) described integrative motivation "a high level of drive on the part of the individual to acquire the language of valued second language community in order to facilitate communication with that group" (as cited in Dwaik and Shehadeh 2010, p. 335). It is also important to promote learner's positive attitudes toward the L2 group. In an attempt to describe some characteristics of students who are integratively motivated; Glicsnan (1976) claimed that they are the ones who always participate in class, do their homework, and get good results" (as cited in Bencharef, 2009, p. 35).

Integrative motivation refers to the desire to identify with the second language group culture, instrumental motivation refers to [...] more functional reasons for learning a language as the means of attaining certain instrumental goals, e.g. getting a better job, reading technical materials, passing required examination etc. (Gardner, 1985, p.76). That is, instrumental motivation refers to the situations where the purpose of language learning is to get a benefit. Therefore, instrumental motivation is often related to second language acquisition with a little or without any integration of the learner into a society. According to Dornyei et al., (2006),

Instrumental motivation refers to the perceived pragmatic benefits of L2 proficiency and reflects the recognition that for many language learners, it is the usefulness of L2 proficiency that provides the greatest driving force to learn language. It subsumes such utilitarian goals receiving a better job or a higher salary as a consequence of mastering L2 (p. 12).

Although both integrative and instrumental motivation are essential elements to succeed, integrative motivation is the one that maintains long-term success in learning a second language (Taylor, Maynard and Rheault, 1977; Ellis 1997; Crooks et al., 1991 as cited in Norris, 2001). Gardner and Lambert suggested in their research that, integrative motivation was the most important in academic learning then instrumental motivation (Ellis, 1997, as cited in Norris, 2001). However, when the learner cannot be exposed to the target language situations, instrumental motivation can be successful in that situation since the chance to interact with members of the target group is unexcited.

In addition, it is the social situation that clarifies what kind of orientation learners have and what kind is most important for language learning.

1.3.2 Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation arises a desire to learn a topic due to its permanent feature interests. Psychologists have proved the fact that human beings have a natural curiosity drive that pushes them to explore things surrounding them, Ryan and Deci defined it as “the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequences”(2000, p. 55). That is, this type of motivation exists inside the learner who get involved in tasks of the language learning naturally, not because of an extrinsic reward. In this line, Brown (2000, p.155) defined intrinsic motivation as: “[...] intrinsically motivated activities are one for which there is no apparent rewards except the activity itself. People seem to engage in the activities for their own sake and not because they lead to extrinsic rewards”. Reid (2007, p. 16) suggested that intrinsic motivation is the desire to go abroad on a task, hence, for intrinsic motivation, learners need:

- To understand what they are learning.
- To be interested.
- To be able to see the new language learning as a part of a bigger picture.
- To enjoy the task or the learning experience.
- To have energy for learning.

We can say that learners are extrinsically motivated when they gain experiences from the external world. According to Grikzentnihayli and Nakamura (1989), extrinsic motivation denotes “when the only reason for performing an act is to gain something outside the activity itself, such as passing an exam or obtaining financial rewards, the

motivation is likely to be extrinsic” (as cited in William and Burden p. 123). In other words, extrinsic motivation is the desire that results from the influence of some kind of external incentives. That is, it results from the need to accomplish external outcomes is behind the self-wishes, such as, rewards, grades and teacher’s support (as cited in Bencharef, 2009, p. 40). Students in extrinsic motivation need a reward from another person, for example, when performing a particular task inside or outside the classroom, they try to impress people around them expecting praise.

1.4. Continuum of Motivation: Moving from Extrinsic to Intrinsic

Motivation plays an important role in the learning process. It arises either from outside the individual or from within. The former refers to as “extrinsic motivation” and it occurs when the individual is motivated to perform a behaviour or engage in an activity to earn a reward or avoid punishment. The later to as “intrinsic motivation” which occurs when the individual is motivated to perform an activity for its own sake rather than the desire for some external rewards. Bray and McClaskey (2016) created a chart in which they explained the continuum of motivation from extrinsic to intrinsic. This chart involves the following:

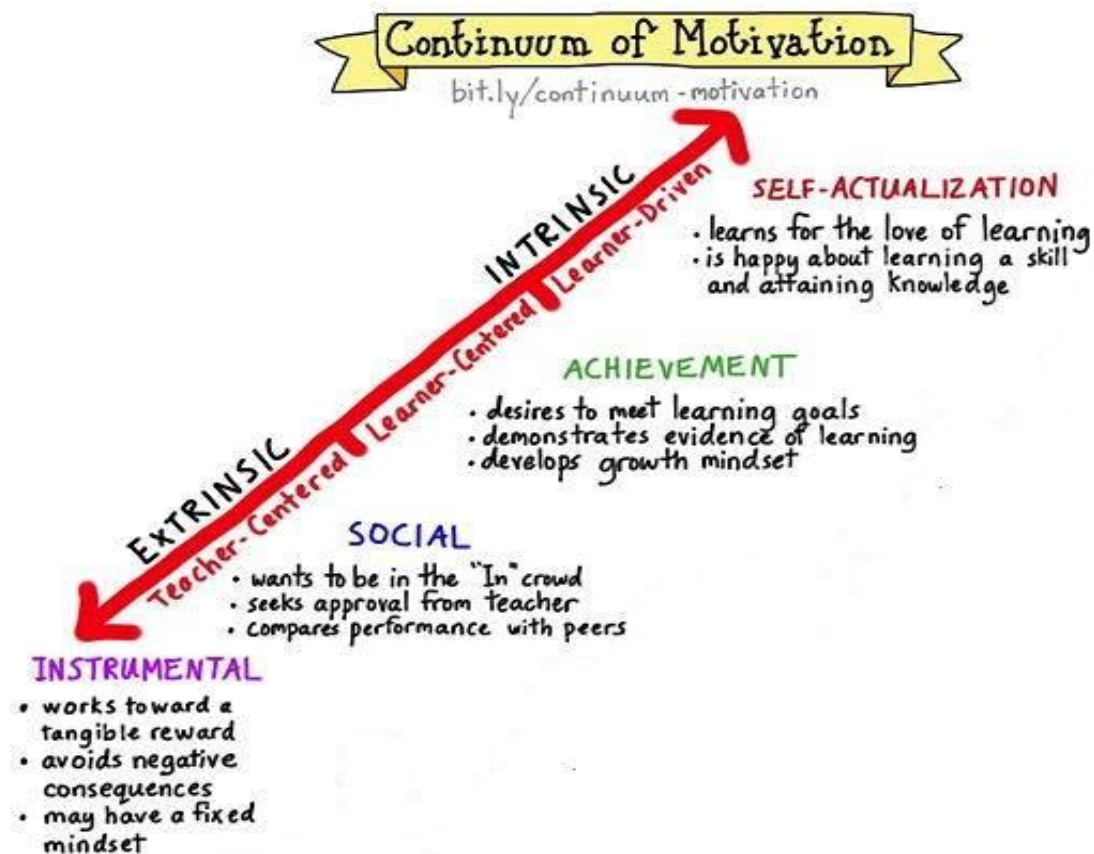


Figure 1.1: Bray and McClaskey's Continuum of Motivation Chart

The continuum of motivation chart above is a snapshot of what moving from extrinsic to intrinsic motivation might look like as learners' progress from teacher-centred to learner-driven environment.

Bray and McClaskey argued that the first step in the continuum "instrumental" arises from the students' questions like "what is my grade?" or "Is this going to be on the test?". Some "students" know how to "do" school just to get through school. Others just want to follow the rules, while others are not motivated because they lost interest, are not successful, are bored with school, or feel no connection to the teacher, school or learning. The second step in the continuum is "social". Within this step, learners want to be members of the community. They look for the approval of their peers, they want

to please their teacher, parents and peers. They are motivated by looking good and measure how they perform with others, especially their peers. Their motivation to learn is driven by extrinsic factors. The third step in the chart is “achievement”. It means that students have a desire to succeed in school. They choose the evidence that demonstrates the mastery of learning and how they met their learning goals. In this step, students start believing in themselves and they know they can learn. The last step suggested by Bray and McClaskey was “self-actualization”. Within this step, students are involved and immersed in the learning process because of their love of learning. At this point, learners' eyes are open that it is all about them and how they learn, that drives them to want to learn more. It could be learning a new skill, attaining new knowledge, creating something they never thought or pursuing their purpose.

1.5. The Role of Motivation in L2 Proficiency

Motivation is the key to learn a second language proficiency. It is regarded as an important quality that pervades all aspects of teaching and learning. As Dornyei (2001) stated when talking about motivation:

Most teachers and researchers would agree that it has a very important role in determining success or failure in any learning situation. My personal experience is that 99 percent of language learners who really want to learn a foreign language [...] will be able to master a reasonable working

knowledge of it as a minimum, regardless of their language aptitude (p .2).

In this quotation, Dornyei introduced one aspect that is related to the role of motivation in SLA: motivation is concerned with the level of success and failure a learner experiences when learning a language depending on his/her motivation. This aspect is also related to language achievement. Motivated learners display interest in activities, feel self-efficacious, expend effort to succeed, persist at tasks, and use effective task, cognitive, and self-regulatory strategies to learn. Learners who are motivated to learn about a topic are apt to engage in activities they believe will help them to learn such as attending carefully to the instruction, mentally organizing and rehearsing the material to be learnt, taking notes to facilitate subsequent studying, listening individually (using strategies). Checking the level of understanding and asking for help when they do not understand the material. However, those learners who are less motivated are not apt to be systematic in their learning effort.

1.6. Teacher's Role in raising Students' Motivation

According to Harmer (2001), the teacher plays a significant role in the process of teaching and learning; most importantly, in motivating learners. Therefore, the role of the teacher is not only to present his/her lecture but a good and effective teacher is the one who goes hand in hand with his/her students. In addition, he/she is the one who devotes his/her efforts to understand his/her students' difficulties, and how different theories of motivation can be applied to help them avoid many obstacles to accomplish and build a solid foundation for effective learning by making the students more active and enjoy his/her session.

Conclusion

In few words, we presented in this chapter at the different theories of motivation within the three different periods. All the theories are different from one another, yet they all agree that motivation is the most essential factor in learning. In addition, we shed a light on the difference between instrumental motivation (individuals' desire for achieving academic goals) and integrative motivation (the individuals' desire to integrate into the second language culture). We also explained that motivation can take two forms; intrinsic motivation (the desire to achieve comes from within) and extrinsic motivation (individuals perform a task for an external reward). We ended with the role of motivation in L2 proficiency in which motivation was regarded as an important quality or factor in learning and teaching a foreign language.

Introduction

In fact, autonomous learning has been a controversial topic of research within the field of English as a foreign language learning in recent years. Researchers as well as educators poured much ink in an attempt to illustrate this key concept and its implications for teaching and learning. Learners nowadays are expected to assume responsibility and take charge of their own learning. In addition, reading is one of the four skills that EFL learners seek to develop and get a high command of due to its supreme importance. It serves as a basis for the development of the other three skills, and it is considered as the most important requirement for successful language learning. However, reading is not considered as a separate module in the LMD system where this skill is totally absent from the curriculum. Therefore, teachers are left with one option in which, they try to assist the learners in improving their reading skill and giving the importance it deserves through fostering learner's autonomy in reading.

In this chapter, we focus on introducing details of reading to insure a more understanding of this skill and its relation to autonomy. The definitions of autonomy and reading will be provided first, followed by the types, purposes and the importance of reading. Also, it includes reading models and reading strategies. Finally, promoting autonomy through reading strategies is also discussed within this chapter followed by a conclusion.

2.1 Autonomy

The concept of autonomy in education dates back to more than half a century ago. Holec (1981), one of the earliest advocates of autonomy in language teaching and learning has defined it as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (p. 3). The definitions have been varied from one researcher to another. Dickenson (1995)

considered autonomy as “both an attitude toward learning and a capacity for independent learning” (p. 166). The dictionary of language acquisition defined it as:

Autonomy is a construct which is often associated with and sometimes used synonymously with ‘independent learning’. The main thrust of the concept is that the more a learner is able to learn a language without the direction of the teacher (a) the better he is prepared for lifelong learning of that language and (b) the more motivated he will be to pursue learning (as cited in Tavakoli, 2012, p. 33).

In other words, autonomy is recognized as the ability to make your own decisions about what to do rather than being influenced by someone else or told what to do. Little (2004) defined autonomy as “learning how to learn intentionally” (p. 105). It means that learners’ self-awareness of their own techniques, strategies, motivation, strength and weaknesses comes to prominence. As learners “select, evaluate and revise or abandon a task, goals and strategies, they self-regulate their learning” (Harwood, 2010, p. 182). i.e., self-regulation is prescribed by the learners’ awareness, and those actions enable them to raise their awareness about learning. At the same time, they improve and develop effective skills.

Little (2004) said, “The scope of [one’s] autonomy always depends on what we can already do” (p. 106). According to this assumption, we may say that the EFL students act on what they can perform. Teachers have to extract the student’s existing knowledge to explicit awareness during the development of classroom activities.

In developing autonomy in the EFL classroom, Benson (2001, p. 29) argued that:

Autonomy is perhaps best described as a capacity ... because various kinds of abilities can be involved in control over learning. Researchers generally agree that the most important abilities are those that allow learners to plan their own learning activities, monitor their progress and evaluate their outcomes.

According to Littlewood (1999, as cited in Kharaghani, 2013, p.791), all the definitions of autonomy have included these central features:

- Students should take responsibility for their own learning. This is both; because all learning can only be fulfilled by the students themselves, also because they need to develop the capability to continue learning after ending their formal education.
- Taking responsibility involves learners in taking ownership (partial or total) of many processes, which have usually belonged to the teacher, such as setting learning objectives, selecting learning methods and evaluating development.

2.2 Reading

Researchers in the field of teaching and learning have proposed many definitions of reading. They considered it as a complex cognitive process that involves many elements students need to do in order to read effectively. Reading is also considered as a means of communication by which, we share ideas, thoughts, opinions, etc. it requires an interaction between the reader and the written text in order to make sense, and construct the meaning from it. That is, reading is an activity that translates written symbols into sentences in order to create a meaning. Grabe and Stoller (2002) stated that, "reading is the ability to draw meaning from the printed page and interpret this information appropriately" (p. 9). That is, reading means looking at the meaning from the material (text) so as to understand it properly relying on the reader's ability to translate the written text. In addition, reading may be defined as the reader's prior knowledge, attitudes, experiences he/she has with the text in order to extract the meaning. Dechant (1991) said, "When reading, we use eyes to receive written symbols (letters, marks and punctuation)" (p. 9). That is, reading is a complex activity that involves related processes; perception, thought and comprehension to make sense of words and sentences.

In addition, Bamford and Day (2004) explained that "reading English is difficult. Much of pupils' school reading experience has been acquired through testing, not teaching with extensive reading (ER), they should read a lot of easy books" (p. 20). That is, students have to practice reading starting from easy materials (texts) in order to improve their reading skill, so later, students can decode the message transmitted by the writer easily no matter how the text is difficult. Travis (1994) stated that "when we speak about reading, we usually have in mind the reading of a particular kind of text; one that is in the form of printed language" (p. 19). This means that, reading is a

process of drawing information from a text, giving an interpretation and analysing that information. In other words, reading is the ability to grasp meaning.

To sum up, reading is a sort of communication that occurs between the reader and the text. This process makes the reader decode the symbols of the text and extract the meaning to make sense of what has been written.

2.3 Types of Reading

Reading varies according to many factors among them: reader's aim from reading a particular subject or text, the nature of the subject, and the pace of reading. Reading types are those various behaviours adapted by the reader during the reading activity. Brown (1989) suggested one way in which these types can be categorized. According to him "reading should be either oral or silent" (p. 68). That is, if the reader chooses to read silently, then he/she wants to concentrate more on getting the gist of the text whereas, if the reader chooses to read aloud then, he/she tries the pronunciation of words and tests his/her reading speed. Within the category of silent reading, students encounter intensive and extensive reading. Intensive reading is used when individuals read a particular reading equipments in school or work place to remove specific information of their concern. Extensive reading is used when there is a tendency of reading for, personal gratification and enjoyment.

2.3.1 Intensive Reading

Intensive reading is a concentrated and related reading. It concerns shorter texts and aims at accomplishing learning goals (Harmer, 2001, p. 204). This type of reading requires a thorough reading of the text paying attention to the minimum details. This is why it is sometimes called "narrow reading". Intensive reading is used when the objective of reading is to achieve full comprehension of the text. According to

Bader (2007) during this type of reading, the learner gains text comprehension to form a critical view. Thus, to be able to state well established opinion about the content, the arguments, the message, the language, the intention and the form of a text. In addition, Brown (1989) explained that intensive reading “calls attention to grammatical forms, discourse makers and other surface structure details for the purpose of understanding literal meaning, implications, rhetorical relationships, and the like”. In the same vein, Day and Bamford (1998) proposed a definition to intensive reading as “to take a text, study it line by line, referring at every moment to our dictionary and our grammar, comparing, analysing, translating, and retaining every expression that it contains” (p. 5). In other words, in the intensive reading, readers are required to carefully analyse the text that hand in terms of vocabulary, grammar, syntax and discourse.

2.3.2 Extensive Reading

According to Grellet (1981), extensive reading refers to “reading longer text, usually for one’s own pleasure. This is a fluency activity mainly involving global understanding” (p. 4). In other words, extensive reading means reading long materials for pleasure with the aim of achieving general understanding rather than looking for specific details. For Brown (1989), extensive reading “[occurs] when students read large amounts of high interest material, usually out of a class, concentrating on meaning ‘reading for gist’ and skipping unknown words” (p. 68). Thus, the focus is on the amounts of the materials read including ; books, articles, novels, excerpts of all what is in a written form. In the same vein, Richards and Schmidt (2002) said : “extensive reading means reading in quantity and in order to gain a general understanding of what is read”(as cited in Yamashita, 2004). One characteristic of extensive reading is that it involves personal choice of the material and dealing with a variety of topics. As stated by Day and Bamford (1998), “extensive reading means having a wide range of books

available and allowing students to choose what they want to read" (p. 11). That is, reading extensively does not mean to force students to read topics of no interest but, allowing them to neglect difficult parts that they do not understand.

In conclusion, intensive and extensive reading are two important types of reading. Intensive reading presents new language to learner, while extensive reading improves learners' speed and fluency of reading.

2.4 Reading Purposes

There are different purposes that make learners read. Harmer (2007) gave three major purposes for reading texts in English "in the first place, many pupils want to be able to read texts in English either for their career, for study purposes or simply for pleasure" (p. 99). Generally speaking, reading is a beneficial skill to acquire language, because it provides learners with new vocabulary knowledge. Also, reading different texts in different topics encourages the discussion between learners. Harmer (2001) claimed that reading is used as an affective exposure to the aimed language. He said:

Any exposure to English is a good thing for language learners. At a very least, some of the language sticks in the mind as part of the language acquisition, and if the reading text is especially interesting and engaging, acquisition is likely to be even more successful (p. 68).

2.4.1 Reading for Academic Knowledge

Reading for academic knowledge is used when the objective of reading is to achieve full comprehension of a text. Sometimes, learners cannot find all the information they need in their textbook, they need to search for other sources. In

addition, learners may need specific information that would be too detailed for a textbook. According to Glendenning and Holmstron (2004, p. 129):

For research, you need the most up-to date information available. For most research, you will need to use recent information from journals, articles. In fact, the best way of searching journals is to use database of abstracts and indexes- to find the information you want quickly, you need to develop an effective search strategy.

This type of reading enables readers to learn new information about new subjects and to find helpful information on academic subjects, and thus increase learner's academic knowledge.

2.4.2 Reading for Pleasure

Reading for pleasure may be the easiest way to become a better reader in English. It is also called voluntary reading, spare time reading, recreational reading, and independent reading. It occurs outside the school that is why it is a self-selected reading. Reading for pleasure aims at building readers' confidence while enjoying the art of reading, without neglecting the improvement of their attitudes towards reading and becoming more motivated to read. Moreover, this type of reading develops reading skills, fluency, positive reading habit and develops the ability of critical thinking which is important for students' success. In addition, it improves learners' creativity and cognitive development. Grabe (1991, p. 396) asserted that "longer concentrated period of silent reading builds vocabulary and structural awareness, develops automaticity, enhance background knowledge, improve comprehension skill, and promote confidence and motivation "(as cited in Ghilani, 2015, p. 22). Many researchers suggested that the

main crucial materials used by learners for reading in their free time are : newspapers, magazines, literature, comic books, stories, songs, etc.

Reading for pleasure is very important for learning English; it makes the learner learn more about writing and learns what he/she needs. Mikulecky and Jefferies (2005, p.2) advocated that:

Reading for pleasure will help you learn new words, read faster in English, learn how English speakers use English, find examples of good writing in English and also, learn about the cultures of English speakers. Reading for pleasure is the key to take English language easily, and encourages learners to master new reading and broaden their vocabulary.

This quotation shows that in reading for pleasure; learner can acquire new words, knowledge, and ideas, and shows reading as very necessary in learning English as a foreign language.

To conclude, reading encourages learners to reflect on their reading strategies. Moreover, it helps to improve their efficiency. Mikulecky and Jefferies (2005) said:

When you read in English; you build your English vocabulary, you learn to write better in English, you practice English, even if you live in non-English Speaking country, you can find out about new ideas, facts and experiences. Also, you learn to think in English (p. 6).

2.5 The Importance of the Reading Skill

Reading is the most important skill which allows students to be engaged in the world. It encourages students to think and learn a variety of materials. According to Glendinning (2004, p. 32) "reading develops students' skills by making them better writers ; since they may face different rules of grammar which will help them later in developing a sense for structures of the language and grammar and increase their vocabulary"(as cited in Nasri, 2013, p. 15). i. e., reading plays an important role in developing the writing skill because reading gives key words, ideas, and information about the topic that you will write about. It helps in acquiring good style and producing good writing. Reading has also a great importance in improving the speaking skills. Sevjee (2008, p. 23) said that :

Maybe reading have an important part to play than speaking and listening for a learner as without reading, he cannot achieve his goals. While reading a book, he can travel to all around the world while sitting in his place, and can make contact with all kinds of people, and come across all sorts of dialects. He learns to distinguish between good and bad, acquires all kinds of information which helps to be a better speaker and a better writer (as cited in Shamila, 2010).

That is, reading improves the learners' speaking skills by providing key words, ideas and information which the speaker needs for successful communication as well as it develops his conversational skills. So, reading enables students to have a kind of interaction and to form their own thoughts.

Reading has an important effect on vocabulary. Students who have a large vocabulary are usually good readers because the only way to acquire a large vocabulary is to read extensively. In addition, reading develops creativity and helps them to identify unusual connections.

Finally, reading is a very active state exercise for learners' mind. It forces his/her brain cells to engage in an activity as he/she paints a vivid image in his/her mind about the story that he/she is reading. The brain is a muscle which must be trained on a regular basis. The reading habit keeps the mental faculties constantly engaged and, therefore, keeps the person sharper and smarter.

2.6 Reading Models

The term model can be defined as a "systematic set of guesses as predictions about a hidden process" (Davies, 1995, p. 57 as cited in Gridi, 2006, p. 18). It is developed to describe the way readers use language information to construct meaning from print as it is the communication between the writer and reader. Reading models refer to what happens on the level of perception by the eyes and analysis by the brain during the process of reading. Barnett (1989) pointed out that models of reading varied in the emphasis placed on text-based variables. e.g., vocabulary, syntax, rhetorical structure, and cultural content in addition to reader-based variables, e.g., background knowledge of the word and texts, cognitive development, interest and purpose in reading, and strategy use. The most important models referred to in second language reading research are bottom-up, top-down and interactive models.

2.6.1 Bottom-up Model

Alderson (2000) pointed out that "bottom-up approaches are serial models, where reader begins the print word, recognizes graphics, stimuli, decodes them to sounds, recognizes words and decodes meaning" (p. 16). This means that the reader starts

decoding letters, words, phrases and sentences and lastly building up meaning from this incoming text. Simply put the reader in the bottom-up model, first identifies features of letters, combines letters to recognize spelling patterns, links spelling patterns to recognize words, and then proceeds to sentences, paragraph, and text-level processing. (Skudienne, 2002, p. 94). Within the same stream, Davies (1995) referred to the bottom-up models as “models of the reading process that describe the process as a sequence of discrete ‘steps’, in which the direction of processing is from ‘bottom-level’ features of text to ‘higher levels’, that is to say, from the identification of letters to sounds, to words, to sentences and finally to meaning and thinking ” (p. 169).

However, the bottom-up model was criticized. According to Eskey (2005), it is not sufficient because it reflects the involvement of the reader who makes prediction and process information. This approach fails to recognize that students use their expectations about the text based on their knowledge of language.

2.6.2 Top-down Model

Goodman (1968) described reading in the top-down model as “a psycholinguistic guessing game in which the reader makes predictions and then samples just enough of the text to inform these predictions” (p. 126). This means that, the reader in this model uses his/her schemata or background knowledge of the word or of a particular text components to make intelligent guess about what might come next in the text; then, when he/she proceeds with the reading process, he/she confirms or rejects what has been hypothesized earlier about the content after going through the text. Therefore, reading in the top-down models focuses much on student’s prior knowledge as Smith (1985) said, “the more you already know, the less you need to find out” (as cited in Vacca, J. A. L., et al., 2006, p. 27). It means that, the more readers know in advance about the topic to be read; the less they need to use the given

information. However, the top-down model is good only for skillful, fluent readers for whom perception and decoding have become automatic, not for less proficient readers. As a result, a need for another model to approach reading has grown.

2.6.3 Interactive Model

The interactive model suggests that the process of translating printed symbols to meaning involves the use of both, prior knowledge and decoding graphic symbols. So that, it combines both the bottom-up and top-down models. According to Rumelhart (1977), who came up with this model, reading is an interactive process that involves perceptual and cognitive processes. Grabe (1988) stated that the reader in the interactive model of reading can opt for a variety of skills that permit him/her to process and interpret the meaning of the text. Hence, the reader makes use of both his/her schemata and background knowledge as well as the orthographic knowledge to facilitate word recognition, and therefore, makes sense of what has been read. Stanovich's idea (1980, p. 63) was that the reader can employ his/her strengths in decoding process to compensate his/her weaknesses in making an accurate prediction. The latter is based on the reader's background knowledge in order to facilitate comprehension. Thus, both bottom-up and top-down are important in the interactive model.

2.7 Reading Strategies

2.7.1 Definition of Reading Strategies

Several studies in the field of reading have investigated strategies for reading comprehension in general and in second/foreign language in particular. The majority of these studies provide different definitions to the term 'reading strategies'. Cohen (1986) defined reading strategies as conscious mental processes whereby the reader chooses to use to accomplish certain reading tasks. In addition to Cohen, Barnett (1989) used the

term to refer to the mental operations involved when readers purposefully approach a text to make sense of what they read (as cited in Tercanlioglu, 2004, p. 564). This means that, reading strategies include specific actions and techniques that consciously employed by the learner for reading. McNamara (2007) explained reading comprehension strategy as “a cognitive or behavioural action that is enacted under particular contextual conditions, with the goal of improving some aspect of comprehension” (p.6). This means, reading strategies help readers to better comprehend information because they provide the ways to tackle complex problems in a more efficient way.

Reading strategies are important, not only to successful comprehension, but also to overcome reading problems and to make students better readers. Therefore, teachers should bring a set of strategies that best taught explicitly during learning. Researchers in the field of second language acquisition have anticipated that readers who are not aware of reading strategies are poor and have less chance in reading. Kletzein and Pressly (as cited in Abresold and Field 1997, p. 110) designated that “poor readers are less likely than good readers to question their guess about the meaning of reading, and are less likely to recognize evidence that contradict their guess”.

2.7.2 Examples of Reading Strategies

Effective readers develop a set of reading strategies and match each strategy to its appropriate reading context, type of text, and their reading purposes. Oxford (1990) suggested six reading strategies extracted from the learning strategies. They are as follows: *predicting, skimming, scanning, inferring, guessing the word meaning and self-monitoring.*

2.7.2.1 Predicting

Researchers and psychologists consider the predicting strategy as an effective technique to promote reading comprehension. It refers to the use of the reader's prior or background knowledge of the subject to make guesses and predictions about content and vocabulary. According to Burbia (2010), prediction refers to "student's ability to see what is to be read ahead. It is a mental activity, and an important reading strategy which involves the prior making of hypothesis about what comes next in the reading material on the basis of what is already known" (p. 2). Prediction plays an important role in reading comprehension. According to Burbia (2010, p. 22), the predicting strategy:

Prepares students for what is coming ahead in the text they are going to read. It improves their reading speed as well as it saves their time by predicting the following content, and it helps them to become self-independent, confident, and not frightened to read immediately and react positively to a given text.

2.7.2.2 Skimming

Skimming means to "glance the text quickly for the purpose of having a general overview of the organizational pattern used, and extracting the gist of the whole passage as well as the main idea of each paragraph of the text at hand" (Grellet, 1981). This means, to go through the reading material quickly in order to get the overall of the text by looking for its title, writer's name, date and place of publication. As well as, by reading the first paragraph completely, subheadings and the first sentences of the remaining paragraph (es). Skimming is appropriate when there is no time to read the material carefully, or when trying to decide if careful reading is merited.

2.7.2.3 Scanning

Orr (1992) stated that “while scanning, your mind will have to be very alert and active. Your eyes act only as the collectors of information. Your mind must do the registering and analysing” (p. 55). i.e., scanning involves a quick eye movement over the page, looking for a specific information that is needed. Scanning is a crucial skill that saves time when one is doing research, because it puts a focus on the task (May, 2010, p. 18).

2.7.2.4 Inferring

The act of making inferences is very crucial in reading. According to Kristin et al., (2009), inferring includes:

- Pronoun reference (knowing that pronoun in a sentence refers back to).
- Forming hypothesis about what coming next in the text.
- Guessing the meaning of unknown words or phrases.
- Forming impressions about character's motives and behaviours across multiple locations in a text.
- Knowing the subtle connotations of words as they are used in particular contexts.
- Understanding cause-effect relationships of events mentioned at different times in a text.
- Drawing upon background knowledge in order to fill in gaps within a text.

2.7.2.5 Guessing word meaning

It is an important strategy used in reading. It refers to the use of reader's previous knowledge of the subject and ideas about the text as clues to the meaning of the unfamiliar words. This strategy enables the reader to check the meaning of a word without using the dictionary.

2.7.2.6 Self-monitoring

This strategy involves reader's awareness and his knowledge of the appropriate time to use the appropriate strategy to tackle problems. Kern (1988) pointed out that, "This strategy implies that readers are aware of their reading. They are self-directed and can manage successfully the process of how and when to use the reading strategies to solve the problems they may face for a better reading comprehension".

2.8 Promoting Autonomy through Reading Strategies

Autonomy in a reading classroom cannot be expected to occur overnight. It is found that English reading comprehension can be improved by integrating autonomous modes of learning into classroom practice (Matsubara & Lehtinen, 2007). Carell and Eisterhold (1989, p. 73) argued that there is a significant relationship between autonomous learning and reading skill, and that knowledge gained in this way readily for real use in real life.

The instruction of reading strategies may probably be regarded as an important factor for the success of learner autonomy. This is because reading strategies are "actions, behaviours, steps or techniques students use, often unconsciously, to improve their progress in apprehending, internalizing, and using the L2" (Oxford, 1990, p. 1). That is, with appropriate knowledge of those reading strategies, learners may probably become less dependent on their teachers. These strategies may aim to enhance learners' active involvement in reading instead of the dependence on their teacher. Moreover, teachers for instance could train their students on how to use various reading strategies to deal with different types of reading texts. In this way, students manage to read strategically and confidently by themselves and so, they develop their learner autonomy.

To sum up, reading strategies may help to promote learners' autonomy because they have greater enjoyment and motivation to read, inside and outside the classroom.

Apart from the improved reading proficiency, students may use those reading strategies while reading autonomously, resulting in greater learner autonomy in the long term.

Conclusion

This chapter was concerned with autonomy in reading. It first started by defining the concept of autonomy which is viewed as the learner's capacity for independent learning. Then, it defined the concept of reading which is recognized as an important language skill that permits learners to successfully interpret the writer's message in the text. Moreover, this chapter shed light on the various types and models of reading that readers tend to adopt depending on their aims of reading. These aims can be either for academic success or for pleasure. Finally, this chapter provided a clear understanding of the reading strategies such as predicting, guessing, inferring, etc., which, learners use to achieve their aims, to understand well the text at hand and to find solutions when they stumble upon difficulties while reading, as well as to promote and foster their autonomy in reading.

Introduction

In order to study the descriptive correlation between motivation and the construction of learner's autonomy in reading at the University of Jijel, a cross-sectional study was conducted in order to compensate for the lack of enough time to conduct a longitudinal study of the same learners. The research tools used to achieve this purpose are two different questionnaires. The first one was "Language Learning Orientations Scale" which is used to measure Students' motivation. It was adapted from the Academic Motivation Scale (Vallerand et al., 1989, 1992, 1993). Whereas, the second one is used to measure students' autonomy in reading, and it was designed by the authors of the present dissertation.

3.1 Language Learning Orientations Scale Questionnaire

Language Learning Orientations Scale (LLOS) used in this study was adapted from the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS, Vallerand et al., 1989, 1992, 1993). It is a measure with seven (7) points rating scale based on self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2002). LLOS has 21 items with three scales. Three items are about amotivation, nine items are about extrinsic motivation, and nine items are about intrinsic motivation. In this study, we use only eleven (11) items because some of them are approximately the same. This is why; we use three (3) items for amotivation, four (4) for extrinsic motivation and four (4) for intrinsic motivation. By doing this, the results will not be biased.

3.1.1 Sampling

The students in the present study were selected randomly out from the large population of the first, second, and the third year license students of English Department at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University-Jijel, during the academic

year 2015-2016. As a sample, forty-five (45) students were involved, fifteen (15) from each level. However, only 13 questionnaires from first year students, 11 questionnaires from second year students and 14 questionnaires from third year students were handed. In order to establish equality among the three sub-samples, so as to allow for comparison across the three levels, five (5) questionnaires were discarded randomly from the study.

3.1.2 Data Presentation and Analysis

LEARNERS' MOTIVATION AND THEIR AUTONOMY IN READING46

Table 3.1 :

Point-scale		(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)		(5)		(6)		(7)		<i>First Year Students' Motivation Questionnaire (LLOS)</i>
Motivation's type		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Amotivation	(a)	06	54,54	04	36,36	00	0	00	0	01	9,09	00	0	00	0	
	(b)	08	72,72	00	0	02	18,18	00	0	00	0	00	0	01	9,09	
	(c)	05	45,45	02	18,18	01	9,09	01	9,09	01	9,09	01	9,09	00	0	
Extrinsic Motivation	(d)	01	9,09	00	0	02	18,18	05	45,45	00	0	02	18,18	01	9,09	
	(e)	00	0	02	18,18	00	0	02	18,18	03	27,27	02	18,18	02	18,18	
	(f)	00	0	01	9,09	01	9,09	02	18,18	03	27,27	03	27,27	01	9,09	
	(g)	00	0	00	0	02	18,18	03	27,27	03	27,27	00	0	03	27,27	
Intrinsic Motivation	(h)	01	9,09	02	18,18	02	18,18	00	0	01	9,09	02	18,18	03	27,27	

LEARNERS' MOTIVATION AND THEIR AUTONOMY IN READING48

The results in table (3.1) demonstrate that the majority of first year students claim that, they have a reason for studying the English language. That is, most of them (54, 54%, 72,72% and 45,45%) choose the point-scale “does not correspond” for items (a, b, c) respectively. Which means that first year students are motivated to learn English. Moving to the second type, the majority of them (45,45%, 18,18%, 18,18% and 27,27%) choose the point-scale “corresponds moderately” followed by a high number of those who choose “corresponds a lot for items (d, e, f, g) which means that first year students are somehow extrinsically motivated to learn English. Concerning the third type of motivation, most of the students (18,18%, 45,45% and 18,18%) choose the point scale “corresponds very little” for items (h, I, k and g). this means that, first year students are not intrinsically motivated to learn English.

LEARNERS' MOTIVATION AND THEIR AUTONOMY IN READING49

Table 3.2 :

Point-scale		(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)		(5)		(6)		(7)		<i>Second YearSt udents' Motivat ion Questio naire (LLOS)</i>
Motivation's type		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Amotivation	(a)	06	54,54	02	18,18	03	27,27	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	
	(b)	10	90,90	01	9,09	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	
	(c)	08	72,72	01	9,09	01	9,09	00	0	01	9,09	00	0	00	0	
Extrinsic Motivation	(d)	00	0	01	9,09	00	0	01	9,09	00	0	03	27,27	06	54,54	
	(e)	01	9,09	01	9,09	01	9,09	02	18,18	03	27,27	01	9,09	02	18,18	
	(f)	00	0	03	27,27	00	0	01	9,09	04	36,36	01	9,09	02	18,18	
	(g)	00	0	02	18,18	00	0	00	0	01	9,09	05	45,45	01	9,09	
	(h)	01	9,09	00	0	03	27,27	03	27,27	01	9,09	00	0	03	27,27	
	(i)	01	9,09	00	0	05	45,45	02	18,18	03	27,27	00	0	00	0	
	(j)	00	0	01	9,09	03	27,27	02	18,18	02	18,18	01	9,09	02	18,18	
Intrinsic Motivation	(k)	01	9,09	00	0	01	9,09	01	9,09	05	45,45	03	27,27	00	0	

LEARNERS' MOTIVATION AND THEIR AUTONOMY IN READING⁵⁰

The results in table (3.2) indicate that, the majority of second year students (54,54%, 90,90% and 72,72%) do not consider learning the English language as a waste of time. Most of them choose the point-scale “does not correspond for items (a, b, c), this means that second year students are motivated to learn English. Moving to the second type of motivation, a high number of third year students (54,54%, 18,18%, 18,18% and 18,18%) choose the point-scale “corresponds exactly”, followed by a high number (27,27%, 9,09%, 9,09% and 45,45%) of students who choose the point-scale “corresponds almost exactly” for items (d, e, f, g). This means that, second year students are extrinsically motivated to learn English. Concerning the third type of motivation, the majority of students (27,27%, 45,45%, 27,27%, 9,09%) choose the point-scale “correspond a little”, followed by a high number of students (9,09%, 27,27%, 18,18%, 45,45%) for items (h, i, j, k). This means that second year students are somehow Intrinsically motivated to learn English.

LEARNERS' MOTIVATION AND THEIR AUTONOMY IN READING51

Table 3.3 :

ThirdYearStudents' Motivation Questionnaire (LLOS)

Point-scale		(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)		(5)		(6)		(7)	
Motivation's type															
Amotivation		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
		(a)	09	81,81	01	9,09	00	0	00	0	00	0	01	9,09	00
(b)	06	54,54	01	9,09	03	27,27	00	0	01	9,09	00	0	00	0	
(c)	08	72,72	01	9,09	00	0	01	9,09	01	9,09	00	0	00	0	
Extrinsic Motivation	(d)	02	18,18	00	0	03	27,27	00	0	02	18,18	01	9,09	03	27,27
	(e)	02	18,18	01	9,09	02	18,18	02	18,18	02	18,18	00	0	02	18,18
	(f)	02	18,18	02	18,18	05	45,45	02	18,18	00	0	00	0	00	0
	(g)	01	9,09	02	18,18	02	18,18	02	18,18	00	0	02	18,18	02	18,18
	(h)	00	0	00	0	00	0	03	27,27	01	9,09	06	54,54	01	9,09
	(i)	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	05	45,45	00	0	07	63,63
	(j)	00	0	00	0	00	0	04	36,36	00	0	03	27,27	04	36,36
Intrinsic Motivation	(k)	00	0	00	0	00	0	00	0	02	18,18	01	9,09	08	72,72

The results in table (3.3) demonstrate that, the majority of third year students (81,81%, 54,54%, 72,75%) have a reason for learning the English language. Most of them choose the point-scale “does not correspond” for items (a, b, c) which means that third year students are motivated to learn the English language. Moving to the second type of motivation, a high number of the population (27,27%, 18,18%, 45,45%, 18,18%) choose the point-scale “corresponds a little” for items (d, e, f, g) which means that third year students are not extrinsically motivated to learn English. Concerning the third type of motivation, most students (9,09%, 63,63%, 36,36%, 72,72%) choose the point-scale “corresponds exactly” for items (h, i, j, k). This means that third year students are intrinsically motivated to learn English.

From the results above, we conclude that the majority of students from the three levels are motivated to learn the English language. Whereas, the overriding majority of the first year sub-sample can be credited with having a high level of extrinsic motivation. The results also show that, while second language students from our sample can also be said to have overwhelmingly extrinsic motivation. The level of this type of motivation is far more than that found among first year students. Interestingly enough, third year students sub-sample have demonstrated a high level of another type, namely intrinsic motivation.

Concerning what has been said in the literature (see figure 1.1), we can say that there is a gradual movement from extrinsic to intrinsic motivation. This movement is due to the fact that, first year students are motivated to learn English for social purposes. For instance, they seek approval from their teacher and compare their performance with their peers. Second year students are motivated to achieve their goals, to demonstrate evidence for their learning and to develop growth mindset, therefore, they are more extrinsically motivated. Whereas, third year students are motivated to

raise their self-actualization. For instance, they learn for the love of learning, they become happy when learning a new skill, and attaining knowledge. Thus, Third year students are intrinsically motivated. (see figure 1.1).

3.2 Autonomy in Reading Questionnaire

3.2.1 Description of the Students' Questionnaire

The questionnaire includes five sections. The first section is concerned with reading proficiency. The second section deals with reading strategies. The third section is about the aims of reading. The fourth section is concerned with reading materials. The last section, which is the most important one, is about autonomy in reading.

Section one: Proficiency in Reading

This section is entitled 'proficiency in reading', it includes nine questions. The reason behind putting these questions is to know students' attitudes toward reading. For instance, students were asked about their level in reading, what they prefer to read, and the elements that attract them to read a particular text.

Section Two: Reading Strategies

This section is entitled 'reading strategies', it includes four questions. The main causes behind putting these questions are to investigate whether students have been trained on reading strategies or not, and whether they follow a specific strategy in reading a particular material.

Section Three: Aims of Reading

This section includes only one question. It attempts to explore learners' reasons for reading, and whether these reasons differ from one level to another.

Section Four: Reading Materials

This section includes six questions. The aim of this section is to know which materials students use in their learning. Also, it aims at investigating whether there is a development in the choice of materials from one level to another.

Section Five: Autonomy in Reading

The last section is entitled 'autonomy in reading'. It is composed of eight questions. The main goal behind these questions is to investigate students' autonomy in reading, to know whether there is a development in students' self-reliance as they move from one level to another, and to see the role of autonomous reading in language proficiency.

3.2.2 Data Presentation and Analysis

Background Information

Gender

Table 3.4

English Students' Gender

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Male	0	0	2	18,18	2	18,18
Female	11	100	9	81,81	9	81,81
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

The table shows that female participants outnumber male participant. In fact, this is even the case with regard to the sample under study.

- In first year, we have recorded (11) female participants out of 11, making-up (100%).
- In second year, we have recorded (2) male participants out of 11 making-up (18.18%).
Whereas, the rest are female participants (81.81%).
- In third year, we have recorded (2) male participants out of 11 participants, making up (18.18%). While, female participants have recorded nine (9) that is (81.81%).

Concerning the three levels, we have recorded four (4) male participants making up (12.12%). Whereas, the rest are female participants. That is (87.88%). These results consolidate the common belief that female have more tendency and willingness towards studying foreign languages and English in particular.

Section one: Proficiency in Reading

Q 1: Do you like to read?

Table 3.5

Students' Attitudes towards Reading

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	11	100	11	100	7	63.63
No	0	0	0	0	4	36.36
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Table (3.5) shows that there are different views about whether students like reading or not. We found that there are diverse views about students like or dislike of reading.

- In the first year, we have noticed that all of the participants like reading.

- In the second year, all participants like reading
- In the third year, we have recorded that (63.63%) of participants like reading, while (36.36%) of them dislike it.

From the table above, it is deduced that there is a consistency in first year and second year students' positive attitudes towards reading. However, four (36.36%) of third year students have a negative view, i.e., they do not like reading at all. These results show that the majority of students from the three levels find reading a good skill for learning the language.

Q 2: how do you evaluate your level in reading?

Table 3.6

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Excellent	1	9,09	0	0	1	9,09
Good	6	54,54	7	63,63	6	54,54
Average	4	36,36	4	36,36	4	36,36
Bad	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Students' Level in Reading

Table (3.6) indicates the following:

- (54,54%) of first year students consider their level in reading English as “good”, and (36,36%) of them consider their level as “average”. While, only one (9,09%) student considers his/her level as “excellent”.

- The majority of second year students (63,63%) claim that their level in reading is “good”. While, (36,36%) say that they have an “average” level in reading.
- (54,54%) of third year students claim that their level in reading is “good”, and (36,36%) of them consider their level as “average”. Only one student considers his/her level in reading as “excellent”.

These results show that there is a variation in all students' level of reading. However, the majority of them (19 students) consider themselves as “good” readers.

Q 3: In which language do you prefer to read?

Table 3.7

The Language in which Students Read Most.

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Mother tongue	5	45,45	1	9,09	2	18,18
English	2	18,18	7	63,63	7	63,63
Both of them	3	27,27	2	18,18	0	0
Others	1	9,09	1	9,09	2	18,18
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Table (3.7) indicates that:

- Five (45,45%) of first year students read in their mother tongue, (18,18%) read in English. While, (27,27%) of them like to read using both languages (their mother tongue and English). Only one student prefers to read in other languages.
- For second year students, (63,63%) of the total population like to read in English. While, (18,18%) of students like to read in both languages. We have recorded that one

student likes to read in his/her mother tongue and another one likes to read in other languages.

- The majority of third year students (63,63%) enjoy reading in English. While the rest are between reading in their mother tongue and using other languages.

Concerning the three levels of students, we deduced that first year students still have a tendency to read in their first language. Whereas, second and third year students have an inclination toward reading in English. Some of the students say that they also prefer to read in other languages like the French and Spanish.

Q 4: how often do you read in English as a part of the requirement of your university course?

Table 3.8

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Frequently	2	18,18	3	27,27	6	54,54
Sometimes	8	72,72	6	54,54	5	45,45
Rarely	0	0	2	18,18	0	0
Never	1	9,09	0	0	0	0
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

The Frequency of Students' Reading inside the Requirements of their University Course.

Table (3.8) shows that:

- The majority of first year students (72,72%) were found to read sometimes as a part of the requirements of their university course.(18,18%) of the total population admitted that they frequently do, and only one student admitted that he/she never do so.
- In second year, (54,54%) of students were found to read sometimes whereas, (27,27%) 'frequently' do so. Two of them (18,18%) admitted that they 'rarely' read.
- For third year students, the majority of them (54,54%) were found to read 'frequently'. While, (45,45%) of them are likely to read 'sometimes'.

These results show that the majority of first and second year students read 'sometimes' as a part of the requirements of their university course. However, most of third year students are found to read 'frequently', and this reflects their awareness of the importance of reading.

Q 5: How often do you read in English outside the requirements of your university course?

Table 3.9

The Frequency of Students' Reading in English outside the Requirements of their

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Frequently	1	9,09	4	36,36	7	63,63
Sometimes	6	54,54	6	54,54	3	27,27
Rarely	4	36,36	1	9,09	1	9,09
Never	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

University Course.

LEARNERS' MOTIVATION AND THEIR AUTONOMY IN READING60

Table (3.9) shows that:

- The majority of first year students (54,54%) were found to read 'sometimes' outside the requirements of their university course. (36,36%) of them admitted that they 'rarely' do.
- In second year, we have recorded 6 students (54,54%) who read 'sometimes', and (36,36%) of them say that they do it 'frequently'. Only one student says that he/she 'rarely' reads outside the requirement of his/her university course.
- The majority of third year students (63,63%) asserted that they 'frequently' read outside the requirements of their university course. Whereas, (27,27%) of them read 'sometimes', and just one student said that he/she 'rarely' read outside his/her university courses.

The results above show that the majority of students from all the three levels are found to read 'sometimes'. In addition to that, it shows the high tendency of third year students towards reading outside the requirements of their university courses. This confirms that they are interested in reading for pleasure.

Q 6: how often do you read in English per week?

Table 3.10

Students' Responses to how often they Read per week

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Every day	3	27,27	1	9,09	3	27,27
Frequently	4	36,36	7	63,63	7	63,63
Rarely	4	36,36	3	27,27	1	9,09
Never	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Table 3.10 indicates that:

- (36,36%) of first year students claimed that they read 'frequently'. The same rate has been enrolled for students who claimed that they read 'rarely'. While, (27,27%) of them claim that they read every day.
- In the second year, we have recorded (63,63%) of students who read 'frequently'. Whereas, (27,27%) say that they 'rarely' read, and only one student who say that he/she reads every day.
- The majority of third year students (63,63%) claimed that they read 'frequently'. (27,27%) of them say that they read 'every day'.

From the table above, we concluded that a high number of second and third year students tend to read 'frequently'. Whereas, first year students are found to have a

negative attitude toward reading in English. This reflects the fact that first year students are still attached to their mother tongue (see table 5).

Q 7: how many pages do you read per week?

Table 3.11

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Less than 50 page	7	63,63	9	81,81	10	90,90
Less than 100 page	3	27,27	2	18,18	1	9,09
More than 100 page	1	9,09	0	0	0	0
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Students' Responses of how many Pages they Read per week

Table (3.11) indicates the following:

- The majority of first year students (63,63%) said that they read less than 50 pages, (27,27%) of them read less than 100 page a week and only one student said that he/she reads more than 100 page.
- Nine (9) participants (81,81%) of second year said that they read less than 50 page, the rest of them (18,18%) said they read less than 100 page per week.
- Ten (10) participants (90,90%) of third year asserted that they read less than 50 page a week. Whereas, one participant said that he/she reads less than 100 page.

Concerning the results above, we can deduce that the majority of students from the three levels were found to read less than 50 pages per day. These results are due to

LEARNERS' MOTIVATION AND THEIR AUTONOMY IN READING63

the fact that students lack spare time to read, and the absence of a module that develops reading skills. Thus, this demotivate students to read extensively.

Q 8: the books you read are from

The library Internet books you buy

Table 3.12

Students' Resources for Reading.

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
The library	1	9,09	1	9,09	0	0
Internet	4	36,36	0	0	6	54,54
Books you buy	4	36,36	3	27,27	2	18,18
All of them	2	18,18	7	63,63	5	27,27
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Table (3.12) indicates the following:

- (36,36%) of first year students claimed that they read from books they buy. (36,36%) of them said that they rely on Internet and two participants said that they use all the above resources to read. Only one participant said that he/she borrows books from the library.
- The majority of second year students (63,63%) asserted that they rely on all the resources to read. While, (27,27%) of them said they prefer reading books they buy, and only one student said that he reads books from the library.
- In third year, we have recorded that most of the students (54,54%) use the internet to read what they are looking for, and (27,27%) said they use all kinds of resources to read. Two students (18,18%) said that they read from their own books.

From the results above, we have noticed that the use of library as a source to read has a weak ratio compared to the other resources. For instance, the majority of students from the three levels prefer to use either internet or books they buy. These results may be because students cannot find interesting books in the library, which serve their needs.

Q 9: what are the elements that encourage you to read on a particular text or book?

Table 3.13

Features that Encourage Students to Read a Particular Text/Book

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
The writer	2	18,18	1	9,09	1	9,09
The title	5	45,45	6	54,54	6	54,54
The plot	0	0	2	18,18	1	9,09
Language and style	3	27,27	1	9,09	1	9,09
Someone praised the text/ book	1	9,09	1	9,09	2	18,18
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

As this table demonstrates,

- The majority of first year students (45,45%) state that the title is the main element that pushes them to read a text/book. (27,27%) of them say it is the language and the style, whereas (18,18%) of them inform that the writer is the feature of a given book that encourages those most to read. Only one student reports that what makes him/her choose to read a particular book is the fact that someone praises the book for him/her.
- For second year students, most of them (54,54%) state that the title is the main element that makes them read that text/book. (18,18%) of students say it is the plot, whereas, (9,09%) say it is the writer, (9,09%) say it is the language and style and one student reports he/she reads due to the fact that someone praises a book.
- The majority of third year students (54,54%) state that the title is the main element that pushes them to read a text/book. (9,09%) of them, say it is the language and style. The same ratio was recorded for those who say that they read a book when someone praises it for them, and (9,09%) state that they read a book's because of its writer/author.

From the results, we can conclude that there is an agreement among the three levels. In fact, the majority of them are attracted by the title of the text/book. However, there is a slight difference between the other features.

Section Two: Reading Strategies

Q 10: have you been trained on reading strategies?

- If yes, have you found what you have been learnt useful?
- If no, do you feel the need to be trained?

Table 3.14

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	10	90,90	2	18,18	4	36,36
No	1	9,09	9	81,81	7	63,63
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Students' Response whether They have been trained on Reading Strategies or not

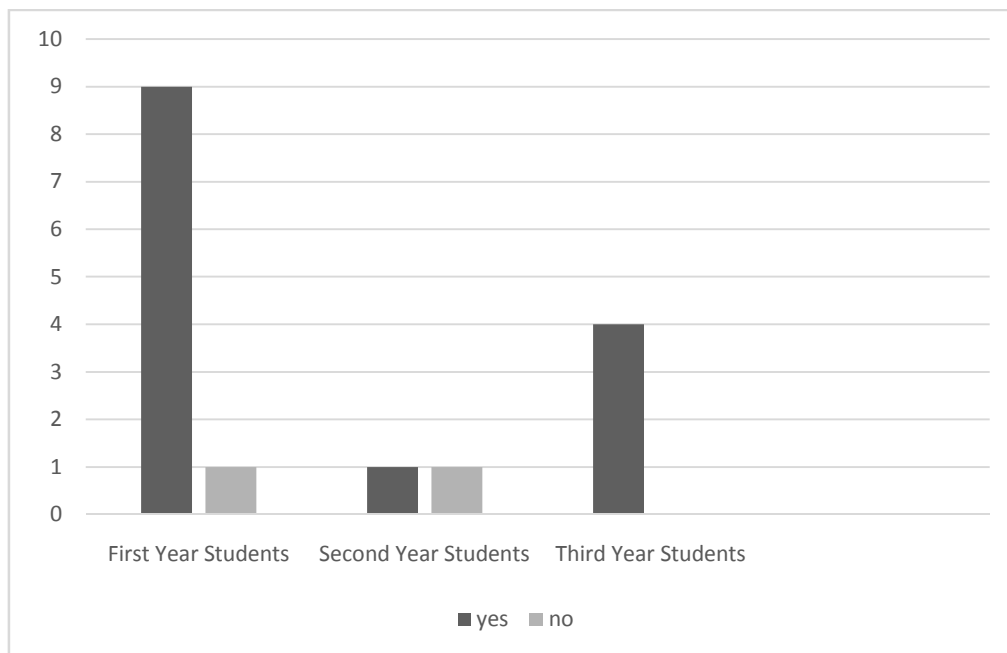


Figure 3.1: Students' Responses about the Usefulness of Reading Strategies

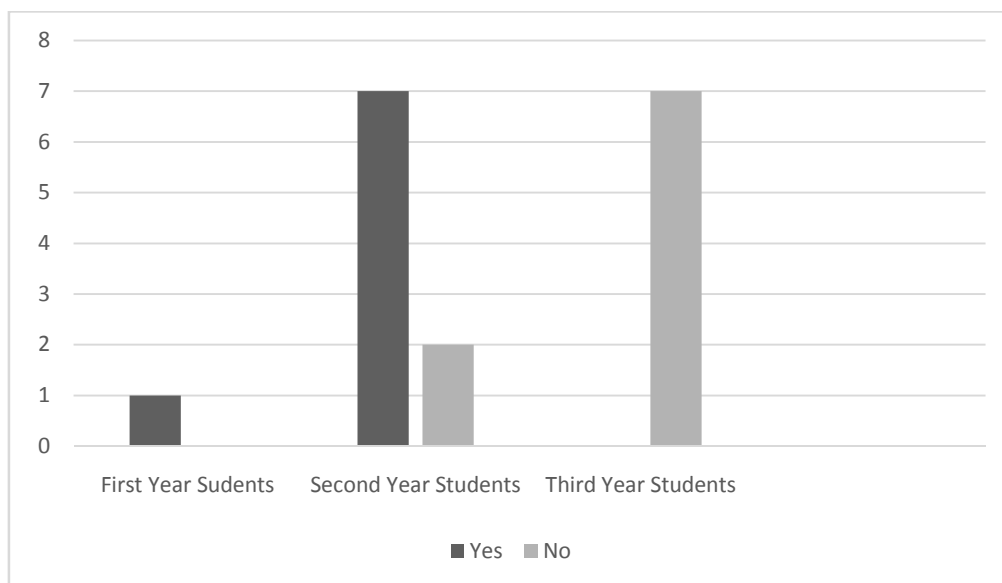


Figure 3.2: Students' Responses about the Need to be trained on Using Reading Strategies

Table (3.14), figures 1 and 2 indicate the following:

- The majority of first year students (90,90%) said that they have been trained on reading strategies, and most of them (90%) find it useful.
- (81,81%) of second year students claimed that they have not been trained on reading strategies. However, (77,77%) of them do not ignore its importance; they feel the need to be trained on using those strategies. Two participants asserted that they have been trained on RS, but they did not share the same idea about its importance.
- The majority of third year students (63,63%) informed that they have not been trained on RS, and (57,14%) of them feel the need to be trained on using them. However, (36,36%) of the total population said that they have been trained on reading strategies and they found it useful.

From table (3.14) and figures (3.1), (3.2), we conclude that the majority of first year students admitted that they have been trained on reading strategies (RS). However, second and third year students negated being trained on those reading strategies. These

results are due to the fact that students forget those reading strategies because of the absence of a module that promote the use of these strategies in second and third year, and mainly because of the lack of practice.

Q 11: which strategy do you mostly use in reading?

The present question is related to the strategies used mostly by learners in reading.

Table 3.15

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
A	6	54,54	4	36,36	7	63,63
B	3	27,27	3	27,27	2	18,18
C	1	9,09	3	27,27	0	0
D	1	9,09	1	9,09	2	18,18
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Students' mostly Used Strategies in Reading

The results in table (3.15) indicate the following:

- The majority of first year students (54,54%) said that they guess the general idea from the title. Whereas, the minority (9,09%) said that they prefer to read the first and the last part of the text.
- For second year students, we have recorded four students (36,36%) who said they guess the general idea from the title. While, (9,09%) of them said that they do not use any of the given strategies, simply decide to read the text or not.
- The majority of third year students (63,63%) asserted that they also guess the general idea from the title. Whereas, (18,18%) said they predict the content by linking previous

knowledge with the new information, and (18,18%) of them claimed that they do not use any of the given strategies.

Concerning the results above, we have noticed that English students use different strategies in reading a specific text. However, the majority of them agree on guessing the general idea from the title. This confirms the results in table (3.13). Also, as we have noticed before, second and third year students do not use reading strategies thus; they tend to guess the general idea directly from the title.

Q 12: Has the strategy you use in your reading changed, as your proficiency in English has developed?

Table 3.16

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	8	72,72	6	54,54	9	81,81
No	3	27,27	5	45,45	2	18,18
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Students Responses Whether their Reading has Developed or not

Table (3.16) shows that:

- The majority of first year students (72,72%) asserted that their reading strategies has changed as their proficiency in English has developed. However, (27,27%) said that it does not change.
- For second year students, (54,54%) of them agreed that the use of reading strategies has changed as their proficiency in English has developed. Whereas, (45,45%) of them said they their reading strategies does not changed.

- (81,81%) of third year students said that their use of reading strategies has changed as their proficiency in English has developed. (18,18%) of them asserted that their reading strategies have not changed.

From the results above, we have concluded that the majority of students from the three levels agree on the changes they undergo in the use of reading strategies as their language proficiency develop.

Q 13: Do you think that you need to follow a specific strategy to be effective in reading?

Table 3.17

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	10	90,90	9	81,81	7	63,63
No	1	9,09	2	18,18	4	36,36
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Students' Responses to whether They follow a Specific Strategy to be effective in Reading or not

Table (3.17) demonstrates the following:

- (90,90%) of first year students thought that, they need to use a specific strategy to follow in order to be effective in reading. Whereas, (9,09%) of them thought that it is not important.

- In second year, (81,81%) of student said that they need to follow a specific strategy to be effective in reading. While, (18,18%) of them said that they do not any strategy to read.
- For third year students, (63,63%) of them agreed on the need to follow a specific strategy, while the rest say they do not need it.

The results above indicate that although the majority of students from the three levels admitted that their reading strategy has changed as their proficiency in reading has developed, they were not satisfied with this change and prefer to follow a specific strategy in order to be effective reading.

Section Three: Aims of Reading

Q 14: How would you classify the following reasons for reading?

Table 3.18

First Year Students' Reordering of Reasons for Reading according to their Importance.

Reasons for reading	Positions in Terms of Importance					
	Pos 1	Pos 2	Pos 3	Pos 4	Pos 5	Pos 6
A	3	0	1	5	1	1
B	1	1	2	1	2	4
C	1	4	2	0	2	2
D	5	1	1	2	0	2
E	1	2	4	1	3	0
F	0	3	1	2	3	2

Table (3.18) shows that the majority of first year students (45,45%) gave great importance to enriching their vocabulary. (36,36%) of them put academic knowledge as the second most important reason to read in English. Also, (36,36%) of students

considered exposing themselves to the language. However, (36,36%) of the respondents considered reading for pleasure as the least important.

Table 3.19

Second Year Students' Reordering of Reasons for Reading according to their Importance.

Positions in Terms of Importance						
Reasons for reading	Pos 1	Pos 2	Pos 3	Pos 4	Pos 5	Pos 6
A	0	0	2	1	3	5
B	2	1	0	1	3	4
C	1	0	1	3	4	1
D	4	2	4	1	0	1
E	0	4	2	4	1	0
F	3	4	2	1	0	1

The results in table (3.19) show that the majority of second year students (36,36%) gave great importance to enriching their vocabulary. (36,36%) of them said that they want to expose themselves to the language as the second most important reason to read English. While, (45,45%) considered reading as a part of a class assignment as the least important.

Table 3.20

Positions in Terms of Importance

Reasons for reading	Pos 1	Pos 2	Pos 3	Pos 4	Pos 5	Pos 6
A	1	1	0	1	5	3
B	5	1	1	1	1	2
C	1	4	1	0	1	4
D	4	1	2	2	1	1
E	0	2	3	4	2	0
F	0	2	4	3	1	1

Third Year Students' Reordering of Reasons for Reading according to their Importance.

Table (3.20) indicates that (45,45%) of third year students gave great importance towards reading for pleasure. While, (36,36%) of them considered reading for academic knowledge as the second most important reason to read in the English language. On the other hand, (36,36%) considered reading for academic knowledge as the least important reason to read.

From tables (3.18), (3.19) and (3.20), we have found that, the majority of first and second year students consider enriching their vocabulary and academic knowledge as the most important reasons to read, while reading for pleasure is considered as the least important. On the other hand, the majority of third year students consider reading for pleasure as the most important reason to read in English.

Section Four : Reading Materials

Q 15: which type of materials do you read in your mother tongue?

Table 3.21

Students' Responses about the Type of Materials They read in their Mother Tongue.

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Novels and stories	5	45,45	3	27,27	4	36,36
Academic books	1	9,09	0	0	0	0
Newspapers and magazines	3	27,27	5	45,45	6	54,54
Information books	2	18,18	3	27,27	0	0
Poems	0	0	0	0	1	9,09
Fiction books	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Table (3.21) shows that,

- the majority of first year students (45,45%) claimed that they read novels and stories in their mother tongue, (27,27%) of them preferred reading newspapers and magazines, and (18,18%) was recorded for those who like reading information books.
- (45,45%) of second year students claimed that they read newspapers and magazines, (27,27%) of them said they read novels and stories, and (27,27%) said they read information books.
- The majority of third year students said they read newspapers and magazines, while, (36,36%) of them read novels and stories.

Q 16: which type of materials do you read in English?

Table 3.22

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Novels and stories	8	72,72	8	72,72	8	72,72
Academic books	3	27,27	3	27,27	0	0
Newspapers and magazines	0	0	0	0	1	9,09
Information books	0	0	0	0	1	9,09
Poems	0	0	0	0	0	0
Fiction books	0	0	0	0	1	9,09
Others	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Students' Responses about the Type of Materials They use while reading in English.

Table (3.22) shows that:

- (72,72%) of first year students said they read novels and stories, while (27,27%) of them preferred reading academic books.
- Most of second year students (72,72%) asserted that they read novels and stories, while (27,27%) of them liked reading academic books.
- The majority of third year students (72,72%) tended to read novels and stories. (9,09%) of them liked reading information books, (9,09%) of them said they read information books, and (9,09%) of them read fiction books.

Q 17: Do you have a favorite English writer?

Table 3.23

Students' Responses to whether They have a favorite English Writer

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	6	54,54	7	63,63	7	63,63
No	5	45,45	4	36,36	4	36,36
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

The results in table (3.23) indicate that:

- First year students (54,54%) said that they have a favorite English writer, while (45,45%) of them do not have any.
- Most of second year students (63,63%) reported that they have a favorite English writer, whereas, (36,36%) of them do not have any favorite author.
- For third year students, (63,63%) of them said they have a favorite English writer, while (36,36%) said they do not have any.

From the results above, we deduced that the majority of students from the three levels have a favorite English writer like Shakespeare, Jane Austin, Paulo Coelho, Peter Roach, John Green, and Agatha Christy, Mark Twain, Jack London, Charles Dickens, Earnest Hemingway, Dostoevsky, George Orwell

Q 18: Do you have a favorite English Journalist?

Table 3.24

Students' Responses to whether they have a favorite English Writer.

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	0	0	1	9,09	0	0
No	11	100	10	90,90	11	100
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Table (3.24) show that the majority of students from the three levels do not have any favorite English journalist, except a second year student who said that he/she has a favorite one, the CNN journalist Richard Quest.

The results confirm what has been found in table (3.23) which indicates that most students read novels and stories.

Q 19: Do you have a favorite academic author?

Table 3.25

Students' Responses to whether they have a favorite Academic Author.

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	2	18,18	5	45,45	2	18,18
No	9	81,81	6	54,54	9	81,81
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

The results in table (3.25) demonstrate the following

- (18,18%) of first year students said they have a favorite academic author, while (81,81%) said they have not.
- For second year, (45,45%) of students asserted that they have a favorite academic author, whereas (54,54%) of them said they have no favorite one.
- The majority of third year students (81,81%) said that they have no favorite academic writer. Only two students asserted that they have.

These results show that the majority of students who have a favorite academic author are from second year. These results confirm what has been found previously in tables (3.18), (3.19) and (3.20). The students' favorite academic author is Peter Roach.

Q 20: What are your goals behind choosing a particular reading material?

This question is much more concerned with the activities that students would like to do with a reading material. Results are presented in the following table.

Table 3.26

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
a	0	0	0	0	0	0
b	1	9,09	0	0	2	18,18
c	2	18,18	3	27,27	1	9,09
d	1	9,09	0	0	0	0
e	7	63,63	7	63,63	7	9,09

f	0	0	1	9,09	1	63,63
g	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Students' Goals behind Choosing a particular Reading Material.

This table concerns the activities students would like to do with a reading material. When we ask them about their goals behind selecting a specific text to read,

- (63,63%) of first year students share the same goal which is to improve their proficiency in English, (18,18%) of them asserted that their goal behind reading a particular material is to extract and discuss different themes and ideas.
- In second year, the majority of students (63,63%) claimed that the reason behind choosing a particular reading material is to improve their proficiency in English. Whereas, (27,27%) of them said they choose that reading material in order to extract and discuss the different themes and ideas. Only one student said that the reason behind choosing a particular reading material is for pleasure.
- The majority of third year students (63,63%) asserted that their goal behind reading a particular material is to read for pleasure, while (18,18%) of them choosed it in order to explain difficult vocabulary, and (9,09%) of them said they read to improve their proficiency in English. Only one student asserted that he/she chooses that material in order to extract and discuss the different themes and ideas.

The results above show that, first and second year students have a common goal behind choosing a particular reading material. In which, they consider it as a way to improve their proficiency in English. Whereas, third year students claim that their goal behind selecting a specific material is to read for pleasure.

Section 05: Autonomy in Reading

Q 21: do you like to read

Table 3.27

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
a	2	18,18	1	9,09	2	18,18
b	3	27,27	6	54,54	8	72,72
c	6	54,54	4	36,36	1	9,09
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Students Choice of Materials

The table (3.27) shows that,

- More than half of the participants (54,54%) of first year students read both, what teachers ask them to read and what they want to read (self-selected). (18,18%) of them read only what teachers ask them to read, because they consider their teacher as the impetus to read. He plays an important role in reading engagement, thus students see reading as an obligatory task. However, (27,27%) indicated that they choose what they want to read.
- The majority of second year students (54,54%) asserted that they choose the materials they want to read. (36,36%) of them confirmed that they read both, what teachers ask and what they want to read. Only one participant asserts that he/she reads what his/her teachers ask to read.

LEARNERS' MOTIVATION AND THEIR AUTONOMY IN READING⁸¹

- The majority of third year students (72,72%) tended to choose materials they want to read. Those students are usually intrinsically motivated and they want to have deep understanding of what they are reading. (18,18%) of them read what teachers ask them to read. Only one student said that he/she reads both, what teachers ask him/her and chooses what he/she likes to read.

Concerning the results above, we have deduced that third year students are more autonomous than the others are. They prefer choosing their own materials.

Q 22: When you stumble upon difficulties in reading, whom do you turn to for assistance?

Table 3.28

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
a	2	18,18	1	18,18	2	18,18
b	2	18,18	4	36,36	7	63,63
c	1	9,09	4	36,36	0	0
d	0	0	0	0	0	0
e	6	54,54	2	18,18	2	18,18
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Students' Responses to whom They turn to for Assistance.

The results in table (3.28) indicate the following:

LEARNERS' MOTIVATION AND THEIR AUTONOMY IN READING82

- More than half of first year participants (54,54%) said they rely on the Internet when stumbling upon difficulties. (18,18%) of them asserted that they rely on themselves, and (18,18%) of them said they turn to their teachers.
- (36,36%) of second year students asserted that they rely on themselves when they face difficulties in reading. The same ratio was recorded for those who said they rely on their classmates. Also, (18,18%) of them say they use the internet to solve the difficulties they face.
- The majority of third year students (63,63%) asserted that they rely on themselves. (18,18%) of them claimed that they rely on internet, and (18,18%) of them relied on their teachers.

The results above confirm that third year students are more autonomous and self-dependent in their reading when they stumble upon difficulties they rely either on themselves or on the internet.

Q 23: As a student of English, do you feel that the time for reading is

Sufficient less sufficient largely sufficient

Table 3.29

Students' Feeling about the Time They have for Reading.

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sufficient	4	36,36	6	54,54	2	18,18
Less sufficient	6	54,54	5	45,45	9	81,81
Largely sufficient	1	9,09	0	0	0	0
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Table (3.29) indicates that,

- The majority of first year students (54,54%) claimed that the time they have for reading is not sufficient. (36,36%) said that they have sufficient time, and (9,09%) of them asserted that the time they have for reading is largely sufficient.
- In second year, the majority of students (54,54%) said that they have enough time for reading, while (45,45%) of them claimed that it is not sufficient.
- For third year students, we have recorded nine students (81,81%) who said that they do not have sufficient time for reading. Whereas, (18,18%) of them asserted that they have sufficient time to read.

Concerning the results above, we have concluded that third year students are not satisfied about the devoted time for reading. However, second year students are satisfied with the time they have.

Q 24: Do you think that you will devote more time to read a particular author?

Table 3.30

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	6	54,54	7	63,63	9	81,81
No	5	45,45	4	36,36	2	18,18
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Students' Responses if They will devote more time to read a particular Author.

Table (3.30) shows that,

- More than half students of first year students said that they will devote some of their time to read a particular author. While (45,45%) said they will not do so.
- The majority of second year students asserted that they devote more time to read for a particular author. Whereas, (36,36%) of them said that they will not.
- (81,81%) of third year students asserted that they will devote more time to read a particular author. (18,18%) of them, said they will not do so.

From the results above, we can say that the majority of students from the three levels assert that they will devote more time to read a particular author.

Q 25: Has reading contributed to improve your level in proficiency?

Table 3.31

Students' Responses about if reading has contributed to improve their Level in

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	11	100	11	100	9	81,81
No	0	0	0	0	2	18,18
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Proficiency.

Table (3.31) shows that, all of first and second year students asserted that reading has contributed to improve their level of proficiency. Whereas, (18,18%) of third year students said that it does not improve their level of proficiency.

Q 26: Has reading contributed to your academic success?

Table 3.32

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	11	100	11	100	9	81,81
No	0	0	0	0	2	18,18
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Students' Responses about if reading has contributed to their Academic Success.

Table (3.32) shows that, both of first and second year students asserted that reading has contributed to their academic success. However, two participants of third year student (18,18%) said the opposite.

Q 27: Do you think that reading will be useful to you in your future professional career?

Table 3.33:

Students' Prediction about the Usefulness of Reading in their future Professional Career.

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	11	100	11	100	10	90,90
No	0	0	0	0	1	9,09
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

Table (3.33) demonstrates that, both of first and second year students said that reading will be useful in their future professional career. Whereas, one participant of third year did not agree with them.

Q 28: Once you finish your studies, what are the materials you would like to read in English?

Table 3.34

Students' Responses about the Type of Materials they would like to use once they finish

Options	First year English students		Second year English students		Third year English students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
a	2	36,36	0	0	2	18,18
b	5	45,45	2	18,18	4	36,36
c	0	0	5	45,45	1	9,09
d	4	36,36	4	36,36	2	18,18
e	1	9,09	0	0	2	18,18
Total	11	100	11	100	11	100

their studies

This table demonstrates the following:

- For first year students, we have recorded that the ratio of students who claimed that they would like to read novels is the same as the ratio recorded for those whom say they like to read books related to their field of study. Whereas, (18,18%) of them said they would like reading newspapers and magazines. Only one participant said that he/she will read other materials such as religious books.
- The majority of second year students (45,45%) said that they will read academic books, and (36,36%) of them said they will read books that are related to their study field. (18,18%) of them assert that they will read novels.

- The majority of third year students (36,36%) said that they would like to read novels, (18,18%) of them said they will read newspapers and magazines, and (18,18%) said they would like to read books that are related to their study field. Whereas, (18,18%) of them asserted that they will use other materials for reading like religious books.

Concerning the results above, we have deduced that first year students do not have the same idea about the materials they would like to read in English in the future. That is, they prefer either novels or books that are related to their study field. However, the majority of second year students like to read academic books. The majority of third year students say that they will read novels, newspapers and magazines. These results confirm that third year students tend to be autonomous learners.

3.3 Interpretations and Analysis

After the statistical reading of the obtained results from students' answers to questionnaires, and after analysing their responses, it has been found that the majority of EFL learners from the three levels are motivated to learn the English language. That is why they have a positive attitude towards reading. Although they make use of different resources while reading, some of them said that they read frequently. Thus, they perceive a good level in reading, see tables (3.6), (3.10) and (3.12).

Since reading strategies are of great importance for students' academic success as well as their proficiency, training on using those strategies is also of great importance. However, the results we have reached indicated that the majority of second and third year students have not been trained on using them. On the contrary, first year students are found to be trained. The absence of a module that promotes reading at the Algerian Universities affects students' use of those strategies. This is the reason why the majority of second and third year students tend to use a common strategy, which is

guessing the general idea from the title, or simply, do not use any strategy and only decide to read the text or not.

Moreover, the results obtained from both questionnaires show that, students' motivation differs from one level to another. As a result, students have different reasons behind reading. For instance, first year students who seem to be gradually extrinsic in their motivation are found to have tendency to read, either for enriching their vocabulary, or for improving their academic knowledge. However, second year students are found to be extrinsically motivated, they use reading in order to enrich their vocabulary, as well as to expose themselves to the language. In other words, even though second year students learn English to get a good job, they tend to be aware of the importance of improving their language proficiency. The statistics reveal that, Third year students are intrinsically motivated. As a result, they have a tendency towards reading for pleasure. They have generally a positive attitude towards reading outside the requirements of their university courses, see table (3.20), (3.21), (3.22). That is why they rely on themselves in using their reading materials, and when they stumble upon difficulties, they tend to rely on themselves and on the internet. As the results show, third year students are more autonomous and self-dependent in their studies compared to first and second year students.

The analysis of both questionnaires reveal that, there is a relationship between motivation and the construction of learners' autonomy in reading. This relationship was best shown in the case of third year students who are both intrinsically motivated and autonomous readers. In other words, intrinsic motivation has a relationship with the construction of learners' motivation in reading.

3.4 Limitations

During this study, we have encountered some difficulties, among them:

- Some of students' questionnaires were not handed.
- The lack of time in conducting our piece of research.
- Problems and difficulties in analysing this study (cross-sectional study), and in finding the best way to present the data we have collected from students' both questionnaires.

Conclusion

In this study, we dealt with the relationship between motivation and the construction of learners' autonomy in reading. We have measured the motivation of the three level students, gathered and analysed the data we obtained about their proficiency in reading, the strategies they use, their aims for which they read, the materials they choose to read. Finally, we investigated their autonomy in reading. The findings of the data analysis show that there is a correlation between motivation and learners' autonomy in reading

4. Recommendations

These recommendations are drawn from our observations to the outcomes of students' questionnaires:

- Teachers should help learners develop strategies that serve their needs and interests.
- Teachers should raise their students' awareness about reading strategies, and train them on how to benefit from their use to develop learners' self-reliance sense. Thus, strategy training should be given great importance in the curriculum.

LEARNERS' MOTIVATION AND THEIR AUTONOMY IN READING⁹⁰

- First and second year students should be encouraged to be intrinsically motivated in order to be more autonomous in their reading.
- Course designers should include a module that serves the promotion of reading as a skill in the curriculum.
- Students need to develop the habit of reading for their own interests and needs to enjoy reading.
- Students should be independent and self-reliant in their reading.
- Students should be encouraged to read all sorts of books; in order to discover the different styles of reading materials.

General Conclusion

The present study aimed at investigating the relationship between motivation and the construction of learner's autonomy in reading. It comprised three main chapters, chapter one and two were about the literature review of the two variables of this study, whereas, the third chapter was devoted to the practical side of this work as well as the results obtained from the data collection procedures.

The first chapter brought to light the definition of motivation, a historical overview of motivation theories in which, we divided these theories into two main periods. The first period is the Social Psychological Period and the second one is the Cognitive Situated Period. In addition, this chapter introduced the types of motivation and the role of motivation in L2 proficiency.

The second chapter consisted of different definitions of autonomy, reading and a definition of autonomy in reading. Also, this chapter showed the different types of reading, reading purposes and shed light on the importance of the reading skill, reading models, reading strategies (RS) with its definition and some examples of them.

The final chapter of this dissertation is concerned with the practical part, which included the methods of data collection, students' questionnaire of both motivation and autonomy in reading, along with the results, analysis and interpretations. Motivation questionnaire was adapted from the Language Learning Orientations Scale which is a standard test of motivation, while the second one was designed by the authors of the present dissertation. Both questionnaires were administrated to forty-five students, fifteen questionnaires for each level (first, second and third year) at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University-Jijel.

The results of this study confirmed largely the hypothesis; the higher students are motivated in learning English, the more autonomous they become in reading in this language.

The study showed that students' motivation differs from one level to another and this makes their choices of reading vary. From this cross-sectional study, we can say that learners' autonomy in reading correlates strongly with their motivation to learn the language. The results of this study revealed that third year students are far more autonomous and self-dependent in their studies than the students belonging to the others sub-categories of our sample. More specifically, the analysis of the results have shown the existence of a particular type of motivation, intrinsic motivation, among the third year students in our sample who also demonstrated the highest levels of autonomy in reading. Therefore, we may say that teachers should strive to foster this type of motivation, intrinsic motivation, that is, in order to insure their students will develop the highest levels of autonomy in reading.

References

- Abresold, J., & Field, M. (1997). *From reader to reading teacher*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Alderson, J. C. (2000). *Assessing reading*. Cambridge: Cambridge University.
- Bamford, J., & Day, R. (2004). *Extensive reading in the second language classroom*. USA: Cambridge.
- Barnett, M. A. (1989). More than meets the eye, foreign language reading: Theory and practice. *Prentice Hall Regents: Center for Applied Linguistic*. ERIC Clearinghouse.
- Bencharef, S. (2009). *The teacher as a motivational factor in enhancing students' communicative proficiency*. (Unpublished Magister Dissertation). University of Biskra.
- Benson, P. (2001). *Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning*. London: Longman.
- Bray, B., & McClaskey, K. (2016, March). Continuum of motivation: moving from extrinsic to intrinsic. *Personalize Learning*. Retrieved from <http://www.personalizelearning.com/2016/03/continuum-of-motivation-moving-from.html>
- Brophy, J. (2016). *Motivating students to learn* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge 270 Madison Avenue.
- Brown, D. (1988). *A world of books: An annotated reading list for ESL/ EFL Students*. Washington. D.C: TESOL.

Brown, H. D. (1989). *A practical guide to language learning*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (4th ed.). San Francisco State University: Longman.

Burbia, R. (2010). *Prediction as a reading strategy and its use by third year students of English*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Mentouri University, Constantine, Algeria.

Burstall, C. (1975). Factors affecting foreign language learning: A consideration of some relevant findings. *Cambridge Journals*, 8, 5-25. doi: 101017/S0261444800002585

Carrel, P. L., & Eisterhold, J. C. (1989). Introduction: Interactive approaches to second language reading. In Carrel, J. D., & Eskey, D. (Eds.). *Interactive approaches to second language reading* (pp. 1-7). Cambridge: C.U.P.

Clément, R., & Kruidenier, F. B. (1985). Aptitudes, attitude and motivation in second language proficiency: A test of Clément Model. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 4(1), 21-37.

Cohen, A. D. (1986). Mentalistic measures in reading strategy research: Some recent findings. *English for Specific Purposes*, 5(2), 131-145.

Colak, A. (2008). *Attitudes, motivation and study habits of English language learners: The case study of Baskent University second year students*. (Unpublished Master Thesis). Middle East Technical University.

Crookes, G., & Schmidt, R. W. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language Learning*, 41(4), 469-512.

Davies, F. (1995). *Introducing reading*. Cambridge: Penguin Group.

Day, R. R., & Bamford, J. (1998). *Extensive reading in the second language classroom*.

Ernst Klett Sprachen.

Dechant, E. (1991). *Understanding and teaching reading: An interactive model*.

Hillsdale, N.J: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan R. M. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. *Classic Definitions and New Directions Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 54-67.

Dickinson, L. (1995). *Autonomy and motivation: A literature review*. Great Britain:

Pergamon.

Dornyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language. *Language teaching*.

Cambridge Journals, 31, 117-135. doi: 10.1017/S026144480001315X

Dornyei, Z. (2000). *Teaching and researching motivation*. Harlow: Longman.

Dornyei, Z. (2003). Attitudes, orientations, and motivation in language learning:

Advances in theory research and applications. *Language Learning*, 53(1), 3-32

doi: 10.1111/1467-9922.53222.

Dornyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences*

in second language acquisition. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates

Inc.

Dornyei, Z., & Otto, I. (1998). *Motivation in action: A model of L2 motivation, working*

papers in Applied Linguistics. London: Thomas Valley University.

Dornyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). *Teaching and researching motivation* (2nd ed.).

Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.

Dornyei, Z., Cizer, K., & Németh, N. (2006). *Motivation, language attitudes and globalization: A Hungarian perspective*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Dwaik, R., & Shehadeh, A. (2010). *Motivation types among EFL college students: Insight from the Palestinian context*. Herbon: Polytechnic University, 24(1), 334-360.

Esky, D. (2005). *Reading in a second language*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.

Gardner, R. C. (2001, February). *Integrative motivation: Past, present & future*. Paper presented at the Distinguished Lecturer Series, Western Ontario University, Canada. Retrieved from <https://www.google.dz/url?sa=2FGardnerPublicLecture1.pdf>

Gardner, R. C. (2010). *Motivation and second language acquisition: The socio-educational model*. New York: Peter LARG Publishing.

Gardner, R. C., & Lalonde, R. N. (1985, August). *Second language acquisition: A social psychological perspective*. Paper presented at the 93rd Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Los Angeles, CA. Retrieved on from <https://www.google.dz/url?sa=2Ffulltext%2FED262624.pdf>

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1959). Motivation variables in second language acquisition. *Cambridge Journal of Psychology*, 13(4), 266-272. doi: 10.1037/h0083787

- Ghilani, N. H. (2015). *Enhancing students' reading comprehension through extensive reading*. (Master dissertation). Kheider University, Biskra, Algeria.
- Glendenning, B., & Holmstron, L. (2004). *Study reading*. UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Goodman, J. W. (1968). *Introduction to fourier optics*. New York: Mc Graw Hill.
- Grabe, W. (1988). 4 Reassessing the term "Interactive". *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading*, 56.
- Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. (2002). *Teaching and researching reading*. London: Pearson Education Inc.
- Harmer, J. (2001). *The practice of English language teaching* (3rd ed.). UK: Longman.
- Harmer, J. (2007). *How to teach English*. UK: Longman.
- Harwood, N. (2010). *English language teaching materials: Theory and practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy in foreign language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Keblawi, F. (2006). Motivational orientations, attitudes, and demotivation: A review of language learning motivation theories. *Aberdeen University Press*, 12, 26-27.
- Kern, R. G. (1988). *The role of comprehension strategies in foreign language reading*. (Doctoral Dissertation). University of California, Berkeley.
- Kharaghani, N. (2013). *Learner autonomy and language curriculum development in post method*. Kuala Lumpur: Proceeding of the Global Summit on Education.
- Lems, K., Leah, D. M., & Soro, M. (2009). *Teaching reading to English language learners*. The Guilford Press.

Little, D. (2004). Constructing a theory of learner autonomy: Some steps along the way.

In Makinen, K., Kaikkonen, P., & Kohonen, V. (Eds.), *Future perspectives in foreign language education*. Oulu: Publications of the Faculty of Education in Oulu University, 101, 15-25.

Masgoret, A. M., & Gardner, R. G. (2003). Attitudes, motivation and second language

learning: A meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and Associates. *Language Learning*, 53, 167-210.

Matsubara, J. & Lehtinen, B. (2007): *Promoting autonomy in a reading classroom*.

Kanada University of International Studies, Japan.

May, C. (2010). *Explicit instruction of reading strategies that enable EFL learners to*

achieve comprehension in reading. (Unpublished master thesis). Mentouri University, Constantine, Algeria.

McNamara, D. S. (2007). *Reading comprehension strategies: theories, interactions,*

and technologies. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Mikulecky, B., & Jeffries, L. (2005). *More reading power*. London: Longman.

Motivation. (2016). In *Merriam-Webster.com*. Retrieved from

<http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/motivation>

Nasri, Sh. (2013). *The effect of reading strategies in improving the EFL students'*

reading skill. (Master dissertation). Kheider University, Biskra, Algeria.

Norris-Holt, J. (2001, June). Motivation as a contributing factor in second language

acquisition. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 7(6). Retrieved from

<http://itselj.org/Articles/Norris-motivation.html>

Orr, F. (1992). *Study skills for successful students*. North Sydney: Allen & Unwin.

Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*.

New York: New Bury House.

Pae, T. (2008). Second language orientations and self-determination theory: A structural analysis of the factors affecting second language achievement. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 27*, 5-27.

Qashoa, S. H. (2006). *Motivation among learners of English in the secondary schools in the Eastern Coast of the UEA*. Institute of Education, British University: Dubai.

Reid, G. (2007). *Motivating learners in classroom: Ideas and strategies*. London: Open University Press.

Richard, J., Platt, J., & Weber, H. (1985). *Longman dictionary of Applied Linguistics*. Essex: Longman Group Limited.

Rumelhart, D. E. (1977). Toward an interactive model of reading. In Dornic, S. (Eds.). *Attention and performance VI*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Salvin, (2003). *Educational psychology: Theory and practice*. USA: Pearson Education.

Shamila, A. H. (2010). *Importance of reading comprehension in second language learning*. Molbusan Learning Online.

Skudienne, V. (2002). A comparison of reading models, their application to the classroom and the impact on comprehension. *Journal of Studies about Languages, 2*, 94-98.

Stanovich, K. (1980). Toward an interactive comprehension model of individual differences in the development of reading fluency. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 16, 32-71.

Tavakoli, H. (2012). *Dictionary of language acquisition: A comprehensive overview of key terms in first and second language acquisition*. Iran: Rahnama Press.

Tercanlioglu, L. (2004). Postgraduate students' use of reading strategies in L2 and ESL context: Links to success. *International Education Journal*, 5, 562-570.

Traves, P. (1994). *Reading*. London: Routledge.

Vacca, J. A. L., Vacca, R. T., Gove, M. K., Burkey, L. C., Lenhart, L. A., & Mckee, C. A. (2006). *Reading and learning to read* (6th ed.). USA.

William, M., & Burden, R. L. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers: A social constructivist approach*. UK: Cambridge University Press.

Yamashita, J. (2004). Reading attitudes in L1 and L2, and their influence on L2, and their influence on L2 extensive reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language*. 6(1).

Appendix A: Students' Motivation Test (LLOS)

This section contains a number of reasons why one might study the English language. Beside each one of the following statements, write the number from the scale which best indicates the degree to which the stated reason corresponds with one of your reasons for learning the English language. Remember that there are no right or wrong answers, since many people have different opinions.

Does not correspond	Corresponds very little	Corresponds a little	Corresponds moderately	Corresponds a lot	Corresponds almost exactly	Corresponds exactly
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- a. _____ I cannot come to see why I study the English language, and frankly, I do not give a damn.
- b. _____ Honestly, I do not know, I truly have the impression of wasting my time in studying the English language.
- c. _____ I do not know; I cannot come to understand what I am doing studying the English language.
- d. _____ In order to get a more prestigious job later on.
- e. _____ In order to have a better salary later on.
- f. _____ Because I have the impression that it is expected of me.
- g. _____ Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak more than one language.
- h. _____ For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult exercises in the English language.

- i. _____ For pleasure I experience when surpassing myself in my English language studies.
- j. _____ Because I enjoy the feeling of acquiring knowledge about the the English language community and their way of life.
- k. _____ For the satisfied feeling I get in finding out new things.

AppendixB:Students'Questionnaire

Dear students,

We are conducting this research as a part of the requirements of a Master degree in Applied Linguistics. Our study aims at studying the relationship between learners' of English motivation and their proficiency in reading in the target language. You do not need to write your name because we are interested only in your answers to this questionnaire; the success of our research work depends on the sincerity of your answers. Please tick (X) the appropriate box (es) or give the full answer(s) whenever needed.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Department of Letters and the English Language

Faculty of Letters and Languages

University of Mohamed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel.

General information

- Gender :

€ Male

€ Female

- Level

€ First year

€ Second year

€ Thirdyear

Section One: Proficiency in Reading

1. Do you like to read?

€ Yes

€ No

2. How do you evaluate your level in reading?

€ Excellent

€ Good

€ Average

€ Bad

3. In which language do you prefer to read?

€ Your mothertongue

€ English

€ Both of them

€ Other, please specify

4. How often do you read in English as a part of the requirements of your university course?

€ Frequently

€ Sometimes

€ Rarely

€ Never

5. How often do you read in English outside the requirements of your university course?

€ Frequently

€ Sometimes

€ Rarely

€ Never

6. How often do you read in English per week?

€ Everyday

€ Frequently

€ Rarely

€ Never

7. How many pages do you read per week?

€ Less than 50 pages

€ Less than 100 pages

€ More than 100 pages

8. The books you read are from

€ The library

€ The internet

€ Books you buy

€ Other, please specify

9. What are the elements that encourage you to read on a particular text or book?

€ The writer

€ The title

€ The plot

€ The language and style

€ Someone praised the text/ book

Section Two : Reading Strategies

10. Have you been trained on reading strategies?

€ Yes

€ No

- If yes, have you found what you have been learnt on useful?

€ Yes

€ No

- If no, do you feel the need to be trained?

€ Yes

€ No

11. Which strategy do you mostly use in reading?

€ Guess the general idea from the title

€ Predict the content by linking previous knowledge with the new information

€ Read the first and the last part of the text

€ Do not use any of the above, simply decide to read it or not

12. Has the strategy you use in your reading changed as your proficiency in English has developed?

€ Yes

€ No

€ If yes, please specify

13. Do you think that you need to follow a specific strategy in order to be effective in reading?

€ Yes

€ No

Section Three: Aims of Reading

14. How would you classify the following reasons for reading?

(Order the statements using numbers from 1 to 5 in items of their importance to you)

<i>Options</i>	<i>Aspects</i>	<i>N°</i>
a)	It is a part of a class assignments	
b)	For pleasure	
c)	For academicknowledge	
d)	I would like to enrich my vocabulary	
e)	I would like to expose myself to the language	
f)	I would like to acquire new ideas	

Section Four: Reading Materials

15. Which type of materials do you read in your mother tongue?

- € Novels and stories
- € Academic books
- € Newspapers and magazines
- € Information books
- € Poems
- € Fiction books
- € Other, please specify.....

16. Which type of materials do you read in English?

- € Novels and stories
- € Academic books
- € Newspapers and magazines

- € Information books
- € Poems
- € Fiction books
- € Other, please specify

17. Do you have a favorite English writer?

- € Yes
- € No

-If yes, please specify.....

18. Do you have a favorite English journalist?

- € Yes
- € No

-If yes, please specify

19. Do you have a favorite academic author?

- € Yes
- € No

-If yes, please specify

20. What is your goal behind choosing a particular reading material?

- € To do comprehension exercises
- € To explain difficult vocabulary
- € To extract and discuss the different themes and ideas
- € To use it as a model in writing assignment
- € To improve your proficiency in English
- € For pleasure
- € Other, please specify

Section Five: Autonomy in Reading

21. Do you like to read

What teachers ask you to read

A self selected material

Both of them

22. When you stumble upon difficulties in reading, whom do you turn to for assistance?

Your teacher

On yourself

Your classmates

Your parents

Internet

23. As a student of English, do you feel that the time for reading is

Sufficient

Less sufficient

Largely sufficient

24. Do you think that you will devote more time to read a particular author?

Yes

No

-If yes, please specify

25. Has reading contributed to improve your level of proficiency?

Yes

No

26. Has reading contributed to your academic success?

Yes

No

27. Do you think that reading will be useful to you in your future professional career?

Yes

No

28. Once you finish your studies, what are the materials you would like to read in English?

Newspapers and magazines

Novels

Academic books

Books related to your study field

Other, please specify

Résumé

Atteindre un haut niveau d'autonomie en lecture joue un grand rôle pour le succès des étudiants. Il est probablement la seule assurance qui va continuer à apprendre après l'obtention du diplôme. La promotion de l'autonomie des élèves en lecture a toujours été une tâche ardue pour les enseignants d'anglais, en particulier dans un contexte de langue étrangère comme le nôtre. En l'absence d'un module qui ciblent spécifiquement le développement de l'autonomie des étudiants en lecture, la seule option pour les enseignants à promouvoir des niveaux élevés de compétence dans cette compétence importante chez les apprenants, et pour les aider à devenir des lecteurs autonomes à l'intérieur et après l'obtention du diplôme est la sensibilisation et la motivation. Afin d'étudier cette thèse, ce travail vise à étudier la corrélation entre la motivation des apprenants et leur construction de l'autonomie en lecture. Nous émettons l'hypothèse que les étudiants plus élevés sont motivés pour apprendre l'anglais, plus ils deviennent autonomes en lecture. Afin de vérifier cette hypothèse, nous avons utilisé deux instruments de recherche, une échelle de motivation et un questionnaire de notre propre conception afin de mesurer la motivation des apprenants et leur autonomie dans la lecture, respectivement. Ces deux instruments de recherche ont été administrés à un échantillon transversal des apprenants représentant les trois niveaux d'étudiants de l'anglais de licence à l'Université de Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia- Jijel. Les résultats obtenus ont soutenu l'hypothèse avancée dans cette recherche ; il existe une forte corrélation entre la motivation intrinsèque et la construction de l'autonomie des apprenants en lecture.

يعتبر تحقيق مستوى عال من الاستقلالية في القراءة مهارة أساسية ومهمة من أجل نجاح طلاب الجامعة، وعلى الأرجح ستبقى المهارة الوحيدة التي سترافق الطالب بعد التخرج. غير أن تعزيز ذاتية واستقلالية القراءة لدى الطالب لطالما كانت مهمة شاقة كثيرا ما يواجهها الأساتذة أثناء التدريس. لذا فإن الخيار الوحيد المتبقي أمام الأساتذة هو السعي ومحاولة تعزيز مستويات الكفاءة بين الطلاب ومساعدتهم على بناء استقلالية في القراءة خلال وبعد التخرج. لذا، يهدف هذا العمل إلى التحقيق في ماهية العلاقة بين التحفيز واستقلالية المتعلم في القراءة، بافتراض أنه كلما ارتفع تحفيز الطلاب كلما أصبحوا أكثر استقلالية في . من أجل التحقق من الفرضية، قمنا باستخدام استبيانين حيث تم توزيعهما على مجموعة من طلاب السنة الأولى، الثانية والثالثة ليسانس تخصص انجليزية في جامعة محمد الصديق بن يحيى بجيج . هذا وقد أثبتت النتائج المتحصل عليها صحة الفرضية التي تم وضعها سابقا، وأنه بالفعل توجد علاقة بين التحفيز تحديدا التحفيز الذاتي وبين الإستقلالية في القراءة .